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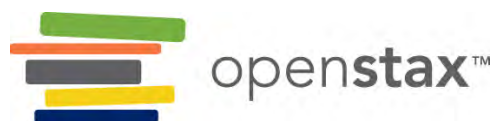
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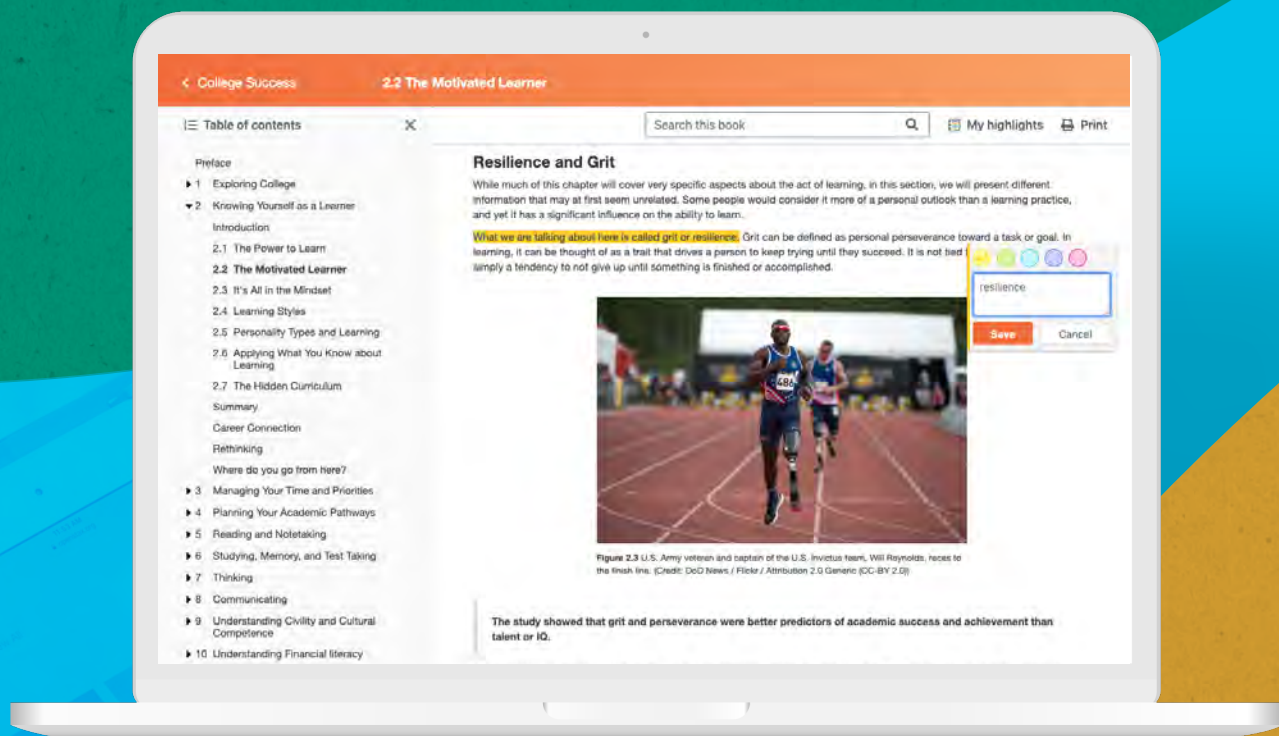
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PREFACE

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College Physics for AP[®] Courses 2e is designed to engage students in their exploration of physics and help them apply these concepts to the Advanced Placement[®] test. Because physics is integral to modern technology and other sciences, the book also includes content that goes beyond the scope of the AP[®] course to further student understanding. The AP[®] Connection in each chapter directs students to the material they should focus on for the AP[®] exam, and what content — although interesting — is not necessarily part of the AP[®] curriculum. This book is Learning List-approved for AP[®] Physics courses.

This content features enhancements from *TEA AP[®] Physics 1 & 2: Algebra-Based* by TEA (Texas Education Agency).

Coverage, scope, and alignment to the AP[®] curriculum

The current AP[®] Physics curriculum framework outlines the two full-year physics courses AP[®] Physics 1: Algebra-Based and AP[®] Physics 2: Algebra-Based. These two courses replaced the one-year AP[®] Physics B course, which over the years had become a fast-paced survey of physics facts and formulas that did not

provide in-depth conceptual understanding of major physics ideas and the connections between them.

AP[®] Physics 1 and 2 courses focus on the big ideas typically included in the first and second semesters of an algebra-based, introductory college-level physics course, providing students with the essential knowledge and skills required to support future advanced course work in physics. The AP[®] Physics 1 curriculum includes mechanics, mechanical waves, sound, and electrostatics. The AP[®] Physics 2 curriculum focuses on thermodynamics, fluid statics, dynamics, electromagnetism, geometric and physical optics, quantum physics, atomic physics, and nuclear physics. Seven unifying themes of physics called the Big Ideas each include three to seven enduring understandings (EU), which are themselves composed of essential knowledge (EK) that provides details and context for students as they explore physics.

AP[®] science practices emphasize inquiry-based learning and development of critical thinking and reasoning skills. Inquiry usually uses a series of steps to gain new knowledge, beginning with an observation and following with a hypothesis to explain the observation; then experiments are conducted to test the hypothesis, gather results, and draw conclusions from data. The AP[®] framework has identified seven major science practices, which can be described by short phrases: using representations and models to communicate information and solve problems; using mathematics appropriately; engaging in questioning; planning and implementing data collection strategies; analyzing and evaluating data; justifying scientific explanations; and connecting concepts. The framework's Learning Objectives merge content (EU and EK) with one or more of the seven science practices that students should develop as they prepare for the AP[®] Physics exam.

College Physics for AP[®] Courses 2e is based on the OpenStax *College Physics* text, adapted to focus on the AP curriculum's concepts and practices. Each chapter of OpenStax *College Physics for AP[®] Courses 2e* begins with a *Connection for AP[®] Courses* introduction that explains how the content in the chapter sections align to the Big Ideas, enduring understandings, and essential knowledge in the AP[®] framework. This textbook contains a wealth of information, and the *Connection for AP[®] Courses* sections will help you distill the required AP[®] content from material that, although interesting, exceeds the scope of an introductory-level course.

Each section opens with the program's learning

objectives as well as the AP[®] learning objectives and science practices addressed. We have also developed *Real World Connections* features and *Applying the Science Practices* features that highlight concepts, examples, and practices in the framework.

- 1 Introduction: The Nature of Science and Physics
- 2 Kinematics
- 3 Two-Dimensional Kinematics
- 4 Dynamics: Force and Newton's Laws of Motion
- 5 Further Applications of Newton's Laws: Friction, Drag, and Elasticity
- 6 Gravitation and Uniform Circular Motion
- 7 Work, Energy, and Energy Resources
- 8 Linear Momentum and Collisions
- 9 Statics and Torque
- 10 Rotational Motion and Angular Momentum
- 11 Fluid Statics
- 12 Fluid Dynamics and Its Biological and Medical Applications
- 13 Temperature, Kinetic Theory, and the Gas Laws
- 14 Heat and Heat Transfer Methods
- 15 Thermodynamics
- 16 Oscillatory Motion and Waves
- 17 Physics of Hearing
- 18 Electric Charge and Electric Field
- 19 Electric Potential and Electric Field
- 20 Electric Current, Resistance, and Ohm's Law
- 21 Circuits, Bioelectricity, and DC Instruments
- 22 Magnetism
- 23 Electromagnetic Induction, AC Circuits, and Electrical Technologies
- 24 Electromagnetic Waves
- 25 Geometric Optics
- 26 Vision and Optical Instruments
- 27 Wave Optics
- 28 Special Relativity
- 29 Introduction to Quantum Physics
- 30 Atomic Physics
- 31 Radioactivity and Nuclear Physics
- 32 Medical Applications of Nuclear Physics
- 33 Particle Physics
- 34 Frontiers of Physics
- Appendix A: Atomic Masses
- Appendix B: Selected Radioactive Isotopes
- Appendix C: Useful Information
- Appendix D: Glossary of Key Symbols and Notation

Pedagogical foundation and features

College Physics for AP[®] Courses 2e is organized so that topics are introduced conceptually with a steady progression to precise definitions and analytical applications. The analytical, problem-solving aspect is tied back to the conceptual before moving on to

another topic. Each introductory chapter, for example, opens with an engaging photograph relevant to the subject of the chapter and interesting applications that are easy for most students to visualize.

- **Connections for AP® Courses** introduce each chapter and explain how its content addresses the AP® curriculum.
- **Worked Examples** Examples start with problems based on real-life situations, then describe a strategy for solving the problem that emphasizes key concepts. The subsequent detailed mathematical solution also includes a follow-up discussion.
- **Problem-solving Strategies** are presented independently and subsequently appear at crucial points in the text where students can benefit most from them.
- **Misconception Alerts** address common misconceptions that students may bring to class.
- **Take-Home Investigations** provide the opportunity for students to apply or explore what they have learned with a hands-on activity.
- **Real World Connections** highlight important concepts and examples in the AP® framework.
- **Applying the Science Practices** includes activities and challenging questions that engage students while they apply the AP® science practices.
- **Things Great and Small** explains macroscopic phenomena (such as air pressure) with submicroscopic phenomena (such as atoms bouncing off of walls).
- **PhET Explorations** link students to interactive PhET physics simulations, developed by the University of Colorado, to help them further explore the physics concepts they have learned about in their book module.

Assessment

College Physics for AP® Courses 2e offers a wealth of assessment options, including the following end-of-module problems:

- **Integrated Concept Problems** challenge students to apply both conceptual knowledge and skills to solve a problem.
- **Unreasonable Results** encourage students to solve a problem and then evaluate why the premise or answer to the problem are unrealistic.
- **Construct Your Own Problem** requires students to construct how to solve a particular problem, justify their starting assumptions, show their steps to find the solution to the problem, and finally discuss the meaning of the result.
- **Test Prep for AP® Courses** includes assessment

items with the format and rigor found in the AP® exam to help prepare students for the exam.

AP Physics Collection

College Physics for AP® Courses 2e is a part of the AP Physics Collection. The AP Physics Collection is a free, turnkey solution for your AP® Physics course, brought to you through a collaboration between OpenStax and Rice Online Learning. The integrated collection pairs the OpenStax *College Physics for AP® Courses* text with Concept Trailer videos, instructional videos, problem solution videos, and a correlation guide to help you align all of your content. The instructional videos and problem solution videos were developed by Rice Professor Jason Hafner and AP® Physics teachers Gigi Nevils-Noe and Matt Wilson through Rice Online Learning. You can access all of this free material through the *College Physics for AP® Courses 2e* page on OpenStax.org.

Changes to the Second Edition

College Physics for AP® Courses 2e builds on the first edition's guiding principle that physics is a discipline undertaken by and for people. Throughout the text, the human impact of physics understanding, phenomena, discoveries, and applications is made clear through widespread examples, scenarios, and explanations. The narrative of physics and scientific discovery has been even further expanded to focus on including more diverse contributors to the field. From Ibn al-Haytham's 11th century foundation of the scientific method to Gladys West's complex models enabling GPS, the second edition broadens the discussion of pioneering and current researchers in an effort to tell a more accurate and inclusive scientific and societal story.

Relevance and Responsiveness

The impact of physics on engineering, urban development, the environment, medicine, energy production, and other aspects of everyday life have been updated and expanded to reflect more student experiences and interests. Techniques and developments in related disciplines are covered in context—not only in opening vignettes—so that students encounter the deep impact of evolving knowledge relevant to their potential fields of study.

Since many introductory physics students are focused on medicine, sections and examples related to biology have been significantly expanded. The section on electric forces in biology (18.6), for example, has been deepened to include Ernest Everett Just's work on electronegativity in ova, as well as the emerging practice of electrical stimulation in wound healing.

Additional biological application narratives include Yalow and Berson's development of radioimmunoassay, and Strickland and Mourou's invention of chirped lasers used in vision correction.

Currency and Accuracy

We have updated sections related to ongoing research, frontiers of physics, and emerging information. In particular, section 4.8 on the four basic forces has been revised with information about recent discoveries and ongoing research, as well as with additional context about the ongoing process of discovery—for example, the progression from Einstein's black hole predictions to the first black hole images produced in 2019. The section on world energy use (7.9), the section on ozone depletion (24.3), and several sections discussing space telescopes have been similarly updated to reflect current research and data.

Over ten years of widespread usage, OpenStax *College Physics* has benefitted from suggestions, corrections, and clarifications submitted by hundreds of faculty and also from students. We have made the requisite corrections and improvements over time, but the second edition unifies those edits for more consistency and ease of use.

Improving Problem-Solving and Deepening Understanding

College Physics for AP[®] Courses 2e employs the best practices of physics teaching, informed by education research and extensive adopter feedback. In order to unify conceptual, analytical, and calculation skills within the learning process, the authors have integrated a wide array of strategies and supports throughout the text.

Worked Examples

Worked examples have four distinct parts to promote both analytical and conceptual skills. Worked examples are introduced in words, always using some application that should be of interest. This is followed by a Strategy section that emphasizes the concepts involved and how solving the problem relates to those concepts. This is followed by the mathematical Solution and Discussion.

Many worked examples contain multiple-part problems to help the students learn how to approach normal situations, in which problems tend to have multiple parts. Finally, worked examples employ the techniques of the problem-solving strategies so that students can see how those strategies succeed in practice as well as in theory.

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Additional resources

Student and instructor resources

We've compiled additional resources for both students and instructors, including Getting Started Guides, an instructor's manual, test bank, and image slides. Instructor resources require a verified instructor account, which you can apply for when you log in or create your account on OpenStax.org. Take advantage of these resources to supplement your OpenStax book.

Instructor's solutions manual The instructor solutions manual contains the instructor-facing answers to the problems and exercises within the textbook. Since many instructors use these questions in graded assignments, we ask that you not post these questions and the answers on any publicly available websites.

PowerPoint lecture slides The PowerPoint slides provide images and descriptions as a starting place for instructors to build their lectures.

Concept Trailer instructor notes These teaching notes support implementation of the OpenStax Physics Concept Trailers. The notes contain tips for usage, clarifications of coverage, and guidance on how to use the trailers in different educational situations.

Academic Integrity

Academic integrity builds trust, understanding, equity, and genuine learning. While students may encounter significant challenges in their courses and their lives, doing their own work and maintaining a high degree of authenticity will result in meaningful outcomes that will extend far beyond their college career. Faculty, administrators, resource providers, and students can work together to maintain a fair and positive experience.

We realize that students benefit when academic integrity ground rules are established early in the course. To that end, OpenStax has created an interactive to aid with academic integrity discussions in your course.



Visit our [academic integrity slider](https://view.genial.ly/61e08a7af6db870d591078c1/interactive-image-defining-academic-integrity-interactive-slider) (<https://view.genial.ly/61e08a7af6db870d591078c1/interactive-image-defining-academic-integrity-interactive-slider>). Click and drag icons along the continuum to align these practices with your institution and course policies. You may then include the graphic on your syllabus, present it in your first course meeting, or create a handout for students.

At OpenStax we are also developing resources supporting authentic learning experiences and assessment. Please visit this book's page for updates. For an in-depth review of academic integrity strategies, we highly recommend visiting the International Center of Academic Integrity (ICAI) website at <https://academicintegrity.org/> (<https://academicintegrity.org/>).

Community Hubs

OpenStax partners with the Institute for the Study of Knowledge Management in Education (ISKME) to offer Community Hubs on OER Commons—a platform for

instructors to share community-created resources that support OpenStax books, free of charge. Through our Community Hubs, instructors can upload their own materials or download resources to use in their own courses, including additional ancillaries, teaching material, multimedia, and relevant course content. We encourage instructors to join the hubs for the subjects most relevant to your teaching and research as an opportunity both to enrich your courses and to engage with other faculty. To reach the Community Hubs, visit www.oercommons.org/hubs/openstax (<https://www.oercommons.org/hubs/openstax>).

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To the AP[®] Physics student

The fundamental goal of physics is to discover and understand the “laws” that govern observed phenomena in the world around us. Why study physics? If you plan to become a physicist, the answer is obvious—introductory physics provides the foundation for your career; or if you want to become an engineer, physics provides the basis for the engineering principles used to solve applied and practical problems. For example, after the discovery of the photoelectric effect by physicists, engineers developed photocells that are used in solar panels to convert sunlight to electricity. What if you are an aspiring medical doctor? Although the applications of the laws of physics may not be obvious, their understanding is tremendously valuable. Physics is involved in medical diagnostics, such as x-rays, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), and ultrasonic blood flow measurements. Medical therapy sometimes directly involves physics; cancer radiotherapy uses ionizing radiation. What if you are planning a nonscience career? Learning physics provides you with a well-rounded education and the ability to make important decisions, such as evaluating the pros and cons of energy production sources or voting on decisions about nuclear waste disposal.

This AP[®] Physics 1 course begins with **kinematics**, the study of motion without considering its causes. Motion is everywhere: from the vibration of atoms to the planetary revolutions around the Sun. Understanding motion is key to understanding other concepts in physics. You will then study **dynamics**, which considers the forces that affect the motion of moving

objects and systems. Newton's laws of motion are the foundation of dynamics. These laws provide an example of the breadth and simplicity of the principles under which nature functions. One of the most remarkable simplifications in physics is that only four distinct forces account for all known phenomena. Your journey will continue as you learn about energy. Energy plays an essential role both in everyday events and in scientific phenomena. You can likely name many forms of energy, from that provided by our foods, to the energy we use to run our cars, to the sunlight that warms us on the beach. The next stop is learning about oscillatory motion and waves. All oscillations involve force and energy: you push a child in a swing to get the motion started and you put energy into a guitar string when you pluck it. Some oscillations create waves. For example, a guitar creates sound waves. You will conclude this first physics course with the study of static electricity and electric currents. Many of the characteristics of static electricity can be explored by rubbing things together. Rubbing creates the spark you get from walking across a wool carpet, for example. Similarly, lightning results from air movements under certain weather conditions.

In the AP[®] Physics 2 course, you will continue your journey by studying **fluid dynamics**, which explains why rising smoke curls and twists and how the body regulates blood flow. The next stop is **thermodynamics**, the study of heat transfer—energy in transit—that can be used to do work. Basic physical laws govern how heat transfers and its efficiency. Then you will learn more about electric phenomena as you delve into **electromagnetism**. An electric current produces a magnetic field; similarly, a magnetic field produces a current. This phenomenon, known as **magnetic induction**, is essential to our technological society. The generators in cars and nuclear plants use magnetism to generate a current. Other devices that use magnetism to induce currents include pickup coils in electric guitars, transformers of every size, certain microphones, airport security gates, and damping mechanisms on sensitive chemical balances. From electromagnetism you will continue your journey to **optics**, the study of light. You already know that visible light is the type of electromagnetic waves to which our eyes respond. Through vision, light can evoke deep emotions, such as when we view a magnificent sunset or glimpse a rainbow breaking through the clouds. Optics is concerned with the generation and propagation of light. The **quantum mechanics**, **atomic physics**, and **nuclear physics** are at the end of your journey. These areas of physics have been developed at the end of the 19th and early 20th centuries and

deal with submicroscopic objects. Because these objects are smaller than we can observe directly with our senses and generally must be observed with the aid of instruments, parts of these physics areas may seem foreign and bizarre to you at first. However, we have experimentally confirmed most of the ideas in these areas of physics.

AP[®] Physics is a challenging course. After all, you are taking physics at the introductory college level. You will discover that some concepts are more difficult to understand than others; most students, for example, struggle to understand rotational motion and angular momentum or particle-wave duality. The AP[®] curriculum promotes depth of understanding over breadth of content, and to make your exploration of topics more manageable, concepts are organized around seven major themes called the **Big Ideas** that apply to all levels of physical systems and interactions between them (see web diagram below). Each Big Idea identifies **enduring understandings** (EU), **essential knowledge** (EK), and **illustrative examples** that support key concepts and content. Simple descriptions define the focus of each Big Idea.

- Big Idea 1: Objects and systems have properties.
- Big Idea 2: Fields explain interactions.
- Big Idea 3: The interactions are described by forces.
- Big Idea 4: Interactions result in changes.
- Big Idea 5: Changes are constrained by conservation laws.
- Big Idea 6: Waves can transfer energy and momentum.
- Big Idea 7: The mathematics of probability can to describe the behavior of complex and quantum mechanical systems.

Doing college work is not easy, but completion of AP[®] classes is a reliable predictor of college success and prepares you for subsequent courses. The more you engage in the subject, the easier your journey through the curriculum will be. Bring your enthusiasm to class every day along with your notebook, pencil, and calculator. Prepare for class the day before, and review concepts daily. Form a peer study group and ask your teacher for extra help if necessary. The AP[®] lab program focuses on more open-ended, student-directed, and inquiry-based lab investigations designed to make you think, ask questions, and analyze data like scientists. You will develop critical thinking and reasoning skills and apply different means of communicating information. By the time you sit for the AP[®] exam in May, you will be fluent in the language of physics; because you have been doing real science, you

will be ready to show what you have learned. Along the way, you will find the study of the world around us to be one of the most relevant and enjoyable experiences of your high school career.

Irina Lyublinskaya, PhD
Professor of Science Education

To the AP® Physics teacher

The AP® curriculum was designed to allow instructors flexibility in their approach to teaching the physics courses. *College Physics for AP® Courses 2e* helps you orient students as they delve deeper into the world of physics. Each chapter includes a Connection for AP® Courses introduction that describes the AP® Physics Big Ideas, enduring understandings, and essential knowledge addressed in that chapter.

Each section starts with specific AP® learning objectives and includes essential concepts, illustrative examples, and science practices, along with suggestions for applying the learning objectives through take-home experiments, virtual lab investigations, and activities and questions for

preparation and review. At the end of each section, students will find the Test Prep for AP® courses with multiple-choice and open-response questions addressing AP® learning objectives to help them prepare for the AP® exam.

College Physics for AP® Courses 2e has been written to engage students in their exploration of physics and help them relate what they learn in the classroom to their lives outside of it. Physics underlies much of what is happening today in other sciences and in technology. Thus, the book content includes interesting facts and ideas that go beyond the scope of the AP® course. The AP® Connection in each chapter directs students to the material they should focus on for the AP® exam, and what content—although interesting—is not part of the AP® curriculum. Physics is a beautiful and fascinating science. It is in your hands to engage and inspire your students to dive into an amazing world of physics, so they can enjoy it beyond just preparation for the AP® exam.

Irina Lyublinskaya, PhD
Professor of Science Education

CHAPTER 1

Introduction: The Nature of Science and Physics



FIGURE 1.1 Galaxies are as immense as atoms are small. Yet the same laws of physics describe both, and all the rest of nature—an indication of the underlying unity in the universe. The laws of physics are surprisingly few in number, implying an underlying simplicity to nature's apparent complexity. (credit: NASA, JPL-Caltech, P. Barmby, Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics)

CHAPTER OUTLINE

1.1 Physics: An Introduction

1.2 Physical Quantities and Units

1.3 Accuracy, Precision, and Significant Figures

1.4 Approximation

CONNECTION FOR AP® COURSES What is your first reaction when you hear the word “physics”? Did you imagine working through difficult equations or memorizing formulas that seem to have no real use in life outside the physics classroom? Many people come to the subject of physics with a bit of fear. But as you begin your exploration of this broad-ranging subject, you may soon come to realize that physics plays a much larger role in your life than you first thought, no matter your life goals or career choice.

For example, take a look at the image above. This image is of the Andromeda Galaxy, which contains billions of individual stars, huge clouds of gas, and dust. Two smaller galaxies are also visible as bright blue spots in the background. At a staggering 2.5 million light years from Earth, this galaxy is the nearest one to our own galaxy (which is called the Milky Way). The stars and planets that make up Andromeda might seem to be the furthest thing from most people's regular, everyday lives. But Andromeda is a great starting point to think about the forces that hold together the universe. The forces that cause Andromeda to act as it does are the same forces we contend with here on Earth, whether we are planning to send a rocket into space or simply raise the walls for a new home. The same gravity that causes the stars of Andromeda to rotate and revolve also causes water to flow over hydroelectric dams here on Earth. Tonight, take a moment to look up at the stars. The forces out there are the same as the ones here on Earth. Through a study of physics, you may gain a greater understanding of the interconnectedness of everything we can see and know in this universe.

Think now about all of the technological devices that you use on a regular basis. Computers, smart phones, GPS systems, MP3 players, and satellite radio might come to mind. Next, think about the most exciting modern technologies that you have heard about in the news, such as trains that levitate above tracks, “invisibility cloaks” that bend light around them, and microscopic robots that fight cancer cells in our bodies. All of these groundbreaking advancements, commonplace or unbelievable, rely on the principles of physics. Aside from playing

a significant role in technology, professionals such as engineers, pilots, physicians, physical therapists, electricians, and computer programmers apply physics concepts in their daily work. For example, a pilot must understand how wind forces affect a flight path and a physical therapist must understand how the muscles in the body experience forces as they move and bend. As you will learn in this text, physics principles are propelling new, exciting technologies, and these principles are applied in a wide range of careers.

In this text, you will begin to explore the history of the formal study of physics, beginning with natural philosophy and the ancient Greeks, and leading up through a review of Sir Isaac Newton and the laws of physics that bear his name. You will also be introduced to the standards scientists use when they study physical quantities and the interrelated system of measurements most of the scientific community uses to communicate in a single mathematical language. Finally, you will study the limits of our ability to be accurate and precise, and the reasons scientists go to painstaking lengths to be as clear as possible regarding their own limitations.

Chapter 1 introduces many fundamental skills and understandings needed for success with the AP[®] Learning Objectives. While this chapter does not directly address any Big Ideas, its content will allow for a more meaningful understanding when these Big Ideas are addressed in future chapters. For instance, the discussion of models, theories, and laws will assist you in understanding the concept of fields as addressed in Big Idea 2, and the section titled 'The Evolution of Natural Philosophy into Modern Physics' will help prepare you for the statistical topics addressed in Big Idea 7.

This chapter will also prepare you to understand the Science Practices. In explicitly addressing the role of models in representing and communicating scientific phenomena, Section 1.1 supports Science Practice 1. Additionally, anecdotes about historical investigations and the inset on the scientific method will help you to engage in the scientific questioning referenced in Science Practice 3. The appropriate use of mathematics, as called for in Science Practice 2, is a major focus throughout sections 1.2, 1.3, and 1.4.

1.1 Physics: An Introduction

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain the difference between a principle and a law.
- Explain the difference between a model and a theory.



FIGURE 1.2 The flight formations of migratory birds such as Canada geese are governed by the laws of physics. (credit: David Merrett)

The physical universe is enormously complex in its detail. Every day, each of us observes a great variety of objects and phenomena. Over the centuries, the curiosity of the human race has led us collectively to explore and catalog a tremendous wealth of information. From the flight of birds to the colors of flowers, from lightning to gravity, from quarks to clusters of galaxies, from the flow of time to the mystery of the creation of the universe, we have asked questions and assembled huge arrays of facts. In the face of all these details, we have discovered that a surprisingly small and unified set of physical laws can explain what we observe. As humans, we make generalizations and seek order. We have found that nature is remarkably cooperative—it exhibits the *underlying order and simplicity* we so value.

It is the underlying order of nature that makes science in general, and physics in particular, so enjoyable to study. For example, what do a bag of chips and a car battery have in common? Both contain energy that can be converted

to other forms. The law of conservation of energy (which says that energy can change form but is never lost) ties together such topics as food calories, batteries, heat, light, and watch springs. Understanding this law makes it easier to learn about the various forms energy takes and how they relate to one another. Apparently unrelated topics are connected through broadly applicable physical laws, permitting an understanding beyond just the memorization of lists of facts.

The unifying aspect of physical laws and the basic simplicity of nature form the underlying themes of this text. In learning to apply these laws, you will, of course, study the most important topics in physics. More importantly, you will gain analytical abilities that will enable you to apply these laws far beyond the scope of what can be included in a single book. These analytical skills will help you to excel academically, and they will also help you to think critically in any professional career you choose to pursue. This module discusses the realm of physics (to define what physics is), some applications of physics (to illustrate its relevance to other disciplines), and more precisely what constitutes a physical law (to illuminate the importance of experimentation to theory).

Science and the Realm of Physics

Science consists of the theories and laws that are the general truths of nature as well as the body of knowledge they encompass. Scientists are continually trying to expand this body of knowledge and to perfect the expression of the laws that describe it. **Physics** is concerned with describing the interactions of energy, matter, space, and time, and it is especially interested in what fundamental mechanisms underlie every phenomenon. The concern for describing the basic phenomena in nature essentially defines the *realm of physics*.

Physics aims to describe the function of everything around us, from the movement of tiny charged particles to the motion of people, cars, and spaceships. In fact, almost everything around you can be described quite accurately by the laws of physics. Consider a smart phone ([Figure 1.3](#)). Physics describes how electricity interacts with the various circuits inside the device. This knowledge helps engineers select the appropriate materials and circuit layout when building the smart phone. Next, consider a GPS system. Physics describes the relationship between the speed of an object, the distance over which it travels, and the time it takes to travel that distance. GPS relies on precise calculations that account for variations in the Earth's landscapes, the exact distance between orbiting satellites, and even the effect of a complex occurrence of time dilation. Most of these calculations are founded on algorithms developed by Gladys West, a mathematician and computer scientist who programmed the first computers capable of highly accurate remote sensing and positioning. When you use a GPS device, it utilizes these algorithms to recognize where you are and how your position relates to other objects on Earth.

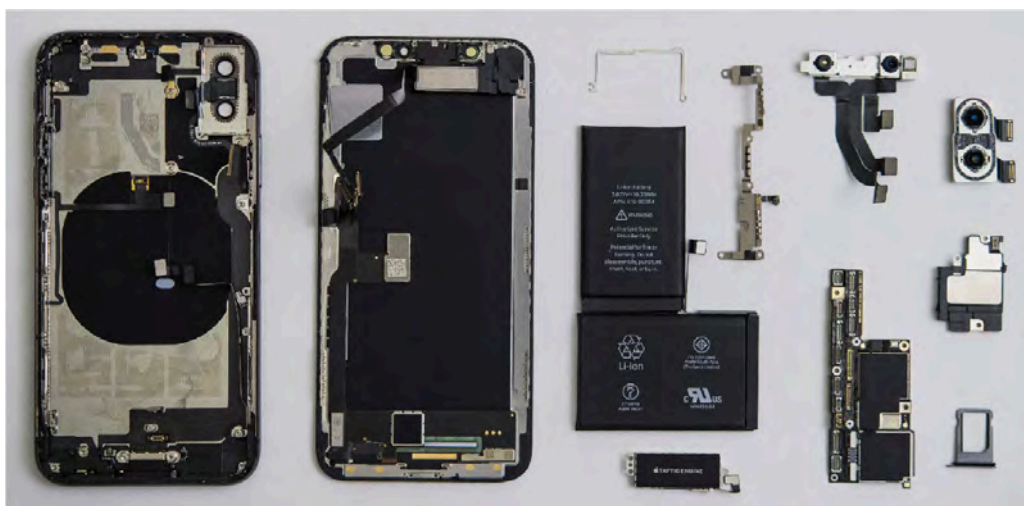


FIGURE 1.3 The Apple iPhone is a common smart phone with a GPS function, sophisticated camera, haptic (vibration) capabilities, and many other functions. Physics describes the way that electricity flows through the circuits of this device. Engineers use their knowledge of physics to construct an iPhone with features that consumers will enjoy. One specific feature of an iPhone is the GPS function. GPS uses physics equations to determine the driving time between two locations on a map. (credit: Tinh tế Photo/Flickr)

Applications of Physics

You need not be a scientist to use physics. On the contrary, knowledge of physics is useful in everyday situations as well as in nonscientific professions. It can help you understand how microwave ovens work, why metals should not

be put into them, and why they might affect pacemakers. (See [Figure 1.4](#) and [Figure 1.5](#).) Physics allows you to understand the hazards of radiation and rationally evaluate these hazards more easily. Physics also explains the reason why a black car radiator helps remove heat in a car engine, and it explains why a white roof helps keep the inside of a house cool. Similarly, the operation of a car's ignition system as well as the transmission of electrical signals through our body's nervous system are much easier to understand when you think about them in terms of basic physics.

Physics is the foundation of many important disciplines and contributes directly to others. Chemistry, for example—since it deals with the interactions of atoms and molecules—is rooted in atomic and molecular physics. Most branches of engineering are applied physics. In architecture, physics is at the heart of structural stability, and is involved in the acoustics, heating, lighting, and cooling of buildings. Parts of geology rely heavily on physics, such as radioactive dating of rocks, earthquake analysis, and heat transfer in the Earth. Some disciplines, such as biophysics and geophysics, are hybrids of physics and other disciplines.

Physics has many applications in the biological sciences. On the microscopic level, it helps describe the properties of cell walls and cell membranes ([Figure 1.6](#) and [Figure 1.7](#)). On the macroscopic level, it can explain the heat, work, and power associated with the human body. Physics is involved in medical diagnostics, such as x-rays, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), and ultrasonic blood flow measurements. Medical therapy sometimes directly involves physics; for example, cancer radiotherapy uses ionizing radiation. Physics can also explain sensory phenomena, such as how musical instruments make sound, how the eye detects color, and how lasers can transmit information.

It is not necessary to formally study all applications of physics. What is most useful is knowledge of the basic laws of physics and a skill in the analytical methods for applying them. The study of physics also can improve your problem-solving skills. Furthermore, physics has retained the most basic aspects of science, so it is used by all of the sciences, and the study of physics makes other sciences easier to understand.



FIGURE 1.4 The laws of physics help us understand how common appliances work. For example, the laws of physics can help explain how microwave ovens heat up food, and they also help us understand why it is dangerous to place metal objects in a microwave oven. (credit: MoneyBlogNewz)

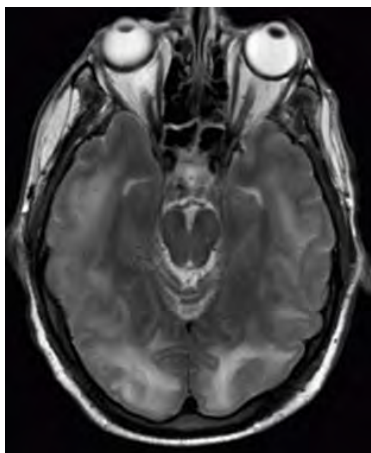


FIGURE 1.5 These two applications of physics have more in common than meets the eye. Microwave ovens use electromagnetic waves to heat food. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) also uses electromagnetic waves to yield an image of the brain, from which the exact location of tumors can be determined. (credit: Rashmi Chawla, Daniel Smith, and Paul E. Marik)

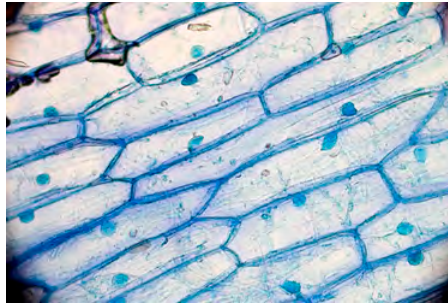


FIGURE 1.6 Physics, chemistry, and biology help describe the properties of cell walls in plant cells, such as the onion cells seen here. (credit: Umberto Salvagnin)

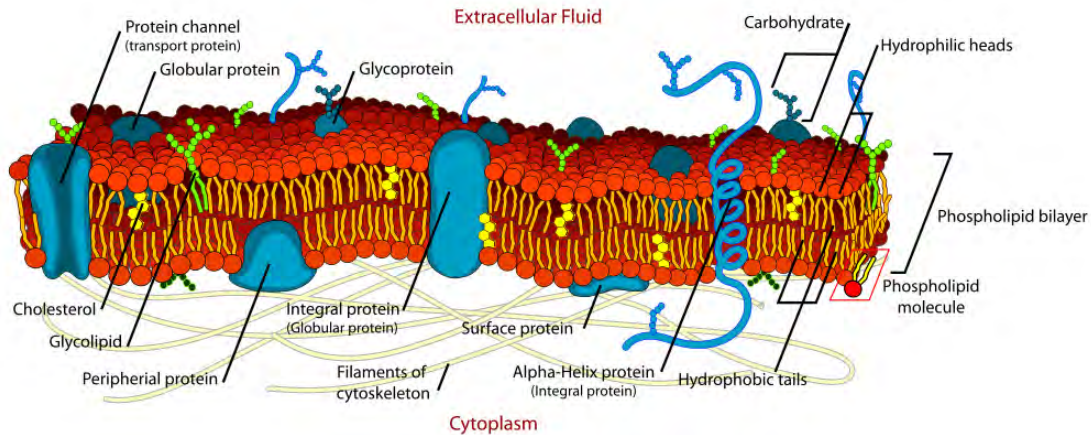


FIGURE 1.7 An artist's rendition of the structure of a cell membrane. Membranes form the boundaries of animal cells and are complex in structure and function. Many of the most fundamental properties of life, such as the firing of nerve cells, are related to membranes. The disciplines of biology, chemistry, and physics all help us understand the membranes of animal cells. (credit: Mariana Ruiz)

Models, Theories, and Laws; The Role of Experimentation

The laws of nature are concise descriptions of the universe around us; they are human statements of the underlying laws or rules that all natural processes follow. Such laws are intrinsic to the universe; humans did not create them and so cannot change them. We can only discover and understand them. Their discovery is a very human endeavor, with all the elements of mystery, imagination, struggle, triumph, and disappointment inherent in any creative effort. (See [Figure 1.8](#) and [Figure 1.9](#).) The cornerstone of discovering natural laws is observation; science must describe the universe as it is, not as we may imagine it to be.



FIGURE 1.8 **Isaac Newton** (1642–1727) was very reluctant to publish his revolutionary work and had to be convinced to do so. In his later years, he stepped down from his academic post and became exchequer of the Royal Mint. He took this post seriously, inventing reeding (or

creating ridges) on the edge of coins to prevent unscrupulous people from trimming the silver off of them before using them as currency. (credit: Arthur Shuster and Arthur E. Shipley: *Britain's Heritage of Science*. London, 1917.)



FIGURE 1.9 Marie Curie (1867–1934) sacrificed monetary assets to help finance her early research and damaged her physical well-being with radiation exposure. She is the only person to win Nobel prizes in both physics and chemistry. One of her daughters also won a Nobel Prize. (credit: Wikimedia Commons)

We all are curious to some extent. We look around, make generalizations, and try to understand what we see—for example, we look up and wonder whether one type of cloud signals an oncoming storm. As we become serious about exploring nature, we become more organized and formal in collecting and analyzing data. We attempt greater precision, perform controlled experiments (if we can), and write down ideas about how the data may be organized and unified. We then formulate models, theories, and laws based on the data we have collected and analyzed to generalize and communicate the results of these experiments.

A **model** is a representation of something that is often too difficult (or impossible) to display directly. While a model is justified with experimental proof, it is only accurate under limited situations. An example is the planetary model of the atom in which electrons are pictured as orbiting the nucleus, analogous to the way planets orbit the Sun. (See [Figure 1.10](#).) We cannot observe electron orbits directly, but the mental image helps explain the observations we can make, such as the emission of light from hot gases (atomic spectra). Physicists use models for a variety of purposes. For example, models can help physicists analyze a scenario and perform a calculation, or they can be used to represent a situation in the form of a computer simulation. A **theory** is an explanation for patterns in nature that is supported by scientific evidence and verified multiple times by various groups of researchers. Some theories include models to help visualize phenomena, whereas others do not. Newton's theory of gravity, for example, does not require a model or mental image, because we can observe the objects directly with our own senses. The kinetic theory of gases, on the other hand, is a model in which a gas is viewed as being composed of atoms and molecules. Atoms and molecules are too small to be observed directly with our senses—thus, we picture them mentally to understand what our instruments tell us about the behavior of gases.

A **law** uses concise language to describe a generalized pattern in nature that is supported by scientific evidence and repeated experiments. Often, a law can be expressed in the form of a single mathematical equation. Laws and theories are similar in that they are both scientific statements that result from a tested hypothesis and are supported by scientific evidence. However, the designation *law* is reserved for a concise and very general statement that describes phenomena in nature, such as the law that energy is conserved during any process, or Newton's second law of motion, which relates force, mass, and acceleration by the simple equation $\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$. A theory, in contrast, is a less concise statement of observed phenomena. For example, the Theory of Evolution and the Theory of Relativity cannot be expressed concisely enough to be considered a law. The biggest difference between a law and a theory is that a theory is much more complex and dynamic. A law describes a single action, whereas a theory explains an entire group of related phenomena. And, whereas a law is a postulate that forms the foundation of the scientific method, a theory is the end result of that process.

Less broadly applicable statements are usually called principles (such as Pascal's principle, which is applicable only in fluids), but the distinction between laws and principles often is not carefully made.

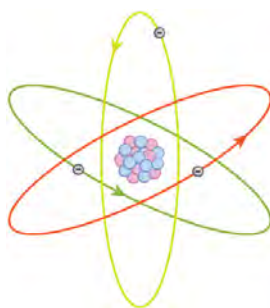


FIGURE 1.10 What is a model? This planetary model of the atom shows electrons orbiting the nucleus. It is a drawing that we use to form a mental image of the atom that we cannot see directly with our eyes because it is too small.

MODELS, THEORIES, AND LAWS

Models, theories, and laws are used to help scientists analyze the data they have already collected. However, often after a model, theory, or law has been developed, it points scientists toward new discoveries they would not otherwise have made.

The models, theories, and laws we devise sometimes *imply the existence of objects or phenomena as yet unobserved*. These predictions are remarkable triumphs and tributes to the power of science. It is the underlying order in the universe that enables scientists to make such spectacular predictions. However, if *experiment* does not verify our predictions, then the theory or law is wrong, no matter how elegant or convenient it is. Laws can never be known with absolute certainty because it is impossible to perform every imaginable experiment in order to confirm a law in every possible scenario. Physicists operate under the assumption that all scientific laws and theories are valid until a counterexample is observed. If a good-quality, verifiable experiment contradicts a well-established law, then the law must be modified or overthrown completely.

The study of science in general and physics in particular is an adventure much like the exploration of uncharted ocean. Discoveries are made; models, theories, and laws are formulated; and the beauty of the physical universe is made more sublime for the insights gained.

THE SCIENTIFIC METHOD

Ibn al-Haytham (sometimes referred to as Alhazen), a 10th-11th century scientist working in Cairo, significantly advanced the understanding of optics and vision. But his contributions go much further. In demonstrating that previous approaches were incorrect, he emphasized that scientists must be ready to reject existing knowledge and become "the enemy" of everything they read; he expressed that scientists must trust only objective evidence. Al-Haytham emphasized repeated experimentation and validation, and acknowledged that senses and predisposition could lead to poor conclusions. His work was a precursor to the scientific method that we use today.

As scientists inquire and gather information about the world, they follow a process called the **scientific method**. This process typically begins with an observation and question that the scientist will research. Next, the scientist typically performs some research about the topic and then devises a hypothesis. Then, the scientist will test the hypothesis by performing an experiment. Finally, the scientist analyzes the results of the experiment and draws a conclusion. Note that the scientific method can be applied to many situations that are not limited to science, and this method can be modified to suit the situation.

Consider an example. Let us say that you try to turn on your car, but it will not start. You undoubtedly wonder: Why will the car not start? You can follow a scientific method to answer this question. First off, you may perform some research to determine a variety of reasons why the car will not start. Next, you will state a hypothesis. For example, you may believe that the car is not starting because it has no engine oil. To test this, you open the hood of the car and examine the oil level. You observe that the oil is at an acceptable level, and you thus conclude that the oil level is not contributing to your car issue. To troubleshoot the issue further, you may devise a new

hypothesis to test and then repeat the process again.

The Evolution of Natural Philosophy into Modern Physics

Physics was not always a separate and distinct discipline. It remains connected to other sciences to this day. The word *physics* comes from Greek, meaning nature. The study of nature came to be called “natural philosophy.” From ancient times through the Renaissance, natural philosophy encompassed many fields, including astronomy, biology, chemistry, physics, mathematics, and medicine. Over the last few centuries, the growth of knowledge has resulted in ever-increasing specialization and branching of natural philosophy into separate fields, with physics retaining the most basic facets. (See [Figure 1.11](#), [Figure 1.12](#), and [Figure 1.13](#).) Physics as it developed from the Renaissance to the end of the 19th century is called **classical physics**. It was transformed into modern physics by revolutionary discoveries made starting at the beginning of the 20th century.

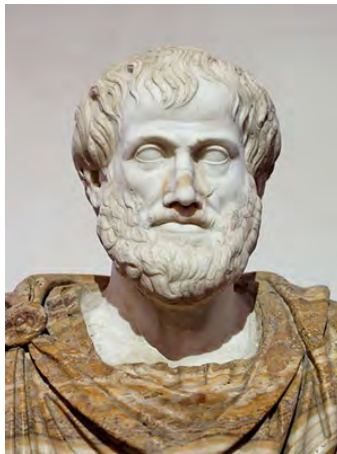


FIGURE 1.11 Over the centuries, natural philosophy has evolved into more specialized disciplines, as illustrated by the contributions of some of the greatest minds in history. The Greek philosopher **Aristotle** (384–322 B.C.) wrote on a broad range of topics including physics, animals, the soul, politics, and poetry. (credit: Jastrow (2006)/Ludovisi Collection)



FIGURE 1.12 Ibn al-Haytham (965–1040) and Galileo Galilei (1564–1642) were so critical to the advancement of scientific practice and to the fields of mathematics, optics, physics, and astronomy that a later prominent scientist featured them on the cover of his major work. (credit: Johannes Hevelius (author), Adolph Boř (artist), J. Falck (engraver); Houghton Library, Harvard University/Wikimedia Commons)



FIGURE 1.13 Niels Bohr (1885–1962) made fundamental contributions to the development of quantum mechanics, one part of modern physics. (credit: United States Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

Classical physics is not an exact description of the universe, but it is an excellent approximation under the following conditions: Matter must be moving at speeds less than about 1% of the speed of light, the objects dealt with must be large enough to be seen with a microscope, and only weak gravitational fields, such as the field generated by the Earth, can be involved. Because humans live under such circumstances, classical physics seems intuitively reasonable, while many aspects of modern physics seem bizarre. This is why models are so useful in modern physics—they let us conceptualize phenomena we do not ordinarily experience. We can relate to models in human terms and visualize what happens when objects move at high speeds or imagine what objects too small to observe with our senses might be like. For example, we can understand an atom's properties because we can picture it in our minds, although we have never seen an atom with our eyes. New tools, of course, allow us to better picture phenomena we cannot see. In fact, new instrumentation has allowed us in recent years to actually “picture” the atom.

LIMITS ON THE LAWS OF CLASSICAL PHYSICS

For the laws of classical physics to apply, the following criteria must be met: Matter must be moving at speeds less than about 1% of the speed of light, the objects dealt with must be large enough to be seen with a microscope, and only weak gravitational fields (such as the field generated by the Earth) can be involved.

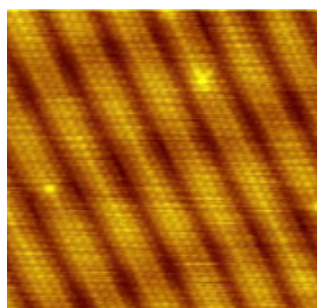


FIGURE 1.14 Using a scanning tunneling microscope (STM), scientists can see the individual atoms that compose this sheet of gold. (credit: Erwinrossen)

Some of the most spectacular advances in science have been made in modern physics. Many of the laws of classical physics have been modified or rejected, and revolutionary changes in technology, society, and our view of the universe have resulted. Like science fiction, modern physics is filled with fascinating objects beyond our normal experiences, but it has the advantage over science fiction of being very real. Why, then, is the majority of this text devoted to topics of classical physics? There are two main reasons: Classical physics gives an extremely accurate description of the universe under a wide range of everyday circumstances, and knowledge of classical physics is necessary to understand modern physics.

Modern physics itself consists of the two revolutionary theories, relativity and quantum mechanics. These theories

deal with the very fast and the very small, respectively. **Relativity** must be used whenever an object is traveling at greater than about 1% of the speed of light or experiences a strong gravitational field such as that near the Sun.

Quantum mechanics must be used for objects smaller than can be seen with a microscope. The combination of these two theories is *relativistic quantum mechanics*, and it describes the behavior of small objects traveling at high speeds or experiencing a strong gravitational field. Relativistic quantum mechanics is the best universally applicable theory we have. Because of its mathematical complexity, it is used only when necessary, and the other theories are used whenever they will produce sufficiently accurate results. We will find, however, that we can do a great deal of modern physics with the algebra and trigonometry used in this text.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

A friend tells you they have learned about a new law of nature. What can you know about the information even before your friend describes the law? How would the information be different if your friend told you they had learned about a scientific theory rather than a law?

Solution

Without knowing the details of the law, you can still infer that the information your friend has learned conforms to the requirements of all laws of nature: it will be a concise description of the universe around us; a statement of the underlying rules that all natural processes follow. If the information had been a theory, you would be able to infer that the information will be a large-scale, broadly applicable generalization.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Equation Grapher

Learn about graphing polynomials. The shape of the curve changes as the constants are adjusted. View the curves for the individual terms (e.g. $y = bx$) to see how they add to generate the polynomial curve.

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/1-1-physics-an-introduction\)](https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/1-1-physics-an-introduction)



1.2 Physical Quantities and Units

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Perform unit conversions both in the SI and English units.
- Explain the most common prefixes in the SI units and be able to write them in scientific notation.



FIGURE 1.15 The distance from Earth to the Moon may seem immense, but it is just a tiny fraction of the distances from Earth to other celestial bodies. (credit: NASA)

The range of objects and phenomena studied in physics is immense. From the incredibly short lifetime of a nucleus to the age of the Earth, from the tiny sizes of sub-nuclear particles to the vast distance to the edges of the known universe, from the force exerted by a jumping flea to the force between Earth and the Sun, there are enough factors of 10 to challenge the imagination of even the most experienced scientist. Giving numerical values for physical quantities and equations for physical principles allows us to understand nature much more deeply than does

qualitative description alone. To comprehend these vast ranges, we must also have accepted units in which to express them. And we shall find that (even in the potentially mundane discussion of meters, kilograms, and seconds) a profound simplicity of nature appears—most physical quantities can be expressed as combinations of only four fundamental physical quantities: length, mass, time, and electric current.

We define a **physical quantity** either by *specifying how it is measured* or by *stating how it is calculated* from other measurements. For example, we define distance and time by specifying methods for measuring them, whereas we define *average speed* by stating that it is calculated as distance traveled divided by time of travel.

Measurements of physical quantities are expressed in terms of **units**, which are standardized values. For example, the length of a race, which is a physical quantity, can be expressed in units of meters (for sprinters) or kilometers (for distance runners). Without standardized units, it would be extremely difficult for scientists to express and compare measured values in a meaningful way. (See [Figure 1.16](#).)

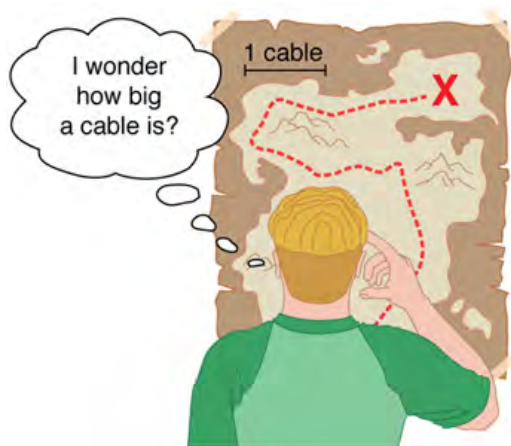


FIGURE 1.16 Distances given in unknown units are maddeningly useless.

There are two major systems of units used in the world: **SI units** (also known as the metric system) and **English units** (also known as the customary or imperial system). **English units** were historically used in nations once ruled by the British Empire and are still widely used in the United States. Virtually every other country in the world now uses SI units as the standard; the metric system is also the standard system agreed upon by scientists and mathematicians. The acronym “SI” is derived from the French *Système International*.

SI Units: Fundamental and Derived Units

[Table 1.1](#) gives the fundamental SI units that are used throughout this textbook. This text uses non-SI units in a few applications where they are in very common use, such as the measurement of blood pressure in millimeters of mercury (mm Hg). Whenever non-SI units are discussed, they will be tied to SI units through conversions.

Length	Mass	Time	Electric Current
meter (m)	kilogram (kg)	second (s)	ampere (A)

TABLE 1.1 Fundamental SI Units

It is an intriguing fact that some physical quantities are more fundamental than others and that the most fundamental physical quantities can be defined *only* in terms of the procedure used to measure them. The units in which they are measured are thus called **fundamental units**. In this textbook, the fundamental physical quantities are taken to be length, mass, time, and electric current. (Note that electric current will not be introduced until much later in this text.) All other physical quantities, such as force and electric charge, can be expressed as algebraic combinations of length, mass, time, and current (for example, speed is length divided by time); these units are called **derived units**.

Units of Time, Length, and Mass: The Second, Meter, and Kilogram

The Second

The SI unit for time, the **second** (abbreviated s), has a long history. For many years it was defined as $1/86,400$ of a mean solar day. More recently, a new standard was adopted to gain greater accuracy and to define the second in terms of a non-varying, or constant, physical phenomenon (because the solar day is getting longer due to very gradual slowing of the Earth's rotation). Cesium atoms can be made to vibrate in a very steady way, and these vibrations can be readily observed and counted. In 1967 the second was redefined as the time required for 9,192,631,770 of these vibrations. (See [Figure 1.17](#).) Accuracy in the fundamental units is essential, because all measurements are ultimately expressed in terms of fundamental units and can be no more accurate than are the fundamental units themselves.



FIGURE 1.17 An atomic clock such as this one uses the vibrations of cesium atoms to keep time to a precision of better than a microsecond per year. The fundamental unit of time, the second, is based on such clocks. This image is looking down from the top of an atomic fountain nearly 30 feet tall! (credit: Steve Jurvetson/Flickr)

The Meter

The SI unit for length is the **meter** (abbreviated m); its definition has also changed over time to become more accurate and precise. The meter was first defined in 1791 as $1/10,000,000$ of the distance from the equator to the North Pole. This measurement was improved in 1889 by redefining the meter to be the distance between two engraved lines on a platinum-iridium bar now kept near Paris. By 1960, it had become possible to define the meter even more accurately in terms of the wavelength of light, so it was again redefined as 1,650,763.73 wavelengths of orange light emitted by krypton atoms. In 1983, the meter was given its present definition (partly for greater accuracy) as the distance light travels in a vacuum in $1/299,792,458$ of a second. (See [Figure 1.18](#).) This change defines the speed of light to be exactly 299,792,458 meters per second. The length of the meter will change if the speed of light is someday measured with greater accuracy.

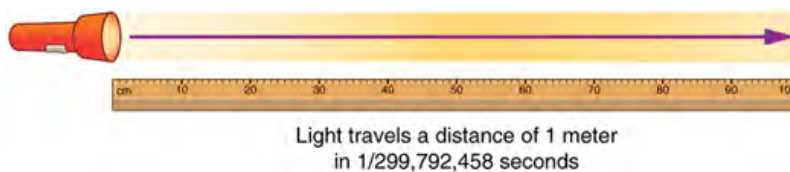


FIGURE 1.18 The meter is defined to be the distance light travels in $1/299,792,458$ of a second in a vacuum. Distance traveled is speed multiplied by time.

The Kilogram

The SI unit for mass is the **kilogram** (abbreviated kg); it was previously defined to be the mass of a platinum-iridium cylinder kept with the old meter standard at the International Bureau of Weights and Measures near Paris. Exact replicas of the previously defined kilogram are also kept at the United States' National Institute of Standards and Technology, or NIST, located in Gaithersburg, Maryland outside of Washington D.C., and at other locations around the world. The determination of all other masses could be ultimately traced to a comparison with the standard mass. Even though the platinum-iridium cylinder was resistant to corrosion, airborne contaminants were able to adhere to its surface, slightly changing its mass over time. In May 2019, the scientific community adopted a more

stable definition of the kilogram. The kilogram is now defined in terms of the second, the meter, and Planck's constant, h (a quantum mechanical value that relates a photon's energy to its frequency).

Electric current and its accompanying unit, the ampere, will be introduced in [Electric Current, Resistance, and Ohm's Law](#) when electricity and magnetism are covered. The initial modules in this textbook are concerned with mechanics, fluids, heat, and waves. In these subjects all pertinent physical quantities can be expressed in terms of the fundamental units of length, mass, and time.

Metric Prefixes

SI units are part of the **metric system**. The metric system is convenient for scientific and engineering calculations because the units are categorized by factors of 10. [Table 1.2](#) gives metric prefixes and symbols used to denote various factors of 10.

Metric systems have the advantage that conversions of units involve only powers of 10. There are 100 centimeters in a meter, 1000 meters in a kilometer, and so on. In nonmetric systems, such as the system of U.S. customary units, the relationships are not as simple—there are 12 inches in a foot, 5280 feet in a mile, and so on. Another advantage of the metric system is that the same unit can be used over extremely large ranges of values simply by using an appropriate metric prefix. For example, distances in meters are suitable in construction, while distances in kilometers are appropriate for air travel, and the tiny measure of nanometers are convenient in optical design. With the metric system there is no need to invent new units for particular applications.

The term **order of magnitude** refers to the scale of a value expressed in the metric system. Each power of 10, and so forth are all different orders of magnitude. All quantities that can be expressed as a product of a specific power of 10 are said to be of the *same* order of magnitude. For example, the number 800 can be written as 8×10^2 , and the number 450 can be written as 4.5×10^2 . Thus, the numbers 800 and 450 are of the same order of magnitude: 10^2 . Order of magnitude can be thought of as a ballpark estimate for the scale of a value. The diameter of an atom is on the order of 10^{-10} m, while the diameter of the Sun is on the order of 10^9 m.

THE QUEST FOR MICROSCOPIC STANDARDS FOR BASIC UNITS

The fundamental units described in this chapter are those that produce the greatest accuracy and precision in measurement. There is a sense among physicists that, because there is an underlying microscopic substructure to matter, it would be most satisfying to base our standards of measurement on microscopic objects and fundamental physical phenomena such as the speed of light. A microscopic standard has been accomplished for the standard of time, which is based on the oscillations of the cesium atom.

The standard for length was once based on the wavelength of light (a small-scale length) emitted by a certain type of atom, but it has been supplanted by the more precise measurement of the speed of light. If it becomes possible to measure the mass of atoms or a particular arrangement of atoms such as a silicon sphere to greater precision than the kilogram standard, it may become possible to base mass measurements on the small scale. There are also possibilities that electrical phenomena on the small scale may someday allow us to base a unit of charge on the charge of electrons and protons, but at present current and charge are related to large-scale currents and forces between wires.

Prefix	Symbol	Value	Example (some are approximate)			
exa	E	10^{18}	exameter	Em	10^{18} m	distance light travels in a century
peta	P	10^{15}	petasecond	Ps	10^{15} s	30 million years
tera	T	10^{12}	terawatt	TW	10^{12} W	powerful laser output

TABLE 1.2 Metric Prefixes for Powers of 10 and their Symbols

Prefix	Symbol	Value	Example (some are approximate)			
giga	G	10^9	gigahertz	GHz	10^9 Hz	a microwave frequency
mega	M	10^6	megacurie	MCi	10^6 Ci	high radioactivity
kilo	k	10^3	kilometer	km	10^3 m	about 6/10 mile
hecto	h	10^2	hectoliter	hL	10^2 L	26 gallons
deka	da	10^1	dekagram	dag	10^1 g	teaspoon of butter
—	—	$10^0 (=1)$				
deci	d	10^{-1}	deciliter	dL	10^{-1} L	less than half a soda
centi	c	10^{-2}	centimeter	cm	10^{-2} m	fingertip thickness
milli	m	10^{-3}	millimeter	mm	10^{-3} m	flea at its shoulders
micro	μ	10^{-6}	micrometer	μm	10^{-6} m	detail in microscope
nano	n	10^{-9}	nanogram	ng	10^{-9} g	small speck of dust
pico	p	10^{-12}	picofarad	pF	10^{-12} F	small capacitor in radio
femto	f	10^{-15}	femtometer	fm	10^{-15} m	size of a proton
atto	a	10^{-18}	attosecond	as	10^{-18} s	time light crosses an atom

TABLE 1.2 Metric Prefixes for Powers of 10 and their Symbols

Known Ranges of Length, Mass, and Time

The vastness of the universe and the breadth over which physics applies are illustrated by the wide range of examples of known lengths, masses, and times in [Table 1.3](#). Examination of this table will give you some feeling for the range of possible topics and numerical values. (See [Figure 1.19](#) and [Figure 1.20](#).)

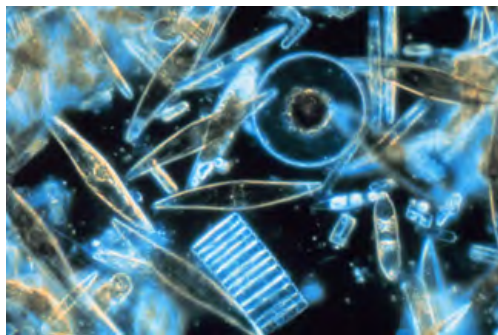


FIGURE 1.19 Tiny phytoplankton swims among crystals of ice in the Antarctic Sea. They range from a few micrometers to as much as 2 millimeters in length. (credit: Prof. Gordon T. Taylor, Stony Brook University; NOAA Corps Collections)



FIGURE 1.20 Galaxies collide 2.4 billion light years away from Earth. The tremendous range of observable phenomena in nature challenges the imagination. (credit: NASA/CXC/UVic./A. Mahdavi et al. Optical/lensing: CFHT/UVic./H. Hoekstra et al.)

Unit Conversion and Dimensional Analysis

It is often necessary to convert from one type of unit to another. For example, if you are reading a European cookbook, some quantities may be expressed in units of liters and you need to convert them to cups. Or, perhaps you are reading walking directions from one location to another and you are interested in how many miles you will be walking. In this case, you will need to convert units of feet to miles.

Let us consider a simple example of how to convert units. Let us say that we want to convert 80 meters (m) to kilometers (km).

The first thing to do is to list the units that you have and the units that you want to convert to. In this case, we have units in *meters* and we want to convert to *kilometers*.

Next, we need to determine a **conversion factor** relating meters to kilometers. A conversion factor is a ratio expressing how many of one unit are equal to another unit. For example, there are 12 inches in 1 foot, 100 centimeters in 1 meter, 60 seconds in 1 minute, and so on. In this case, we know that there are 1,000 meters in 1 kilometer.

Now we can set up our unit conversion. We will write the units that we have and then multiply them by the conversion factor so that the units cancel out, as shown:

$$80 \cancel{\text{m}} \times \frac{1 \text{ km}}{1000 \cancel{\text{m}}} = 0.080 \text{ km.} \quad 1.1$$

Note that the unwanted m unit cancels, leaving only the desired km unit. You can use this method to convert between any types of unit.

Click [Appendix C](#) for a more complete list of conversion factors.

Lengths in meters		Masses in kilograms (more precise values in parentheses)		Times in seconds (more precise values in parentheses)	
10^{-18}	Present experimental limit to smallest observable detail	10^{-30}	Mass of an electron ($9.11 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$)	10^{-23}	Time for light to cross a proton
10^{-15}	Diameter of a proton	10^{-27}	Mass of a hydrogen atom ($1.67 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$)	10^{-22}	Mean life of an extremely unstable nucleus

TABLE 1.3 Approximate Values of Length, Mass, and Time

Lengths in meters		Masses in kilograms (more precise values in parentheses)		Times in seconds (more precise values in parentheses)	
10^{-14}	Diameter of a uranium nucleus	10^{-15}	Mass of a bacterium	10^{-15}	Time for one oscillation of visible light
10^{-10}	Diameter of a hydrogen atom	10^{-5}	Mass of a mosquito	10^{-13}	Time for one vibration of an atom in a solid
10^{-8}	Thickness of membranes in cells of living organisms	10^{-2}	Mass of a hummingbird	10^{-8}	Time for one oscillation of an FM radio wave
10^{-6}	Wavelength of visible light	1	Mass of a liter of water (about a quart)	10^{-3}	Duration of a nerve impulse
10^{-3}	Size of a grain of sand	10^2	Mass of a person	1	Time for one heartbeat
1	Height of a 4-year-old child	10^3	Mass of a car	10^5	One day (8.64×10^4 s)
10^2	Length of a football field	10^8	Mass of a large ship	10^7	One year (y) (3.16×10^7 s)
10^4	Greatest ocean depth	10^{12}	Mass of a large iceberg	10^9	About half the life expectancy of a human
10^7	Diameter of the Earth	10^{15}	Mass of the nucleus of a comet	10^{11}	Recorded history
10^{11}	Distance from the Earth to the Sun	10^{23}	Mass of the Moon (7.35×10^{22} kg)	10^{17}	Age of the Earth
10^{16}	Distance traveled by light in 1 year (a light year)	10^{25}	Mass of the Earth (5.97×10^{24} kg)	10^{18}	Age of the universe
10^{21}	Diameter of the Milky Way galaxy	10^{30}	Mass of the Sun (1.99×10^{30} kg)		
10^{22}	Distance from the Earth to the nearest large galaxy (Andromeda)	10^{42}	Mass of the Milky Way galaxy (current upper limit)		
10^{26}	Distance from the Earth to the edges of the known universe	10^{53}	Mass of the known universe (current upper limit)		

TABLE 1.3 Approximate Values of Length, Mass, and Time



EXAMPLE 1.1

Unit Conversions: A Short Drive Home

Suppose that you drive the 10.0 km from your school to home in 20.0 min. Calculate your average speed (a) in kilometers per hour (km/h) and (b) in meters per second (m/s). (Note: Average speed is distance traveled divided by time of travel.)

Strategy

First we calculate the average speed using the given units. Then we can get the average speed into the desired units by picking the correct conversion factor and multiplying by it. The correct conversion factor is the one that cancels the unwanted unit and leaves the desired unit in its place.

Solution for (a)

(1) Calculate average speed. Average speed is distance traveled divided by time of travel. (Take this definition as a given for now—average speed and other motion concepts will be covered in a later module.) In equation form,

$$\text{average speed} = \frac{\text{distance}}{\text{time}}. \quad 1.2$$

(2) Substitute the given values for distance and time.

$$\text{average speed} = \frac{10.0 \text{ km}}{20.0 \text{ min}} = 0.500 \frac{\text{km}}{\text{min}}. \quad 1.3$$

(3) Convert km/min to km/h: multiply by the conversion factor that will cancel minutes and leave hours. That conversion factor is 60 min/hr

Discussion for (a)

To check your answer, consider the following:

(1) Be sure that you have properly cancelled the units in the unit conversion. If you have written the unit conversion factor upside down, the units will not cancel properly in the equation. If you accidentally get the ratio upside down, then the units will not cancel; rather, they will give you the wrong units as follows:

$$\frac{\text{km}}{\text{min}} \times \frac{1 \text{ hr}}{60 \text{ min}} = \frac{1}{60} \frac{\text{km} \cdot \text{hr}}{\text{min}^2}, \quad 1.4$$

which are obviously not the desired units of km/h.

(2) Check that the units of the final answer are the desired units. The problem asked us to solve for average speed in units of km/h and we have indeed obtained these units.

(3) Check the significant figures. Because each of the values given in the problem has three significant figures, the answer should also have three significant figures. The answer 30.0 km/hr does indeed have three significant figures, so this is appropriate. Note that the significant figures in the conversion factor are not relevant because an hour is *defined* to be 60 minutes, so the precision of the conversion factor is perfect.

(4) Next, check whether the answer is reasonable. Let us consider some information from the problem—if you travel 10 km in a third of an hour (20 min), you would travel three times that far in an hour. The answer does seem reasonable.

Solution for (b)

There are several ways to convert the average speed into meters per second.

(1) Start with the answer to (a) and convert km/h to m/s. Two conversion factors are needed—one to convert hours to seconds, and another to convert kilometers to meters.

(2) Multiplying by these yields

$$\text{Average speed} = 30.0 \frac{\text{km}}{\text{h}} \times \frac{1 \text{ h}}{3,600 \text{ s}} \times \frac{1,000 \text{ m}}{1 \text{ km}}, \quad 1.5$$

$$\text{Average speed} = 8.33 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}. \quad 1.6$$

Discussion for (b)

If we had started with 0.500 km/min, we would have needed different conversion factors, but the answer would have been the same: 8.33 m/s.

You may have noted that the answers in the worked example just covered were given to three digits. Why? When do you need to be concerned about the number of digits in something you calculate? Why not write down all the digits your calculator produces? The module [Accuracy, Precision, and Significant Figures](#) will help you answer these questions.

NONSTANDARD UNITS

While there are numerous types of units that we are all familiar with, there are others that are much more obscure. For example, a **firkin** is a unit of volume that was once used to measure beer. One firkin equals about 34 liters. To learn more about nonstandard units, use a dictionary or encyclopedia to research different “weights and measures.” Take note of any unusual units, such as a barleycorn, that are not listed in the text. Think about how the unit is defined and state its relationship to SI units.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Some hummingbirds beat their wings more than 50 times per second. A scientist is measuring the time it takes for a hummingbird to beat its wings once. Which fundamental unit should the scientist use to describe the measurement? Which factor of 10 is the scientist likely to use to describe the motion precisely? Identify the metric prefix that corresponds to this factor of 10.

Solution

The scientist will measure the time between each movement using the fundamental unit of seconds. Because the wings beat so fast, the scientist will probably need to measure in milliseconds, or 10^{-3} seconds. (50 beats per second corresponds to 20 milliseconds per beat.)

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

One cubic centimeter is equal to one milliliter. What does this tell you about the different units in the SI metric system?

Solution

The fundamental unit of length (meter) is probably used to create the derived unit of volume (liter). The measure of a milliliter is dependent on the measure of a centimeter.

1.3 Accuracy, Precision, and Significant Figures

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Determine the appropriate number of significant figures in both addition and subtraction, as well as multiplication and division calculations.
- Calculate the percent uncertainty of a measurement.



FIGURE 1.21 A double-pan mechanical balance is used to compare different masses. Usually an object with unknown mass is placed in one pan and objects of known mass are placed in the other pan. When the bar that connects the two pans is horizontal, then the masses in both pans are equal. The “known masses” are typically metal cylinders of standard mass such as 1 gram, 10 grams, and 100 grams. (credit: Serge Melki)

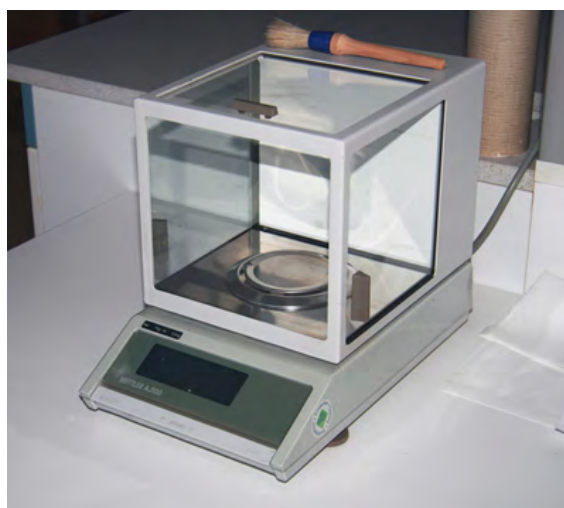


FIGURE 1.22 Many mechanical balances, such as double-pan balances, have been replaced by digital scales, which can typically measure the mass of an object more precisely. Whereas a mechanical balance may only read the mass of an object to the nearest tenth of a gram, many digital scales can measure the mass of an object up to the nearest thousandth of a gram. (credit: Karel Jakubec)

Accuracy and Precision of a Measurement

Science is based on observation and experiment—that is, on measurements. **Accuracy** is how close a measurement is to the correct value for that measurement. For example, let us say that you are measuring the length of standard computer paper. The packaging in which you purchased the paper states that it is 11.0 inches long. You measure the length of the paper three times and obtain the following measurements: 11.1 in., 11.2 in., and 10.9 in. These measurements are quite accurate because they are very close to the correct value of 11.0 inches. In contrast, if you had obtained a measurement of 12 inches, your measurement would not be very accurate.

The **precision** of a measurement system refers to how close the agreement is between repeated measurements (which are repeated under the same conditions). Consider the example of the paper measurements. The precision of the measurements refers to the spread of the measured values. One way to analyze the precision of the measurements would be to determine the range, or difference, between the lowest and the highest measured values. In that case, the lowest value was 10.9 in. and the highest value was 11.2 in. Thus, the measured values deviated from each other by at most 0.3 in. These measurements were relatively precise because they did not vary too much in value. However, if the measured values had been 10.9, 11.1, and 11.9, then the measurements would not be very precise because there would be significant variation from one measurement to another.

The measurements in the paper example are both accurate and precise, but in some cases, measurements are accurate but not precise, or they are precise but not accurate. Let us consider an example of a GPS system that is attempting to locate the position of a restaurant in a city. Think of the restaurant location as existing at the center of a bull's-eye target, and think of each GPS attempt to locate the restaurant as a black dot. In [Figure 1.23](#), you can see

that the GPS measurements are spread out far apart from each other, but they are all relatively close to the actual location of the restaurant at the center of the target. This indicates a low precision, high accuracy measuring system. However, in [Figure 1.24](#), the GPS measurements are concentrated quite closely to one another, but they are far away from the target location. This indicates a high precision, low accuracy measuring system.

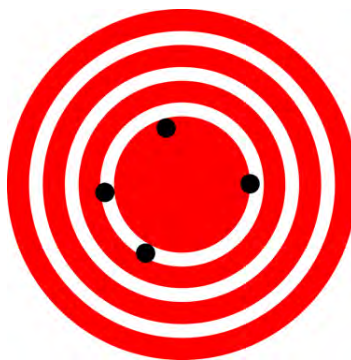


FIGURE 1.23 A GPS system attempts to locate a restaurant at the center of the bull's-eye. The black dots represent each attempt to pinpoint the location of the restaurant. The dots are spread out quite far apart from one another, indicating low precision, but they are each rather close to the actual location of the restaurant, indicating high accuracy. (credit: Dark Evil)



FIGURE 1.24 In this figure, the dots are concentrated rather closely to one another, indicating high precision, but they are rather far away from the actual location of the restaurant, indicating low accuracy. (credit: Dark Evil)

Accuracy, Precision, and Uncertainty

The degree of accuracy and precision of a measuring system are related to the **uncertainty** in the measurements. Uncertainty is a quantitative measure of how much your measured values deviate from a standard or expected value. If your measurements are not very accurate or precise, then the uncertainty of your values will be very high. In more general terms, uncertainty can be thought of as a disclaimer for your measured values. For example, if someone asked you to provide the mileage on your car, you might say that it is 45,000 miles, plus or minus 500 miles. The plus or minus amount is the uncertainty in your value. That is, you are indicating that the actual mileage of your car might be as low as 44,500 miles or as high as 45,500 miles, or anywhere in between. All measurements contain some amount of uncertainty. In our example of measuring the length of the paper, we might say that the length of the paper is 11 in., plus or minus 0.2 in. The uncertainty in a measurement, A , is often denoted as δA ("delta A "), so the measurement result would be recorded as $A \pm \delta A$. In our paper example, the length of the paper could be expressed as 11 in. $\pm$ 0.2.

The factors contributing to uncertainty in a measurement include:

1. Limitations of the measuring device,
2. The skill of the person making the measurement,
3. Irregularities in the object being measured,
4. Any other factors that affect the outcome (highly dependent on the situation).

In our example, such factors contributing to the uncertainty could be the following: the smallest division on the ruler is 0.1 in., the person using the ruler has bad eyesight, or one side of the paper is slightly longer than the other. At any rate, the uncertainty in a measurement must be based on a careful consideration of all the factors that might contribute and their possible effects.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: REAL-WORLD CONNECTIONS – FEVERS OR CHILLS?

Uncertainty is a critical piece of information, both in physics and in many other real-world applications. Imagine you are caring for a sick child. You suspect the child has a fever, so you check their temperature with a thermometer. What if the uncertainty of the thermometer were 3.0°C ? If the child's temperature reading was 37.0°C (which is normal body temperature), the “true” temperature could be anywhere from a hypothermic 34.0°C to a dangerously high 40.0°C . A thermometer with an uncertainty of 3.0°C would be useless.

Percent Uncertainty

One method of expressing uncertainty is as a percent of the measured value. If a measurement A is expressed with uncertainty, δA , the **percent uncertainty** (%unc) is defined to be

$$\% \text{ unc} = \frac{\delta A}{A} \times 100\%. \quad 1.7$$



EXAMPLE 1.2

Calculating Percent Uncertainty: A Bag of Apples

A grocery store sells 5-lb bags of apples. You purchase four bags over the course of a month and weigh the apples each time. You obtain the following measurements:

- Week 1 weight: 4.8 lb
- Week 2 weight: 5.3 lb
- Week 3 weight: 4.9 lb
- Week 4 weight: 5.4 lb

You determine that the weight of the 5-lb bag has an uncertainty of ± 0.4 lb. What is the percent uncertainty of the bag's weight?

Strategy

First, observe that the expected value of the bag's weight, A , is 5 lb. The uncertainty in this value, δA , is 0.4 lb. We can use the following equation to determine the percent uncertainty of the weight:

$$\% \text{ unc} = \frac{\delta A}{A} \times 100\%. \quad 1.8$$

Solution

Plug the known values into the equation:

$$\% \text{ unc} = \frac{0.4 \text{ lb}}{5 \text{ lb}} \times 100\% = 8\%. \quad 1.9$$

Discussion

We can conclude that the weight of the apple bag is $5 \text{ lb} \pm 8\%$. Consider how this percent uncertainty would change if the bag of apples were half as heavy, but the uncertainty in the weight remained the same. Hint for future calculations: when calculating percent uncertainty, always remember that you must multiply the fraction by 100%. If you do not do this, you will have a decimal quantity, not a percent value.

Uncertainties in Calculations

There is an uncertainty in anything calculated from measured quantities. For example, the area of a floor calculated from measurements of its length and width has an uncertainty because the length and width have uncertainties. How big is the uncertainty in something you calculate by multiplication or division? If the measurements going into the calculation have small uncertainties (a few percent or less), then the **method of adding percents** can be used for multiplication or division. This method says that *the percent uncertainty in a quantity calculated by multiplication*

or division is the sum of the percent uncertainties in the items used to make the calculation. For example, if a floor has a length of 4.00 m and a width of 3.00 m, with uncertainties of 2% and 1%, respectively, then the area of the floor is 12.0 m^2 and has an uncertainty of 3%. (Expressed as an area this is 0.36 m^2 , which we round to 0.4 m^2 since the area of the floor is given to a tenth of a square meter.)

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

A high school track coach has just purchased a new stopwatch. The stopwatch manual states that the stopwatch has an uncertainty of $\pm 0.05 \text{ s}$. The team's top sprinter clocked a 100 meter sprint at 12.04 seconds last week and at 11.96 seconds this week. Can we conclude that this week's time was faster?

Solution

No, the uncertainty in the stopwatch is too great to effectively differentiate between the sprint times.

Precision of Measuring Tools and Significant Figures

An important factor in the accuracy and precision of measurements involves the precision of the measuring tool. In general, a precise measuring tool is one that can measure values in very small increments. For example, a standard ruler can measure length to the nearest millimeter, while a caliper can measure length to the nearest 0.01 millimeter. The caliper is a more precise measuring tool because it can measure extremely small differences in length. The more precise the measuring tool, the more precise and accurate the measurements can be.

When we express measured values, we can only list as many digits as we initially measured with our measuring tool. For example, if you use a standard ruler to measure the length of a stick, you may measure it to be 36.7 cm. You could not express this value as 36.71 cm because your measuring tool was not precise enough to measure a hundredth of a centimeter. It should be noted that the last digit in a measured value has been estimated in some way by the person performing the measurement. For example, the person measuring the length of a stick with a ruler notices that the stick length seems to be somewhere in between 36.6 cm and 36.7 cm, and they must estimate the value of the last digit. Using the method of **significant figures**, the rule is that *the last digit written down in a measurement is the first digit with some uncertainty*. In order to determine the number of significant digits in a value, start with the first measured value at the left and count the number of digits through the last digit written on the right. For example, the measured value 36.7 cm has three digits, or significant figures. Significant figures indicate the precision of a measuring tool that was used to measure a value.

Zeros

Special consideration is given to zeros when counting significant figures. The zeros in 0.053 are not significant, because they are only placekeepers that locate the decimal point. There are two significant figures in 0.053. The zeros in 10.053 are not placekeepers but are significant—this number has five significant figures. The zeros in 1300 may or may not be significant depending on the style of writing numbers. They could mean the number is known to the last digit, or they could be placekeepers. So 1300 could have two, three, or four significant figures. (To avoid this ambiguity, write 1300 in scientific notation.) *Zeros are significant except when they serve only as placekeepers.*

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Determine the number of significant figures in the following measurements:

- 0.0009
- 15,450.0
- 6×10^3
- 87.990
- 30.42

Solution

- 1; the zeros in this number are placekeepers that indicate the decimal point
- 6; here, the zeros indicate that a measurement was made to the 0.1 decimal point, so the zeros are significant
- 1; the value 10^3 signifies the decimal place, not the number of measured values

(d) 5; the final zero indicates that a measurement was made to the 0.001 decimal point, so it is significant

(e) 4; any zeros located in between significant figures in a number are also significant

Significant Figures in Calculations

When combining measurements with different degrees of accuracy and precision, *the number of significant digits in the final answer can be no greater than the number of significant digits in the least precise measured value*. There are two different rules, one for multiplication and division and the other for addition and subtraction, as discussed below.

1. For multiplication and division: *The result should have the same number of significant figures as the quantity having the least significant figures entering into the calculation.* For example, the area of a circle can be calculated from its radius using $A = \pi r^2$. Let us see how many significant figures the area has if the radius has only two—say, $r = 1.2$ m. Then,

$$A = \pi r^2 = (3.1415927\ldots) \times (1.2 \text{ m})^2 = 4.5238934 \text{ m}^2 \quad 1.10$$

is what you would get using a calculator that has an eight-digit output. But because the radius has only two significant figures, it limits the calculated quantity to two significant figures or

$$A = 4.5 \text{ m}^2, \quad 1.11$$

even though π is good to at least eight digits.

2. For addition and subtraction: *The answer can contain no more decimal places than the least precise measurement.* Suppose that you buy 7.56-kg of potatoes in a grocery store as measured with a scale with precision 0.01 kg. Then you drop off 6.052-kg of potatoes at your laboratory as measured by a scale with precision 0.001 kg. Finally, you go home and add 13.7 kg of potatoes as measured by a bathroom scale with precision 0.1 kg. How many kilograms of potatoes do you now have, and how many significant figures are appropriate in the answer? The mass is found by simple addition and subtraction:

$$\begin{array}{r} 7.56 \text{ kg} \\ - 6.052 \text{ kg} \\ + 13.7 \text{ kg} \\ \hline 15.208 \text{ kg} \end{array} = 15.2 \text{ kg}. \quad 1.12$$

Next, we identify the least precise measurement: 13.7 kg. This measurement is expressed to the 0.1 decimal place, so our final answer must also be expressed to the 0.1 decimal place. Thus, the answer is rounded to the tenths place, giving us 15.2 kg.

Significant Figures in this Text

In this text, most numbers are assumed to have three significant figures. Furthermore, consistent numbers of significant figures are used in all worked examples. You will note that an answer given to three digits is based on input good to at least three digits, for example. If the input has fewer significant figures, the answer will also have fewer significant figures. Care is also taken that the number of significant figures is reasonable for the situation posed. In some topics, particularly in optics, more accurate numbers are needed and more than three significant figures will be used. Finally, if a number is *exact*, such as the two in the formula for the circumference of a circle, $c = 2\pi r$, it does not affect the number of significant figures in a calculation.

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Perform the following calculations and express your answer using the correct number of significant digits.

(a) A woman has two bags weighing 13.5 pounds and one bag with a weight of 10.2 pounds. What is the total weight of the bags?

(b) The force F on an object is equal to its mass m multiplied by its acceleration a . If a wagon with mass 55 kg accelerates at a rate of 0.0255 m/s^2 , what is the force on the wagon? (The unit of force is called the newton, and it is expressed with the symbol N.)

Solution

(a) 37.2 pounds; Because the number of bags is an exact value, it is not considered in the significant figures.

(b) 1.4 N; Because the value 55 kg has only two significant figures, the final value must also contain two significant figures.

1.4 Approximation

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Make reasonable approximations based on given data.

On many occasions, physicists, other scientists, and engineers need to make **approximations** or “guesstimates” for a particular quantity. What is the distance to a certain destination? What is the approximate density of a given item? About how large a current will there be in a circuit? Many approximate numbers are based on formulae in which the input quantities are known only to a limited accuracy. As you develop problem-solving skills (that can be applied to a variety of fields through a study of physics), you will also develop skills at approximating. You will develop these skills through thinking more quantitatively, and by being willing to take risks. As with any endeavor, experience helps, as well as familiarity with units. These approximations allow us to rule out certain scenarios or unrealistic numbers. Approximations also allow us to challenge others and guide us in our approaches to our scientific world. Let us do two examples to illustrate this concept.



EXAMPLE 1.3

Approximate the Height of a Building

Can you approximate the height of one of the buildings on your campus, or in your neighborhood? Let us make an approximation based upon the height of a person. In this example, we will calculate the height of a 39-story building.

Strategy

Think about the average height of an adult male. We can approximate the height of the building by scaling up from the height of a person.

Solution

Based on information in the example, we know there are 39 stories in the building. If we use the fact that the height of one story is approximately equal to about the length of two adult humans (each human is about 2-m tall), then we can estimate the total height of the building to be

$$\frac{2 \text{ m}}{1 \text{ person}} \times \frac{2 \text{ person}}{1 \text{ story}} \times 39 \text{ stories} = 156 \text{ m.} \quad 1.13$$

Discussion

You can use known quantities to determine an approximate measurement of unknown quantities. If your hand measures 10 cm across, how many hand lengths equal the width of your desk? What other measurements can you approximate besides length?

EXAMPLE 1.4

Approximating Vast Numbers: a Trillion Dollars



FIGURE 1.25 A bank stack contains one-hundred \$100 bills, and is worth \$10,000. How many bank stacks make up a trillion dollars? (credit: Andrew Magill)

The U.S. federal debt in 2021 was a little more than \$28 trillion. Most of us do not have any concept of how much even one trillion actually is. Suppose that you were given a trillion dollars in \$100 bills. If you made 100-bill stacks and used them to evenly cover a football field (between the end zones), make an approximation of how high the money pile would become. (We will use feet/inches rather than meters here because football fields are measured in yards.) One of your friends says 3 in., while another says 10 ft. What do you think?

Strategy

When you imagine the situation, you probably envision thousands of small stacks of 100 wrapped \$100 bills, such as you might see in movies or at a bank. Since this is an easy-to-approximate quantity, let us start there. We can find the volume of a stack of 100 bills, find out how many stacks make up one trillion dollars, and then set this volume equal to the area of the football field multiplied by the unknown height.

Solution

(1) Calculate the volume of a stack of 100 bills. The dimensions of a single bill are approximately 3 in. by 6 in. A stack of 100 of these is about 0.5 in. thick. So the total volume of a stack of 100 bills is:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{volume of stack} &= \text{length} \times \text{width} \times \text{height}, \\ \text{volume of stack} &= 6 \text{ in.} \times 3 \text{ in.} \times 0.5 \text{ in.}, \\ \text{volume of stack} &= 9 \text{ in.}^3.\end{aligned}\tag{1.14}$$

(2) Calculate the number of stacks. Note that a trillion dollars is equal to $\$1 \times 10^{12}$, and a stack of one-hundred \$100 bills is equal to \$10,000, or $\$1 \times 10^4$. The number of stacks you will have is:

$$\$1 \times 10^{12} (\text{a trillion dollars}) / \$1 \times 10^4 \text{ per stack} = 1 \times 10^8 \text{ stacks}.\tag{1.15}$$

(3) Calculate the area of a football field in square inches. The area of a football field is 100 yd $\times$ 50 yd, which gives 5,000 yd². Because we are working in inches, we need to convert square yards to square inches:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Area} &= 5,000 \text{ yd}^2 \times \frac{3 \text{ ft}}{1 \text{ yd}} \times \frac{3 \text{ ft}}{1 \text{ yd}} \times \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{1 \text{ ft}} \times \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{1 \text{ ft}} = 6,480,000 \text{ in.}^2, \\ \text{Area} &\approx 6 \times 10^6 \text{ in.}^2.\end{aligned}\tag{1.16}$$

This conversion gives us $6 \times 10^6 \text{ in.}^2$ for the area of the field. (Note that we are using only one significant figure in these calculations.)

(4) Calculate the total volume of the bills. The volume of all the \$100-bill stacks is

$$9 \text{ in.}^3/\text{stack} \times 10^8 \text{ stacks} = 9 \times 10^8 \text{ in.}^3.$$

(5) Calculate the height. To determine the height of the bills, use the equation:

$$\text{volume of bills} = \text{area of field} \times \text{height of money:}$$

$$\text{Height of money} = \frac{\text{volume of bills}}{\text{area of field}},$$

$$\text{Height of money} = \frac{9 \times 10^8 \text{ in.}^3}{6 \times 10^6 \text{ in.}^2} = 1.33 \times 10^2 \text{ in.},$$

1.17

$$\text{Height of money} \approx 1 \times 10^2 \text{ in.} = 100 \text{ in.}$$

The height of the money will be about 100 in. high. Converting this value to feet gives

$$100 \text{ in.} \times \frac{1 \text{ ft}}{12 \text{ in.}} = 8.33 \text{ ft} \approx 8 \text{ ft.}$$

1.18

Discussion

The final approximate value is much higher than the early estimate of 3 in., but the other early estimate of 10 ft (120 in.) was roughly correct. How did the approximation measure up to your first guess? What can this exercise tell you in terms of rough “guesstimates” versus carefully calculated approximations?

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Using mental math and your understanding of fundamental units, approximate the area of a regulation basketball court. Describe the process you used to arrive at your final approximation.

Solution

An average male is about two meters tall. It would take approximately 15 males laid out end to end to cover the length, and about 7 to cover the width. That gives an approximate area of 420 m^2 .

Glossary

accuracy the degree to which a measured value agrees with correct value for that measurement

approximation an estimated value based on prior experience and reasoning

classical physics physics that was developed from the Renaissance to the end of the 19th century

conversion factor a ratio expressing how many of one unit are equal to another unit

derived units units that can be calculated using algebraic combinations of the fundamental units

English units system of measurement used in the United States; includes units of measurement such as feet, gallons, and pounds

fundamental units units that can only be expressed relative to the procedure used to measure them

kilogram the SI unit for mass, abbreviated (kg)

law a description, using concise language or a mathematical formula, a generalized pattern in nature that is supported by scientific evidence and repeated experiments

meter the SI unit for length, abbreviated (m)

method of adding percents the percent uncertainty in a quantity calculated by multiplication or division is the sum of the percent uncertainties in the items used to make the calculation

metric system a system in which values can be calculated in factors of 10

model representation of something that is often too difficult (or impossible) to display directly

modern physics the study of relativity, quantum mechanics, or both

order of magnitude refers to the size of a quantity as it relates to a power of 10

percent uncertainty the ratio of the uncertainty of a measurement to the measured value, expressed as a percentage

physical quantity a characteristic or property of an object that can be measured or calculated from other measurements

physics the science concerned with describing the interactions of energy, matter, space, and time; it is especially interested in what fundamental mechanisms underlie every phenomenon

precision the degree to which repeated measurements agree with each other

quantum mechanics the study of objects smaller than can be seen with a microscope

relativity the study of objects moving at speeds greater than about 1% of the speed of light, or of objects being affected by a strong gravitational field

scientific method a method that typically begins with an observation and question that the scientist will research; next, the scientist typically performs some research about the topic and then devises a hypothesis; then, the scientist will test the hypothesis by performing an experiment; finally, the scientist analyzes the results of the experiment and draws a conclusion

second the SI unit for time, abbreviated (s)

SI units the international system of units that scientists in most countries have agreed to use; includes units such as meters, liters, and grams

significant figures express the precision of a measuring tool used to measure a value

theory an explanation for patterns in nature that is supported by scientific evidence and verified multiple times by various groups of researchers

uncertainty a quantitative measure of how much your measured values deviate from a standard or expected value

units a standard used for expressing and comparing measurements

Section Summary

1.1 Physics: An Introduction

- Science seeks to discover and describe the underlying order and simplicity in nature.
- Physics is the most basic of the sciences, concerning itself with energy, matter, space and time, and their interactions.
- Scientific laws and theories express the general truths of nature and the body of knowledge they encompass. These laws of nature are rules that all natural processes appear to follow.

1.2 Physical Quantities and Units

- Physical quantities are a characteristic or property

of an object that can be measured or calculated from other measurements.

- Units are standards for expressing and comparing the measurement of physical quantities. All units can be expressed as combinations of four fundamental units.
- The four fundamental units we will use in this text are the meter (for length), the kilogram (for mass), the second (for time), and the ampere (for electric current). These units are part of the metric system, which uses powers of 10 to relate quantities over the vast ranges encountered in nature.
- The four fundamental units are abbreviated as follows: meter, m; kilogram, kg; second, s; and

ampere, A. The metric system also uses a standard set of prefixes to denote each order of magnitude greater than or lesser than the fundamental unit itself.

- Unit conversions involve changing a value expressed in one type of unit to another type of unit. This is done by using conversion factors, which are ratios relating equal quantities of different units.

1.3 Accuracy, Precision, and Significant Figures

- Accuracy of a measured value refers to how close a measurement is to the correct value. The uncertainty in a measurement is an estimate of the amount by which the measurement result may differ from this value.
- Precision of measured values refers to how close

the agreement is between repeated measurements.

- The precision of a *measuring tool* is related to the size of its measurement increments. The smaller the measurement increment, the more precise the tool.
- Significant figures express the precision of a measuring tool.
- When multiplying or dividing measured values, the final answer can contain only as many significant figures as the least precise value.
- When adding or subtracting measured values, the final answer cannot contain more decimal places than the least precise value.

1.4 Approximation

Scientists often approximate the values of quantities to perform calculations and analyze systems.

Conceptual Questions

1.1 Physics: An Introduction

1. Models are particularly useful in relativity and quantum mechanics, where conditions are outside those normally encountered by humans. What is a model?
2. How does a model differ from a theory?
3. If two different theories describe experimental observations equally well, can one be said to be more valid than the other (assuming both use accepted rules of logic)?
4. What determines the validity of a theory?
5. Certain criteria must be satisfied if a measurement or observation is to be believed. Will the criteria necessarily be as strict for an expected result as for an unexpected result?
6. Can the validity of a model be limited, or must it be universally valid? How does this compare to the required validity of a theory or a law?
7. Classical physics is a good approximation to modern physics under certain circumstances. What are they?

8. When is it *necessary* to use relativistic quantum mechanics?
9. Can classical physics be used to accurately describe a satellite moving at a speed of 7500 m/s? Explain why or why not.

1.2 Physical Quantities and Units

10. Identify some advantages of metric units.

1.3 Accuracy, Precision, and Significant Figures

11. What is the relationship between the accuracy and uncertainty of a measurement?
12. Prescriptions for vision correction are given in units called *diopters* (D). Determine the meaning of that unit. Obtain information (perhaps by calling an optometrist or performing an internet search) on the minimum uncertainty with which corrections in diopters are determined and the accuracy with which corrective lenses can be produced. Discuss the sources of uncertainties in both the prescription and accuracy in the manufacture of lenses.

Problems & Exercises

1.2 Physical Quantities and Units

1. The speed limit on some interstate highways is roughly 100 km/h. (a) What is this in meters per second? (b) How many miles per hour is this?
2. A car is traveling at a speed of 33 m/s. (a) What is

its speed in kilometers per hour? (b) Is it exceeding the 90 km/h speed limit?

3. Show that $1.0 \text{ m/s} = 3.6 \text{ km/h}$. Hint: Show the explicit steps involved in converting $1.0 \text{ m/s} = 3.6 \text{ km/h}$.

4. American football is played on a 100-yd-long field, excluding the end zones. How long is the field in meters? (Assume that 1 meter equals 3.281 feet.)
5. Soccer fields vary in size. A large soccer field is 115 m long and 85 m wide. What are its dimensions in feet and inches? (Assume that 1 meter equals 3.281 feet.)
6. What is the height in meters of a person who is 6 ft 1.0 in. tall? (Assume that 1 meter equals 39.37 in.)
7. Mount Everest, at 29,028 feet, is the tallest mountain on the Earth. What is its height in kilometers? (Assume that 1 kilometer equals 3,281 feet.)
8. The speed of sound is measured to be 342 m/s on a certain day. What is this in km/h?
9. Tectonic plates are large segments of the Earth's crust that move slowly. Suppose that one such plate has an average speed of 4.0 cm/year. (a) What distance does it move in 1 s at this speed? (b) What is its speed in kilometers per million years?
10. (a) Refer to [Table 1.3](#) to determine the average distance between the Earth and the Sun. Then calculate the average speed of the Earth in its orbit in kilometers per second. (b) What is this in meters per second?
16. A can contains 375 mL of soda. How much is left after 308 mL is removed?
17. State how many significant figures are proper in the results of the following calculations: (a) $(106.7)(98.2)/(46.210)(1.01)$ (b) $(18.7)^2$ (c) $(1.60 \times 10^{-19})(3712)$.
18. (a) How many significant figures are in the numbers 99 and 100? (b) If the uncertainty in each number is 1, what is the percent uncertainty in each? (c) Which is a more meaningful way to express the accuracy of these two numbers, significant figures or percent uncertainties?
19. (a) If your speedometer has an uncertainty of 2.0 km/h at a speed of 90 km/h, what is the percent uncertainty? (b) If it has the same percent uncertainty when it reads 60 km/h, what is the range of speeds you could be going?
20. (a) A person's blood pressure is measured to be 120 ± 2 mm Hg. What is its percent uncertainty? (b) Assuming the same percent uncertainty, what is the uncertainty in a blood pressure measurement of 80 mm Hg?
21. A person measures their heart rate by counting the number of beats in 30 s. If 40 ± 1 beats are counted in 30.0 ± 0.5 s, what is the heart rate and its uncertainty in beats per minute?

1.3 Accuracy, Precision, and Significant Figures

Express your answers to problems in this section to the correct number of significant figures and proper units.

11. Suppose that your bathroom scale reads your mass as 65 kg with a 3% uncertainty. What is the uncertainty in your mass (in kilograms)?
12. A good-quality measuring tape can be off by 0.50 cm over a distance of 20 m. What is its percent uncertainty?
13. (a) A car speedometer has a 5.0% uncertainty. What is the range of possible speeds when it reads 90 km/h? (b) Convert this range to miles per hour. (1 km = 0.6214 mi)
14. An infant's pulse rate is measured to be 130 ± 5 beats/min. What is the percent uncertainty in this measurement?
15. (a) Suppose that a person has an average heart rate of 72.0 beats/min. How many beats do they have in 2.0 y? (b) In 2.00 y? (c) In 2.000 y?
22. What is the area of a circle 3.102 cm in diameter?
23. If a marathon runner averages 9.5 mi/h, how long does it take him or her to run a 26.22-mi marathon?
24. A marathon runner completes a 42.188-km course in 2 h, 30 min, and 12 s. There is an uncertainty of 25 m in the distance traveled and an uncertainty of 1 s in the elapsed time. (a) Calculate the percent uncertainty in the distance. (b) Calculate the uncertainty in the elapsed time. (c) What is the average speed in meters per second? (d) What is the uncertainty in the average speed?
25. The sides of a small rectangular box are measured to be 1.80 ± 0.01 cm, 2.05 ± 0.02 cm, and 3.1 ± 0.1 cm long. Calculate its volume and uncertainty in cubic centimeters.
26. When non-metric units were used in the United Kingdom, a unit of mass called the *pound-mass* (lbm) was employed, where 1 lbm = 0.4539 kg. (a) If there is an uncertainty of 0.0001 kg in the pound-mass unit, what is its percent uncertainty?

(b) Based on that percent uncertainty, what mass in pound-mass has an uncertainty of 1 kg when converted to kilograms?

27. The length and width of a rectangular room are measured to be 3.955 ± 0.005 m and 3.050 ± 0.005 m. Calculate the area of the room and its uncertainty in square meters.
28. A car engine moves a piston with a circular cross section of 7.500 ± 0.002 cm diameter a distance of 3.250 ± 0.001 cm to compress the gas in the cylinder. (a) By what amount is the gas decreased in volume in cubic centimeters? (b) Find the uncertainty in this volume.

1.4 Approximation

29. How many heartbeats are there in a lifetime?
30. A generation is about one-third of a lifetime. Approximately how many generations have passed since the year 0 AD?
31. How many times longer than the mean life of an extremely unstable atomic nucleus is the lifetime of a human? (Hint: The lifetime of an unstable atomic nucleus is on the order of 10^{-22} s.)
32. Calculate the approximate number of atoms in a bacterium. Assume that the average mass of an atom in the bacterium is ten times the mass of a hydrogen atom. (Hint: The mass of a hydrogen atom is on the order of 10^{-27} kg and the mass of a bacterium is on the order of 10^{-15} kg.)
33. Approximately how many atoms thick is a cell membrane, assuming all atoms there average about twice the size of a hydrogen atom?
34. (a) What fraction of Earth's diameter is the greatest ocean depth? (b) The greatest mountain height?
35. (a) Calculate the number of cells in a hummingbird assuming the mass of an average cell is ten times the mass of a bacterium. (b) Making the same assumption, how many cells are there in a human?
36. Assuming one nerve impulse must end before another can begin, what is the maximum firing rate of a nerve in impulses per second?



FIGURE 1.26 This color-enhanced photo shows *Salmonella typhimurium* (red) attacking human cells. These bacteria are commonly known for causing foodborne illness. Can you estimate the number of atoms in each bacterium? (credit: Rocky Mountain Laboratories, NIAID, NIH)

CHAPTER 2

Kinematics



FIGURE 2.1 The motion of an American kestrel through the air can be described by the bird's displacement, speed, velocity, and acceleration. When it flies in a straight line without any change in direction, its motion is said to be one dimensional. (credit: Vince Maidens, Wikimedia Commons)

CHAPTER OUTLINE

2.1 Displacement

2.2 Vectors, Scalars, and Coordinate Systems

2.3 Time, Velocity, and Speed

2.4 Acceleration

2.5 Motion Equations for Constant Acceleration in One Dimension

2.6 Problem-Solving Basics for One-Dimensional Kinematics

2.7 Falling Objects

2.8 Graphical Analysis of One-Dimensional Motion

CONNECTION FOR AP® COURSES Objects are in motion everywhere we look. Everything from a tennis game to a space-probe flyby of the planet Neptune involves motion. When you are resting, your heart moves blood through your veins. Even in inanimate objects, there is a continuous motion in the vibrations of atoms and molecules. Questions about motion are interesting in and of themselves: *How long will it take for a space probe to get to Mars? Where will a football land if it is thrown at a certain angle?*

Understanding motion will not only provide answers to these questions, but will be key to understanding more advanced concepts in physics. For example, the discussion of force in Chapter 4 will not fully make sense until you understand acceleration. This relationship between force and acceleration is also critical to understanding Big Idea 3.

Additionally, this unit will explore the topic of reference frames, a critical component to quantifying how things move. If you have ever waved to a departing friend at a train station, you are likely familiar with this idea. While you

see your friend move away from you at a considerable rate, those sitting with her will likely see her as not moving. The effect that the chosen reference frame has on your observations is substantial, and an understanding of this is needed to grasp both Enduring Understanding 3.A and Essential Knowledge 3.A.1.

Our formal study of physics begins with **kinematics**, which is defined as the *study of motion without considering its causes*. In one- and two-dimensional kinematics we will study only the *motion* of a football, for example, without worrying about what forces cause or change its motion. In this chapter, we examine the simplest type of motion—namely, motion along a straight line, or one-dimensional motion. Later, in two-dimensional kinematics, we apply concepts developed here to study motion along curved paths (two- and three-dimensional motion), for example, that of a car rounding a curve.

The content in this chapter supports:

Big Idea 3 The interactions of an object with other objects can be described by forces.

Enduring Understanding 3.A All forces share certain common characteristics when considered by observers in inertial reference frames.

Essential Knowledge 3.A.1 An observer in a particular reference frame can describe the motion of an object using such quantities as position, displacement, distance, velocity, speed, and acceleration.

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2.1 Displacement

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define position, displacement, distance, and distance traveled.
- Explain the relationship between position and displacement.
- Distinguish between displacement and distance traveled.
- Calculate displacement and distance given initial position, final position, and the path between the two.



FIGURE 2.2 These cyclists in Vietnam can be described by their position relative to buildings and a canal. Their motion can be described by their change in position, or displacement, in the frame of reference. (credit: Suzan Black, Fotopedia)

Position

In order to describe the motion of an object, you must first be able to describe its **position**—where it is at any particular time. More precisely, you need to specify its position relative to a convenient reference frame. Earth is often used as a reference frame, and we often describe the position of an object as it relates to stationary objects in that reference frame. For example, a rocket launch would be described in terms of the position of the rocket with respect to the Earth as a whole, while a professor's position could be described in terms of where she is in relation to the nearby white board. (See [Figure 2.3](#).) In other cases, we use reference frames that are not stationary but are in motion relative to the Earth. To describe the position of a person in an airplane, for example, we use the airplane, not the Earth, as the reference frame. (See [Figure 2.4](#).)

Displacement

If an object moves relative to a reference frame (for example, if a professor moves to the right relative to a white board or a passenger moves toward the rear of an airplane), then the object's position changes. This change in position is known as **displacement**. The word “displacement” implies that an object has moved, or has been displaced.

DISPLACEMENT

Displacement is the *change in position* of an object:

$$\Delta x = x_f - x_0,$$

2.1

where Δx is displacement, x_f is the final position, and x_0 is the initial position.

In this text the upper case Greek letter Δ (delta) always means “change in” whatever quantity follows it; thus, Δx means *change in position*. Always solve for displacement by subtracting initial position x_0 from final position x_f .

Note that the SI unit for displacement is the meter (m) (see [Physical Quantities and Units](#)), but sometimes kilometers, miles, feet, and other units of length are used. Keep in mind that when units other than the meter are used in a problem, you may need to convert them into meters to complete the calculation.

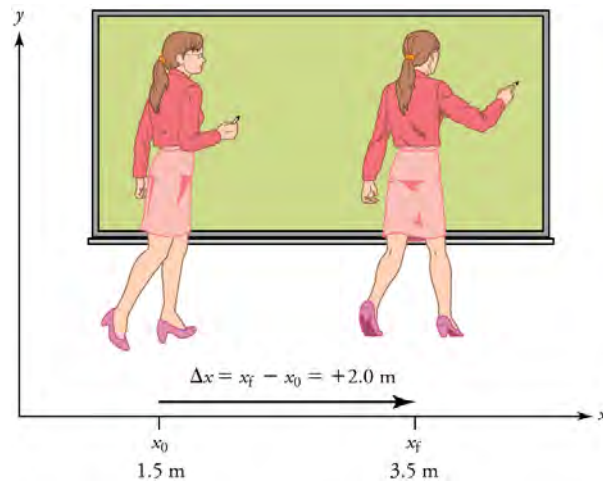


FIGURE 2.3 A professor paces left and right while lecturing. Her position relative to Earth is given by x . The $+2.0 \text{ m}$ displacement of the professor relative to Earth is represented by an arrow pointing to the right.

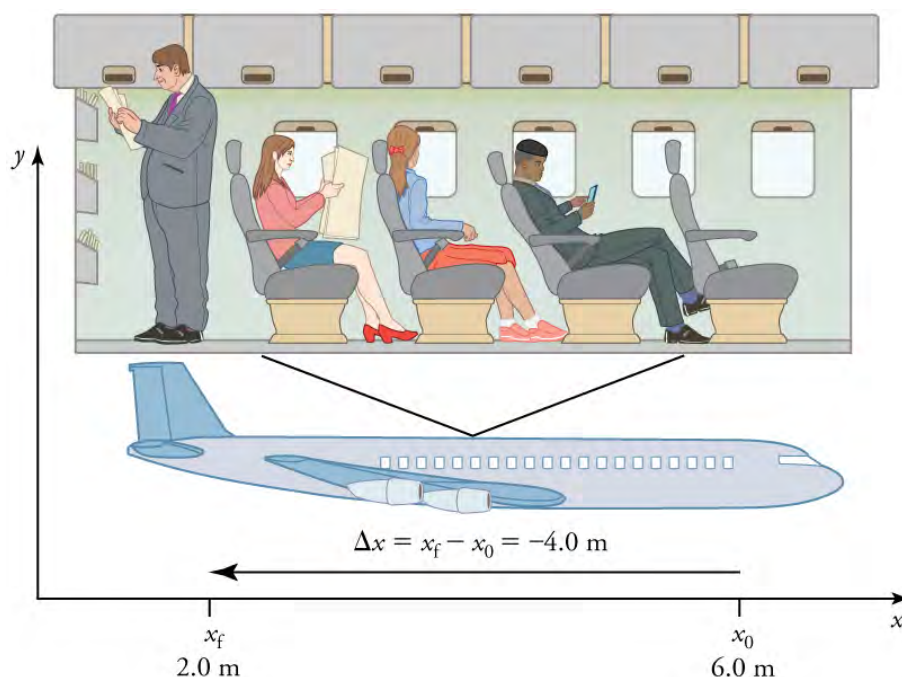


FIGURE 2.4 A passenger moves from his seat to the back of the plane. His location relative to the airplane is given by x . The -4.0-m displacement of the passenger relative to the plane is represented by an arrow toward the rear of the plane. Notice that the arrow representing his displacement is twice as long as the arrow representing the displacement of the professor (he moves twice as far) in [Figure 2.3](#).

Note that displacement has a direction as well as a magnitude. The professor's displacement is 2.0 m to the right, and the airline passenger's displacement is 4.0 m toward the rear. In one-dimensional motion, direction can be specified with a plus or minus sign. When you begin a problem, you should select which direction is positive (usually that will be to the right or up, but you are free to select positive as being any direction). The professor's initial position is $x_0 = 1.5\text{ m}$ and her final position is $x_f = 3.5\text{ m}$. Thus her displacement is

$$\Delta x = x_f - x_0 = 3.5\text{ m} - 1.5\text{ m} = +2.0\text{ m}. \quad 2.2$$

In this coordinate system, motion to the right is positive, whereas motion to the left is negative. Similarly, the airplane passenger's initial position is $x_0 = 6.0\text{ m}$ and his final position is $x_f = 2.0\text{ m}$, so his displacement is

$$\Delta x = x_f - x_0 = 2.0\text{ m} - 6.0\text{ m} = -4.0\text{ m}. \quad 2.3$$

His displacement is negative because his motion is toward the rear of the plane, or in the negative x direction in our coordinate system.

Distance

Although displacement is described in terms of direction, distance is not. **Distance** is defined to be *the magnitude or size of displacement between two positions*. Note that the distance between two positions is not the same as the distance traveled between them. **Distance traveled** is *the total length of the path traveled between two positions*. Distance has no direction and, thus, no sign. For example, the distance the professor walks is 2.0 m . The distance the airplane passenger walks is 4.0 m .

MISCONCEPTION ALERT: DISTANCE TRAVELED VS. MAGNITUDE OF DISPLACEMENT

It is important to note that the *distance traveled*, however, can be greater than the magnitude of the displacement (by magnitude, we mean just the size of the displacement without regard to its direction; that is, just a number with a unit). For example, the professor could pace back and forth many times, perhaps walking a distance of 150 m during a lecture, yet still end up only 2.0 m to the right of her starting point. In this case her displacement would be $+2.0\text{ m}$, the magnitude of her displacement would be 2.0 m , but the distance she traveled would be 150 m . In kinematics we nearly always deal with displacement and magnitude of

displacement, and almost never with distance traveled. One way to think about this is to assume you marked the start of the motion and the end of the motion. The displacement is simply the difference in the position of the two marks and is independent of the path taken in traveling between the two marks. The distance traveled, however, is the total length of the path taken between the two marks.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

A cyclist rides 3 km west and then turns around and rides 2 km east. (a) What is their displacement? (b) What distance do they ride? (c) What is the magnitude of their displacement?

Solution

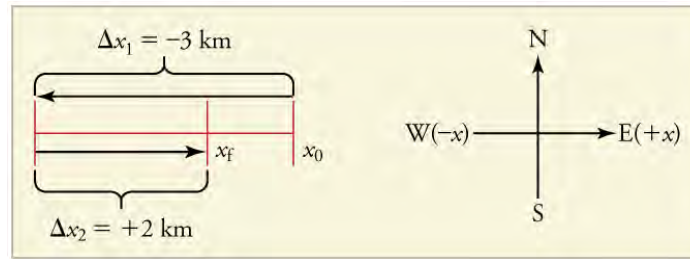


FIGURE 2.5

(a) The rider's displacement is $\Delta x = x_f - x_0 = -1$ km. (The displacement is negative because we take east to be positive and west to be negative.)

(b) The distance traveled is $3 \text{ km} + 2 \text{ km} = 5 \text{ km}$.

(c) The magnitude of the displacement is 1 km.

2.2 Vectors, Scalars, and Coordinate Systems

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define and distinguish between scalar and vector quantities.
- Assign a coordinate system for a scenario involving one-dimensional motion.



FIGURE 2.6 The motion of this Eclipse Concept jet can be described in terms of the distance it has traveled (a scalar quantity) or its displacement in a specific direction (a vector quantity). In order to specify the direction of motion, its displacement must be described based on a coordinate system. In this case, it may be convenient to choose motion toward the left as positive motion (it is the forward direction for the plane), although in many cases, the x -coordinate runs from left to right, with motion to the right as positive and motion to the left as negative. (credit: Armchair Aviator, Flickr)

What is the difference between distance and displacement? Whereas displacement is defined by both direction and magnitude, distance is defined only by magnitude. Displacement is an example of a vector quantity. Distance is an example of a scalar quantity. A **vector** is any quantity with both *magnitude and direction*. Other examples of vectors include a velocity of 90 km/h east and a force of 500 newtons straight down.

The direction of a vector in one-dimensional motion is given simply by a plus (+) or minus (−) sign. Vectors are represented graphically by arrows. An arrow used to represent a vector has a length proportional to the vector's magnitude (e.g., the larger the magnitude, the longer the length of the vector) and points in the same direction as the vector.

Some physical quantities, like distance, either have no direction or none is specified. A **scalar** is any quantity that has a magnitude, but no direction. For example, a 20°C temperature, the 250 kilocalories (250 Calories) of energy in a candy bar, a 90 km/h speed limit, a person's 1.8 m height, and a distance of 2.0 m are all scalars—quantities with no specified direction. Note, however, that a scalar can be negative, such as a −20°C temperature. In this case, the minus sign indicates a point on a scale rather than a direction. Scalars are never represented by arrows.

Coordinate Systems for One-Dimensional Motion

In order to describe the direction of a vector quantity, you must designate a coordinate system within the reference frame. For one-dimensional motion, this is a simple coordinate system consisting of a one-dimensional coordinate line. In general, when describing horizontal motion, motion to the right is usually considered positive, and motion to the left is considered negative. With vertical motion, motion up is usually positive and motion down is negative. In some cases, however, as with the jet in [Figure 2.6](#), it can be more convenient to switch the positive and negative directions. For example, if you are analyzing the motion of falling objects, it can be useful to define downwards as the positive direction. If people in a race are running to the left, it is useful to define left as the positive direction. It does not matter as long as the system is clear and consistent. Once you assign a positive direction and start solving a problem, you cannot change it.

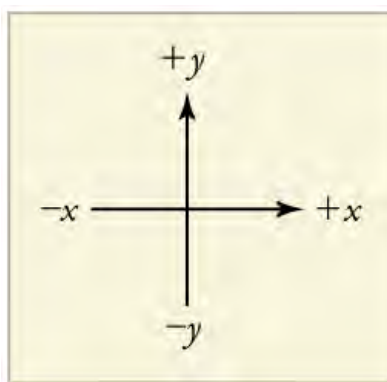


FIGURE 2.7 It is usually convenient to consider motion upward or to the right as positive (+) and motion downward or to the left as negative (−).

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

A person's speed can stay the same as they round a corner and changes direction. Given this information, is speed a scalar or a vector quantity? Explain.

Solution

Speed is a scalar quantity. It does not change at all with direction changes; therefore, it has magnitude only. If it were a vector quantity, it would change as direction changes (even if its magnitude remained constant).

2.3 Time, Velocity, and Speed

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain the relationships between instantaneous velocity, average velocity, instantaneous speed, average speed, displacement, and time.
- Calculate velocity and speed given initial position, initial time, final position, and final time.
- Derive a graph of velocity vs. time given a graph of position vs. time.
- Interpret a graph of velocity vs. time.

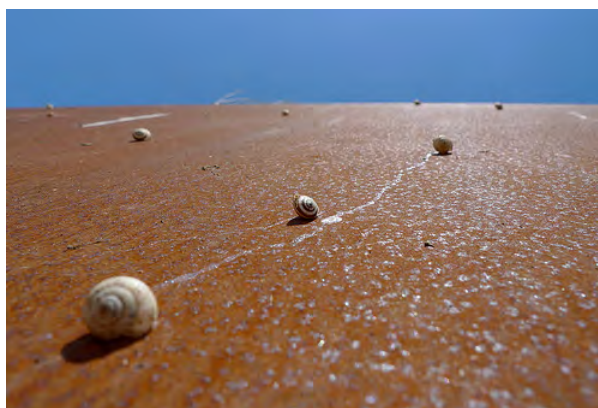


FIGURE 2.8 The motion of these racing snails can be described by their speeds and their velocities. (credit: tobitasflickr, Flickr)

There is more to motion than distance and displacement. Questions such as, “How long does a foot race take?” and “What was the runner’s speed?” cannot be answered without an understanding of other concepts. In this section we add definitions of time, velocity, and speed to expand our description of motion.

Time

As discussed in [Physical Quantities and Units](#), the most fundamental physical quantities are defined by how they are measured. This is the case with time. Every measurement of time involves measuring a change in some physical quantity. It may be a number on a digital clock, a heartbeat, or the position of the Sun in the sky. In physics, the definition of time is simple—**time** is *change*, or the interval over which change occurs. It is impossible to know that time has passed unless something changes.

The amount of time or change is calibrated by comparison with a standard. The SI unit for time is the second, abbreviated s. We might, for example, observe that a certain pendulum makes one full swing every 0.75 s. We could then use the pendulum to measure time by counting its swings or, of course, by connecting the pendulum to a clock mechanism that registers time on a dial. This allows us to not only measure the amount of time, but also to determine a sequence of events.

How does time relate to motion? We are usually interested in elapsed time for a particular motion, such as how long it takes an airplane passenger to get from his seat to the back of the plane. To find elapsed time, we note the time at the beginning and end of the motion and subtract the two. For example, a lecture may start at 11:00 A.M. and end at 11:50 A.M., so that the elapsed time would be 50 min. **Elapsed time** Δt is the difference between the ending time and beginning time,

$$\Delta t = t_f - t_0, \quad 2.4$$

where Δt is the change in time or elapsed time, t_f is the time at the end of the motion, and t_0 is the time at the beginning of the motion. (As usual, the delta symbol, Δ , means the change in the quantity that follows it.)

Life is simpler if the beginning time t_0 is taken to be zero, as when we use a stopwatch. If we were using a stopwatch, it would simply read zero at the start of the lecture and 50 min at the end. If $t_0 = 0$, then $\Delta t = t_f \equiv t$.

In this text, for simplicity’s sake,

- motion starts at time equal to zero ($t_0 = 0$)
- the symbol t is used for elapsed time unless otherwise specified ($\Delta t = t_f \equiv t$)

Velocity

Your notion of velocity is probably the same as its scientific definition. You know that if you have a large displacement in a small amount of time you have a large velocity, and that velocity has units of distance divided by time, such as miles per hour or kilometers per hour.

AVERAGE VELOCITY

Average velocity is displacement (change in position) divided by the time of travel,

$$\bar{v} = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{x_f - x_0}{t_f - t_0}, \quad 2.5$$

where $\bar{v}$ is the *average* (indicated by the bar over the v) velocity, Δx is the change in position (or displacement), and x_f and x_0 are the final and beginning positions at times t_f and t_0 , respectively. If the starting time t_0 is taken to be zero, then the average velocity is simply

$$\bar{v} = \frac{\Delta x}{t}. \quad 2.6$$

Notice that this definition indicates that *velocity is a vector because displacement is a vector*. It has both magnitude and direction. The SI unit for velocity is meters per second or m/s, but many other units, such as km/h, mi/h (also written as mph), and cm/s, are in common use. Suppose, for example, an airplane passenger took 5 seconds to move -4 m (the negative sign indicates that displacement is toward the back of the plane). His average velocity would be

$$\bar{v} = \frac{\Delta x}{t} = \frac{-4 \text{ m}}{5 \text{ s}} = -0.8 \text{ m/s}. \quad 2.7$$

The minus sign indicates the average velocity is also toward the rear of the plane.

The average velocity of an object does not tell us anything about what happens to it between the starting point and ending point, however. For example, we cannot tell from average velocity whether the airplane passenger stops momentarily or backs up before he goes to the back of the plane. To get more details, we must consider smaller segments of the trip over smaller time intervals.

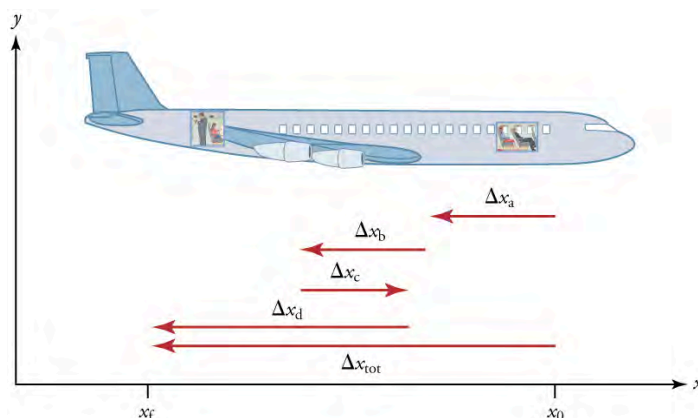


FIGURE 2.9 A more detailed record of an airplane passenger heading toward the back of the plane, showing smaller segments of his trip.

The smaller the time intervals considered in a motion, the more detailed the information. When we carry this process to its logical conclusion, we are left with an infinitesimally small interval. Over such an interval, the average velocity becomes the *instantaneous velocity* or the *velocity at a specific instant*. A car's speedometer, for example, shows the magnitude (but not the direction) of the instantaneous velocity of the car. (Police give tickets based on instantaneous velocity, but when calculating how long it will take to get from one place to another on a road trip, you need to use average velocity.) **Instantaneous velocity** v is the average velocity at a specific instant in time (or over an infinitesimally small time interval).

Mathematically, finding instantaneous velocity, v , at a precise instant t can involve taking a limit, a calculus operation beyond the scope of this text. However, under many circumstances, we can find precise values for instantaneous velocity without calculus.

Speed

In everyday language, most people use the terms “speed” and “velocity” interchangeably. In physics, however, they do not have the same meaning and they are distinct concepts. One major difference is that speed has no direction. Thus *speed is a scalar*. Just as we need to distinguish between instantaneous velocity and average velocity, we also need to distinguish between instantaneous speed and average speed.

Instantaneous speed is the magnitude of instantaneous velocity. For example, suppose the airplane passenger at one instant had an instantaneous velocity of -3.0 m/s (the minus meaning toward the rear of the plane). At that same time his instantaneous speed was 3.0 m/s. Or suppose that at one time during a shopping trip your instantaneous velocity is 40 km/h due north. Your instantaneous speed at that instant would be 40 km/h—the same magnitude but without a direction. Average speed, however, is very different from average velocity. **Average speed** is the distance traveled divided by elapsed time.

We have noted that distance traveled can be greater than the magnitude of displacement. So average speed can be greater than average velocity, which is displacement divided by time. For example, if you drive to a store and return home in half an hour, and your car’s odometer shows the total distance traveled was 6 km, then your average speed was 12 km/h. Your average velocity, however, was zero, because your displacement for the round trip is zero. (Displacement is change in position and, thus, is zero for a round trip.) Thus average speed is *not* simply the magnitude of average velocity.

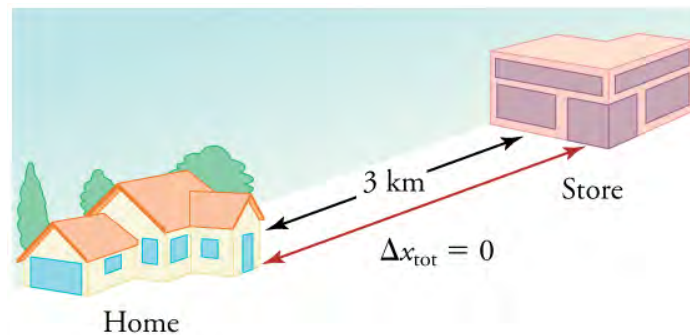


FIGURE 2.10 During a 30-minute round trip to the store, the total distance traveled is 6 km. The average speed is 12 km/h. The displacement for the round trip is zero, since there was no net change in position. Thus the average velocity is zero.

Another way of visualizing the motion of an object is to use a graph. A plot of position or of velocity as a function of time can be very useful. For example, for this trip to the store, the position, velocity, and speed-vs.-time graphs are displayed in [Figure 2.11](#). (Note that these graphs depict a very simplified **model** of the trip. We are assuming that speed is constant during the trip, which is unrealistic given that we’ll probably stop at the store. But for simplicity’s sake, we will model it with no stops or changes in speed. We are also assuming that the route between the store and the house is a perfectly straight line.)

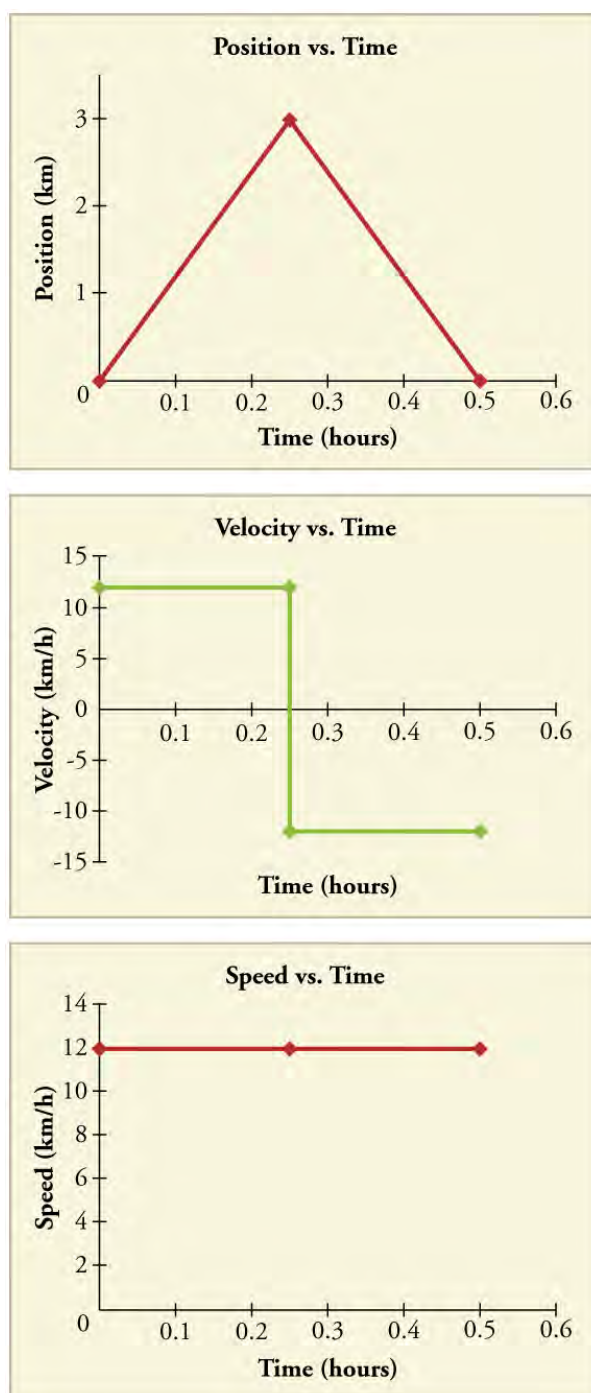


FIGURE 2.11 Position vs. time, velocity vs. time, and speed vs. time on a trip. Note that the velocity for the return trip is negative.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME INVESTIGATION—GETTING A SENSE OF SPEED

If you have spent much time driving, you probably have a good sense of speeds between about 10 and 70 miles per hour. But what are these in meters per second? What do we mean when we say that something is moving at 10 m/s? To get a better sense of what these values really mean, do some observations and calculations on your own:

- calculate typical car speeds in meters per second

- estimate jogging and walking speed by timing yourself; convert the measurements into both m/s and mi/h
- determine the speed of an ant, snail, or falling leaf

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

A commuter train travels from Baltimore to Washington, DC, and back in 1 hour and 45 minutes. The distance between the two stations is approximately 40 miles. What is (a) the average velocity of the train, and (b) the average speed of the train in m/s?

Solution

(a) The average velocity of the train is zero because $x_f = x_0$; the train ends up at the same place it starts.

(b) The average speed of the train is calculated below. Note that the train travels 40 miles one way and 40 miles back, for a total distance of 80 miles.

$$\frac{\text{distance}}{\text{time}} = \frac{80 \text{ miles}}{105 \text{ minutes}} \quad 2.8$$

$$\frac{80 \text{ miles}}{105 \text{ minutes}} \times \frac{5280 \text{ feet}}{1 \text{ mile}} \times \frac{1 \text{ meter}}{3.28 \text{ feet}} \times \frac{1 \text{ minute}}{60 \text{ seconds}} = 20 \text{ m/s} \quad 2.9$$

2.4 Acceleration

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define and distinguish between instantaneous acceleration, average acceleration, and deceleration.
- Calculate acceleration given initial time, initial velocity, final time, and final velocity.



FIGURE 2.12 A plane decelerates, or slows down, as it comes in for landing in St. Maarten. Its acceleration is opposite in direction to its velocity. (credit: Steve Conry, Flickr)

In everyday conversation, to accelerate means to speed up. The accelerator in a car can in fact cause it to speed up. The greater the **acceleration**, the greater the change in velocity over a given time. The formal definition of acceleration is consistent with these notions, but more inclusive.

AVERAGE ACCELERATION

Average Acceleration is *the rate at which velocity changes*,

$$\bar{a} = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} = \frac{v_f - v_0}{t_f - t_0}, \quad 2.10$$

where $\bar{a}$ is average acceleration, v is velocity, and t is time. (The bar over the a means *average* acceleration.)

Because acceleration is velocity in m/s divided by time in s, the SI units for acceleration are m/s^2 , meters per second squared or meters per second per second, which literally means by how many meters per second the

velocity changes every second.

Recall that velocity is a vector—it has both magnitude and direction. This means that a change in velocity can be a change in magnitude (or speed), but it can also be a change in *direction*. For example, if a car turns a corner at constant speed, it is accelerating because its direction is changing. The quicker you turn, the greater the acceleration. So there is an acceleration when velocity changes either in magnitude (an increase or decrease in speed) or in direction, or both.

ACCELERATION AS A VECTOR

Acceleration is a vector in the same direction as the *change* in velocity, Δv . Since velocity is a vector, it can change either in magnitude or in direction. Acceleration is therefore a change in either speed or direction, or both.

Keep in mind that although acceleration is in the direction of the *change* in velocity, it is not always in the direction of *motion*. When an object slows down, its acceleration is opposite to the direction of its motion. This is known as **deceleration**.



FIGURE 2.13 A subway train in Sao Paulo, Brazil, decelerates as it comes into a station. It is accelerating in a direction opposite to its direction of motion. (credit: Yusuke Kawasaki, Flickr)

MISCONCEPTION ALERT: DECELERATION VS. NEGATIVE ACCELERATION

Deceleration always refers to acceleration in the direction opposite to the direction of the velocity. Deceleration always reduces speed. Negative acceleration, however, is acceleration *in the negative direction in the chosen coordinate system*. Negative acceleration may or may not be deceleration, and deceleration may or may not be considered negative acceleration. For example, consider [Figure 2.14](#).

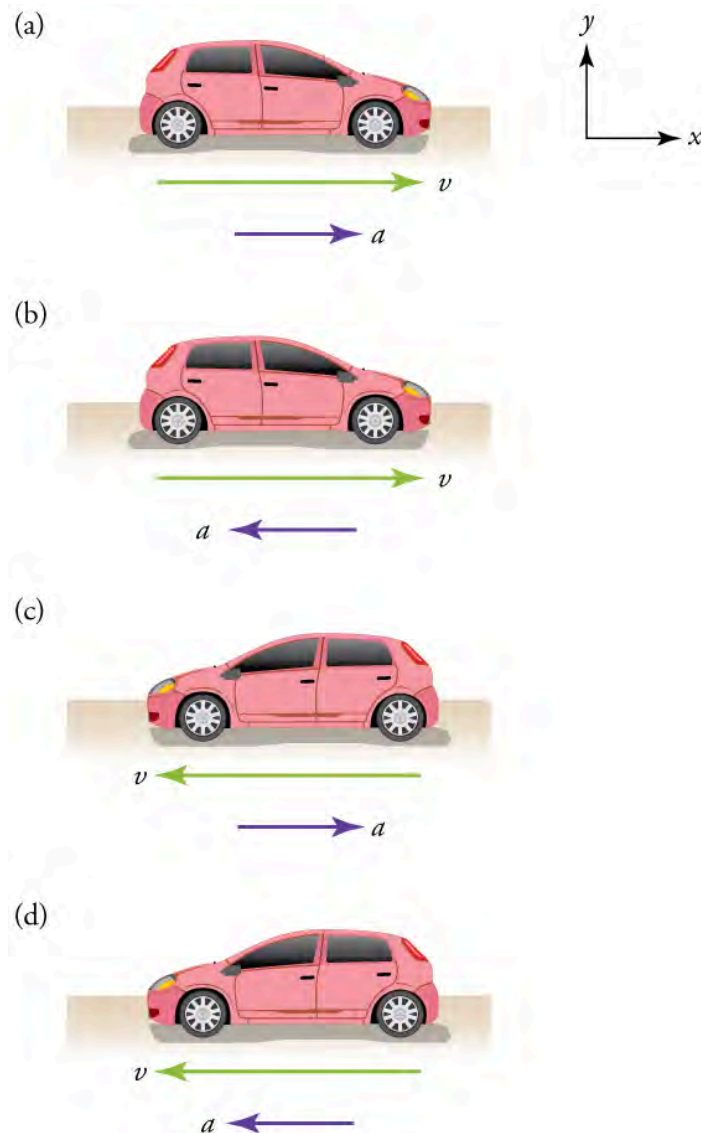


FIGURE 2.14 (a) This car is speeding up as it moves toward the right. It therefore has positive acceleration in our coordinate system. (b) This car is slowing down as it moves toward the right. Therefore, it has negative acceleration in our coordinate system, because its acceleration is toward the left. The car is also decelerating: the direction of its acceleration is opposite to its direction of motion. (c) This car is moving toward the left, but slowing down over time. Therefore, its acceleration is positive in our coordinate system because it is toward the right. However, the car is decelerating because its acceleration is opposite to its motion. (d) This car is speeding up as it moves toward the left. It has negative acceleration because it is accelerating toward the left. However, because its acceleration is in the same direction as its motion, it is speeding up (*not* decelerating).



EXAMPLE 2.1

Calculating Acceleration: A Racehorse Leaves the Gate

A racehorse coming out of the gate accelerates from rest to a velocity of 15.0 m/s due west in 1.80 s. What is its average acceleration?



FIGURE 2.15 (credit: Jon Sullivan, PD Photo.org)

Strategy

First we draw a sketch and assign a coordinate system to the problem. This is a simple problem, but it always helps to visualize it. Notice that we assign east as positive and west as negative. Thus, in this case, we have negative velocity.

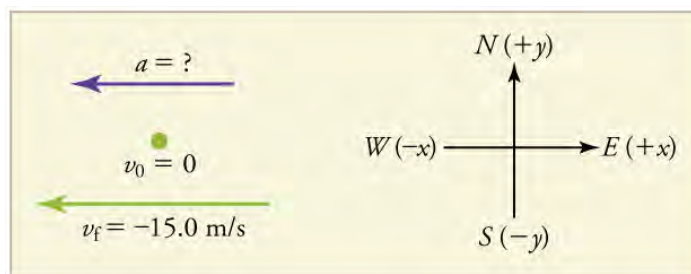


FIGURE 2.16

We can solve this problem by identifying Δv and Δt from the given information and then calculating the average acceleration directly from the equation $\bar{a} = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} = \frac{v_f - v_0}{t_f - t_0}$.

Solution

1. Identify the knowns. $v_0 = 0$, $v_f = -15.0$ m/s (the negative sign indicates direction toward the west), $\Delta t = 1.80$ s.
2. Find the change in velocity. Since the horse is going from zero to -15.0 m/s, its change in velocity equals its final velocity: $\Delta v = v_f = -15.0$ m/s.
3. Plug in the known values (Δv and Δt) and solve for the unknown $\bar{a}$.

$$\bar{a} = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} = \frac{-15.0 \text{ m/s}}{1.80 \text{ s}} = -8.33 \text{ m/s}^2. \quad 2.11$$

Discussion

The negative sign for acceleration indicates that acceleration is toward the west. An acceleration of 8.33 m/s^2 due west means that the horse increases its velocity by 8.33 m/s due west each second, that is, 8.33 meters per second per second, which we write as 8.33 m/s^2 . This is truly an average acceleration, because the ride is not smooth. We shall see later that an acceleration of this magnitude would require the rider to hang on with a force nearly equal to his weight.

Instantaneous Acceleration

Instantaneous acceleration a , or the *acceleration at a specific instant in time*, is obtained by the same process as discussed for instantaneous velocity in [Time, Velocity, and Speed](#)—that is, by considering an infinitesimally small interval of time. How do we find instantaneous acceleration using only algebra? The answer is that we choose an average acceleration that is representative of the motion. [Figure 2.17](#) shows graphs of instantaneous acceleration versus time for two very different motions. In [Figure 2.17\(a\)](#), the acceleration varies slightly and the average over the entire interval is nearly the same as the instantaneous acceleration at any time. In this case, we should treat this motion as if it had a constant acceleration equal to the average (in this case about 1.8 m/s^2). In [Figure 2.17\(b\)](#), the acceleration varies drastically over time. In such situations it is best to consider smaller time intervals and choose an average acceleration for each. For example, we could consider motion over the time intervals from 0 to 1.0 s and from 1.0 to 3.0 s as separate motions with accelerations of $+3.0 \text{ m/s}^2$ and -2.0 m/s^2 , respectively.

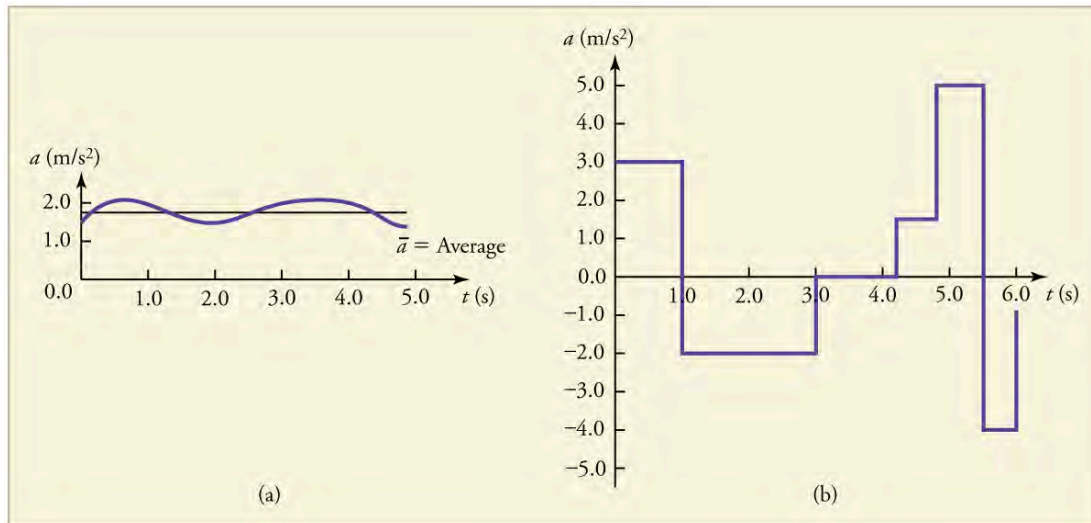


FIGURE 2.17 Graphs of instantaneous acceleration versus time for two different one-dimensional motions. (a) Here acceleration varies only slightly and is always in the same direction, since it is positive. The average over the interval is nearly the same as the acceleration at any given time. (b) Here the acceleration varies greatly, perhaps representing a package on a post office conveyor belt that is accelerated forward and backward as it bumps along. It is necessary to consider small time intervals (such as from 0 to 1.0 s) with constant or nearly constant acceleration in such a situation.

The next several examples consider the motion of the subway train shown in [Figure 2.18](#). In (a) the shuttle moves to the right, and in (b) it moves to the left. The examples are designed to further illustrate aspects of motion and to illustrate some of the reasoning that goes into solving problems.

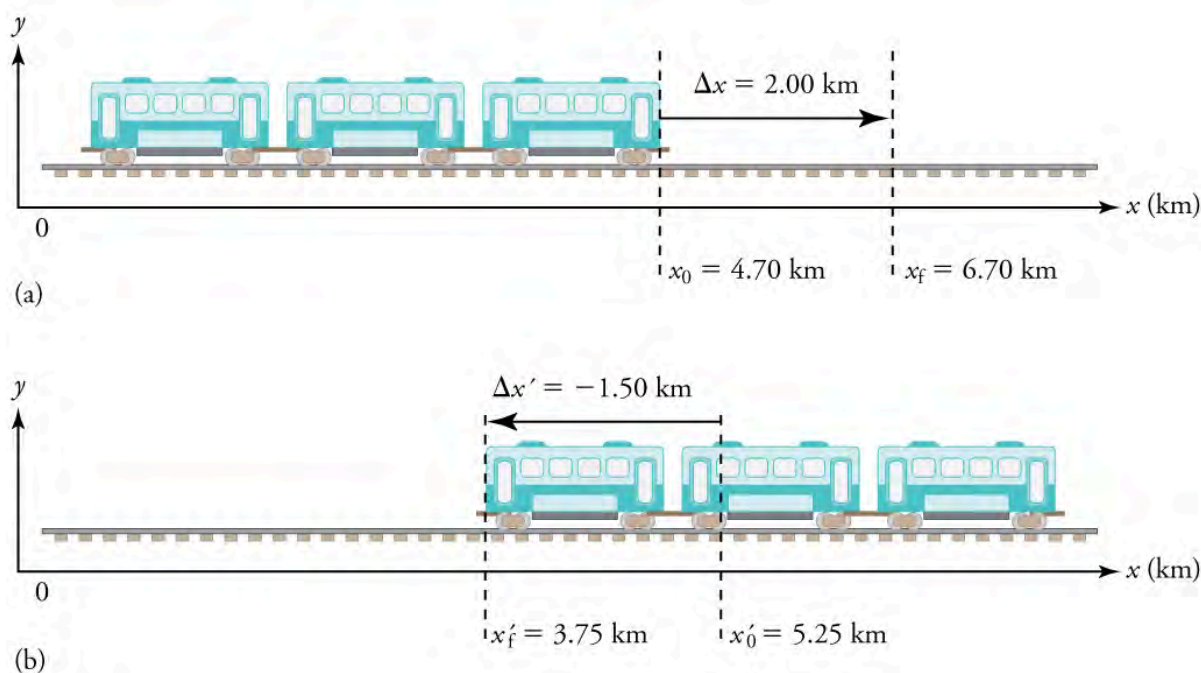


FIGURE 2.18 One-dimensional motion of a subway train considered in [Example 2.2](#), [Example 2.3](#), [Example 2.4](#), [Example 2.5](#), [Example 2.6](#), and [Example 2.7](#). Here we have chosen the x -axis so that $+$ means to the right and $-$ means to the left for displacements, velocities, and accelerations. (a) The subway train moves to the right from x_0 to x_f . Its displacement Δx is $+2.0 \text{ km}$. (b) The train moves to the left from x'_0 to x'_f . Its displacement $\Delta x'$ is -1.5 km . (Note that the prime symbol ($'$) is used simply to distinguish between displacement in the two different situations. The distances of travel and the size of the cars are on different scales to fit everything into the diagram.)



EXAMPLE 2.2

Calculating Displacement: A Subway Train

What are the magnitude and sign of displacements for the motions of the subway train shown in parts (a) and (b) of [Figure 2.18](#)?

Strategy

A drawing with a coordinate system is already provided, so we don't need to make a sketch, but we should analyze it to make sure we understand what it is showing. Pay particular attention to the coordinate system. To find displacement, we use the equation $\Delta x = x_f - x_0$. This is straightforward since the initial and final positions are given.

Solution

1. Identify the knowns. In the figure we see that $x_f = 6.70 \text{ km}$ and $x_0 = 4.70 \text{ km}$ for part (a), and $x'_f = 3.75 \text{ km}$ and $x'_0 = 5.25 \text{ km}$ for part (b).

2. Solve for displacement in part (a).

$$\Delta x = x_f - x_0 = 6.70 \text{ km} - 4.70 \text{ km} = +2.00 \text{ km} \quad 2.12$$

3. Solve for displacement in part (b).

$$\Delta x' = x'_f - x'_0 = 3.75 \text{ km} - 5.25 \text{ km} = -1.50 \text{ km} \quad 2.13$$

Discussion

The direction of the motion in (a) is to the right and therefore its displacement has a positive sign, whereas motion in (b) is to the left and thus has a negative sign.



EXAMPLE 2.3

Comparing Distance Traveled with Displacement: A Subway Train

What are the distances traveled for the motions shown in parts (a) and (b) of the subway train in [Figure 2.18](#)?

Strategy

To answer this question, think about the definitions of distance and distance traveled, and how they are related to displacement. Distance between two positions is defined to be the magnitude of displacement, which was found in [Example 2.2](#). Distance traveled is the total length of the path traveled between the two positions. (See [Displacement](#).) In the case of the subway train shown in [Figure 2.18](#), the distance traveled is the same as the distance between the initial and final positions of the train.

Solution

1. The displacement for part (a) was +2.00 km. Therefore, the distance between the initial and final positions was 2.00 km, and the distance traveled was 2.00 km.
2. The displacement for part (b) was -1.5 km. Therefore, the distance between the initial and final positions was 1.50 km, and the distance traveled was 1.50 km.

Discussion

Distance is a scalar. It has magnitude but no sign to indicate direction.



EXAMPLE 2.4

Calculating Acceleration: A Subway Train Speeding Up

Suppose the train in [Figure 2.18\(a\)](#) accelerates from rest to 30.0 km/h in the first 20.0 s of its motion. What is its average acceleration during that time interval?

Strategy

It is worth it at this point to make a simple sketch:

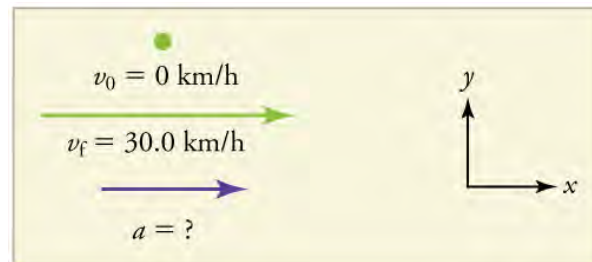


FIGURE 2.19

This problem involves three steps. First we must determine the change in velocity, then we must determine the change in time, and finally we use these values to calculate the acceleration.

Solution

1. Identify the knowns. $v_0 = 0$ (the train starts at rest), $v_f = 30.0$ km/h, and $\Delta t = 20.0$ s.
2. Calculate Δv . Since the train starts from rest, its change in velocity is $\Delta v = +30.0$ km/h, where the plus sign means velocity to the right.
3. Plug in known values and solve for the unknown, $\bar{a}$.

$$\bar{a} = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} = \frac{+30.0 \text{ km/h}}{20.0 \text{ s}} \quad 2.14$$

4. Since the units are mixed (we have both hours and seconds for time), we need to convert everything into SI units of meters and seconds. (See [Physical Quantities and Units](#) for more guidance.)

$$\bar{a} = \left(\frac{+30 \text{ km/h}}{20.0 \text{ s}} \right) \left(\frac{10^3 \text{ m}}{1 \text{ km}} \right) \left(\frac{1 \text{ h}}{3600 \text{ s}} \right) = 0.417 \text{ m/s}^2 \quad 2.15$$

Discussion

The plus sign means that acceleration is to the right. This is reasonable because the train starts from rest and ends up with a velocity to the right (also positive). So acceleration is in the same direction as the *change* in velocity, as is always the case.

EXAMPLE 2.5

Calculate Acceleration: A Subway Train Slowing Down

Now suppose that at the end of its trip, the train in [Figure 2.18\(a\)](#) slows to a stop from a speed of 30.0 km/h in 8.00 s. What is its average acceleration while stopping?

Strategy

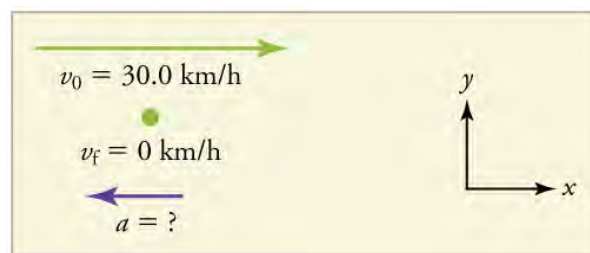


FIGURE 2.20

In this case, the train is decelerating and its acceleration is negative because it is toward the left. As in the previous example, we must find the change in velocity and the change in time and then solve for acceleration.

Solution

1. Identify the knowns. $v_0 = 30.0 \text{ km/h}$, $v_f = 0 \text{ km/h}$ (the train is stopped, so its velocity is 0), and $\Delta t = 8.00 \text{ s}$.
2. Solve for the change in velocity, Δv .

$$\Delta v = v_f - v_0 = 0 - 30.0 \text{ km/h} = -30.0 \text{ km/h} \quad 2.16$$

3. Plug in the knowns, Δv and Δt , and solve for $\bar{a}$.

$$\bar{a} = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} = \frac{-30.0 \text{ km/h}}{8.00 \text{ s}} \quad 2.17$$

4. Convert the units to meters and seconds.

$$\bar{a} = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} = \left(\frac{-30.0 \text{ km/h}}{8.00 \text{ s}} \right) \left(\frac{10^3 \text{ m}}{1 \text{ km}} \right) \left(\frac{1 \text{ h}}{3600 \text{ s}} \right) = -1.04 \text{ m/s}^2. \quad 2.18$$

Discussion

The minus sign indicates that acceleration is to the left. This sign is reasonable because the train initially has a positive velocity in this problem, and a negative acceleration would oppose the motion. Again, acceleration is in the same direction as the *change* in velocity, which is negative here. This acceleration can be called a deceleration because it has a direction opposite to the velocity.

The graphs of position, velocity, and acceleration vs. time for the trains in [Example 2.4](#) and [Example 2.5](#) are displayed in [Figure 2.21](#). (We have taken the velocity to remain constant from 20 to 40 s, after which the train decelerates.)

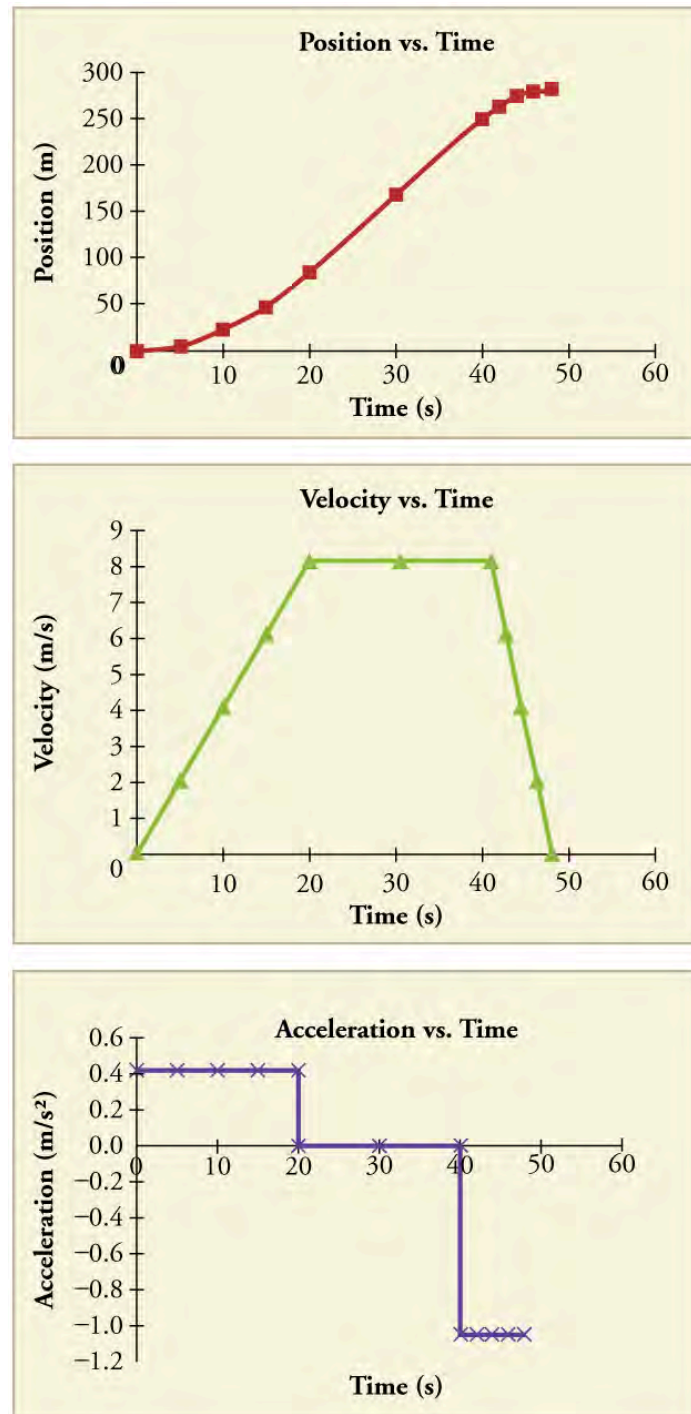


FIGURE 2.21 (a) Position of the train over time. Notice that the train's position changes slowly at the beginning of the journey, then more and more quickly as it picks up speed. Its position then changes more slowly as it slows down at the end of the journey. In the middle of the journey, while the velocity remains constant, the position changes at a constant rate. (b) Velocity of the train over time. The train's velocity increases as it accelerates at the beginning of the journey. It remains the same in the middle of the journey (where there is no acceleration). It decreases as the train decelerates at the end of the journey. (c) The acceleration of the train over time. The train has positive acceleration as it speeds up at the beginning of the journey. It has no acceleration as it travels at constant velocity in the middle of the journey. Its acceleration is negative as it slows down at the end of the journey.

EXAMPLE 2.6

Calculating Average Velocity: The Subway Train

What is the average velocity of the train in part b of [Example 2.2](#), and shown again below, if it takes 5.00 min to make its trip?

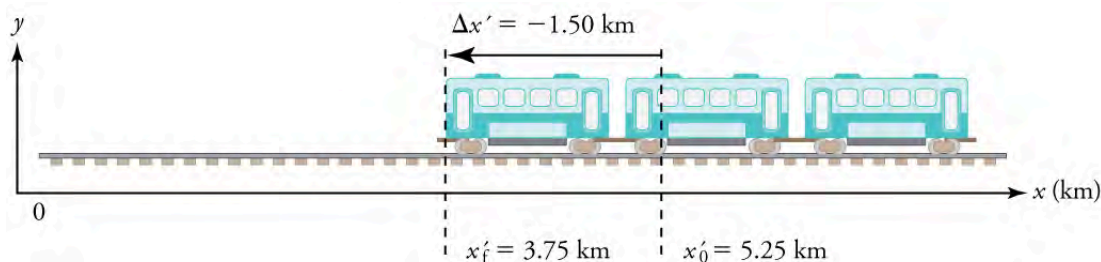


FIGURE 2.22

Strategy

Average velocity is displacement divided by time. It will be negative here, since the train moves to the left and has a negative displacement.

Solution

1. Identify the knowns. $x'_f = 3.75 \text{ km}$, $x'_0 = 5.25 \text{ km}$, $\Delta t = 5.00 \text{ min}$.
2. Determine displacement, $\Delta x'$. We found $\Delta x'$ to be -1.5 km in [Example 2.2](#).
3. Solve for average velocity.

$$\bar{v} = \frac{\Delta x'}{\Delta t} = \frac{-1.50 \text{ km}}{5.00 \text{ min}} \quad 2.19$$

4. Convert units.

$$\bar{v} = \frac{\Delta x'}{\Delta t} = \left(\frac{-1.50 \text{ km}}{5.00 \text{ min}} \right) \left(\frac{60 \text{ min}}{1 \text{ h}} \right) = -18.0 \text{ km/h} \quad 2.20$$

Discussion

The negative velocity indicates motion to the left.

EXAMPLE 2.7

Calculating Deceleration: The Subway Train

Finally, suppose the train in [Figure 2.22](#) slows to a stop from a velocity of 20.0 km/h in 10.0 s . What is its average acceleration?

Strategy

Once again, let's draw a sketch:

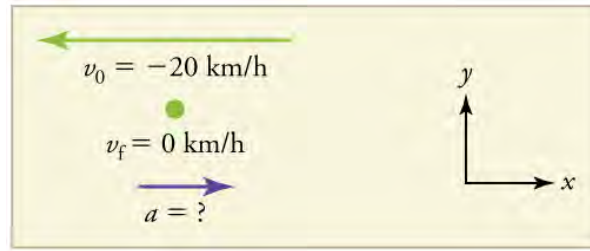


FIGURE 2.23

As before, we must find the change in velocity and the change in time to calculate average acceleration.

Solution

1. Identify the knowns. $v_0 = -20 \text{ km/h}$, $v_f = 0 \text{ km/h}$, $\Delta t = 10.0 \text{ s}$.

2. Calculate Δv . The change in velocity here is actually positive, since

$$\Delta v = v_f - v_0 = 0 - (-20 \text{ km/h}) = +20 \text{ km/h}. \quad 2.21$$

3. Solve for $\bar{a}$.

$$\bar{a} = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} = \frac{+20.0 \text{ km/h}}{10.0 \text{ s}} \quad 2.22$$

4. Convert units.

$$\bar{a} = \left(\frac{+20.0 \text{ km/h}}{10.0 \text{ s}} \right) \left(\frac{10^3 \text{ m}}{1 \text{ km}} \right) \left(\frac{1 \text{ h}}{3600 \text{ s}} \right) = +0.556 \text{ m/s}^2 \quad 2.23$$

Discussion

The plus sign means that acceleration is to the right. This is reasonable because the train initially has a negative velocity (to the left) in this problem and a positive acceleration opposes the motion (and so it is to the right). Again, acceleration is in the same direction as the *change* in velocity, which is positive here. As in [Example 2.5](#), this acceleration can be called a deceleration since it is in the direction opposite to the velocity.

Sign and Direction

Perhaps the most important thing to note about these examples is the signs of the answers. In our chosen coordinate system, plus means the quantity is to the right and minus means it is to the left. This is easy to imagine for displacement and velocity. But it is a little less obvious for acceleration. Most people interpret negative acceleration as the slowing of an object. This was not the case in [Example 2.7](#), where a positive acceleration slowed a negative velocity. The crucial distinction was that the acceleration was in the opposite direction from the velocity. In fact, a negative acceleration will *increase* a negative velocity. For example, the train moving to the left in [Figure 2.22](#) is sped up by an acceleration to the left. In that case, both v and a are negative. The plus and minus signs give the directions of the accelerations. If acceleration has the same sign as the velocity, the object is speeding up. If acceleration has the opposite sign as the velocity, the object is slowing down.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

An airplane lands on a runway traveling east. Describe its acceleration.

Solution

If we take east to be positive, then the airplane has negative acceleration, as it is accelerating toward the west. It is also decelerating: its acceleration is opposite in direction to its velocity.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Moving Man Simulation

Learn about position, velocity, and acceleration graphs. Move the little man back and forth with the mouse and plot his motion. Set the position, velocity, or acceleration and let the simulation move the man for you.

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/l/02moving_man\)](https://openstax.org/l/02moving_man).



2.5 Motion Equations for Constant Acceleration in One Dimension

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Calculate displacement of an object that is not accelerating, given initial position and velocity.
- Calculate final velocity of an accelerating object, given initial velocity, acceleration, and time.
- Calculate displacement and final position of an accelerating object, given initial position, initial velocity, time, and acceleration.



FIGURE 2.24 Kinematic equations can help us describe and predict the motion of moving objects such as these kayaks racing in Newbury, England. (credit: Barry Skeates, Flickr)

We might know that the greater the acceleration of, say, a car moving away from a stop sign, the greater the displacement in a given time. But we have not developed a specific equation that relates acceleration and displacement. In this section, we develop some convenient equations for kinematic relationships, starting from the definitions of displacement, velocity, and acceleration already covered.

Notation: t , x , v , a

First, let us make some simplifications in notation. Taking the initial time to be zero, as if time is measured with a stopwatch, is a great simplification. Since elapsed time is $\Delta t = t_f - t_0$, taking $t_0 = 0$ means that $\Delta t = t_f$, the final time on the stopwatch. When initial time is taken to be zero, we use the subscript 0 to denote initial values of position and velocity. That is, x_0 is the initial position and v_0 is the initial velocity. We put no subscripts on the final values. That is, t is the final time, x is the final position, and v is the final velocity. This gives a simpler expression for elapsed time—now, $\Delta t = t$. It also simplifies the expression for displacement, which is now $\Delta x = x - x_0$. Also, it simplifies the expression for change in velocity, which is now $\Delta v = v - v_0$. To summarize, using the simplified notation, with the initial time taken to be zero,

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \Delta t &= t \\ \Delta x &= x - x_0 \\ \Delta v &= v - v_0 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad 2.24$$

where the subscript 0 denotes an initial value and the absence of a subscript denotes a final value in whatever motion is under consideration.

We now make the important assumption that *acceleration is constant*. This assumption allows us to avoid using calculus to find instantaneous acceleration. Since acceleration is constant, the average and instantaneous accelerations are equal. That is,

$$\bar{a} = a = \text{constant}, \quad 2.25$$

so we use the symbol a for acceleration at all times. Assuming acceleration to be constant does not seriously limit the situations we can study nor degrade the accuracy of our treatment. For one thing, acceleration *is* constant in a great number of situations. Furthermore, in many other situations we can accurately describe motion by assuming a constant acceleration equal to the average acceleration for that motion. Finally, in motions where acceleration changes drastically, such as a car accelerating to top speed and then braking to a stop, the motion can be considered in separate parts, each of which has its own constant acceleration.

SOLVING FOR DISPLACEMENT (Δx) AND FINAL POSITION (x) FROM AVERAGE VELOCITY WHEN ACCELERATION (a) IS CONSTANT

To get our first two new equations, we start with the definition of average velocity:

$$\bar{v} = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}. \quad 2.26$$

Substituting the simplified notation for Δx and Δt yields

$$\bar{v} = \frac{x - x_0}{t}. \quad 2.27$$

Solving for x yields

$$x = x_0 + \bar{v}t, \quad 2.28$$

where the average velocity is

$$\bar{v} = \frac{v_0 + v}{2} \text{ (constant } a\text{)}. \quad 2.29$$

The equation $\bar{v} = \frac{v_0 + v}{2}$ reflects the fact that, when acceleration is constant, v is just the simple average of the initial and final velocities. For example, if you steadily increase your velocity (that is, with constant acceleration) from 30 to 60 km/h, then your average velocity during this steady increase is 45 km/h. Using the equation $\bar{v} = \frac{v_0 + v}{2}$ to check this, we see that

$$\bar{v} = \frac{v_0 + v}{2} = \frac{30 \text{ km/h} + 60 \text{ km/h}}{2} = 45 \text{ km/h}, \quad 2.30$$

which seems logical.



EXAMPLE 2.8

Calculating Displacement: How Far does the Jogger Run?

A jogger runs down a straight stretch of road with an average velocity of 4.00 m/s for 2.00 min. What is his final position, taking his initial position to be zero?

Strategy

Draw a sketch.

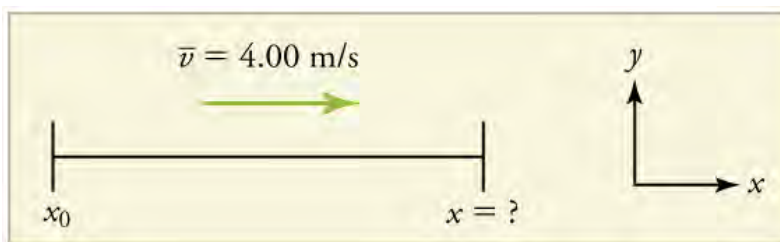


FIGURE 2.25

The final position x is given by the equation

$$x = x_0 + \bar{v}t. \quad 2.31$$

To find x , we identify the values of x_0 , $\bar{v}$, and t from the statement of the problem and substitute them into the equation.

Solution

1. Identify the knowns. $\bar{v} = 4.00 \text{ m/s}$, $\Delta t = 2.00 \text{ min}$, and $x_0 = 0 \text{ m}$.

2. Enter the known values into the equation.

$$x = x_0 + \bar{v}t = 0 + (4.00 \text{ m/s})(120 \text{ s}) = 480 \text{ m} \quad 2.32$$

Discussion

Velocity and final displacement are both positive, which means they are in the same direction.

The equation $x = x_0 + \bar{v}t$ gives insight into the relationship between displacement, average velocity, and time. It shows, for example, that displacement is a linear function of average velocity. (By linear function, we mean that displacement depends on $\bar{v}$ rather than on $\bar{v}$ raised to some other power, such as $\bar{v}^2$. When graphed, linear functions look like straight lines with a constant slope.) On a car trip, for example, we will get twice as far in a given time if we average 90 km/h than if we average 45 km/h.

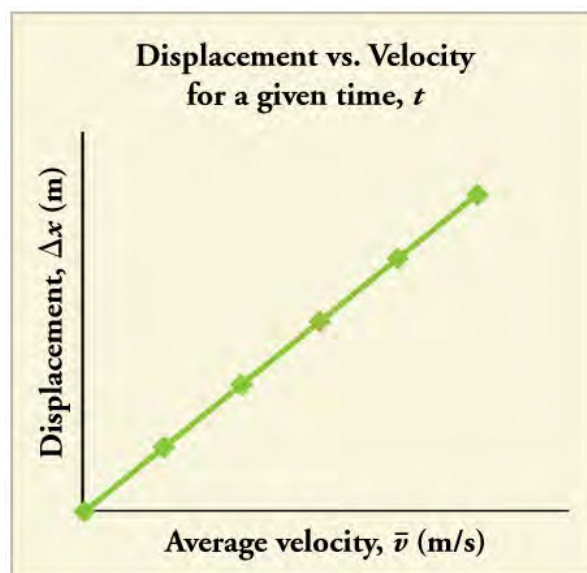


FIGURE 2.26 There is a linear relationship between displacement and average velocity. For a given time t , an object moving twice as fast as another object will move twice as far as the other object.

SOLVING FOR FINAL VELOCITY

We can derive another useful equation by manipulating the definition of acceleration.

$$a = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} \quad 2.33$$

Substituting the simplified notation for Δv and Δt gives us

$$a = \frac{v - v_0}{t} \text{ (constant } a\text{).} \quad 2.34$$

Solving for v yields

$$v = v_0 + at \text{ (constant } a\text{).} \quad 2.35$$



EXAMPLE 2.9

Calculating Final Velocity: An Airplane Slowing Down after Landing

An airplane lands with an initial velocity of 70.0 m/s and then decelerates at 1.50 m/s^2 for 40.0 s. What is its final velocity?

Strategy

Draw a sketch. We draw the acceleration vector in the direction opposite the velocity vector because the plane is decelerating.

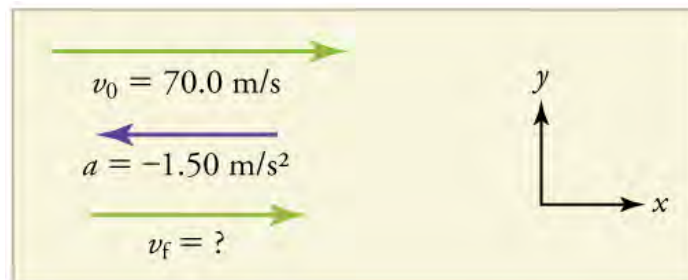


FIGURE 2.27

Solution

1. Identify the knowns. $v_0 = 70.0 \text{ m/s}$, $a = -1.50 \text{ m/s}^2$, $t = 40.0 \text{ s}$.
2. Identify the unknown. In this case, it is final velocity, v_f .
3. Determine which equation to use. We can calculate the final velocity using the equation $v = v_0 + at$.
4. Plug in the known values and solve.

$$v = v_0 + at = 70.0 \text{ m/s} + (-1.50 \text{ m/s}^2)(40.0 \text{ s}) = 10.0 \text{ m/s} \quad 2.36$$

Discussion

The final velocity is much less than the initial velocity, as desired when slowing down, but still positive. With jet engines, reverse thrust could be maintained long enough to stop the plane and start moving it backward. That would be indicated by a negative final velocity, which is not the case here.



FIGURE 2.28 The airplane lands with an initial velocity of 70.0 m/s and slows to a final velocity of 10.0 m/s before heading for the terminal.

Note that the acceleration is negative because its direction is opposite to its velocity, which is positive.

In addition to being useful in problem solving, the equation $v = v_0 + at$ gives us insight into the relationships among velocity, acceleration, and time. From it we can see, for example, that

- final velocity depends on how large the acceleration is and how long it lasts
- if the acceleration is zero, then the final velocity equals the initial velocity ($v = v_0$), as expected (i.e., velocity is constant)
- if a is negative, then the final velocity is less than the initial velocity

(All of these observations fit our intuition, and it is always useful to examine basic equations in light of our intuition and experiences to check that they do indeed describe nature accurately.)

MAKING CONNECTIONS: REAL-WORLD CONNECTION



FIGURE 2.29 The Space Shuttle *Endeavor* blasts off from the Kennedy Space Center in February 2010. (credit: Matthew Simantov, Flickr)

An intercontinental ballistic missile (ICBM) has a larger average acceleration than the Space Shuttle and achieves a greater velocity in the first minute or two of flight (actual ICBM burn times are classified—short-burn-time missiles are more difficult for an enemy to destroy). But the Space Shuttle obtains a greater final velocity, so that it can orbit the earth rather than come directly back down as an ICBM does. The Space Shuttle does this by accelerating for a longer time.

SOLVING FOR FINAL POSITION WHEN VELOCITY IS NOT CONSTANT ($a \neq 0$)

We can combine the equations above to find a third equation that allows us to calculate the final position of an object experiencing constant acceleration. We start with

$$v = v_0 + at. \quad 2.37$$

Adding v_0 to each side of this equation and dividing by 2 gives

$$\frac{v_0 + v}{2} = v_0 + \frac{1}{2}at. \quad 2.38$$

Since $\frac{v_0 + v}{2} = \bar{v}$ for constant acceleration, then

$$\bar{v} = v_0 + \frac{1}{2}at. \quad 2.39$$

Now we substitute this expression for $\bar{v}$ into the equation for displacement, $x = x_0 + \bar{v}t$, yielding

$$x = x_0 + v_0t + \frac{1}{2}at^2 \text{ (constant } a\text{)}. \quad 2.40$$

EXAMPLE 2.10

Calculating Displacement of an Accelerating Object: Dragsters

Dragsters can achieve average accelerations of 26.0 m/s^2 . Suppose such a dragster accelerates from rest at this rate for 5.56 s . How far does it travel in this time?



FIGURE 2.30 U.S. Army Top Fuel pilot Tony “The Sarge” Schumacher begins a race with a controlled burnout. (credit: Lt. Col. William Thurmond. Photo Courtesy of U.S. Army.)

Strategy

Draw a sketch.

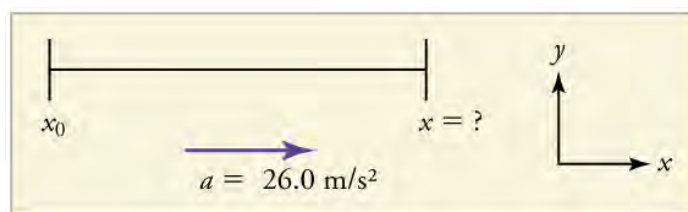


FIGURE 2.31

We are asked to find displacement, which is x if we take x_0 to be zero. (Think about it like the starting line of a race. It can be anywhere, but we call it 0 and measure all other positions relative to it.) We can use the equation $x = x_0 + v_0t + \frac{1}{2}at^2$ once we identify v_0 , a , and t from the statement of the problem.

Solution

1. Identify the knowns. Starting from rest means that $v_0 = 0$, a is given as 26.0 m/s^2 and t is given as 5.56 s .
2. Plug the known values into the equation to solve for the unknown x :

$$x = x_0 + v_0t + \frac{1}{2}at^2. \quad 2.41$$

Since the initial position and velocity are both zero, this simplifies to

$$x = \frac{1}{2}at^2. \quad 2.42$$

Substituting the identified values of a and t gives

$$x = \frac{1}{2}(26.0 \text{ m/s}^2)(5.56 \text{ s})^2, \quad 2.43$$

yielding

$$x = 402 \text{ m}. \quad 2.44$$

Discussion

If we convert 402 m to miles, we find that the distance covered is very close to one quarter of a mile, the standard distance for drag racing. So the answer is reasonable. This is an impressive displacement in only 5.56 s, but top-notch dragsters can do a quarter mile in even less time than this.

What else can we learn by examining the equation $x = x_0 + v_0t + \frac{1}{2}at^2$? We see that:

- displacement depends on the square of the elapsed time when acceleration is not zero. In [Example 2.10](#), the dragster covers only one fourth of the total distance in the first half of the elapsed time
- if acceleration is zero, then the initial velocity equals average velocity ($v_0 = \bar{v}$) and $x = x_0 + v_0t + \frac{1}{2}at^2$ becomes $x = x_0 + v_0t$

SOLVING FOR FINAL VELOCITY WHEN VELOCITY IS NOT CONSTANT ($a \neq 0$)

A fourth useful equation can be obtained from another algebraic manipulation of previous equations.

If we solve $v = v_0 + at$ for t , we get

$$t = \frac{v - v_0}{a}. \quad 2.45$$

Substituting this and $\bar{v} = \frac{v_0 + v}{2}$ into $x = x_0 + \bar{v}t$, we get

$$v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(x - x_0) \text{ (constant } a\text{)}. \quad 2.46$$

EXAMPLE 2.11

Calculating Final Velocity: Dragsters

Calculate the final velocity of the dragster in [Example 2.10](#) without using information about time.

Strategy

Draw a sketch.

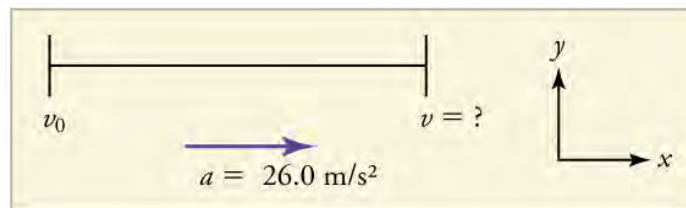


FIGURE 2.32

The equation $v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(x - x_0)$ is ideally suited to this task because it relates velocities, acceleration, and displacement, and no time information is required.

Solution

1. Identify the known values. We know that $v_0 = 0$, since the dragster starts from rest. Then we note that $x - x_0 = 402$ m (this was the answer in [Example 2.10](#)). Finally, the average acceleration was given to be $a = 26.0$ m/s².

2. Plug the knowns into the equation $v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(x - x_0)$ and solve for v .

$$v^2 = 0 + 2(26.0 \text{ m/s}^2)(402 \text{ m}). \quad 2.47$$

Thus

$$v^2 = 2.09 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2. \quad 2.48$$

To get v , we take the square root:

$$v = \sqrt{2.09 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2} = 145 \text{ m/s}. \quad 2.49$$

Discussion

145 m/s is about 522 km/h or about 324 mi/h, but even this breakneck speed is short of the record for the quarter mile. Also, note that a square root has two values; we took the positive value to indicate a velocity in the same direction as the acceleration.

An examination of the equation $v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(x - x_0)$ can produce further insights into the general relationships among physical quantities:

- The final velocity depends on how large the acceleration is and the distance over which it acts
- For a fixed deceleration, a car that is going twice as fast doesn't simply stop in twice the distance—it takes much further to stop. (This is why we have reduced speed zones near schools.)

Putting Equations Together

In the following examples, we further explore one-dimensional motion, but in situations requiring slightly more algebraic manipulation. The examples also give insight into problem-solving techniques. The box below provides easy reference to the equations needed.

SUMMARY OF KINEMATIC EQUATIONS (CONSTANT a)

$$x = x_0 + \bar{v}t \quad 2.50$$

$$\bar{v} = \frac{v_0 + v}{2} \quad 2.51$$

$$v = v_0 + at \quad 2.52$$

$$x = x_0 + v_0t + \frac{1}{2}at^2 \quad 2.53$$

$$v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(x - x_0) \quad 2.54$$



EXAMPLE 2.12

Calculating Displacement: How Far Does a Car Go When Coming to a Halt?

On dry concrete, a car can decelerate at a rate of 7.00 m/s^2 , whereas on wet concrete it can decelerate at only 5.00 m/s^2 . Find the distances necessary to stop a car moving at 30.0 m/s (about 110 km/h) (a) on dry concrete and (b) on wet concrete. (c) Repeat both calculations, finding the displacement from the point where the driver sees a traffic light turn red, taking into account his reaction time of 0.500 s to get his foot on the brake.

Strategy

Draw a sketch.

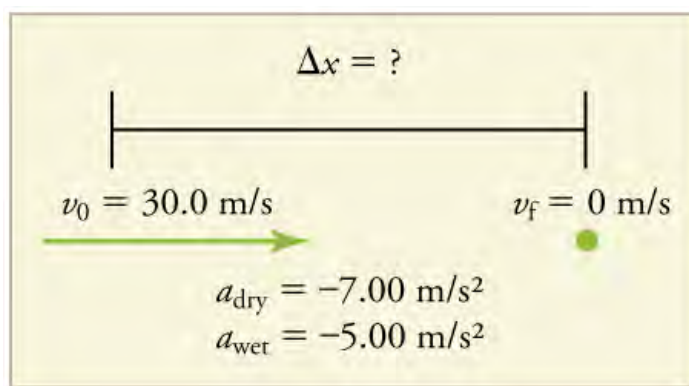


FIGURE 2.33

In order to determine which equations are best to use, we need to list all of the known values and identify exactly what we need to solve for. We shall do this explicitly in the next several examples, using tables to set them off.

Solution for (a)

1. Identify the knowns and what we want to solve for. We know that $v_0 = 30.0 \text{ m/s}$; $v = 0$; $a = -7.00 \text{ m/s}^2$ (a is negative because it is in a direction opposite to velocity). We take x_0 to be 0. We are looking for displacement Δx , or $x - x_0$.

2. Identify the equation that will help us solve the problem. The best equation to use is

$$v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(x - x_0). \quad 2.55$$

This equation is best because it includes only one unknown, x . We know the values of all the other variables in this equation. (There are other equations that would allow us to solve for x , but they require us to know the stopping time, t , which we do not know. We could use them but it would entail additional calculations.)

3. Rearrange the equation to solve for x .

$$x - x_0 = \frac{v^2 - v_0^2}{2a} \quad 2.56$$

4. Enter known values.

$$x - 0 = \frac{0^2 - (30.0 \text{ m/s})^2}{2(-7.00 \text{ m/s}^2)} \quad 2.57$$

Thus,

$$x = 64.3 \text{ m on dry concrete.} \quad 2.58$$

Solution for (b)

This part can be solved in exactly the same manner as Part A. The only difference is that the deceleration is -5.00 m/s^2 . The result is

$$x_{\text{wet}} = 90.0 \text{ m on wet concrete.} \quad 2.59$$

Solution for (c)

Once the driver reacts, the stopping distance is the same as it is in Parts A and B for dry and wet concrete. So to answer this question, we need to calculate how far the car travels during the reaction time, and then add that to the stopping time. It is reasonable to assume that the velocity remains constant during the driver's reaction time.

1. Identify the knowns and what we want to solve for. We know that $\bar{v} = 30.0 \text{ m/s}$; $t_{\text{reaction}} = 0.500 \text{ s}$; $a_{\text{reaction}} = 0$. We take $x_{0-\text{reaction}}$ to be 0. We are looking for x_{reaction} .

2. Identify the best equation to use.

$x = x_0 + \bar{v}t$ works well because the only unknown value is x , which is what we want to solve for.

3. Plug in the knowns to solve the equation.

$$x = 0 + (30.0 \text{ m/s})(0.500 \text{ s}) = 15.0 \text{ m.} \quad 2.60$$

This means the car travels 15.0 m while the driver reacts, making the total displacements in the two cases of dry and wet concrete 15.0 m greater than if he reacted instantly.

4. Add the displacement during the reaction time to the displacement when braking.

$$x_{\text{braking}} + x_{\text{reaction}} = x_{\text{total}} \quad 2.61$$

- a. $64.3 \text{ m} + 15.0 \text{ m} = 79.3 \text{ m}$ when dry
- b. $90.0 \text{ m} + 15.0 \text{ m} = 105 \text{ m}$ when wet

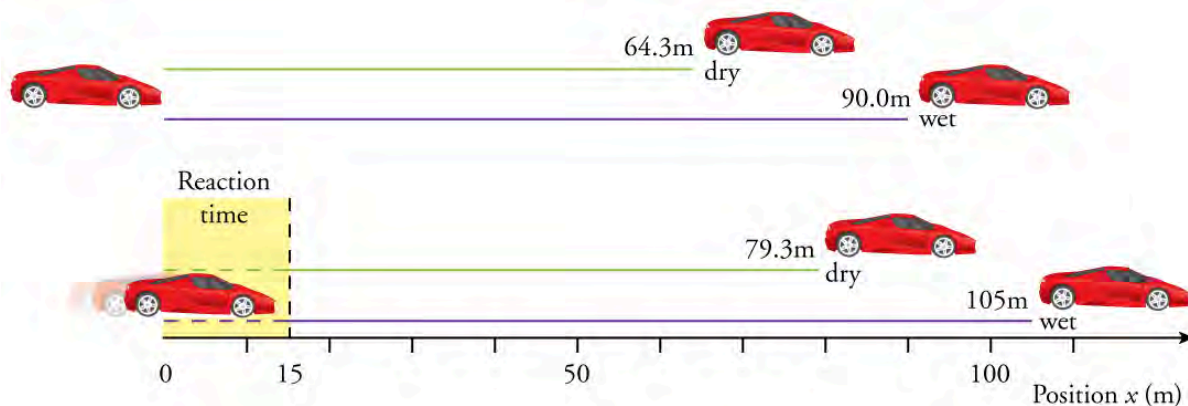


FIGURE 2.34 The distance necessary to stop a car varies greatly, depending on road conditions and driver reaction time. Shown here are the braking distances for dry and wet pavement, as calculated in this example, for a car initially traveling at 30.0 m/s. Also shown are the total distances traveled from the point where the driver first sees a light turn red, assuming a 0.500 s reaction time.

Discussion

The displacements found in this example seem reasonable for stopping a fast-moving car. It should take longer to stop a car on wet rather than dry pavement. It is interesting that reaction time adds significantly to the displacements. But more important is the general approach to solving problems. We identify the knowns and the quantities to be determined and then find an appropriate equation. There is often more than one way to solve a problem. The various parts of this example can in fact be solved by other methods, but the solutions presented above are the shortest.



EXAMPLE 2.13

Calculating Time: A Car Merges into Traffic

Suppose a car merges into freeway traffic on a 200-m-long ramp. If its initial velocity is 10.0 m/s and it accelerates at 2.00 m/s^2 , how long does it take to travel the 200 m up the ramp? (Such information might be useful to a traffic engineer.)

Strategy

Draw a sketch.

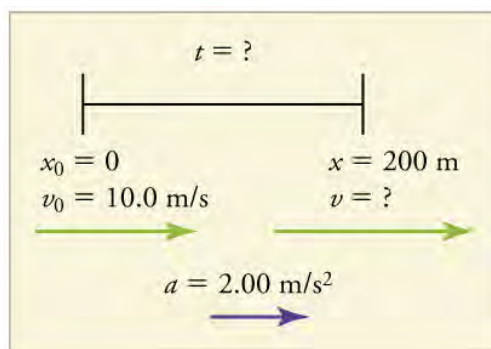


FIGURE 2.35

We are asked to solve for the time t . As before, we identify the known quantities in order to choose a convenient physical relationship (that is, an equation with one unknown, t).

Solution

1. Identify the knowns and what we want to solve for. We know that $v_0 = 10 \text{ m/s}$; $a = 2.00 \text{ m/s}^2$; and $x = 200 \text{ m}$.
2. We need to solve for t . Choose the best equation. $x = x_0 + v_0 t + \frac{1}{2} a t^2$ works best because the only unknown in the equation is the variable t for which we need to solve.
3. We will need to rearrange the equation to solve for t . In this case, it will be easier to plug in the knowns first.

$$200 \text{ m} = 0 \text{ m} + (10.0 \text{ m/s})t + \frac{1}{2} (2.00 \text{ m/s}^2) t^2 \quad 2.62$$

4. Simplify the equation. The units of meters (m) cancel because they are in each term. We can get the units of seconds (s) to cancel by taking $t = t \text{ s}$, where t is the magnitude of time and s is the unit. Doing so leaves

$$200 = 10t + t^2. \quad 2.63$$

5. Use the quadratic formula to solve for t .

- (a) Rearrange the equation to get 0 on one side of the equation.

$$t^2 + 10t - 200 = 0 \quad 2.64$$

This is a quadratic equation of the form

$$at^2 + bt + c = 0, \quad 2.65$$

where the constants are $a = 1.00$, $b = 10.0$, and $c = -200$.

- (b) Its solutions are given by the quadratic formula:

$$t = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}. \quad 2.66$$

This yields two solutions for t , which are

$$t = 10.0 \text{ and } -20.0. \quad 2.67$$

In this case, then, the time is $t = t$ in seconds, or

$$t = 10.0 \text{ s and } -20.0 \text{ s}. \quad 2.68$$

A negative value for time is unreasonable, since it would mean that the event happened 20 s before the motion began. We can discard that solution. Thus,

$$t = 10.0 \text{ s}. \quad 2.69$$

Discussion

Whenever an equation contains an unknown squared, there will be two solutions. In some problems both solutions

are meaningful, but in others, such as the above, only one solution is reasonable. The 10.0 s answer seems reasonable for a typical freeway on-ramp.

With the basics of kinematics established, we can go on to many other interesting examples and applications. In the process of developing kinematics, we have also glimpsed a general approach to problem solving that produces both correct answers and insights into physical relationships. [Problem-Solving Basics](#) discusses problem-solving basics and outlines an approach that will help you succeed in this invaluable task.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT—BREAKING NEWS

We have been using SI units of meters per second squared to describe some examples of acceleration or deceleration of cars, runners, and trains. To achieve a better feel for these numbers, one can measure the braking deceleration of a car doing a slow (and safe) stop. Recall that, for average acceleration, $\bar{a} = \Delta v / \Delta t$. While traveling in a car, slowly apply the brakes as you come up to a stop sign. Have a passenger note the initial speed in miles per hour and the time taken (in seconds) to stop. From this, calculate the deceleration in miles per hour per second. Convert this to meters per second squared and compare with other decelerations mentioned in this chapter. Calculate the distance traveled in braking.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

A rocket accelerates at a rate of 20 m/s^2 during launch. How long does it take the rocket to reach a velocity of 400 m/s?

Solution

To answer this, choose an equation that allows you to solve for time t , given only a , v_0 , and v .

$$v = v_0 + at \quad 2.70$$

Rearrange to solve for t .

$$t = \frac{v - v_0}{a} = \frac{400 \text{ m/s} - 0 \text{ m/s}}{20 \text{ m/s}^2} = 20 \text{ s} \quad 2.71$$

2.6 Problem-Solving Basics for One-Dimensional Kinematics

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Apply problem-solving steps and strategies to solve problems of one-dimensional kinematics.
- Apply strategies to determine whether or not the result of a problem is reasonable, and if not, determine the cause.



FIGURE 2.36 Problem-solving skills are essential to your success in Physics. (credit: scui3asteveo, Flickr)

Problem-solving skills are obviously essential to success in a quantitative course in physics. More importantly, the

ability to apply broad physical principles, usually represented by equations, to specific situations is a very powerful form of knowledge. It is much more powerful than memorizing a list of facts. Analytical skills and problem-solving abilities can be applied to new situations, whereas a list of facts cannot be made long enough to contain every possible circumstance. Such analytical skills are useful both for solving problems in this text and for applying physics in everyday and professional life.

Problem-Solving Steps

While there is no simple step-by-step method that works for every problem, the following general procedures facilitate problem solving and make it more meaningful. A certain amount of creativity and insight is required as well.

Step 1

Examine the situation to determine which physical principles are involved. It often helps to draw a simple sketch at the outset. You will also need to decide which direction is positive and note that on your sketch. Once you have identified the physical principles, it is much easier to find and apply the equations representing those principles. Although finding the correct equation is essential, keep in mind that equations represent physical principles, laws of nature, and relationships among physical quantities. Without a conceptual understanding of a problem, a numerical solution is meaningless.

Step 2

Make a list of what is given or can be inferred from the problem as stated (identify the knowns). Many problems are stated very succinctly and require some inspection to determine what is known. A sketch can also be very useful at this point. Formally identifying the knowns is of particular importance in applying physics to real-world situations. Remember, “stopped” means velocity is zero, and we often can take initial time and position as zero.

Step 3

Identify exactly what needs to be determined in the problem (identify the unknowns). In complex problems, especially, it is not always obvious what needs to be found or in what sequence. Making a list can help.

Step 4

Find an equation or set of equations that can help you solve the problem. Your list of knowns and unknowns can help here. It is easiest if you can find equations that contain only one unknown—that is, all of the other variables are known, so you can easily solve for the unknown. If the equation contains more than one unknown, then an additional equation is needed to solve the problem. In some problems, several unknowns must be determined to get at the one needed most. In such problems it is especially important to keep physical principles in mind to avoid going astray in a sea of equations. You may have to use two (or more) different equations to get the final answer.

Step 5

Substitute the knowns along with their units into the appropriate equation, and obtain numerical solutions complete with units. This step produces the numerical answer; it also provides a check on units that can help you find errors. If the units of the answer are incorrect, then an error has been made. However, be warned that correct units do not guarantee that the numerical part of the answer is also correct.

Step 6

Check the answer to see if it is reasonable: Does it make sense? This final step is extremely important—the goal of physics is to accurately describe nature. To see if the answer is reasonable, check both its magnitude and its sign, in addition to its units. Your judgment will improve as you solve more and more physics problems, and it will become possible for you to make finer and finer judgments regarding whether nature is adequately described by the answer to a problem. This step brings the problem back to its conceptual meaning. If you can judge whether the answer is reasonable, you have a deeper understanding of physics than just being able to mechanically solve a problem.

When solving problems, we often perform these steps in different order, and we also tend to do several steps simultaneously. There is no rigid procedure that will work every time. Creativity and insight grow with experience, and the basics of problem solving become almost automatic. One way to get practice is to work out the text's examples for yourself as you read. Another is to work as many end-of-section problems as possible, starting with the easiest to build confidence and progressing to the more difficult. Once you become involved in physics, you will

see it all around you, and you can begin to apply it to situations you encounter outside the classroom, just as is done in many of the applications in this text.

Unreasonable Results

Physics must describe nature accurately. Some problems have results that are unreasonable because one premise is unreasonable or because certain premises are inconsistent with one another. The physical principle applied correctly then produces an unreasonable result. For example, if a person starting a foot race accelerates at 0.40 m/s^2 for 100 s, his final speed will be 40 m/s (about 150 km/h)—clearly unreasonable because the time of 100 s is an unreasonable premise. The physics is correct in a sense, but there is more to describing nature than just manipulating equations correctly. Checking the result of a problem to see if it is reasonable does more than help uncover errors in problem solving—it also builds intuition in judging whether nature is being accurately described.

Use the following strategies to determine whether an answer is reasonable and, if it is not, to determine what is the cause.

Step 1

Solve the problem using strategies as outlined and in the format followed in the worked examples in the text. In the example given in the preceding paragraph, you would identify the givens as the acceleration and time and use the equation below to find the unknown final velocity. That is,

$$v = v_0 + at = 0 + (0.40 \text{ m/s}^2)(100 \text{ s}) = 40 \text{ m/s.} \quad 2.72$$

Step 2

Check to see if the answer is reasonable. Is it too large or too small, or does it have the wrong sign, improper units, ...? In this case, you may need to convert meters per second into a more familiar unit, such as miles per hour.

$$\left(\frac{40 \text{ m}}{\text{s}}\right)\left(\frac{3.28 \text{ ft}}{\text{m}}\right)\left(\frac{1 \text{ mi}}{5280 \text{ ft}}\right)\left(\frac{60 \text{ s}}{\text{min}}\right)\left(\frac{60 \text{ min}}{1 \text{ h}}\right) = 89 \text{ mph} \quad 2.73$$

This velocity is about four times greater than a person can run—so it is too large.

Step 3

If the answer is unreasonable, look for what specifically could cause the identified difficulty. In the example of the runner, there are only two assumptions that are suspect. The acceleration could be too great or the time too long. First look at the acceleration and think about what the number means. If someone accelerates at 0.40 m/s^2 , their velocity is increasing by 0.4 m/s each second. Does this seem reasonable? If so, the time must be too long. It is not possible for someone to accelerate at a constant rate of 0.40 m/s^2 for 100 s (almost two minutes).

2.7 Falling Objects

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the effects of gravity on objects in motion.
- Describe the motion of objects that are in free fall.
- Calculate the position and velocity of objects in free fall.

Falling objects form an interesting class of motion problems. For example, we can estimate the depth of a vertical mine shaft by dropping a rock into it and listening for the rock to hit the bottom. By applying the kinematics developed so far to falling objects, we can examine some interesting situations and learn much about gravity in the process.

Gravity

The most remarkable and unexpected fact about falling objects is that, if air resistance and friction are negligible, then in a given location all objects fall toward the center of Earth with the *same constant acceleration, independent of their mass*. This experimentally determined fact is unexpected, because we are so accustomed to the effects of air resistance and friction that we expect light objects to fall slower than heavy ones.

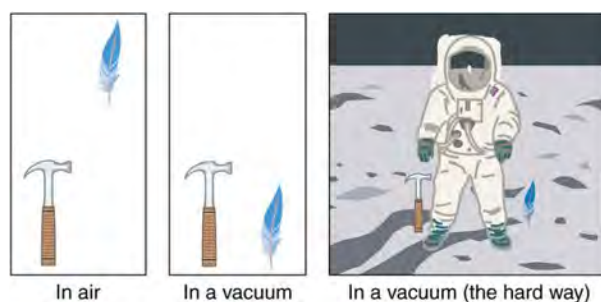


FIGURE 2.37 A hammer and a feather will fall with the same constant acceleration if air resistance is considered negligible. This is a general characteristic of gravity not unique to Earth, as astronaut David R. Scott demonstrated on the Moon in 1971, where the acceleration due to gravity is only 1.67 m/s^2 .

In the real world, air resistance can cause a lighter object to fall slower than a heavier object of the same size. A tennis ball will reach the ground after a hard baseball dropped at the same time. (It might be difficult to observe the difference if the height is not large.) Air resistance opposes the motion of an object through the air, while friction between objects—such as between clothes and a laundry chute or between a stone and a pool into which it is dropped—also opposes motion between them. For the ideal situations of these first few chapters, an object *falling without air resistance or friction* is defined to be in **free-fall**.

The force of gravity causes objects to fall toward the center of Earth. The acceleration of free-falling objects is therefore called the **acceleration due to gravity**. The acceleration due to gravity is *constant*, which means we can apply the kinematics equations to any falling object where air resistance and friction are negligible. This opens a broad class of interesting situations to us. The acceleration due to gravity is so important that its magnitude is given its own symbol, g . It is constant at any given location on Earth and has the average value

$$g = 9.80 \text{ m/s}^2. \quad 2.74$$

Although g varies from 9.78 m/s^2 to 9.83 m/s^2 , depending on latitude, altitude, underlying geological formations, and local topography, the average value of 9.80 m/s^2 will be used in this text unless otherwise specified. The direction of the acceleration due to gravity is *downward (towards the center of Earth)*. In fact, its direction *defines* what we call vertical. Note that whether the acceleration a in the kinematic equations has the value $+g$ or $-g$ depends on how we define our coordinate system. If we define the upward direction as positive, then $a = -g = -9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$, and if we define the downward direction as positive, then $a = g = 9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$.

One-Dimensional Motion Involving Gravity

The best way to see the basic features of motion involving gravity is to start with the simplest situations and then progress toward more complex ones. So we start by considering straight up and down motion with no air resistance or friction. These assumptions mean that the velocity (if there is any) is vertical. If the object is dropped, we know the initial velocity is zero. Once the object has left contact with whatever held or threw it, the object is in free-fall. Under these circumstances, the motion is one-dimensional and has constant acceleration of magnitude g . We will also represent vertical displacement with the symbol y and use x for horizontal displacement.

KINEMATIC EQUATIONS FOR OBJECTS IN FREE-FALL WHERE ACCELERATION = $-g$

$$v = v_0 - gt \quad 2.75$$

$$y = y_0 + v_0 t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2 \quad 2.76$$

$$v^2 = v_0^2 - 2g(y - y_0) \quad 2.77$$



EXAMPLE 2.14

Calculating Position and Velocity of a Falling Object: A Rock Thrown Upward

A person standing on the edge of a high cliff throws a rock straight up with an initial velocity of 13.0 m/s. The rock misses the edge of the cliff as it falls back to earth. Calculate the position and velocity of the rock 1.00 s, 2.00 s, and 3.00 s after it is thrown, neglecting the effects of air resistance.

Strategy

Draw a sketch.

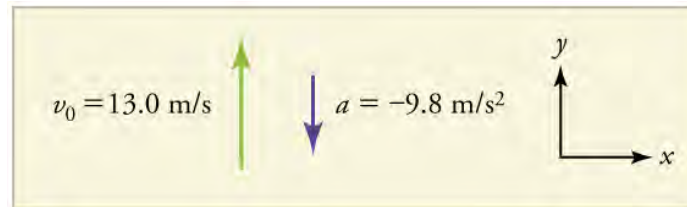


FIGURE 2.38

We are asked to determine the position y at various times. It is reasonable to take the initial position y_0 to be zero. This problem involves one-dimensional motion in the vertical direction. We use plus and minus signs to indicate direction, with up being positive and down negative. Since up is positive, and the rock is thrown upward, the initial velocity must be positive too. The acceleration due to gravity is downward, so a is negative. It is crucial that the initial velocity and the acceleration due to gravity have opposite signs. Opposite signs indicate that the acceleration due to gravity opposes the initial motion and will slow and eventually reverse it.

Since we are asked for values of position and velocity at three times, we will refer to these as y_1 and v_1 ; y_2 and v_2 ; and y_3 and v_3 .

Solution for Position

y_1

1. Identify the knowns. We know that $y_0 = 0$; $v_0 = 13.0$ m/s; $a = -g = -9.80$ m/s²; and $t = 1.00$ s.
2. Identify the best equation to use. We will use $y = y_0 + v_0 t + \frac{1}{2} a t^2$ because it includes only one unknown, y (or y_1 , here), which is the value we want to find.
3. Plug in the known values and solve for y_1 .

$$y_1 = 0 + (13.0 \text{ m/s})(1.00 \text{ s}) + \frac{1}{2}(-9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(1.00 \text{ s})^2 = 8.10 \text{ m} \quad 2.78$$

Discussion

The rock is 8.10 m above its starting point at $t = 1.00$ s, since $y_1 > y_0$. It could be *moving* up or down; the only way to tell is to calculate v_1 and find out if it is positive or negative.

Solution for Velocity

v_1

1. Identify the knowns. We know that $y_0 = 0$; $v_0 = 13.0$ m/s; $a = -g = -9.80$ m/s²; and $t = 1.00$ s. We also know from the solution above that $y_1 = 8.10$ m.
2. Identify the best equation to use. The most straightforward is $v = v_0 - gt$ (from $v = v_0 + at$, where $a = \text{gravitational acceleration} = -g$).
3. Plug in the knowns and solve.

$$v_1 = v_0 - gt = 13.0 \text{ m/s} - (9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(1.00 \text{ s}) = 3.20 \text{ m/s} \quad 2.79$$

Discussion

The positive value for v_1 means that the rock is still heading upward at $t = 1.00$ s. However, it has slowed from its original 13.0 m/s, as expected.

Solution for Remaining Times

The procedures for calculating the position and velocity at $t = 2.00$ s and 3.00 s are the same as those above. The results are summarized in [Table 2.1](#) and illustrated in [Figure 2.39](#).

Time, t	Position, y	Velocity, v	Acceleration, a
1.00 s	8.10 m	3.20 m/s	-9.80 m/s^2
2.00 s	6.40 m	-6.60 m/s	-9.80 m/s^2
3.00 s	-5.10 m	-16.4 m/s	-9.80 m/s^2

TABLE 2.1 Results

Graphing the data helps us understand it more clearly.

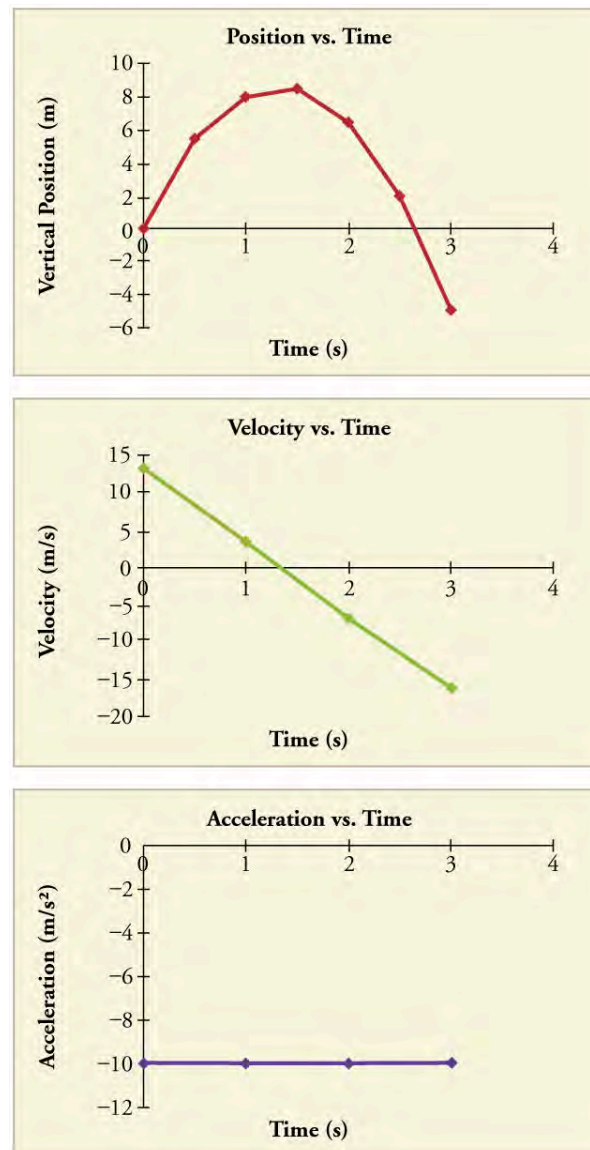


FIGURE 2.39 Vertical position, vertical velocity, and vertical acceleration vs. time for a rock thrown vertically up at the edge of a cliff. Notice that velocity changes linearly with time and that acceleration is constant. *Misconception Alert!* Notice that the position vs. time graph shows vertical position only. It is easy to get the impression that the graph shows some horizontal motion—the shape of the graph looks like the path of a projectile. But this is not the case; the horizontal axis is *time*, not space. The actual path of the rock in space is straight up, and straight down.

Discussion

The interpretation of these results is important. At 1.00 s the rock is above its starting point and heading upward, since y_1 and v_1 are both positive. At 2.00 s, the rock is still above its starting point, but the negative velocity means it is moving downward. At 3.00 s, both y_3 and v_3 are negative, meaning the rock is below its starting point and continuing to move downward. Notice that when the rock is at its highest point (at 1.5 s), its velocity is zero, but its acceleration is still -9.80 m/s^2 . Its acceleration is -9.80 m/s^2 for the whole trip—while it is moving up and while it is moving down. Note that the values for y are the positions (or displacements) of the rock, not the total distances traveled. Finally, note that free-fall applies to upward motion as well as downward. Both have the same acceleration—the acceleration due to gravity, which remains constant the entire time. Astronauts training in the famous Vomit Comet, for example, experience free-fall while arcing up as well as down, as we will discuss in more detail later.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT—REACTION TIME

A simple experiment can be done to determine your reaction time. Have a friend hold a ruler between your thumb and index finger, separated by about 1 cm. Note the mark on the ruler that is right between your fingers. Have your friend drop the ruler unexpectedly, and try to catch it between your two fingers. Note the new reading on the ruler. Assuming acceleration is that due to gravity, calculate your reaction time. How far would you travel in a car (moving at 30 m/s) if the time it took your foot to go from the gas pedal to the brake was twice this reaction time?

EXAMPLE 2.15

Calculating Velocity of a Falling Object: A Rock Thrown Down

What happens if the person on the cliff throws the rock straight down, instead of straight up? To explore this question, calculate the velocity of the rock when it is 5.10 m below the starting point, and has been thrown downward with an initial speed of 13.0 m/s.

Strategy

Draw a sketch.

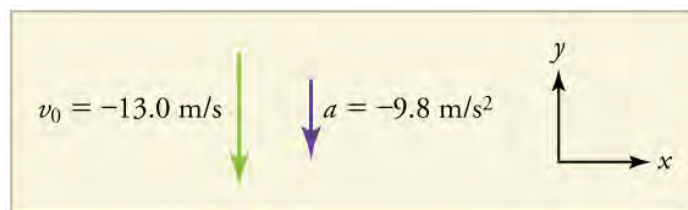


FIGURE 2.40

Since up is positive, the final position of the rock will be negative because it finishes below the starting point at $y_0 = 0$. Similarly, the initial velocity is downward and therefore negative, as is the acceleration due to gravity. We expect the final velocity to be negative since the rock will continue to move downward.

Solution

1. Identify the knowns. $y_0 = 0$; $y_1 = -5.10$ m; $v_0 = -13.0$ m/s; $a = -g = -9.80$ m/s².
2. Choose the kinematic equation that makes it easiest to solve the problem. The equation $v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(y - y_0)$ works well because the only unknown in it is v . (We will plug y_1 in for y .)
3. Enter the known values

$$v^2 = (-13.0 \text{ m/s})^2 + 2(-9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(-5.10 \text{ m} - 0 \text{ m}) = 268.96 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2, \quad 2.80$$

where we have retained extra significant figures because this is an intermediate result.

Taking the square root, and noting that a square root can be positive or negative, gives

$$v = \pm 16.4 \text{ m/s}. \quad 2.81$$

The negative root is chosen to indicate that the rock is still heading down. Thus,

$$v = -16.4 \text{ m/s}. \quad 2.82$$

Discussion

Note that *this is exactly the same velocity the rock had at this position when it was thrown straight upward with the same initial speed.* (See [Example 2.14](#) and [Figure 2.41\(a\)](#).) This is not a coincidental result. Because we only consider the acceleration due to gravity in this problem, the *speed* of a falling object depends only on its initial

speed and its vertical position relative to the starting point. For example, if the velocity of the rock is calculated at a height of 8.10 m above the starting point (using the method from [Example 2.14](#)) when the initial velocity is 13.0 m/s straight up, a result of ± 3.20 m/s is obtained. Here both signs are meaningful; the positive value occurs when the rock is at 8.10 m and heading up, and the negative value occurs when the rock is at 8.10 m and heading back down. It has the same *speed* but the opposite direction.

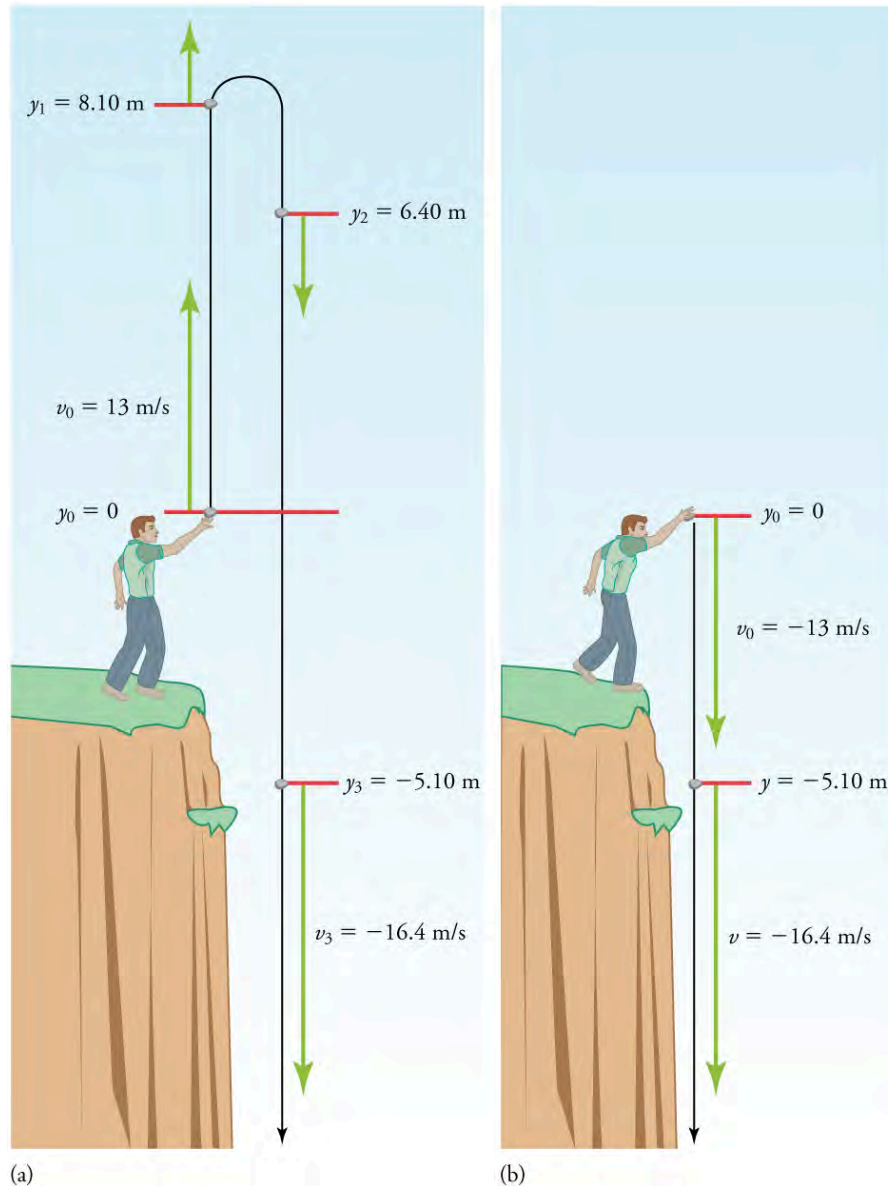


FIGURE 2.41 (a) A person throws a rock straight up, as explored in [Example 2.14](#). The arrows are velocity vectors at 0, 1.00, 2.00, and 3.00 s. (b) A person throws a rock straight down from a cliff with the same initial speed as before, as in [Example 2.15](#). Note that at the same distance below the point of release, the rock has the same velocity in both cases.

Another way to look at it is this: In [Example 2.14](#), the rock is thrown up with an initial velocity of 13.0 m/s. It rises and then falls back down. When its position is $y = 0$ on its way back down, its velocity is -13.0 m/s. That is, it has the same speed on its way down as on its way up. We would then expect its velocity at a position of $y = -5.10$ m to be the same whether we have thrown it upwards at $+13.0$ m/s or thrown it downwards at -13.0 m/s. The velocity of the rock on its way down from $y = 0$ is the same whether we have thrown it up or down to start with, as long as the speed with which it was initially thrown is the same.

EXAMPLE 2.16

Find g from Data on a Falling Object

The acceleration due to gravity on Earth differs slightly from place to place, depending on topography (e.g., whether you are on a hill or in a valley) and subsurface geology (whether there is dense rock like iron ore as opposed to light rock like salt beneath you.) The precise acceleration due to gravity can be calculated from data taken in an introductory physics laboratory course. An object, usually a metal ball for which air resistance is negligible, is dropped and the time it takes to fall a known distance is measured. See, for example, [Figure 2.42](#). Very precise results can be produced with this method if sufficient care is taken in measuring the distance fallen and the elapsed time.

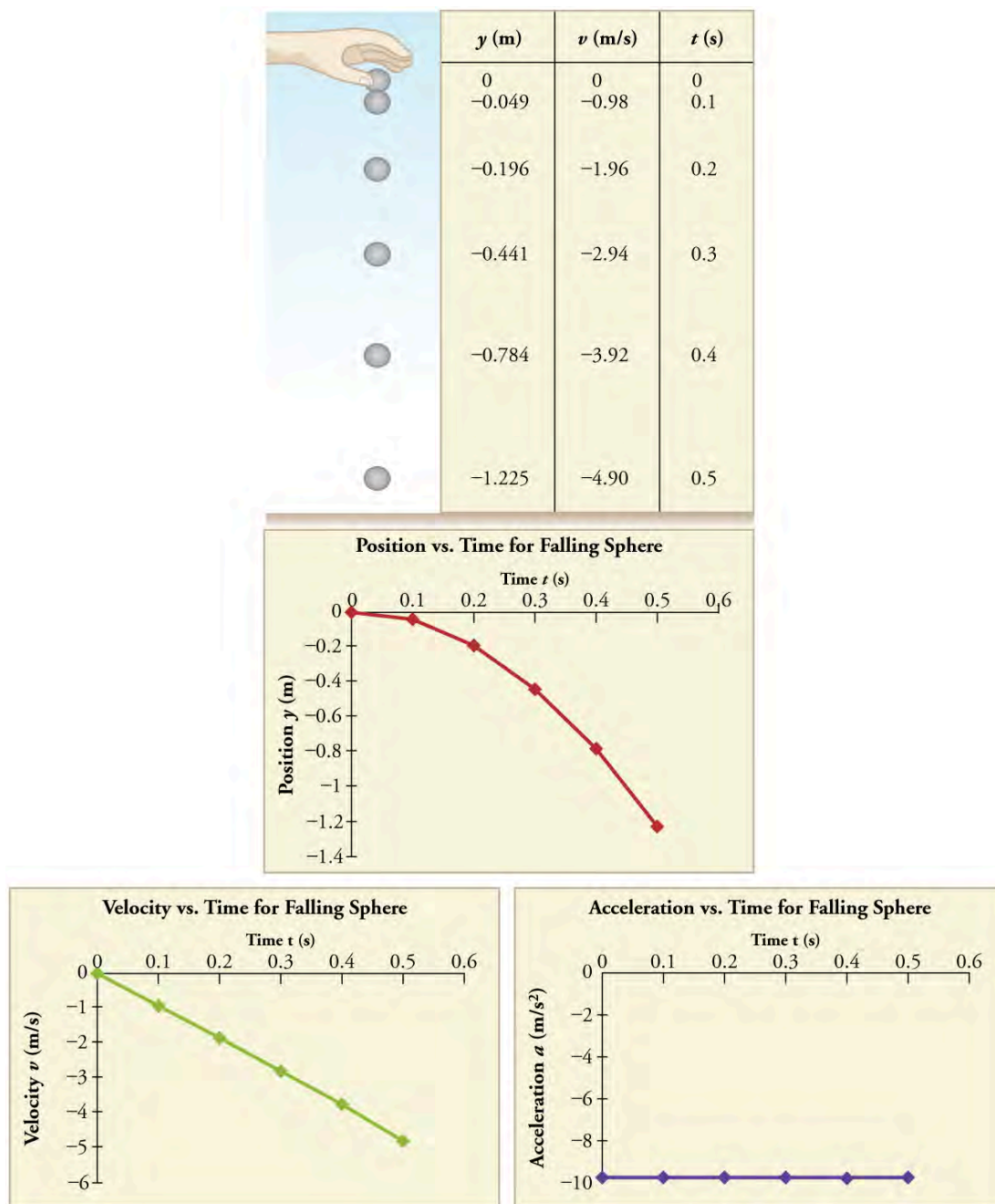


FIGURE 2.42 Positions and velocities of a metal ball released from rest when air resistance is negligible. Velocity is seen to increase linearly with time while displacement increases with time squared. Acceleration is a constant and is equal to gravitational acceleration.

Suppose the ball falls 1.0000 m in 0.45173 s. Assuming the ball is not affected by air resistance, what is the precise acceleration due to gravity at this location?

Strategy

Draw a sketch.

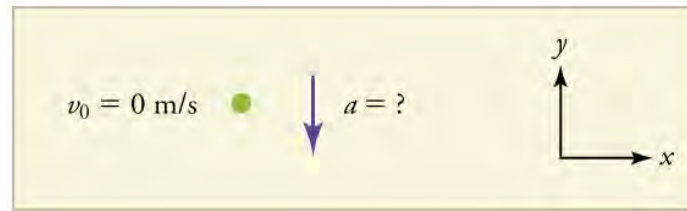


FIGURE 2.43

We need to solve for acceleration a . Note that in this case, displacement is downward and therefore negative, as is acceleration.

Solution

1. Identify the knowns. $y_0 = 0$; $y = -1.0000$ m; $t = 0.45173$; $v_0 = 0$.
2. Choose the equation that allows you to solve for a using the known values.

$$y = y_0 + v_0 t + \frac{1}{2} a t^2 \quad 2.83$$

3. Substitute 0 for v_0 and rearrange the equation to solve for a . Substituting 0 for v_0 yields

$$y = y_0 + \frac{1}{2} a t^2. \quad 2.84$$

Solving for a gives

$$a = \frac{2(y - y_0)}{t^2}. \quad 2.85$$

4. Substitute known values yields

$$a = \frac{2(-1.0000 \text{ m} - 0)}{(0.45173 \text{ s})^2} = -9.8010 \text{ m/s}^2, \quad 2.86$$

so, because $a = -g$ with the directions we have chosen,

$$g = 9.8010 \text{ m/s}^2. \quad 2.87$$

Discussion

The negative value for a indicates that the gravitational acceleration is downward, as expected. We expect the value to be somewhere around the average value of 9.80 m/s^2 , so 9.8010 m/s^2 makes sense. Since the data going into the calculation are relatively precise, this value for g is more precise than the average value of 9.80 m/s^2 ; it represents the local value for the acceleration due to gravity.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

A chunk of ice breaks off a glacier and falls 30.0 meters before it hits the water. Assuming it falls freely (there is no air resistance), how long does it take to hit the water?

Solution

We know that initial position $y_0 = 0$, final position $y = -30.0$ m, and $a = -g = -9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$. We can then use the equation $y = y_0 + v_0 t + \frac{1}{2} a t^2$ to solve for t . Inserting $a = -g$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
 y &= 0 + 0 - \frac{1}{2}gt^2 \\
 t^2 &= \frac{2y}{-g} \\
 t &= \pm\sqrt{\frac{2y}{-g}} = \pm\sqrt{\frac{2(-30.0 \text{ m})}{-9.80 \text{ m/s}^2}} = \pm\sqrt{6.12 \text{ s}^2} = 2.47 \text{ s} \approx 2.5 \text{ s}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{2.88}$$

where we take the positive value as the physically relevant answer. Thus, it takes about 2.5 seconds for the piece of ice to hit the water.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Equation Grapher

Learn about graphing polynomials. The shape of the curve changes as the constants are adjusted. View the curves for the individual terms (e.g. $y = bx$) to see how they add to generate the polynomial curve.

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/2-7-falling-objects\)](https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/2-7-falling-objects)



2.8 Graphical Analysis of One-Dimensional Motion

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe a straight-line graph in terms of its slope and y-intercept.
- Determine average velocity or instantaneous velocity from a graph of position vs. time.
- Determine average or instantaneous acceleration from a graph of velocity vs. time.
- Derive a graph of velocity vs. time from a graph of position vs. time.
- Derive a graph of acceleration vs. time from a graph of velocity vs. time.

A graph, like a picture, is worth a thousand words. Graphs not only contain numerical information; they also reveal relationships between physical quantities. This section uses graphs of position, velocity, and acceleration versus time to illustrate one-dimensional kinematics.

Slopes and General Relationships

First note that graphs in this text have perpendicular axes, one horizontal and the other vertical. When two physical quantities are plotted against one another in such a graph, the horizontal axis is usually considered to be an **independent variable** and the vertical axis a **dependent variable**. If we call the horizontal axis the x -axis and the vertical axis the y -axis, as in [Figure 2.44](#), a straight-line graph has the general form

$$y = mx + b. \tag{2.89}$$

Here m is the **slope**, defined to be the rise divided by the run (as seen in the figure) of the straight line. The letter b is used for the **y-intercept**, which is the point at which the line crosses the vertical axis.

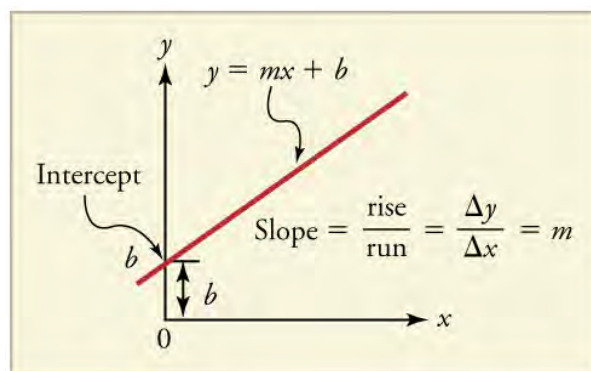


FIGURE 2.44 A straight-line graph. The equation for a straight line is $y = mx + b$.

Graph of Position vs. Time ($a = 0$, so v is constant)

Time is usually an independent variable that other quantities, such as position, depend upon. A graph of position versus time would, thus, have x on the vertical axis and t on the horizontal axis. [Figure 2.45](#) is just such a straight-line graph. It shows a graph of position versus time for a jet-powered car on a very flat dry lake bed in Nevada.

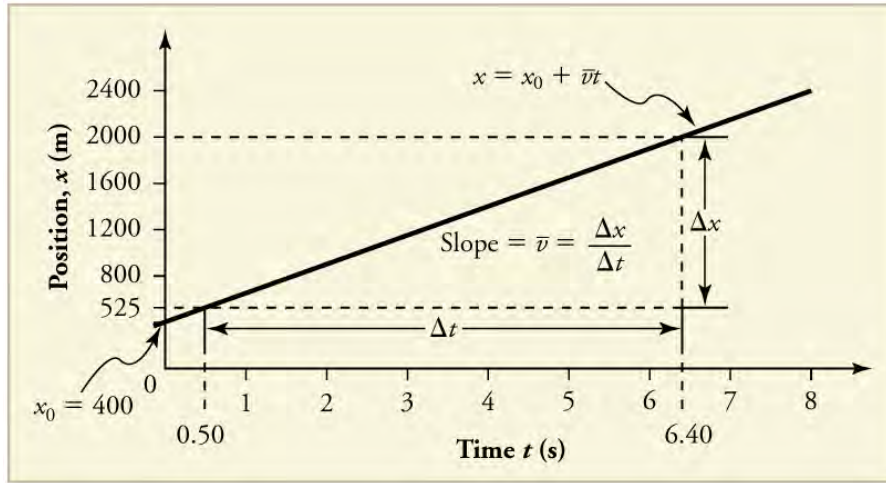


FIGURE 2.45 Graph of position versus time for a jet-powered car on the Bonneville Salt Flats.

Using the relationship between dependent and independent variables, we see that the slope in the graph above is average velocity $\bar{v}$ and the intercept is position at time zero—that is, x_0 . Substituting these symbols into $y = mx + b$ gives

$$x = \bar{v}t + x_0 \quad 2.90$$

or

$$x = x_0 + \bar{v}t. \quad 2.91$$

Thus a graph of position versus time gives a general relationship among displacement (change in position), velocity, and time, as well as giving detailed numerical information about a specific situation.

THE SLOPE OF x VS. t

The slope of the graph of position x vs. time t is velocity v .

$$\text{slope} = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = v \quad 2.92$$

Notice that this equation is the same as that derived algebraically from other motion equations in [Motion Equations for Constant Acceleration in One Dimension](#).

From the figure we can see that the car has a position of 525 m at 0.50 s and 2000 m at 6.40 s. Its position at other times can be read from the graph; furthermore, information about its velocity and acceleration can also be obtained from the graph.



EXAMPLE 2.17

Determining Average Velocity from a Graph of Position versus Time: Jet Car

Find the average velocity of the car whose position is graphed in [Figure 2.45](#).

Strategy

The slope of a graph of x vs. t is average velocity, since slope equals rise over run. In this case, rise = change in position and run = change in time, so that

$$\text{slope} = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \bar{v}. \quad 2.93$$

Since the slope is constant here, any two points on the graph can be used to find the slope. (Generally speaking, it is most accurate to use two widely separated points on the straight line. This is because any error in reading data from the graph is proportionally smaller if the interval is larger.)

Solution

1. Choose two points on the line. In this case, we choose the points labeled on the graph: (6.4 s, 2000 m) and (0.50 s, 525 m). (Note, however, that you could choose any two points.)
2. Substitute the x and t values of the chosen points into the equation. Remember in calculating change (Δ) we always use final value minus initial value.

$$\bar{v} = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{2000 \text{ m} - 525 \text{ m}}{6.4 \text{ s} - 0.50 \text{ s}}, \quad 2.94$$

yielding

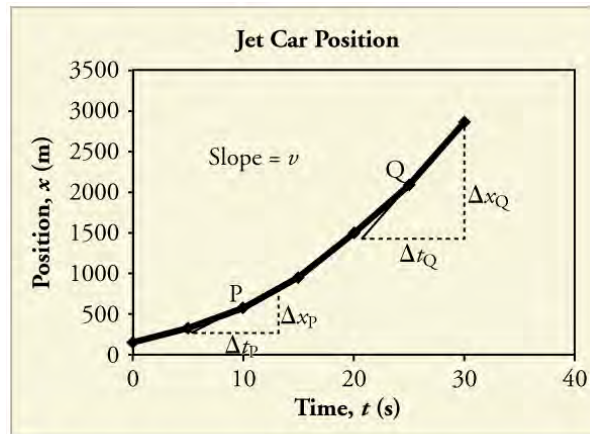
$$\bar{v} = 250 \text{ m/s}. \quad 2.95$$

Discussion

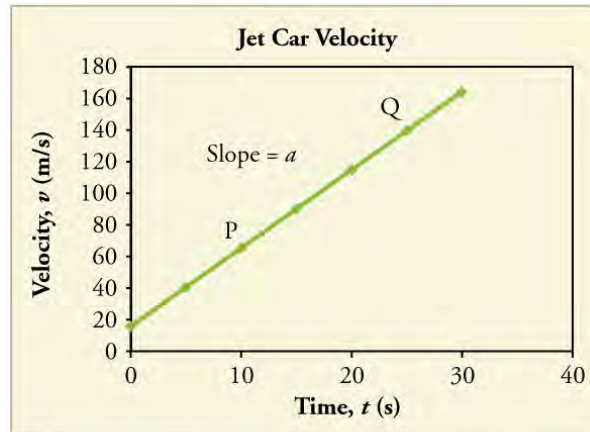
This is an impressively large land speed (900 km/h, or about 560 mi/h): much greater than the typical highway speed limit of 60 mi/h (27 m/s or 96 km/h), but considerably shy of the record of 343 m/s (1234 km/h or 766 mi/h) set in 1997.

Graphs of Motion when a is constant but $a \neq 0$

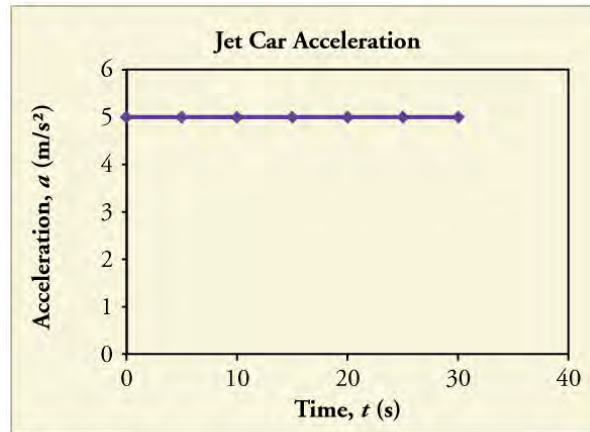
The graphs in [Figure 2.46](#) below represent the motion of the jet-powered car as it accelerates toward its top speed, but only during the time when its acceleration is constant. Time starts at zero for this motion (as if measured with a stopwatch), and the position and velocity are initially 200 m and 15 m/s, respectively.



(a)



(b)



(c)

FIGURE 2.46 Graphs of motion of a jet-powered car during the time span when its acceleration is constant. (a) The slope of an x vs. t graph is velocity. This is shown at two points, and the instantaneous velocities obtained are plotted in the next graph. Instantaneous velocity at any point is the slope of the tangent at that point. (b) The slope of the v vs. t graph is constant for this part of the motion, indicating constant acceleration. (c) Acceleration has the constant value of 5.0 m/s^2 over the time interval plotted.



FIGURE 2.47 A U.S. Air Force jet car speeds down a track. (credit: Matt Trostle, Flickr)

The graph of position versus time in [Figure 2.46\(a\)](#) is a curve rather than a straight line. The slope of the curve becomes steeper as time progresses, showing that the velocity is increasing over time. The slope at any point on a position-versus-time graph is the instantaneous velocity at that point. It is found by drawing a straight line tangent to the curve at the point of interest and taking the slope of this straight line. Tangent lines are shown for two points in [Figure 2.46\(a\)](#). If this is done at every point on the curve and the values are plotted against time, then the graph of velocity versus time shown in [Figure 2.46\(b\)](#) is obtained. Furthermore, the slope of the graph of velocity versus time is acceleration, which is shown in [Figure 2.46\(c\)](#).



EXAMPLE 2.18

Determining Instantaneous Velocity from the Slope at a Point: Jet Car

Calculate the velocity of the jet car at a time of 25 s by finding the slope of the x vs. t graph in the graph below.

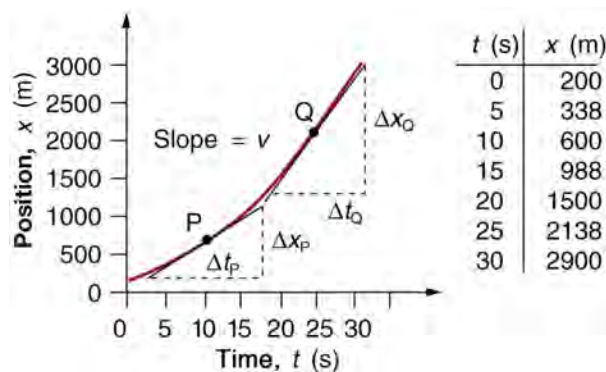


FIGURE 2.48 The slope of an x vs. t graph is velocity. This is shown at two points. Instantaneous velocity at any point is the slope of the tangent at that point.

Strategy

The slope of a curve at a point is equal to the slope of a straight line tangent to the curve at that point. This principle is illustrated in [Figure 2.48](#), where Q is the point at $t = 25$ s.

Solution

1. Find the tangent line to the curve at $t = 25$ s.
2. Determine the endpoints of the tangent. These correspond to a position of 1300 m at time 19 s and a position of 3120 m at time 32 s.
3. Plug these endpoints into the equation to solve for the slope, v .

$$\text{slope} = v_Q = \frac{\Delta x_Q}{\Delta t_Q} = \frac{(3120 \text{ m} - 1300 \text{ m})}{(32 \text{ s} - 19 \text{ s})} \quad 2.96$$

Thus,

$$v_Q = \frac{1820 \text{ m}}{13 \text{ s}} = 140 \text{ m/s}. \quad 2.97$$

Discussion

This is the value given in this figure's table for v at $t = 25 \text{ s}$. The value of 140 m/s for v_Q is plotted in [Figure 2.48](#). The entire graph of v vs. t can be obtained in this fashion.

Carrying this one step further, we note that the slope of a velocity versus time graph is acceleration. Slope is rise divided by run; on a v vs. t graph, rise = change in velocity Δv and run = change in time Δt .

THE SLOPE OF V VS. T

The slope of a graph of velocity v vs. time t is acceleration a .

$$\text{slope} = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} = a \quad 2.98$$

Since the velocity versus time graph in [Figure 2.46\(b\)](#) is a straight line, its slope is the same everywhere, implying that acceleration is constant. Acceleration versus time is graphed in [Figure 2.46\(c\)](#).

Additional general information can be obtained from [Figure 2.48](#) and the expression for a straight line, $y = mx + b$.

In this case, the vertical axis y is V , the intercept b is v_0 , the slope m is a , and the horizontal axis x is t . Substituting these symbols yields

$$v = v_0 + at. \quad 2.99$$

A general relationship for velocity, acceleration, and time has again been obtained from a graph. Notice that this equation was also derived algebraically from other motion equations in [Motion Equations for Constant Acceleration in One Dimension](#).

It is not accidental that the same equations are obtained by graphical analysis as by algebraic techniques. In fact, an important way to *discover* physical relationships is to measure various physical quantities and then make graphs of one quantity against another to see if they are correlated in any way. Correlations imply physical relationships and might be shown by smooth graphs such as those above. From such graphs, mathematical relationships can sometimes be postulated. Further experiments are then performed to determine the validity of the hypothesized relationships.

Graphs of Motion Where Acceleration is Not Constant

Now consider the motion of the jet car as it goes from 165 m/s to its top velocity of 250 m/s , graphed in [Figure 2.49](#). Time again starts at zero, and the initial velocity is 165 m/s . (This was the final velocity of the car in the motion graphed in [Figure 2.46](#).) Acceleration gradually decreases from 5.0 m/s^2 to zero when the car hits 250 m/s . The velocity increases until 55 s and then becomes constant, since acceleration decreases to zero at 55 s and remains zero afterward.

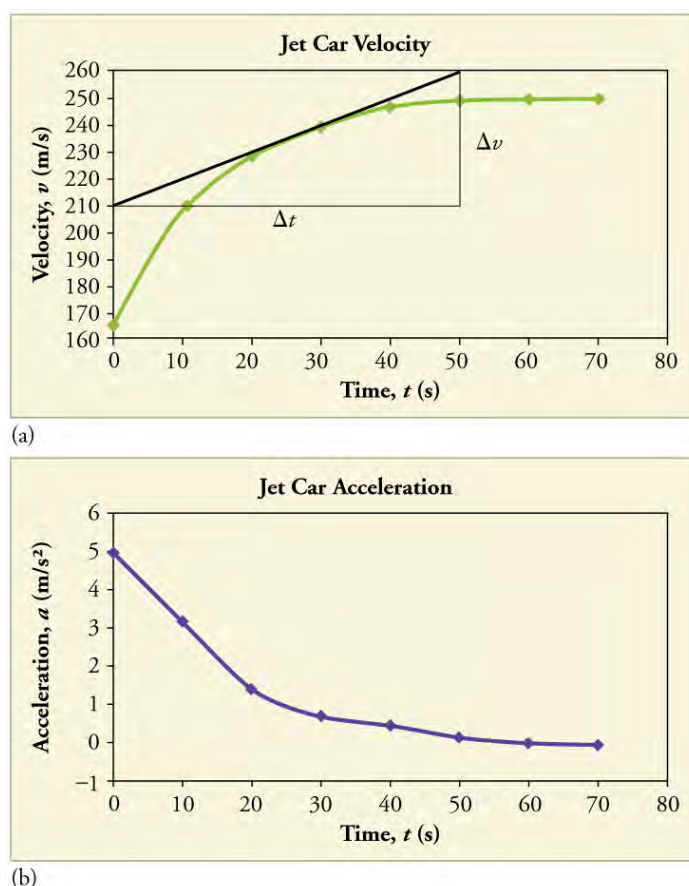


FIGURE 2.49 Graphs of motion of a jet-powered car as it reaches its top velocity. This motion begins where the motion in [Figure 2.46](#) ends. (a) The velocity gradually approaches its top value. The slope of this graph is acceleration. It is plotted in the final graph. (b) Acceleration gradually declines to zero when velocity becomes constant. Notice in each of the three graphs that the acceleration drops down to zero and the velocity levels out. This results in a position-time graph that is almost linear. A close-up of the position time graph would show a slight curvature, as indicated in the velocity graph.



EXAMPLE 2.19

Calculating Acceleration from a Graph of Velocity versus Time

Calculate the acceleration of the jet car at a time of 25 s by finding the slope of the v vs. t graph in [Figure 2.49\(a\)](#).

Strategy

The slope of the curve at $t = 25$ s is equal to the slope of the line tangent at that point, as illustrated in [Figure 2.49\(a\)](#).

Solution

Determine endpoints of the tangent line from the figure, and then plug them into the equation to solve for slope, a .

$$\text{slope} = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} = \frac{(260 \text{ m/s} - 210 \text{ m/s})}{(51 \text{ s} - 1.0 \text{ s})} \quad 2.100$$

$$a = \frac{50 \text{ m/s}}{50 \text{ s}} = 1.0 \text{ m/s}^2. \quad 2.101$$

Discussion

Note that this value for a is consistent with the value plotted in [Figure 2.49\(b\)](#) at $t = 25$ s.

A graph of position versus time can be used to generate a graph of velocity versus time, and a graph of velocity

versus time can be used to generate a graph of acceleration versus time. We do this by finding the slope of the graphs at every point. If the graph is linear (i.e., a line with a constant slope), it is easy to find the slope at any point and you have the slope for every point. Graphical analysis of motion can be used to describe both specific and general characteristics of kinematics. Graphs can also be used for other topics in physics. An important aspect of exploring physical relationships is to graph them and look for underlying relationships.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

A graph of velocity vs. time of a ship coming into a harbor is shown below. (a) Describe the motion of the ship based on the graph. (b) What would a graph of the ship's acceleration look like?

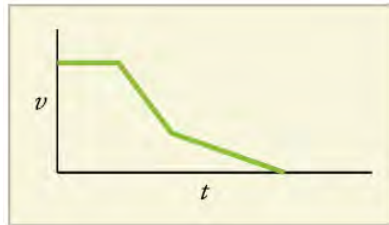


FIGURE 2.50

Solution

(a) The ship moves at constant velocity and then begins to decelerate at a constant rate. At some point, its deceleration rate decreases. It maintains this lower deceleration rate until it stops moving.

(b) A graph of acceleration vs. time would show zero acceleration in the first leg, large and constant negative acceleration in the second leg, and constant negative acceleration.

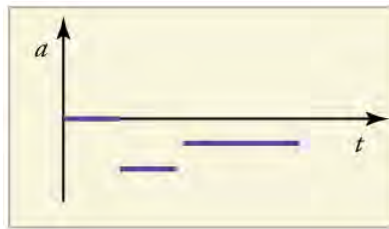


FIGURE 2.51

Glossary

acceleration the rate of change in velocity; the change in velocity over time

acceleration due to gravity acceleration of an object as a result of gravity

average acceleration the change in velocity divided by the time over which it changes

average speed distance traveled divided by time during which motion occurs

average velocity displacement divided by time over which displacement occurs

deceleration acceleration in the direction opposite to velocity; acceleration that results in a decrease in velocity

dependent variable the variable that is being measured; usually plotted along the y -axis

displacement the change in position of an object

distance the magnitude of displacement between two positions

distance traveled the total length of the path traveled between two positions

elapsed time the difference between the ending time and beginning time

free-fall the state of movement that results from gravitational force only

independent variable the variable that the

dependent variable is measured with respect to; usually plotted along the x -axis

instantaneous acceleration acceleration at a specific point in time

instantaneous speed magnitude of the instantaneous velocity

instantaneous velocity velocity at a specific instant, or the average velocity over an infinitesimal time interval

kinematics the study of motion without considering its causes

model simplified description that contains only those elements necessary to describe the physics of a physical situation

position the location of an object at a particular time

scalar a quantity that is described by magnitude, but not direction

slope the difference in y -value (the rise) divided by the difference in x -value (the run) of two points on a straight line

time change, or the interval over which change occurs

vector a quantity that is described by both magnitude and direction

y -intercept the y -value when $x = 0$, or when the graph crosses the y -axis

Section Summary

2.1 Displacement

- Kinematics is the study of motion without considering its causes. In this chapter, it is limited to motion along a straight line, called one-dimensional motion.
- Displacement is the change in position of an object.
- In symbols, displacement Δx is defined to be $\Delta x = x_f - x_0$, where x_0 is the initial position and x_f is the final position. In this text, the Greek letter Δ (delta) always means “change in” whatever quantity follows it. The SI unit for displacement is the meter (m). Displacement has a direction as well as a magnitude.
- When you start a problem, assign which direction will be positive.
- Distance is the magnitude of displacement between two positions.
- Distance traveled is the total length of the path traveled between two positions.

2.2 Vectors, Scalars, and Coordinate Systems

- A vector is any quantity that has magnitude and direction.
- A scalar is any quantity that has magnitude but no direction.
- Displacement and velocity are vectors, whereas distance and speed are scalars.
- In one-dimensional motion, direction is specified by a plus or minus sign to signify left or right, up or down, and the like.

2.3 Time, Velocity, and Speed

- Time is measured in terms of change, and its SI unit is the second (s). Elapsed time for an event is $\Delta t = t_f - t_0$, where t_f is the final time and t_0 is the initial time. The initial time is often taken to be zero, as if measured with a stopwatch; the elapsed time is then just t .
- Average velocity $\bar{v}$ is defined as displacement divided by the travel time. In symbols, average velocity is

$$\bar{v} = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{x_f - x_0}{t_f - t_0}.$$

- The SI unit for velocity is m/s.
- Velocity is a vector and thus has a direction.
- Instantaneous velocity v is the velocity at a specific instant or the average velocity for an infinitesimal interval.
- Instantaneous speed is the magnitude of the instantaneous velocity.
- Instantaneous speed is a scalar quantity, as it has no direction specified.
- Average speed is the total distance traveled divided by the elapsed time. (Average speed is *not* the magnitude of the average velocity.) Speed is a scalar quantity; it has no direction associated with it.

2.4 Acceleration

- Acceleration is the rate at which velocity changes. In symbols, **average acceleration** $\bar{a}$ is

$$\bar{a} = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} = \frac{v_f - v_0}{t_f - t_0}.$$

- The SI unit for acceleration is m/s^2 .
- Acceleration is a vector, and thus has both a magnitude and direction.
- Acceleration can be caused by either a change in the magnitude or the direction of the velocity.
- Instantaneous acceleration a is the acceleration at a specific instant in time.
- Deceleration is an acceleration with a direction opposite to that of the velocity.

2.5 Motion Equations for Constant Acceleration in One Dimension

- To simplify calculations we take acceleration to be constant, so that $\bar{a} = a$ at all times.
- We also take initial time to be zero.
- Initial position and velocity are given a subscript 0; final values have no subscript. Thus,

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \Delta t &= t \\ \Delta x &= x - x_0 \\ \Delta v &= v - v_0 \end{aligned} \right\}$$

- The following kinematic equations for motion with constant a are useful:

$$x = x_0 + \bar{v}t$$

$$\bar{v} = \frac{v_0 + v}{2}$$

$$v = v_0 + at$$

$$x = x_0 + v_0t + \frac{1}{2}at^2$$

$$v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(x - x_0)$$

- In vertical motion, y is substituted for x .

2.6 Problem-Solving Basics for One-Dimensional Kinematics

- *The six basic problem solving steps for physics are:*

Step 1. Examine the situation to determine which physical principles are involved.

Step 2. Make a list of what is given or can be inferred from the problem as stated (identify the knowns).

Step 3. Identify exactly what needs to be determined in the problem (identify the unknowns).

Step 4. Find an equation or set of equations that can help you solve the problem.

Step 5. Substitute the knowns along with their units into the appropriate equation, and obtain numerical solutions complete with units.

Step 6. Check the answer to see if it is reasonable: Does it make sense?

2.7 Falling Objects

- An object in free-fall experiences constant acceleration if air resistance is negligible.
- On Earth, all free-falling objects have an acceleration due to gravity g , which averages $g = 9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$.
- Whether the acceleration a should be taken as $+g$ or $-g$ is determined by your choice of coordinate system. If you choose the upward direction as positive, $a = -g = -9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$ is negative. In the opposite case, $a = +g = 9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$ is positive. Since acceleration is constant, the kinematic equations above can be applied with the appropriate $+g$ or $-g$ substituted for a .
- For objects in free-fall, up is normally taken as positive for displacement, velocity, and acceleration.

2.8 Graphical Analysis of One-Dimensional Motion

- Graphs of motion can be used to analyze motion.
- Graphical solutions yield identical solutions to mathematical methods for deriving motion equations.
- The slope of a graph of displacement x vs. time t is velocity v .
- The slope of a graph of velocity v vs. time t graph is acceleration a .
- Average velocity, instantaneous velocity, and acceleration can all be obtained by analyzing

graphs.

Conceptual Questions

2.1 Displacement

1. Give an example in which there are clear distinctions among distance traveled, displacement, and magnitude of displacement. Specifically identify each quantity in your example.
2. Under what circumstances does distance traveled equal magnitude of displacement? What is the only case in which magnitude of displacement and displacement are exactly the same?
3. Bacteria move back and forth by using their flagella (structures that look like little tails). Speeds of up to $50 \mu\text{m/s}$ ($50 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m/s}$) have been observed. The total distance traveled by a bacterium is large for its size, while its displacement is small. Why is this?

2.2 Vectors, Scalars, and Coordinate Systems

4. A student writes, “A bird that is diving for prey has a speed of -10 m/s .” What is wrong with the student’s statement? What has the student actually described? Explain.
5. What is the speed of the bird in [Exercise 2.4](#)?
6. Acceleration is the change in velocity over time. Given this information, is acceleration a vector or a scalar quantity? Explain.
7. A weather forecast states that the temperature is predicted to be -5°C the following day. Is this temperature a vector or a scalar quantity? Explain.

2.3 Time, Velocity, and Speed

8. Give an example (but not one from the text) of a device used to measure time and identify what change in that device indicates a change in time.
9. There is a distinction between average speed and the magnitude of average velocity. Give an example that illustrates the difference between these two quantities.
10. Does a car’s odometer measure distance traveled or displacement? Does its speedometer measure speed or velocity?
11. If you divide the total distance traveled on a car trip (as determined by the odometer) by the time for the trip, are you calculating the average speed or the magnitude of the average velocity? Under

what circumstances are these two quantities the same?

12. How are instantaneous velocity and instantaneous speed related to one another? How do they differ?

2.4 Acceleration

13. Is it possible for speed to be constant while acceleration is not zero? Give an example of such a situation.
14. Is it possible for velocity to be constant while acceleration is not zero? Explain.
15. Give an example in which velocity is zero yet acceleration is not.
16. If a subway train is moving to the left (has a negative velocity) and then comes to a stop, what is the direction of its acceleration? Is the acceleration positive or negative?
17. Plus and minus signs are used in one-dimensional motion to indicate direction. What is the sign of an acceleration that reduces the magnitude of a negative velocity? Of a positive velocity?

2.6 Problem-Solving Basics for One-Dimensional Kinematics

18. What information do you need in order to choose which equation or equations to use to solve a problem? Explain.
19. What is the last thing you should do when solving a problem? Explain.

2.7 Falling Objects

20. What is the acceleration of a rock thrown straight upward on the way up? At the top of its flight? On the way down?
21. An object that is thrown straight up falls back to Earth. This is one-dimensional motion. (a) When is its velocity zero? (b) Does its velocity change direction? (c) Does the acceleration due to gravity have the same sign on the way up as on the way down?
22. Suppose you throw a rock nearly straight up at a coconut in a palm tree, and the rock misses on the way up but hits the coconut on the way down. Neglecting air resistance, how does the speed of the rock when it hits the coconut on the way down compare with what it would have been if it had hit

the coconut on the way up? Is it more likely to dislodge the coconut on the way up or down? Explain.

23. If an object is thrown straight up and air resistance is negligible, then its speed when it returns to the starting point is the same as when it was released. If air resistance were not negligible, how would its speed upon return compare with its initial speed? How would the maximum height to which it rises be affected?
24. The severity of a fall depends on your speed when you strike the ground. All factors but the acceleration due to gravity being the same, how many times higher could a safe fall on the Moon be than on Earth (gravitational acceleration on the Moon is about $1/6$ that of the Earth)?
25. How many times higher could an astronaut jump on the Moon than on Earth if his takeoff speed is the same in both locations (gravitational acceleration on the Moon is about $1/6$ of g on Earth)?

2.8 Graphical Analysis of One-Dimensional Motion

26. (a) Explain how you can use the graph of position versus time in [Figure 2.52](#) to describe the change in velocity over time. Identify (b) the time (t_a , t_b , t_c , t_d , or t_e) at which the instantaneous velocity is greatest, (c) the time at which it is zero, and (d) the time at which it is negative.

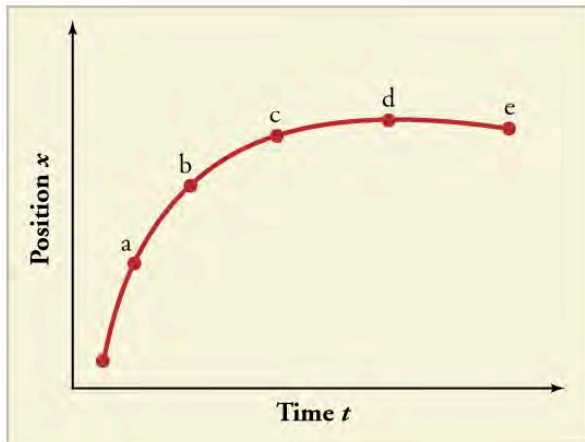


FIGURE 2.52

27. (a) Sketch a graph of velocity versus time corresponding to the graph of position versus time given in [Figure 2.53](#). (b) Identify the time or times (t_a , t_b , t_c , etc.) at which the instantaneous velocity is greatest. (c) At which times is it zero? (d) At which times is it negative?

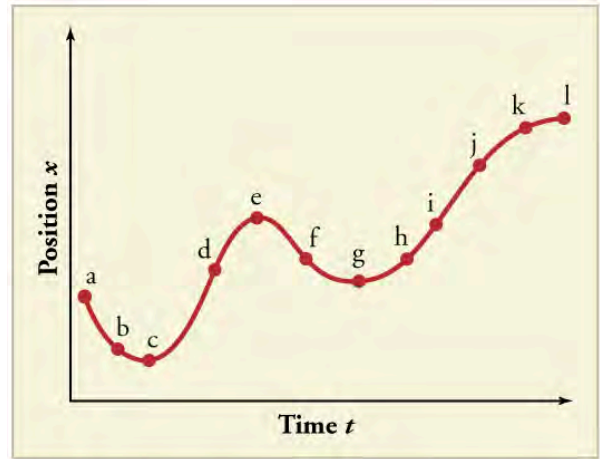


FIGURE 2.53

28. (a) Explain how you can determine the acceleration over time from a velocity versus time graph such as the one in [Figure 2.54](#). (b) Based on the graph, how does acceleration change over time?

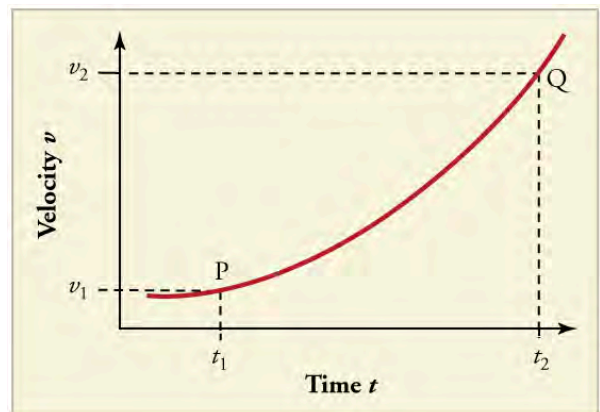


FIGURE 2.54

29. (a) Sketch a graph of acceleration versus time corresponding to the graph of velocity versus time given in [Figure 2.55](#). (b) Identify the time or times (t_a , t_b , t_c , etc.) at which the acceleration is greatest. (c) At which times is it zero? (d) At which times is it negative?

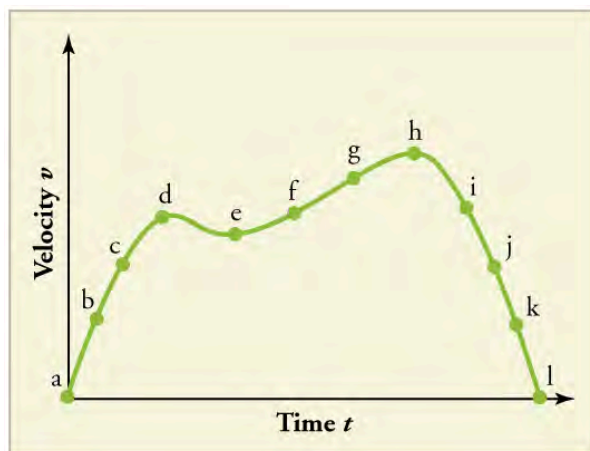


FIGURE 2.55

for the complete trip. (We could, however, use them in the three individual sections where acceleration is a constant.) Sketch graphs of (a) position vs. time and (b) acceleration vs. time for this trip.

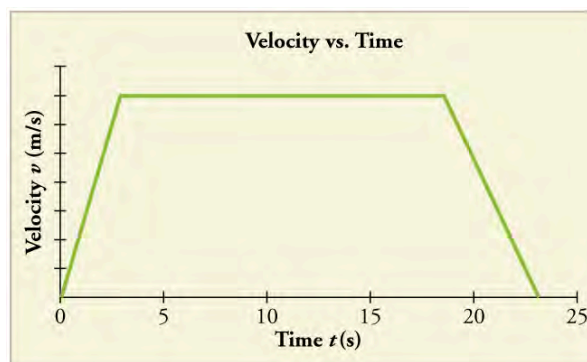


FIGURE 2.56

30. Consider the velocity vs. time graph of a person in an elevator shown in [Figure 2.56](#). Suppose the elevator is initially at rest. It then accelerates for 3 seconds, maintains that velocity for 15 seconds, then decelerates for 5 seconds until it stops. The acceleration for the entire trip is not constant so we cannot use the equations of motion from [Motion Equations for Constant Acceleration in One Dimension](#)

31. A cylinder is given a push and then rolls up an inclined plane. If the origin is the starting point, sketch the position, velocity, and acceleration of the cylinder vs. time as it goes up and then down the plane.

Problems & Exercises

2.1 Displacement

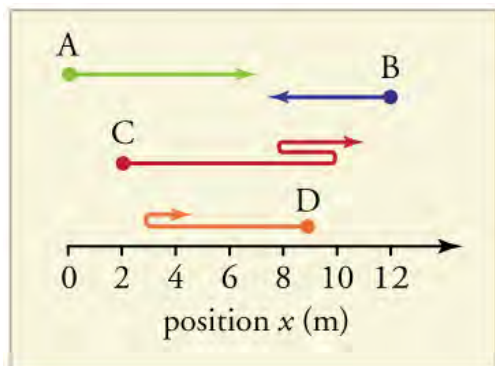


FIGURE 2.57

- Find the following for path A in [Figure 2.57](#): (a) The distance traveled. (b) The magnitude of the displacement from start to finish. (c) The displacement from start to finish.
- Find the following for path B in [Figure 2.57](#): (a) The distance traveled. (b) The magnitude of the displacement from start to finish. (c) The displacement from start to finish.
- Find the following for path C in [Figure 2.57](#): (a) The distance traveled. (b) The magnitude of the displacement from start to finish. (c) The displacement from start to finish.

- Find the following for path D in [Figure 2.57](#): (a) The distance traveled. (b) The magnitude of the displacement from start to finish. (c) The displacement from start to finish.

2.3 Time, Velocity, and Speed

- (a) Calculate Earth's average speed relative to the Sun. (b) What is its average velocity over a period of one year?
- A helicopter blade spins at exactly 100 revolutions per minute. Its tip is 5.00 m from the center of rotation. (a) Calculate the average speed of the blade tip in the helicopter's frame of reference. (b) What is its average velocity over one revolution?
- The North American and European continents are moving apart at a rate of about 3 cm/y. At this rate how long will it take them to drift 500 km farther apart than they are at present?
- Land west of the San Andreas fault in southern California is moving at an average velocity of about 6 cm/y northwest relative to land east of the fault. Los Angeles is west of the fault and may thus someday be at the same latitude as San Francisco, which is east of the fault. How far in the future will this occur if the displacement to be made is 590 km

northwest, assuming the motion remains constant?

9. On May 26, 1934, a streamlined, stainless steel diesel train called the Zephyr set the world's nonstop long-distance speed record for trains. Its run from Denver to Chicago took 13 hours, 4 minutes, 58 seconds, and was witnessed by more than a million people along the route. The total distance traveled was 1633.8 km. What was its average speed in km/h and m/s?
10. Tidal friction is slowing the rotation of the Earth. As a result, the orbit of the Moon is increasing in radius at a rate of approximately 4 cm/year. Assuming this to be a constant rate, how many years will pass before the radius of the Moon's orbit increases by 3.84×10^6 m (1%)?
11. A student drove to the university from their home and noted that the odometer reading of their car increased by 12.0 km. The trip took 18.0 min. (a) What was their average speed? (b) If the straight-line distance from their home to the university is 10.3 km in a direction 25.0° south of east, what was their average velocity? (c) If they returned home by the same path 7 h 30 min after they left, what were their average speed and velocity for the entire trip?
12. The speed of propagation of the action potential (an electrical signal) in a nerve cell depends (inversely) on the diameter of the axon (nerve fiber). If the nerve cell connecting the spinal cord to your feet is 1.1 m long, and the nerve impulse speed is 18 m/s, how long does it take for the nerve signal to travel this distance?
13. Conversations with astronauts on the lunar surface were characterized by a kind of echo in which the earthbound person's voice was so loud in the astronaut's space helmet that it was picked up by the astronaut's microphone and transmitted back to Earth. It is reasonable to assume that the echo time equals the time necessary for the radio wave to travel from the Earth to the Moon and back (that is, neglecting any time delays in the electronic equipment). Calculate the distance from Earth to the Moon given that the echo time was 2.56 s and that radio waves travel at the speed of light (3.00×10^8 m/s).
14. A football quarterback runs 15.0 m straight down the playing field in 2.50 s. He is then hit and pushed 3.00 m straight backward in 1.75 s. He breaks the tackle and runs straight forward another 21.0 m in 5.20 s. Calculate his average

velocity (a) for each of the three intervals and (b) for the entire motion.

15. The planetary model of the atom pictures electrons orbiting the atomic nucleus much as planets orbit the Sun. In this model you can view hydrogen, the simplest atom, as having a single electron in a circular orbit 1.06×10^{-10} m in diameter. (a) If the average speed of the electron in this orbit is known to be 2.20×10^6 m/s, calculate the number of revolutions per second it makes about the nucleus. (b) What is the electron's average velocity per revolution?

2.4 Acceleration

16. A cheetah can accelerate from rest to a speed of 30.0 m/s in 7.00 s. What is its acceleration?
17. Professional Application
Dr. John Paul Stapp was U.S. Air Force officer who studied the effects of extreme deceleration on the human body. On December 10, 1954, Stapp rode a rocket sled, accelerating from rest to a top speed of 282 m/s (1015 km/h) in 5.00 s, and was brought jarringly back to rest in only 1.40 s! Calculate his (a) acceleration and (b) deceleration. Express each in multiples of g (9.80 m/s^2) by taking its ratio to the acceleration of gravity.
18. A commuter backs her car out of her garage with an acceleration of 1.40 m/s^2 . (a) How long does it take her to reach a speed of 2.00 m/s? (b) If she then brakes to a stop in 0.800 s, what is her deceleration?
19. Assume that an intercontinental ballistic missile goes from rest to a suborbital speed of 6.50 km/s in 60.0 s (the actual speed and time are classified). What is its average acceleration in m/s^2 and in multiples of g (9.80 m/s^2)?

2.5 Motion Equations for Constant Acceleration in One Dimension

20. An Olympic-class sprinter starts a race with an acceleration of 4.50 m/s^2 . (a) What is her speed 2.40 s later? (b) Sketch a graph of her position vs. time for this period.
21. A well-thrown ball is caught in a well-padded mitt. If the deceleration of the ball is $2.10 \times 10^4 \text{ m/s}^2$, and 1.85 ms ($1 \text{ ms} = 10^{-3} \text{ s}$) elapses from the time the ball first touches the mitt until it stops, what was the initial velocity of the ball?
22. A bullet in a gun is accelerated from the firing chamber to the end of the barrel at an average

rate of $6.20 \times 10^5 \text{ m/s}^2$ for $8.10 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}$. What is its muzzle velocity (that is, its final velocity)?

23. (a) A light-rail commuter train accelerates at a rate of 1.35 m/s^2 . How long does it take to reach its top speed of 80.0 km/h , starting from rest? (b) The same train ordinarily decelerates at a rate of 1.65 m/s^2 . How long does it take to come to a stop from its top speed? (c) In emergencies the train can decelerate more rapidly, coming to rest from 80.0 km/h in 8.30 s . What is its emergency deceleration in m/s^2 ?
24. While entering a freeway, a car accelerates from rest at a rate of 2.40 m/s^2 for 12.0 s . (a) Draw a sketch of the situation. (b) List the knowns in this problem. (c) How far does the car travel in those 12.0 s ? To solve this part, first identify the unknown, and then discuss how you chose the appropriate equation to solve for it. After choosing the equation, show your steps in solving for the unknown, check your units, and discuss whether the answer is reasonable. (d) What is the car's final velocity? Solve for this unknown in the same manner as in part (c), showing all steps explicitly.
25. At the end of a race, a runner decelerates from a velocity of 9.00 m/s at a rate of 2.00 m/s^2 . (a) How far does she travel in the next 5.00 s ? (b) What is her final velocity? (c) Evaluate the result. Does it make sense?
26. Professional Application:
Blood is accelerated from rest to 30.0 cm/s in a distance of 1.80 cm by the left ventricle of the heart. (a) Make a sketch of the situation. (b) List the knowns in this problem. (c) How long does the acceleration take? To solve this part, first identify the unknown, and then discuss how you chose the appropriate equation to solve for it. After choosing the equation, show your steps in solving for the unknown, checking your units. (d) Is the answer reasonable when compared with the time for a heartbeat?
27. In a slap shot, a hockey player accelerates the puck from a velocity of 8.00 m/s to 40.0 m/s in the same direction. If this shot takes $3.33 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}$, calculate the distance over which the puck accelerates.
28. A powerful motorcycle can accelerate from rest to 26.8 m/s (100 km/h) in only 3.90 s . (a) What is its average acceleration? (b) How far does it travel in that time?
29. Freight trains can produce only relatively small accelerations and decelerations. (a) What is the final velocity of a freight train that accelerates at a rate of 0.0500 m/s^2 for 8.00 min , starting with an initial velocity of 4.00 m/s ? (b) If the train can slow down at a rate of 0.550 m/s^2 , how long will it take to come to a stop from this velocity? (c) How far will it travel in each case?
30. A fireworks shell is accelerated from rest to a velocity of 65.0 m/s over a distance of 0.250 m . (a) How long did the acceleration last? (b) Calculate the acceleration.
31. A swan on a lake gets airborne by flapping its wings and running on top of the water. (a) If the swan must reach a velocity of 6.00 m/s to take off and it accelerates from rest at an average rate of 0.350 m/s^2 , how far will it travel before becoming airborne? (b) How long does this take?
32. Professional Application:
A woodpecker's brain is specially protected from large decelerations by tendon-like attachments inside the skull. While pecking on a tree, the woodpecker's head comes to a stop from an initial velocity of 0.600 m/s in a distance of only 2.00 mm . (a) Find the acceleration in m/s^2 and in multiples of g ($g = 9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$). (b) Calculate the stopping time. (c) The tendons cradling the brain stretch, making its stopping distance 4.50 mm (greater than the head and, hence, less deceleration of the brain). What is the brain's deceleration, expressed in multiples of g ?
33. An unwary football player collides with a padded goalpost while running at a velocity of 7.50 m/s and comes to a full stop after compressing the padding and his body 0.350 m . (a) What is his deceleration? (b) How long does the collision last?
34. In World War II, there were several reported cases of airmen who jumped from their flaming airplanes with no parachute to escape certain death. Some fell about $20,000 \text{ feet}$ (6000 m), and some of them survived, with few life-threatening injuries. For these lucky pilots, the tree branches and snow drifts on the ground allowed their deceleration to be relatively small. If we assume that a pilot's speed upon impact was 123 mph (54 m/s), then what was his deceleration? Assume that the trees and snow stopped him over a distance of 3.0 m .
35. Consider a grey squirrel falling out of a tree to the ground. (a) If we ignore air resistance in this case (only for the sake of this problem), determine a

squirrel's velocity just before hitting the ground, assuming it fell from a height of 3.0 m. (b) If the squirrel stops in a distance of 2.0 cm through bending its limbs, compare its deceleration with that of the airman in the previous problem.

36. An express train passes through a station. It enters with an initial velocity of 22.0 m/s and decelerates at a rate of 0.150 m/s^2 as it goes through. The station is 210 m long. (a) How long did the nose of the train stay in the station? (b) How fast is it going when the nose leaves the station? (c) If the train is 130 m long, when does the end of the train leave the station? (d) What is the velocity of the end of the train as it leaves?
37. Dragsters can actually reach a top speed of 145 m/s in only 4.45 s—considerably less time than given in [Example 2.10](#) and [Example 2.11](#). (a) Calculate the average acceleration for such a dragster. (b) Find the final velocity of this dragster starting from rest and accelerating at the rate found in (a) for 402 m (a quarter mile) without using any information on time. (c) Why is the final velocity greater than that used to find the average acceleration? *Hint:* Consider whether the assumption of constant acceleration is valid for a dragster. If not, discuss whether the acceleration would be greater at the beginning or end of the run and what effect that would have on the final velocity.
38. A bicycle racer sprints at the end of a race to clinch a victory. The racer has an initial velocity of 11.5 m/s and accelerates at the rate of 0.500 m/s^2 for 7.00 s. (a) What is his final velocity? (b) The racer continues at this velocity to the finish line. If he was 300 m from the finish line when he started to accelerate, how much time did he save? (c) One other racer was 5.00 m ahead when the winner started to accelerate, but he was unable to accelerate, and traveled at 11.8 m/s until the finish line. How far ahead of him (in meters and in seconds) did the winner finish?
39. In 1967, New Zealander Burt Munro set the world record for an Indian motorcycle, on the Bonneville Salt Flats in Utah, with a maximum speed of 183.58 mi/h. The one-way course was 5.00 mi long. Acceleration rates are often described by the time it takes to reach 60.0 mi/h from rest. If this time was 4.00 s, and Burt accelerated at this rate until he reached his maximum speed, how long did it take Burt to complete the course?
40. (a) A world record was set for the men's 100-m

dash in the 2008 Olympic Games in Beijing by Usain Bolt of Jamaica. Bolt “coasted” across the finish line with a time of 9.69 s. If we assume that Bolt accelerated for 3.00 s to reach his maximum speed, and maintained that speed for the rest of the race, calculate his maximum speed and his acceleration. (b) During the same Olympics, Bolt also set the world record in the 200-m dash with a time of 19.30 s. Using the same assumptions as for the 100-m dash, what was his maximum speed for this race?

2.7 Falling Objects

Assume air resistance is negligible unless otherwise stated.

41. Calculate the displacement and velocity at times of (a) 0.500, (b) 1.00, (c) 1.50, and (d) 2.00 s for a ball thrown straight up with an initial velocity of 15.0 m/s. Take the point of release to be $y_0 = 0$.
42. Calculate the displacement and velocity at times of (a) 0.500, (b) 1.00, (c) 1.50, (d) 2.00, and (e) 2.50 s for a rock thrown straight down with an initial velocity of 14.0 m/s from the Verrazano Narrows Bridge in New York City. The roadway of this bridge is 70.0 m above the water.
43. A basketball referee tosses the ball straight up for the starting tip-off. At what velocity must a basketball player leave the ground to rise 1.25 m above the floor in an attempt to get the ball?
44. A rescue helicopter is hovering over a person whose boat has sunk. One of the rescuers throws a life preserver straight down to the victim with an initial velocity of 1.40 m/s and observes that it takes 1.8 s to reach the water. (a) List the knowns in this problem. (b) How high above the water was the preserver released? Note that the downdraft of the helicopter reduces the effects of air resistance on the falling life preserver, so that an acceleration equal to that of gravity is reasonable.
45. A dolphin in an aquatic show jumps straight up out of the water at a velocity of 13.0 m/s. (a) List the knowns in this problem. (b) How high does his body rise above the water? To solve this part, first note that the final velocity is now a known and identify its value. Then identify the unknown, and discuss how you chose the appropriate equation to solve for it. After choosing the equation, show your steps in solving for the unknown, checking units, and discuss whether the answer is reasonable. (c) How long is the dolphin in the air? Neglect any effects due to his size or orientation.

- 46.** A swimmer bounces straight up from a diving board and falls feet first into a pool. She starts with a velocity of 4.00 m/s, and her takeoff point is 1.80 m above the pool. (a) How long are her feet in the air? (b) What is her highest point above the board? (c) What is her velocity when her feet hit the water?
- 47.** (a) Calculate the height of a cliff if it takes 2.35 s for a rock to hit the ground when it is thrown straight up from the cliff with an initial velocity of 8.00 m/s. (b) How long would it take to reach the ground if it is thrown straight down with the same speed?
- 48.** A very strong, but inept, shot putter puts the shot straight up vertically with an initial velocity of 11.0 m/s. How long does he have to get out of the way if the shot was released at a height of 2.20 m, and he is 1.80 m tall?
- 49.** You throw a ball straight up with an initial velocity of 15.0 m/s. It passes a tree branch on the way up at a height of 7.00 m. How much additional time will pass before the ball passes the tree branch on the way back down?
- 50.** A kangaroo can jump over an object 2.50 m high. (a) Calculate its vertical speed when it leaves the ground. (b) How long is it in the air?
- 51.** Standing at the base of one of the cliffs of Mt. Arapiles in Victoria, Australia, a hiker hears a rock break loose from a height of 105 m. He can't see the rock right away but then does, 1.50 s later. (a) How far above the hiker is the rock when he can see it? (b) How much time does he have to move before the rock hits his head?
- 52.** An object is dropped from a height of 75.0 m above ground level. (a) Determine the distance traveled during the first second. (b) Determine the final velocity at which the object hits the ground. (c) Determine the distance traveled during the last second of motion before hitting the ground.
- 53.** There is a 250-m-high cliff at Half Dome in Yosemite National Park in California. Suppose a boulder breaks loose from the top of this cliff. (a) How fast will it be going when it strikes the ground? (b) Assuming a reaction time of 0.300 s, how long will a tourist at the bottom have to get out of the way after hearing the sound of the rock breaking loose (neglecting the height of the tourist, which would become negligible anyway if hit)? The speed of sound is 335 m/s on this day.
- 54.** A ball is thrown straight up. It passes a 2.00-m-high window 7.50 m off the ground on its path up and takes 0.312 s to go past the window. What was the ball's initial velocity? Hint: First consider only the distance along the window, and solve for the ball's velocity at the bottom of the window. Next, consider only the distance from the ground to the bottom of the window, and solve for the initial velocity using the velocity at the bottom of the window as the final velocity.
- 55.** Suppose you drop a rock into a dark well and, using precision equipment, you measure the time for the sound of a splash to return. (a) Neglecting the time required for sound to travel up the well, calculate the distance to the water if the sound returns in 2.0000 s. (b) Now calculate the distance taking into account the time for sound to travel up the well. The speed of sound is 332.00 m/s in this well.
- 56.** A steel ball is dropped onto a hard floor from a height of 1.50 m and rebounds to a height of 1.45 m. (a) Calculate its velocity just before it strikes the floor. (b) Calculate its velocity just after it leaves the floor on its way back up. (c) Calculate its acceleration during contact with the floor if that contact lasts 0.0800 ms (8.00×10^{-5} s). (d) How much did the ball compress during its collision with the floor, assuming the floor is absolutely rigid?
- 57.** A coin is dropped from a hot-air balloon that is 300 m above the ground and rising at 10.0 m/s upward. For the coin, find (a) the maximum height reached, (b) its position and velocity 4.00 s after being released, and (c) the time before it hits the ground.
- 58.** A soft tennis ball is dropped onto a hard floor from a height of 1.50 m and rebounds to a height of 1.10 m. (a) Calculate its velocity just before it strikes the floor. (b) Calculate its velocity just after it leaves the floor on its way back up. (c) Calculate its acceleration during contact with the floor if that contact lasts 3.50 ms (3.50×10^{-3} s). (d) How much did the ball compress during its collision with the floor, assuming the floor is absolutely rigid?

2.8 Graphical Analysis of One-Dimensional Motion

Note: There is always uncertainty in numbers taken from graphs. If your answers differ from expected values, examine them to see if they are within data

extraction uncertainties estimated by you.

59. (a) By taking the slope of the curve in [Figure 2.58](#), verify that the velocity of the jet car is 115 m/s at $t = 20$ s. (b) By taking the slope of the curve at any point in [Figure 2.59](#), verify that the jet car's acceleration is 5.0 m/s^2 .

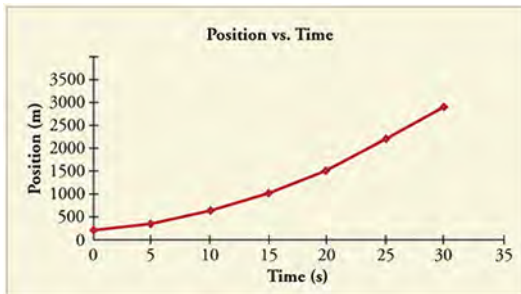


FIGURE 2.58

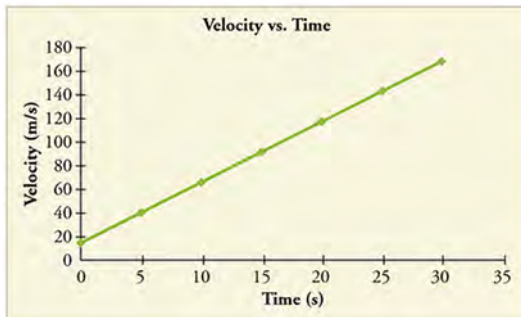


FIGURE 2.59

60. Using approximate values, calculate the slope of the curve in [Figure 2.60](#) to verify that the velocity at $t = 30.0$ s is approximately 0.24 m/s. Assume all values are known to 2 significant figures.

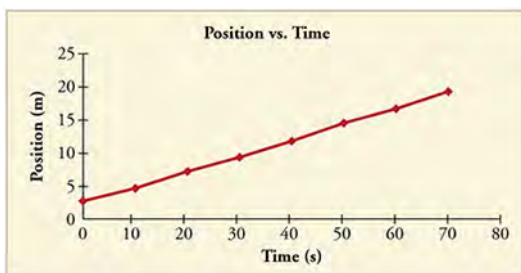


FIGURE 2.60

61. Using approximate values, calculate the slope of the curve in [Figure 2.60](#) to verify that the velocity at $t = 30.0$ s is approximately 0.24 m/s.
62. By taking the slope of the curve in [Figure 2.61](#), verify that the acceleration is 3.2 m/s^2 at $t = 10$ s.

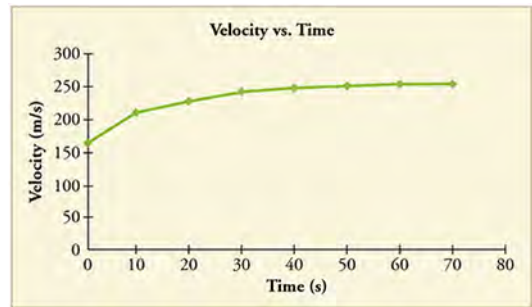


FIGURE 2.61

63. Construct the position graph for the subway shuttle train as shown in [Figure 2.18\(a\)](#). Your graph should show the position of the train, in kilometers, from $t = 0$ to 20 s. You will need to use the information on acceleration and velocity given in the examples for this figure.
64. (a) Take the slope of the curve in [Figure 2.62](#) to find the jogger's velocity at $t = 2.5$ s. (b) Repeat at 7.5 s. These values must be consistent with the graph in [Figure 2.63](#).

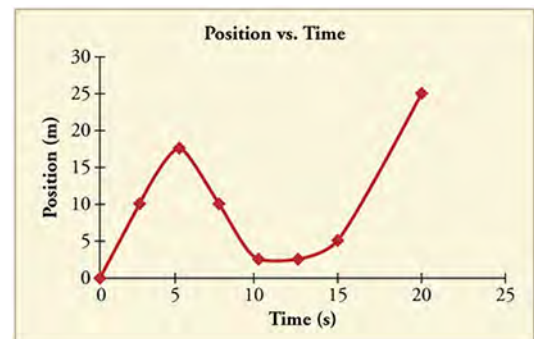


FIGURE 2.62

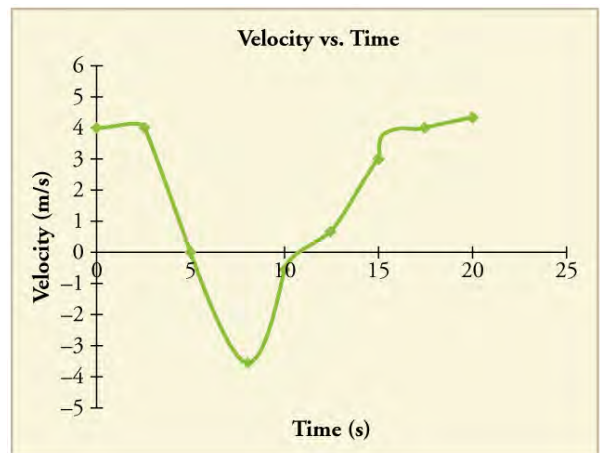


FIGURE 2.63

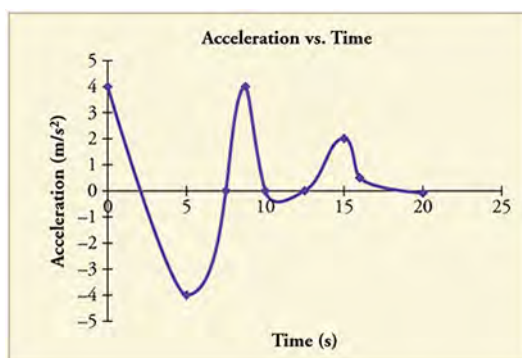


FIGURE 2.64

65. A graph of $v(t)$ is shown for a world-class track sprinter in a 100-m race. (See Figure 2.65). (a) What is his average velocity for the first 4 s? (b) What is his instantaneous velocity at $t = 5$ s? (c) What is his average acceleration between 0 and 4 s? (d) What is his time for the race?

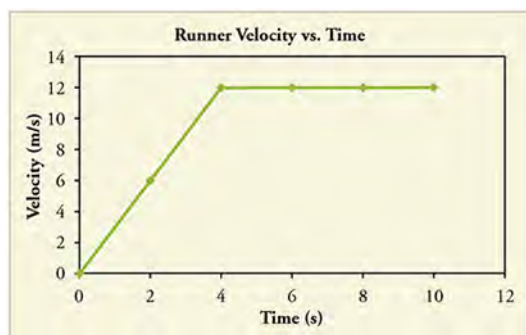


FIGURE 2.65

66. Figure 2.66 shows the position graph for a particle for 6 s. (a) Draw the corresponding Velocity vs.

Time graph. (b) What is the acceleration between 0 s and 2 s? (c) What happens to the acceleration at exactly 2 s?

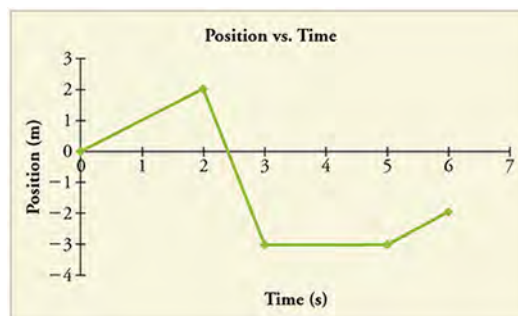


FIGURE 2.66

67. Critical Thinking Two cars are side by side on a path where friction is negligible. Car A starts from rest and has a positive, constant acceleration while car B travels at a constant speed. The cars reach the same check point down the road at the same time. (a) Which car is traveling faster at the check point? Briefly explain your reasoning. (b) Based on experimental data, an equation that fits the data is suggested for the speed of car A at the check point, V , which may not be correct: $V = KV_0$, where K is a constant with appropriate units and V_0 is the initial velocity of car B. Is this equation consistent with your answer from part a? Explain why or why not. Does this equation make sense? Explain why or why not. (c) Graph the velocity of car A and the velocity of car B vs. distance along the path, starting when the cars are side by side.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

2.1 Displacement

- Which of the following statements comparing position, distance traveled, and displacement is correct?
 - An object may record a distance traveled of zero while recording a non-zero displacement.
 - An object may record a non-zero distance traveled while recording a displacement of zero.
 - An object may record a non-zero distance traveled while maintaining a position of zero.
 - An object may record a non-zero displacement while maintaining a position of zero.

2.2 Vectors, Scalars, and Coordinate Systems

- A student is trying to determine the acceleration of

a feather as she drops it to the ground. If the student is looking to achieve a positive velocity and positive acceleration, what is the *most sensible* way to set up her coordinate system?

- Her hand should be a coordinate of zero and the upward direction should be considered positive.
- Her hand should be a coordinate of zero and the downward direction should be considered positive.
- The floor should be a coordinate of zero and the upward direction should be considered positive.
- The floor should be a coordinate of zero and the downward direction should be considered positive.

2.3 Time, Velocity, and Speed

3. A group of students has two carts, A and B, with wheels that turn with negligible friction. The two carts travel along a straight horizontal track and eventually collide. Before the collision, cart A travels to the right and cart B is initially at rest. After the collision, the carts stick together.
- Describe an experimental procedure to determine the velocities of the carts before and after the collision, including all the additional equipment you would need. You may include a labeled diagram of your setup to help in your description. Indicate what measurements you would take and how you would take them. Include enough detail so that another student could carry out your procedure.
 - There will be sources of error in the measurements taken in the experiment both before and after the collision. Which velocity will be more greatly affected by this error: the velocity prior to the collision or the velocity after the collision? Or will both sets of data be affected equally? Justify your answer.

2.4 Acceleration

4.

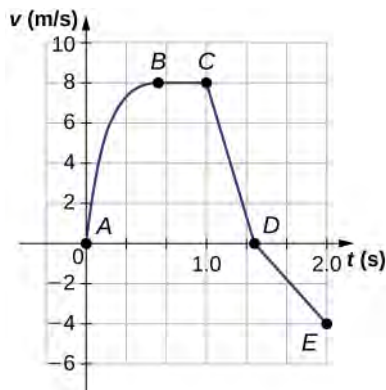


FIGURE 2.68 Graph showing Velocity vs. Time of a cart.

A cart is constrained to move along a straight line. A varying net force along the direction of motion is exerted on the cart. The cart's velocity v as a function of time t is shown in the graph. The five labeled points divide the graph into four sections. Which of the following correctly ranks the magnitude of the average acceleration of the cart during the four sections of the graph?

- $a_{CD} > a_{AB} > a_{BC} > a_{DE}$
 - $a_{BC} > a_{AB} > a_{CD} > a_{DE}$
 - $a_{AB} > a_{BC} > a_{DE} > a_{CD}$
 - $a_{CD} > a_{AB} > a_{DE} > a_{BC}$
5. Push a book across a table and observe it slow to a

stop.

Draw graphs showing the book's position vs. time and velocity vs. time if the direction of its motion is considered positive.

Draw graphs showing the book's position vs. time and velocity vs. time if the direction of its motion is considered negative.

2.5 Motion Equations for Constant Acceleration in One Dimension

6. A group of students is attempting to determine the average acceleration of a marble released from the top of a long ramp. Below is a set of data representing the marble's position with respect to time.

Position (cm)	Time (s)
0.0	0.0
0.3	0.5
1.25	1.0
2.8	1.5
5.0	2.0
7.75	2.5
11.3	3.0

TABLE 2.2

Use the data table above to construct a graph determining the acceleration of the marble. Select a set of data points from the table and plot those points on the graph. Fill in the blank column in the table for any quantities you graph other than the given data. Label the axes and indicate the scale for each. Draw a best-fit line or curve through your data points. Using the best-fit line, determine the value of the marble's acceleration.

2.7 Falling Objects

7. Observing a spacecraft land on a distant asteroid, scientists notice that the craft is falling at a rate of 5 m/s. When it is 100 m closer to the surface of the asteroid, the craft reports a velocity of 8 m/s. According to their data, what is the approximate gravitational acceleration on this asteroid?
- 0 m/s²
 - 0.03 m/s²

- c. 0.20 m/s^2
- d. 0.65 m/s^2

- e. 33 m/s^2

CHAPTER 3

Two-Dimensional Kinematics



FIGURE 3.1 Hitting a tennis ball is difficult enough when it is traveling at high speeds in a relatively straight line. However, most motion is in curved, rather than straight-line, paths. Tennis players must account for the arc of the ball and the impact of its spin, while they also predict how it will bounce and plan the location of their shot. Motion along a curved path is two- or three-dimensional motion, and can be described in a similar fashion to one-dimensional motion. (credit: Edwin Martinez/Flickr)

CHAPTER OUTLINE

3.1 Kinematics in Two Dimensions: An Introduction

3.2 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods

3.3 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods

3.4 Projectile Motion

3.5 Addition of Velocities

CONNECTION FOR AP® COURSES Most instances of motion in everyday life involve changes in displacement and velocity that occur in more than one direction. For example, when you take a long road trip, you drive on different roads in different directions for different amounts of time at different speeds. How can these motions all be combined to determine information about the trip such as the total displacement and average velocity? If you kick a ball from ground level at some angle above the horizontal, how can you describe its motion? To what maximum height does the object rise above the ground? How long is the object in the air? How much horizontal distance is covered before the ball lands? To answer questions such as these, we need to describe motion in two dimensions.

Examining two-dimensional motion requires an understanding of both the scalar and the vector quantities associated with the motion. You will learn how to combine vectors to incorporate both the magnitude and direction of vectors into your analysis. You will learn strategies for simplifying the calculations involved by choosing the appropriate reference frame and by treating each dimension of the motion separately as a one-dimensional problem, but you will also see that the motion itself occurs in the same way regardless of your chosen reference frame (Essential Knowledge 3.A.1).

This chapter lays a necessary foundation for examining interactions of objects described by forces (Big Idea 3). Changes in direction result from acceleration, which necessitates force on an object. In this chapter, you will concentrate on describing motion that involves changes in direction. In later chapters, you will apply this understanding as you learn about how forces cause these motions (Enduring Understanding 3.A). The concepts in this chapter support:

Big Idea 3 The interactions of an object with other objects can be described by forces.

Enduring Understanding 3.A All forces share certain common characteristics when considered by observers in inertial reference frames.

Essential Knowledge 3.A.1 An observer in a particular reference frame can describe the motion of an object using such quantities as position, displacement, distance, velocity, speed, and acceleration.

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3.1 Kinematics in Two Dimensions: An Introduction

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Observe that motion in two dimensions consists of horizontal and vertical components.
- Understand the independence of horizontal and vertical vectors in two-dimensional motion.



FIGURE 3.2 Walkers and drivers in a city like New York are rarely able to travel in straight lines to reach their destinations. Instead, they must follow roads and sidewalks, making two-dimensional, zigzagged paths. (credit: Margaret W. Carruthers)

Two-Dimensional Motion: Walking in a City

Suppose you want to walk from one point to another in a city with uniform square blocks, as pictured in [Figure 3.3](#).

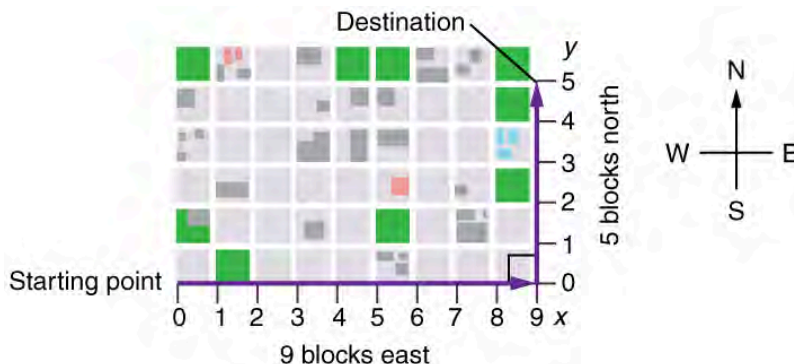


FIGURE 3.3 A pedestrian walks a two-dimensional path between two points in a city. In this scene, all blocks are square and are the same size.

The straight-line path that a helicopter might fly is blocked to you as a pedestrian, and so you are forced to take a

two-dimensional path, such as the one shown. You walk 14 blocks in all, 9 east followed by 5 north. What is the straight-line distance?

An old adage states that the shortest distance between two points is a straight line. The two legs of the trip and the straight-line path form a right triangle, and so the Pythagorean theorem, $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$, can be used to find the straight-line distance.

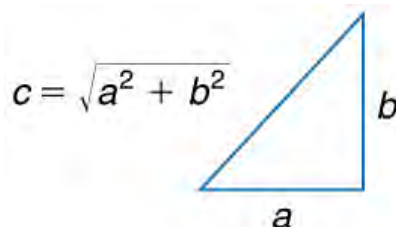


FIGURE 3.4 The Pythagorean theorem relates the length of the legs of a right triangle, labeled a and b , with the hypotenuse, labeled c . The relationship is given by: $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$. This can be rewritten, solving for c : $c = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$.

The hypotenuse of the triangle is the straight-line path, and so in this case its length in units of city blocks is $\sqrt{(9 \text{ blocks})^2 + (5 \text{ blocks})^2} = 10.3 \text{ blocks}$, considerably shorter than the 14 blocks you walked. (Note that we are using three significant figures in the answer. Although it appears that “9” and “5” have only one significant digit, they are discrete numbers. In this case “9 blocks” is the same as “9.0 or 9.00 blocks.” We have decided to use three significant figures in the answer in order to show the result more precisely.)

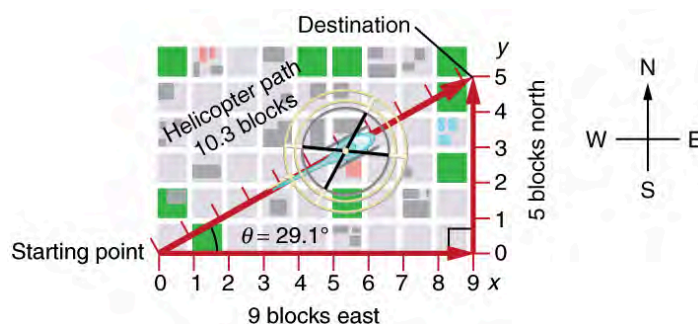


FIGURE 3.5 The straight-line path followed by a helicopter between the two points is shorter than the 14 blocks walked by the pedestrian. All blocks are square and the same size.

The fact that the straight-line distance (10.3 blocks) in [Figure 3.5](#) is less than the total distance walked (14 blocks) is one example of a general characteristic of vectors. (Recall that **vectors** are quantities that have both magnitude and direction.)

As for one-dimensional kinematics, we use arrows to represent vectors. The length of the arrow is proportional to the vector's magnitude. The arrow's length is indicated by hash marks in [Figure 3.3](#) and [Figure 3.5](#). The arrow points in the same direction as the vector. For two-dimensional motion, the path of an object can be represented with three vectors: one vector shows the straight-line path between the initial and final points of the motion, one vector shows the horizontal component of the motion, and one vector shows the vertical component of the motion. The horizontal and vertical components of the motion add together to give the straight-line path. For example, observe the three vectors in [Figure 3.5](#). The first represents a 9-block displacement east. The second represents a 5-block displacement north. These vectors are added to give the third vector, with a 10.3-block total displacement. The third vector is the straight-line path between the two points. Note that in this example, the vectors that we are adding are perpendicular to each other and thus form a right triangle. This means that we can use the Pythagorean theorem to calculate the magnitude of the total displacement. (Note that we cannot use the Pythagorean theorem to add vectors that are not perpendicular. We will develop techniques for adding vectors having any direction, not just those perpendicular to one another, in [Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods](#) and [Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods](#).)

The Independence of Perpendicular Motions

The person taking the path shown in [Figure 3.5](#) walks east and then north (two perpendicular directions). How far

they walk east is only affected by their motion eastward. Similarly, how far they walk north is only affected by their motion northward.

INDEPENDENCE OF MOTION

The horizontal and vertical components of two-dimensional motion are independent of each other. Any motion in the horizontal direction does not affect motion in the vertical direction, and vice versa.

This is true in a simple scenario like that of walking in one direction first, followed by another. It is also true of more complicated motion involving movement in two directions at once. For example, let's compare the motions of two baseballs. One baseball is dropped from rest. At the same instant, another is thrown horizontally from the same height and follows a curved path. A stroboscope has captured the positions of the balls at fixed time intervals as they fall.

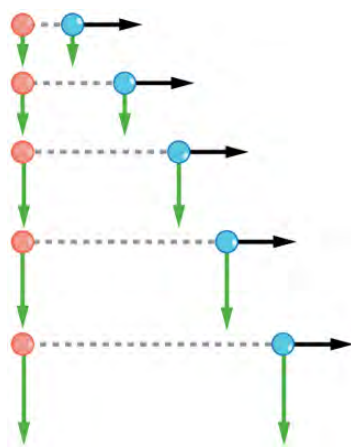


FIGURE 3.6 This shows the motions of two identical balls—one falls from rest, the other has an initial horizontal velocity. Each subsequent position is an equal time interval. Arrows represent horizontal and vertical velocities at each position. The ball on the right has an initial horizontal velocity, while the ball on the left has no horizontal velocity. Despite the difference in horizontal velocities, the vertical velocities and positions are identical for both balls. This shows that the vertical and horizontal motions are independent.

It is remarkable that for each flash of the strobe, the vertical positions of the two balls are the same. This similarity implies that the vertical motion is independent of whether or not the ball is moving horizontally. (Assuming no air resistance, the vertical motion of a falling object is influenced by gravity only, and not by any horizontal forces.) Careful examination of the ball thrown horizontally shows that it travels the same horizontal distance between flashes. This is due to the fact that there are no additional forces on the ball in the horizontal direction after it is thrown. This result means that the horizontal velocity is constant, and affected neither by vertical motion nor by gravity (which is vertical). Note that this case is true only for ideal conditions. In the real world, air resistance will affect the speed of the balls in both directions.

The two-dimensional curved path of the horizontally thrown ball is composed of two independent one-dimensional motions (horizontal and vertical). The key to analyzing such motion, called *projectile motion*, is to *resolve* (break) it into motions along perpendicular directions. Resolving two-dimensional motion into perpendicular components is possible because the components are independent. We shall see how to resolve vectors in [Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods](#) and [Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods](#). We will find such techniques to be useful in many areas of physics.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Ladybug Motion 2D

Learn about position, velocity and acceleration vectors. Move the ladybug by setting the position, velocity or acceleration, and see how the vectors change. Choose linear, circular or elliptical motion, and record and playback the motion to analyze the behavior.

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/l/28ladybugmotion\).](https://openstax.org/l/28ladybugmotion)



3.2 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Understand the rules of vector addition, subtraction, and multiplication.
- Apply graphical methods of vector addition and subtraction to determine the displacement of moving objects.

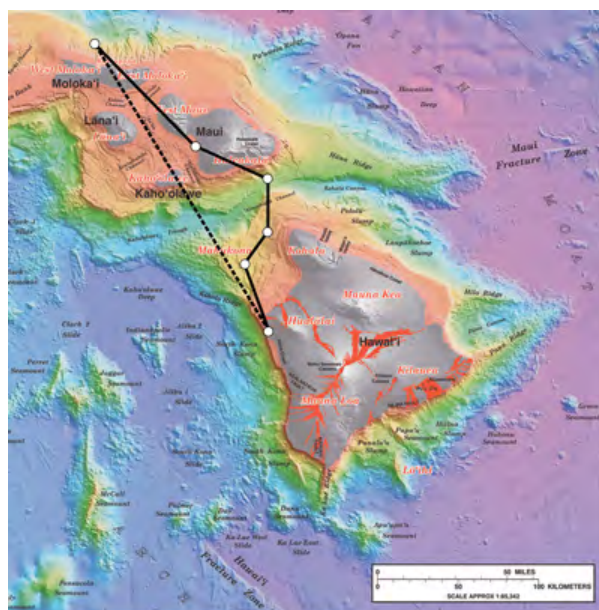


FIGURE 3.7 Displacement can be determined graphically using a scale map, such as this one of the Hawaiian Islands. A journey from Hawai'i to Molokai has a number of legs, or journey segments. These segments can be added graphically with a ruler to determine the total two-dimensional displacement of the journey. (credit: US Geological Survey)

Vectors in Two Dimensions

A **vector** is a quantity that has magnitude and direction. Displacement, velocity, acceleration, and force, for example, are all vectors. In one-dimensional, or straight-line, motion, the direction of a vector can be given simply by a plus or minus sign. In two dimensions (2-d), however, we specify the direction of a vector relative to some reference frame (i.e., coordinate system), using an arrow having length proportional to the vector's magnitude and pointing in the direction of the vector.

[Figure 3.8](#) shows such a *graphical representation of a vector*, using as an example the total displacement for the person walking in a city considered in [Kinematics in Two Dimensions: An Introduction](#). We shall use the notation that a boldface symbol, such as **D**, stands for a vector. Its magnitude is represented by the symbol in italics, D , and its direction by θ .

VECTORS IN THIS TEXT

In this text, we will represent a vector with a boldface variable. For example, we will represent the quantity force with the vector **F**, which has both magnitude and direction. The magnitude of the vector will be represented by a variable in italics, such as F , and the direction of the variable will be given by an angle θ .

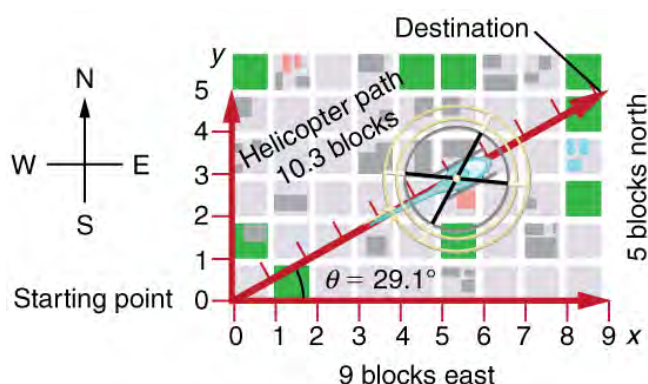


FIGURE 3.8 A person walks 9 blocks east and 5 blocks north. The displacement is 10.3 blocks at an angle 29.1° north of east.

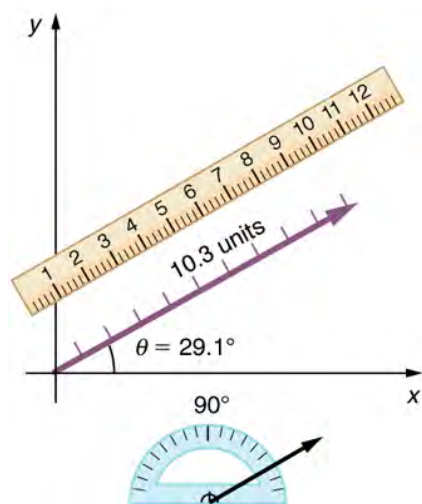


FIGURE 3.9 To describe the resultant vector for the person walking in a city considered in [Figure 3.8](#) graphically, draw an arrow to represent the total displacement vector **D**. Using a protractor, draw a line at an angle θ relative to the east-west axis. The length D of the arrow is proportional to the vector's magnitude and is measured along the line with a ruler. In this example, the magnitude D of the vector is 10.3 units, and the direction θ is 29.1° north of east.

Vector Addition: Head-to-Tail Method

The **head-to-tail method** is a graphical way to add vectors, described in [Figure 3.10](#) below and in the steps following. The **tail** of the vector is the starting point of the vector, and the **head** (or tip) of a vector is the final, pointed end of the arrow.

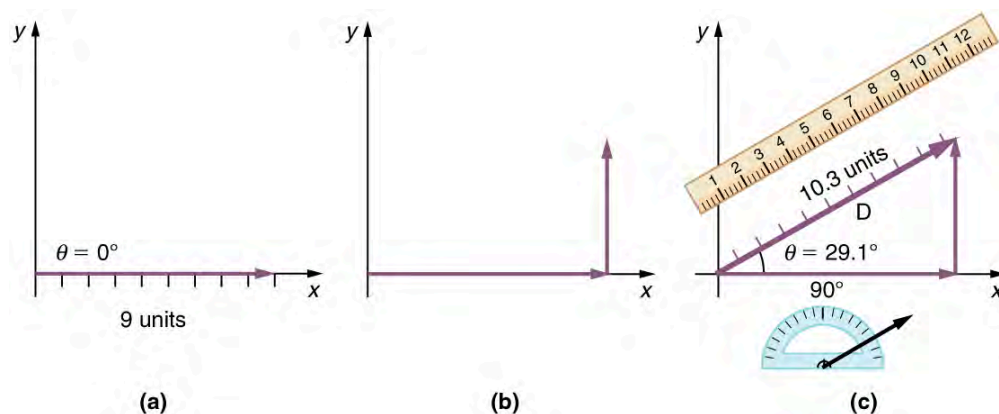


FIGURE 3.10 Head-to-Tail Method: The head-to-tail method of graphically adding vectors is illustrated for the two displacements of the person walking in a city considered in [Figure 3.8](#). (a) Draw a vector representing the displacement to the east. (b) Draw a vector representing the displacement to the north. The tail of this vector should originate from the head of the first, east-pointing vector. (c) Draw a line from the tail of the east-pointing vector to the head of the north-pointing vector to form the sum or **resultant vector D**. The length of the arrow **D** is proportional to the vector's magnitude and is measured to be 10.3 units. Its direction, described as the angle with respect to the east (or horizontal axis) θ is measured with a protractor to be 29.1° .

Step 1. Draw an arrow to represent the first vector (9 blocks to the east) using a ruler and protractor.

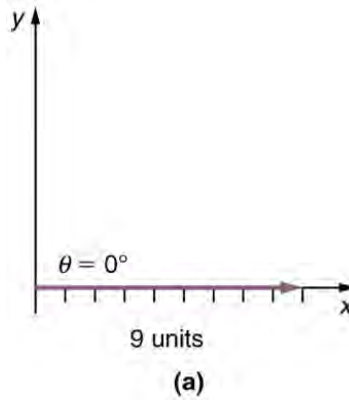


FIGURE 3.11

Step 2. Now draw an arrow to represent the second vector (5 blocks to the north). Place the tail of the second vector at the head of the first vector.

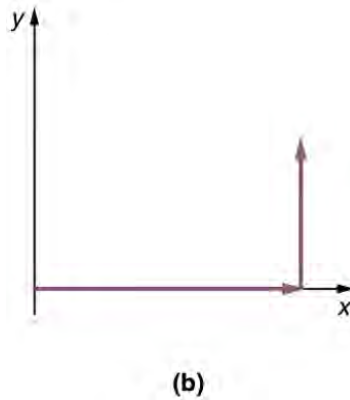


FIGURE 3.12

Step 3. If there are more than two vectors, continue this process for each vector to be added. Note that in our example, we have only two vectors, so we have finished placing arrows tip to tail.

Step 4. Draw an arrow from the tail of the first vector to the head of the last vector. This is the **resultant**, or the sum, of the other vectors.

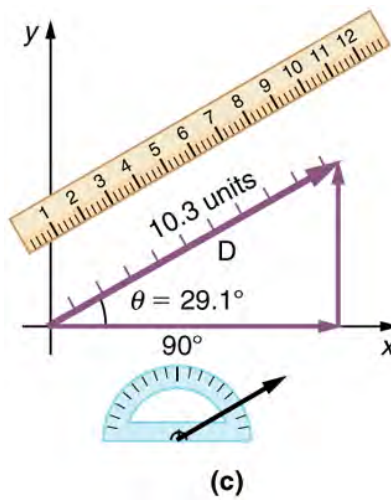


FIGURE 3.13

Step 5. To get the **magnitude** of the resultant, measure its length with a ruler. (Note that in most calculations, we

will use the Pythagorean theorem to determine this length.)

Step 6. To get the **direction** of the resultant, measure the angle it makes with the reference frame using a protractor. (Note that in most calculations, we will use trigonometric relationships to determine this angle.)

The graphical addition of vectors is limited in accuracy only by the precision with which the drawings can be made and the precision of the measuring tools. It is valid for any number of vectors.

EXAMPLE 3.1

Adding Vectors Graphically Using the Head-to-Tail Method: A Woman Takes a Walk

Use the graphical technique for adding vectors to find the total displacement of a person who walks the following three paths (displacements) on a flat field. First, she walks 25.0 m in a direction 49.0° north of east. Then, she walks 23.0 m heading 15.0° north of east. Finally, she turns and walks 32.0 m in a direction 68.0° south of east.

Strategy

Represent each displacement vector graphically with an arrow, labeling the first **A**, the second **B**, and the third **C**, making the lengths proportional to the distance and the directions as specified relative to an east-west line. The head-to-tail method outlined above will give a way to determine the magnitude and direction of the resultant displacement, denoted **R**.

Solution

- (1) Draw the three displacement vectors.

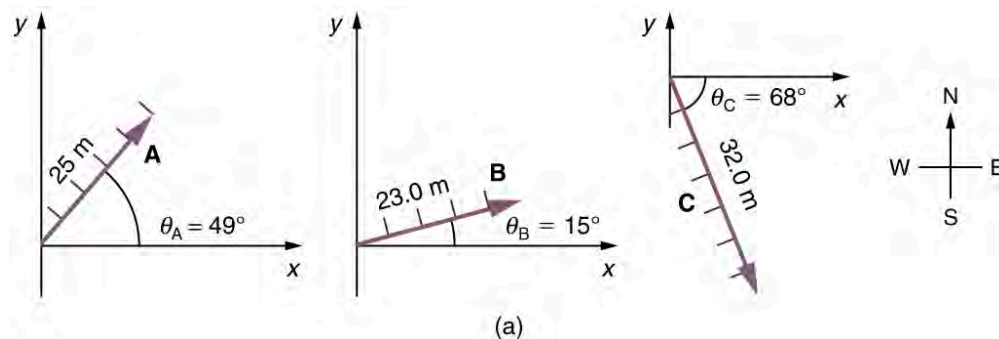


FIGURE 3.14

- (2) Place the vectors head to tail retaining both their initial magnitude and direction.

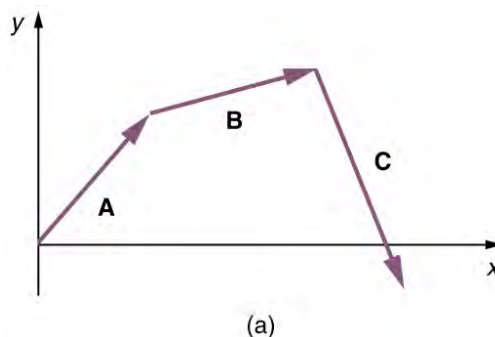


FIGURE 3.15

- (3) Draw the resultant vector, **R**.

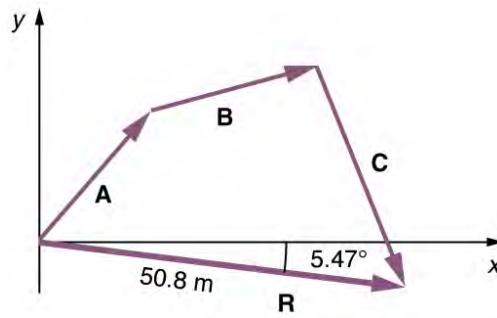


FIGURE 3.16

(4) Use a ruler to measure the magnitude of $\mathbf{R}$, and a protractor to measure the direction of $\mathbf{R}$. While the direction of the vector can be specified in many ways, the easiest way is to measure the angle between the vector and the nearest horizontal or vertical axis. Since the resultant vector is south of the eastward pointing axis, we flip the protractor upside down and measure the angle between the eastward axis and the vector.

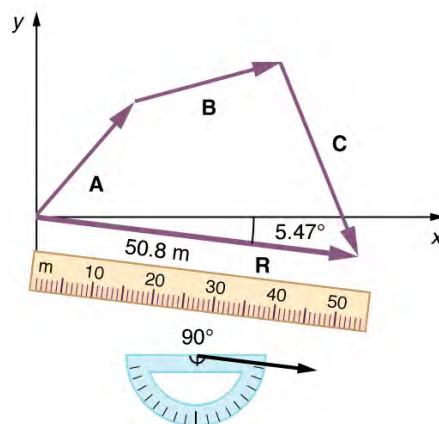


FIGURE 3.17

In this case, the total displacement $\mathbf{R}$ is seen to have a magnitude of 50.8 m and to lie in a direction 5.47° south of east. By using its magnitude and direction, this vector can be expressed as $R = 50.8 \text{ m}$ and $\theta = 5.47^\circ$ south of east.

Discussion

The head-to-tail graphical method of vector addition works for any number of vectors. It is also important to note that the resultant is independent of the order in which the vectors are added. Therefore, we could add the vectors in any order as illustrated in [Figure 3.18](#) and we will still get the same solution.

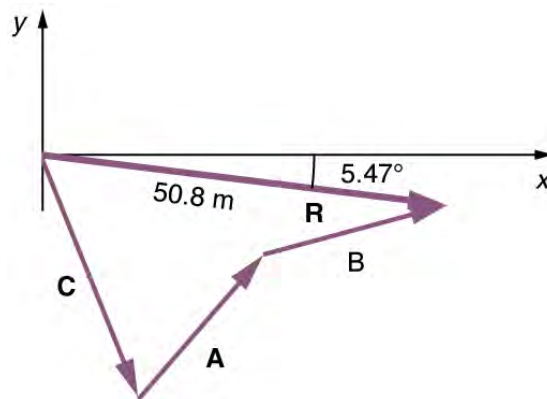


FIGURE 3.18

Here, we see that when the same vectors are added in a different order, the result is the same. This characteristic is true in every case and is an important characteristic of vectors. Vector addition is **commutative**. Vectors can be

added in any order.

$$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}. \quad 3.1$$

(This is true for the addition of ordinary numbers as well—you get the same result whether you add $2 + 3$ or $3 + 2$, for example).

Vector Subtraction

Vector subtraction is a straightforward extension of vector addition. To define subtraction (say we want to subtract $\mathbf{B}$ from $\mathbf{A}$, written $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$), we must first define what we mean by subtraction. The *negative* of a vector $\mathbf{B}$ is defined to be $-\mathbf{B}$; that is, graphically *the negative of any vector has the same magnitude but the opposite direction*, as shown in [Figure 3.19](#). In other words, $\mathbf{B}$ has the same length as $-\mathbf{B}$, but points in the opposite direction. Essentially, we just flip the vector so it points in the opposite direction.

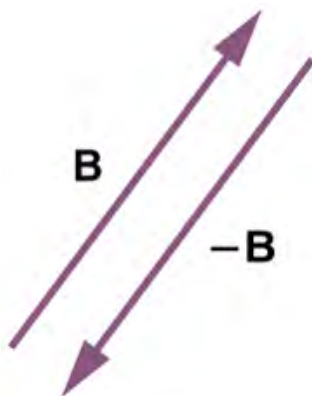


FIGURE 3.19 The negative of a vector is just another vector of the same magnitude but pointing in the opposite direction. So $\mathbf{B}$ is the negative of $-\mathbf{B}$; it has the same length but opposite direction.

The *subtraction* of vector $\mathbf{B}$ from vector $\mathbf{A}$ is then simply defined to be the addition of $-\mathbf{B}$ to $\mathbf{A}$. Note that vector subtraction is the addition of a negative vector. The order of subtraction does not affect the results.

$$\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{B}). \quad 3.2$$

This is analogous to the subtraction of scalars (where, for example, $5 - 2 = 5 + (-2)$). Again, the result is independent of the order in which the subtraction is made. When vectors are subtracted graphically, the techniques outlined above are used, as the following example illustrates.



EXAMPLE 3.2

Subtracting Vectors Graphically: A Woman Sailing a Boat

A woman sailing a boat at night is following directions to a dock. The instructions read to first sail 27.5 m in a direction 66.0° north of east from her current location, and then travel 30.0 m in a direction 112° north of east (or 22.0° west of north). If the woman makes a mistake and travels in the *opposite* direction for the second leg of the trip, where will she end up? Compare this location with the location of the dock.

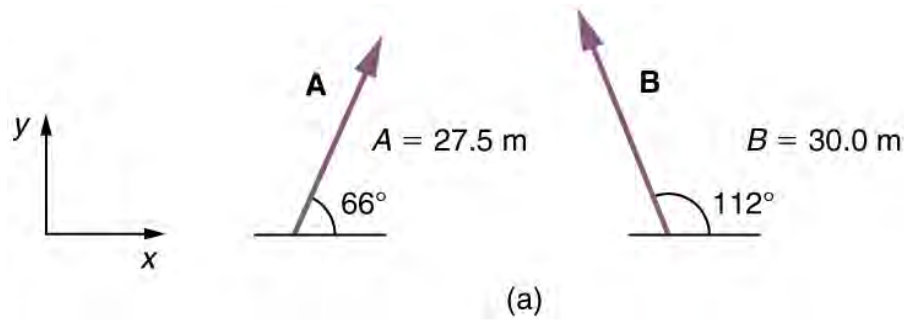


FIGURE 3.20

Strategy

We can represent the first leg of the trip with a vector $\mathbf{A}$, and the second leg of the trip with a vector $\mathbf{B}$. The dock is located at a location $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$. If the woman mistakenly travels in the *opposite* direction for the second leg of the journey, she will travel a distance B (30.0 m) in the direction $180^\circ - 112^\circ = 68^\circ$ south of east. We represent this as $-\mathbf{B}$, as shown below. The vector $-\mathbf{B}$ has the same magnitude as $\mathbf{B}$ but is in the opposite direction. Thus, she will end up at a location $\mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{B})$, or $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$.

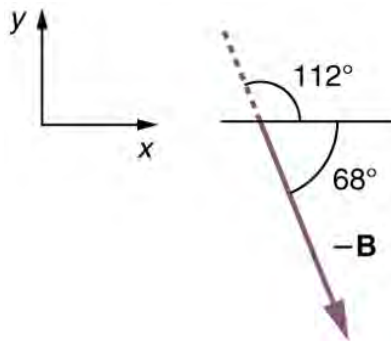


FIGURE 3.21

We will perform vector addition to compare the location of the dock, $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$, with the location at which the woman mistakenly arrives, $\mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{B})$.

Solution

- (1) To determine the location at which the woman arrives by accident, draw vectors $\mathbf{A}$ and $-\mathbf{B}$.
- (2) Place the vectors head to tail.
- (3) Draw the resultant vector $\mathbf{R}$.
- (4) Use a ruler and protractor to measure the magnitude and direction of $\mathbf{R}$.

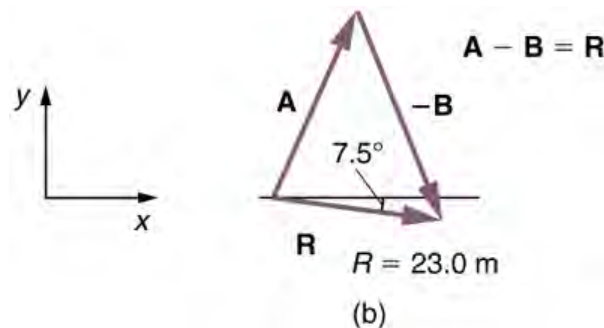


FIGURE 3.22

In this case, $R = 23.0$ m and $\theta = 7.5^\circ$ south of east.

(5) To determine the location of the dock, we repeat this method to add vectors **A** and **B**. We obtain the resultant vector **R'**:

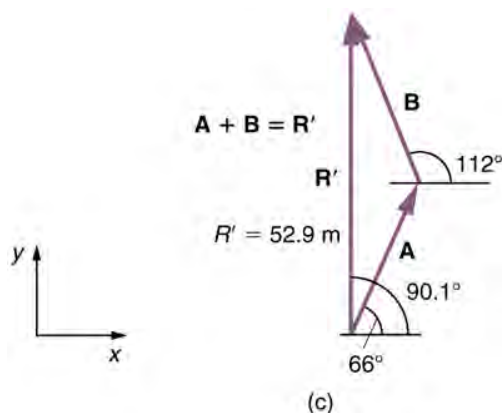


FIGURE 3.23

In this case $R = 52.9$ m and $\theta = 90.1^\circ$ north of east.

We can see that the woman will end up a significant distance from the dock if she travels in the opposite direction for the second leg of the trip.

Discussion

Because subtraction of a vector is the same as addition of a vector with the opposite direction, the graphical method of subtracting vectors works the same as for addition.

Multiplication of Vectors and Scalars

If we decided to walk three times as far on the first leg of the trip considered in the preceding example, then we would walk 3×27.5 m, or 82.5 m, in a direction 66.0° north of east. This is an example of multiplying a vector by a positive **scalar**. Notice that the magnitude changes, but the direction stays the same.

If the scalar is negative, then multiplying a vector by it changes the vector's magnitude and gives the new vector the *opposite* direction. For example, if you multiply by -2 , the magnitude doubles but the direction changes. We can summarize these rules in the following way: When vector **A** is multiplied by a scalar c ,

- the magnitude of the vector becomes the absolute value of cA ,
- if c is positive, the direction of the vector does not change,
- if c is negative, the direction is reversed.

In our case, $c = 3$ and $A = 27.5$ m. Vectors are multiplied by scalars in many situations. Note that division is the inverse of multiplication. For example, dividing by 2 is the same as multiplying by the value $(1/2)$. The rules for multiplication of vectors by scalars are the same for division; simply treat the divisor as a scalar between 0 and 1.

Resolving a Vector into Components

In the examples above, we have been adding vectors to determine the resultant vector. In many cases, however, we will need to do the opposite. We will need to take a single vector and find what other vectors added together produce it. In most cases, this involves determining the perpendicular **components** of a single vector, for example the *x*- and *y*-components, or the north-south and east-west components.

For example, we may know that the total displacement of a person walking in a city is 10.3 blocks in a direction 29.0° north of east and want to find out how many blocks east and north had to be walked. This method is called *finding the components (or parts)* of the displacement in the east and north directions, and it is the inverse of the process followed to find the total displacement. It is one example of finding the components of a vector. There are many applications in physics where this is a useful thing to do. We will see this soon in [Projectile Motion](#), and much more when we cover **forces** in [Dynamics: Newton's Laws of Motion](#). Most of these involve finding components along

perpendicular axes (such as north and east), so that right triangles are involved. The analytical techniques presented in [Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods](#) are ideal for finding vector components.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Maze Game

Learn about position, velocity, and acceleration in the "Arena of Pain". Use the green arrow to move the ball. Add more walls to the arena to make the game more difficult. Try to make a goal as fast as you can.

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/l/28mazegame\).](https://openstax.org/l/28mazegame)



3.3 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Understand the rules of vector addition and subtraction using analytical methods.
- Apply analytical methods to determine vertical and horizontal component vectors.
- Apply analytical methods to determine the magnitude and direction of a resultant vector.

Analytical methods of vector addition and subtraction employ geometry and simple trigonometry rather than the ruler and protractor of graphical methods. Part of the graphical technique is retained, because vectors are still represented by arrows for easy visualization. However, analytical methods are more concise, accurate, and precise than graphical methods, which are limited by the accuracy with which a drawing can be made. Analytical methods are limited only by the accuracy and precision with which physical quantities are known.

Resolving a Vector into Perpendicular Components

Analytical techniques and right triangles go hand-in-hand in physics because (among other things) motions along perpendicular directions are independent. We very often need to separate a vector into perpendicular components. For example, given a vector like $\mathbf{A}$ in [Figure 3.24](#), we may wish to find which two perpendicular vectors, $\mathbf{A}_x$ and $\mathbf{A}_y$, add to produce it.

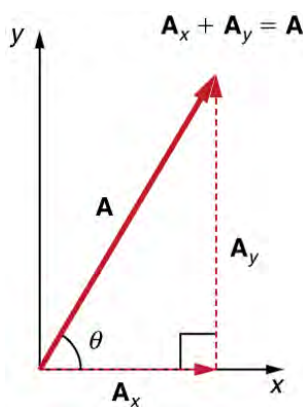


FIGURE 3.24 The vector $\mathbf{A}$, with its tail at the origin of an x , y -coordinate system, is shown together with its x - and y -components, $\mathbf{A}_x$ and $\mathbf{A}_y$. These vectors form a right triangle. The analytical relationships among these vectors are summarized below.

$\mathbf{A}_x$ and $\mathbf{A}_y$ are defined to be the components of $\mathbf{A}$ along the x - and y -axes. The three vectors $\mathbf{A}$, $\mathbf{A}_x$, and $\mathbf{A}_y$ form a right triangle:

$$\mathbf{A}_x + \mathbf{A}_y = \mathbf{A} \quad 3.3$$

Note that this relationship between vector components and the resultant vector holds only for vector quantities (which include both magnitude and direction). The relationship does not apply for the magnitudes alone. For example, if $\mathbf{A}_x = 3$ m east, $\mathbf{A}_y = 4$ m north, and $\mathbf{A} = 5$ m north-east, then it is true that the vectors $\mathbf{A}_x + \mathbf{A}_y = \mathbf{A}$. However, it is *not* true that the sum of the magnitudes of the vectors is also equal. That is,

$$3 \text{ m} + 4 \text{ m} \neq 5 \text{ m}$$

3.4

Thus,

$$A_x + A_y \neq A$$

3.5

If the vector $\mathbf{A}$ is known, then its magnitude A (its length) and its angle θ (its direction) are known. To find A_x and A_y , its x - and y -components, we use the following relationships for a right triangle.

$$A_x = A \cos \theta$$

3.6

and

$$A_y = A \sin \theta.$$

3.7

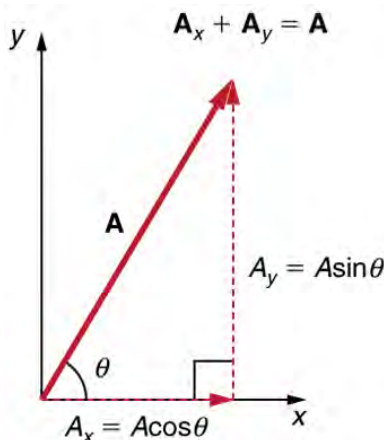


FIGURE 3.25 The magnitudes of the vector components A_x and A_y can be related to the resultant vector $\mathbf{A}$ and the angle θ with trigonometric identities. Here we see that $A_x = A \cos \theta$ and $A_y = A \sin \theta$.

Suppose, for example, that $\mathbf{A}$ is the vector representing the total displacement of the person walking in a city considered in [Kinematics in Two Dimensions: An Introduction](#) and [Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods](#).

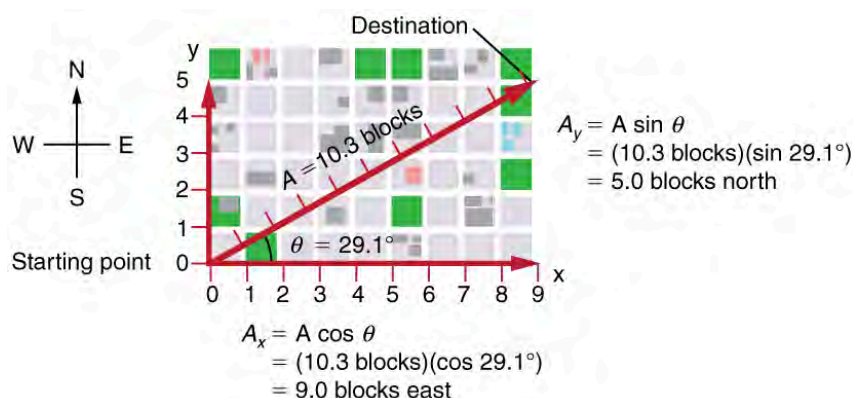


FIGURE 3.26 We can use the relationships $A_x = A \cos \theta$ and $A_y = A \sin \theta$ to determine the magnitude of the horizontal and vertical component vectors in this example.

Then $A = 10.3$ blocks and $\theta = 29.1^\circ$, so that

$$A_x = A \cos \theta = (10.3 \text{ blocks})(\cos 29.1^\circ) = 9.0 \text{ blocks}$$

3.8

$$A_y = A \sin \theta = (10.3 \text{ blocks})(\sin 29.1^\circ) = 5.0 \text{ blocks.}$$

3.9

Calculating a Resultant Vector

If the perpendicular components A_x and A_y of a vector $\mathbf{A}$ are known, then $\mathbf{A}$ can also be found analytically. To find

the magnitude A and direction θ of a vector from its perpendicular components A_x and A_y , relative to the x -axis, we use the following relationships:

$$A = \sqrt{A_x^2 + A_y^2} \quad 3.10$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(A_y/A_x). \quad 3.11$$

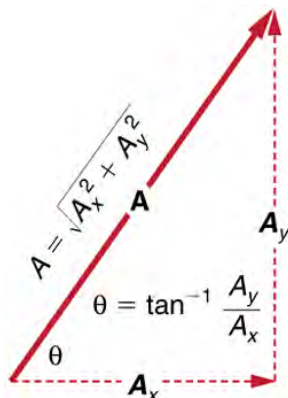


FIGURE 3.27 The magnitude and direction of the resultant vector can be determined once the horizontal and vertical components A_x and A_y have been determined.

Note that the equation $A = \sqrt{A_x^2 + A_y^2}$ is just the Pythagorean theorem relating the legs of a right triangle to the length of the hypotenuse. For example, if A_x and A_y are 9 and 5 blocks, respectively, then $A = \sqrt{9^2 + 5^2} = 10.3$ blocks, again consistent with the example of the person walking in a city. Finally, the direction is $\theta = \tan^{-1}(5/9) = 29.1^\circ$, as before.

DETERMINING VECTORS AND VECTOR COMPONENTS WITH ANALYTICAL METHODS

Equations $A_x = A \cos \theta$ and $A_y = A \sin \theta$ are used to find the perpendicular components of a vector—that is, to go from A and θ to A_x and A_y . Equations $A = \sqrt{A_x^2 + A_y^2}$ and $\theta = \tan^{-1}(A_y/A_x)$ are used to find a vector from its perpendicular components—that is, to go from A_x and A_y to A and θ . Both processes are crucial to analytical methods of vector addition and subtraction.

Adding Vectors Using Analytical Methods

To see how to add vectors using perpendicular components, consider [Figure 3.28](#), in which the vectors **A** and **B** are added to produce the resultant **R**.

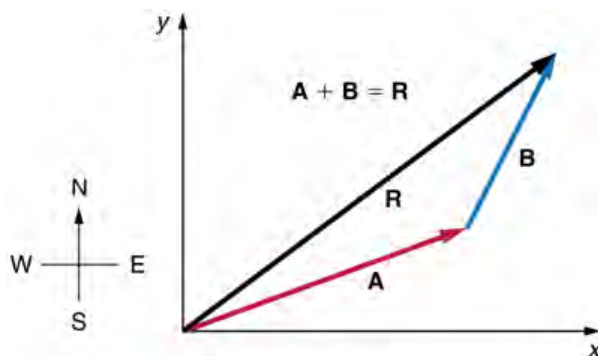


FIGURE 3.28 Vectors **A** and **B** are two legs of a walk, and **R** is the resultant or total displacement. You can use analytical methods to determine the magnitude and direction of **R**.

If **A** and **B** represent two legs of a walk (two displacements), then **R** is the total displacement. The person taking

the walk ends up at the tip of $\mathbf{R}$. There are many ways to arrive at the same point. In particular, the person could have walked first in the x -direction and then in the y -direction. Those paths are the x - and y -components of the resultant, $\mathbf{R}_x$ and $\mathbf{R}_y$. If we know $\mathbf{R}_x$ and $\mathbf{R}_y$, we can find R and θ using the equations $A = \sqrt{A_x^2 + A_y^2}$ and $\theta = \tan^{-1}(A_y/A_x)$. When you use the analytical method of vector addition, you can determine the components or the magnitude and direction of a vector.

Step 1. Identify the x - and y -axes that will be used in the problem. Then, find the components of each vector to be added along the chosen perpendicular axes. Use the equations $A_x = A \cos \theta$ and $A_y = A \sin \theta$ to find the components. In Figure 3.29, these components are A_x , A_y , B_x , and B_y . The angles that vectors $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ make with the x -axis are θ_A and θ_B , respectively.

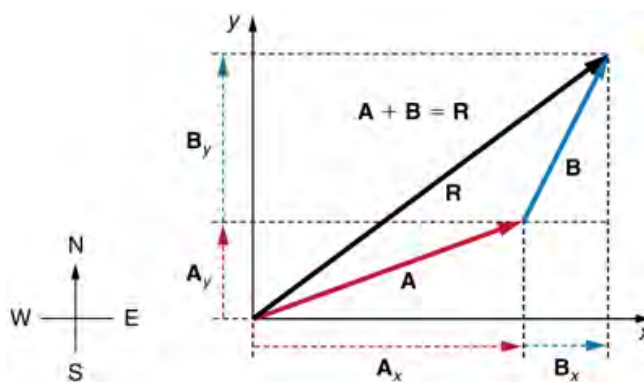


FIGURE 3.29 To add vectors $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$, first determine the horizontal and vertical components of each vector. These are the dotted vectors A_x , A_y , B_x and B_y shown in the image.

Step 2. Find the components of the resultant along each axis by adding the components of the individual vectors along that axis. That is, as shown in Figure 3.30,

$$R_x = A_x + B_x \quad 3.12$$

and

$$R_y = A_y + B_y. \quad 3.13$$

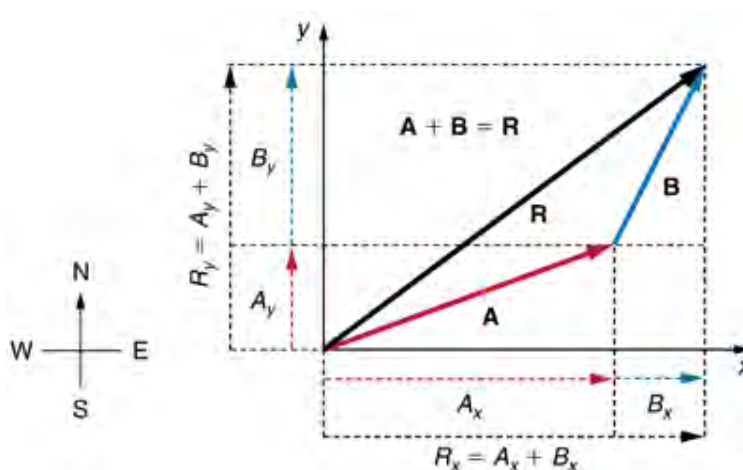


FIGURE 3.30 The magnitude of the vectors A_x and B_x add to give the magnitude R_x of the resultant vector in the horizontal direction. Similarly, the magnitudes of the vectors A_y and B_y add to give the magnitude R_y of the resultant vector in the vertical direction.

Components along the same axis, say the x -axis, are vectors along the same line and, thus, can be added to one another like ordinary numbers. The same is true for components along the y -axis. (For example, a 9-block eastward walk could be taken in two legs, the first 3 blocks east and the second 6 blocks east, for a total of 9, because they are along the same direction.) So resolving vectors into components along common axes makes it easier to add them. Now that the components of $\mathbf{R}$ are known, its magnitude and direction can be found.

Step 3. To get the magnitude R of the resultant, use the Pythagorean theorem:

$$R = \sqrt{R_x^2 + R_y^2}. \quad 3.14$$

Step 4. To get the direction of the resultant relative to the x -axis:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(R_y/R_x). \quad 3.15$$

The following example illustrates this technique for adding vectors using perpendicular components.

EXAMPLE 3.3

Adding Vectors Using Analytical Methods

Add the vector **A** to the vector **B** shown in [Figure 3.31](#), using perpendicular components along the x - and y -axes. The x - and y -axes are along the east–west and north–south directions, respectively. Vector **A** represents the first leg of a walk in which a person walks 53.0 m in a direction 20.0° north of east. Vector **B** represents the second leg, a displacement of 34.0 m in a direction 63.0° north of east.

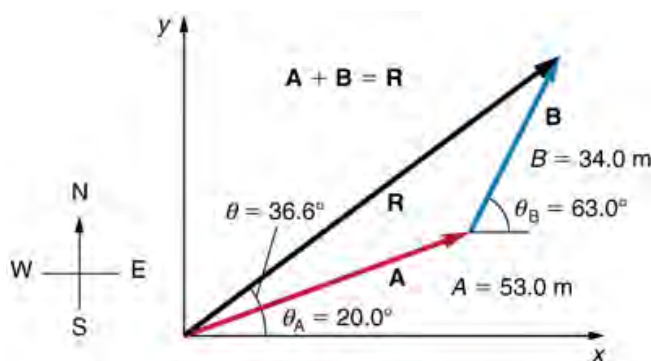


FIGURE 3.31 Vector **A** has magnitude 53.0 m and direction 20.0° north of the x -axis. Vector **B** has magnitude 34.0 m and direction 63.0° north of the x -axis. You can use analytical methods to determine the magnitude and direction of **R**.

Strategy

The components of **A** and **B** along the x - and y -axes represent walking due east and due north to get to the same ending point. Once found, they are combined to produce the resultant.

Solution

Following the method outlined above, we first find the components of **A** and **B** along the x - and y -axes. Note that $A = 53.0$ m, $\theta_A = 20.0^\circ$, $B = 34.0$ m, and $\theta_B = 63.0^\circ$. We find the x -components by using $A_x = A \cos \theta$, which gives

$$\begin{aligned} A_x &= A \cos \theta_A = (53.0 \text{ m})(\cos 20.0^\circ) \\ &= (53.0 \text{ m})(0.940) = 49.8 \text{ m} \end{aligned} \quad 3.16$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} B_x &= B \cos \theta_B = (34.0 \text{ m})(\cos 63.0^\circ) \\ &= (34.0 \text{ m})(0.454) = 15.4 \text{ m}. \end{aligned} \quad 3.17$$

Similarly, the y -components are found using $A_y = A \sin \theta_A$:

$$\begin{aligned} A_y &= A \sin \theta_A = (53.0 \text{ m})(\sin 20.0^\circ) \\ &= (53.0 \text{ m})(0.342) = 18.1 \text{ m} \end{aligned} \quad 3.18$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} B_y &= B \sin \theta_B = (34.0 \text{ m})(\sin 63.0^\circ) \\ &= (34.0 \text{ m})(0.891) = 30.3 \text{ m}. \end{aligned} \quad 3.19$$

The x- and y-components of the resultant are thus

$$R_x = A_x + B_x = 49.8 \text{ m} + 15.4 \text{ m} = 65.2 \text{ m} \quad 3.20$$

and

$$R_y = A_y + B_y = 18.1 \text{ m} + 30.3 \text{ m} = 48.4 \text{ m}. \quad 3.21$$

Now we can find the magnitude of the resultant by using the Pythagorean theorem:

$$R = \sqrt{R_x^2 + R_y^2} = \sqrt{(65.2)^2 + (48.4)^2} \text{ m} \quad 3.22$$

so that

$$R = 81.2 \text{ m}. \quad 3.23$$

Finally, we find the direction of the resultant:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(R_y/R_x) = \tan^{-1}(48.4/65.2). \quad 3.24$$

Thus,

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(0.742) = 36.6^\circ. \quad 3.25$$

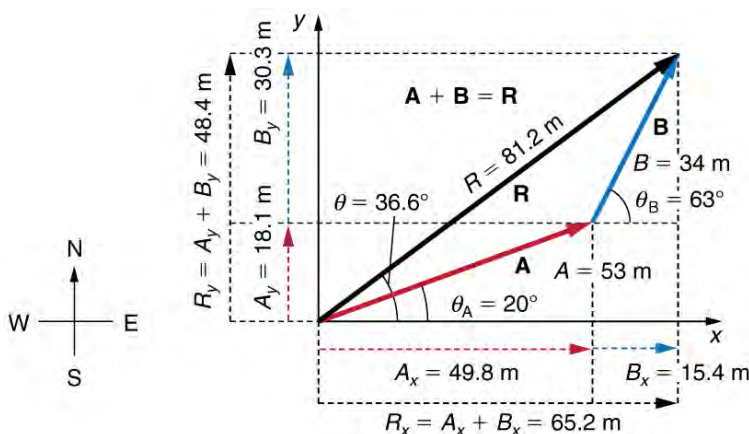


FIGURE 3.32 Using analytical methods, we see that the magnitude of **R** is 81.2 m and its direction is 36.6° north of east.

Discussion

This example illustrates the addition of vectors using perpendicular components. Vector subtraction using perpendicular components is very similar—it is just the addition of a negative vector.

Subtraction of vectors is accomplished by the addition of a negative vector. That is, $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} \equiv \mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{B})$. Thus, *the method for the subtraction of vectors using perpendicular components is identical to that for addition*. The components of $-\mathbf{B}$ are the negatives of the components of $\mathbf{B}$. The x- and y-components of the resultant $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{R}$ are thus

$$R_x = A_x + (-B_x) \quad 3.26$$

and

$$R_y = A_y + (-B_y) \quad 3.27$$

and the rest of the method outlined above is identical to that for addition. (See [Figure 3.33](#).)

Analyzing vectors using perpendicular components is very useful in many areas of physics, because perpendicular quantities are often independent of one another. The next module, [Projectile Motion](#), is one of many in which using

perpendicular components helps make the picture clear and simplifies the physics.

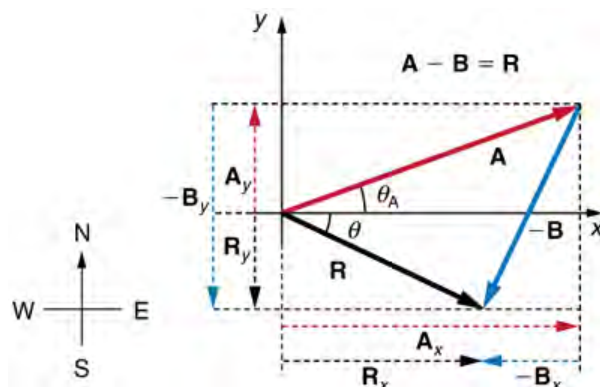


FIGURE 3.33 The subtraction of the two vectors shown in [Figure 3.28](#). The components of $-\mathbf{B}$ are the negatives of the components of $\mathbf{B}$. The method of subtraction is the same as that for addition.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Vector Addition

Learn how to add vectors. Drag vectors onto a graph, change their length and angle, and sum them together. The magnitude, angle, and components of each vector can be displayed in several formats.

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/3-3-vector-addition-and-subtraction-analytical-methods\)](https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/3-3-vector-addition-and-subtraction-analytical-methods)



3.4 Projectile Motion

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Identify and explain the properties of a projectile, such as acceleration due to gravity, range, maximum height, and trajectory.
- Determine the location and velocity of a projectile at different points in its trajectory.
- Apply the principle of independence of motion to solve projectile motion problems.

Projectile motion is the **motion** of an object thrown or projected into the air, subject to only the acceleration of gravity. The object is called a **projectile**, and its path is called its **trajectory**. The motion of falling objects, as covered in [Problem-Solving Basics for One-Dimensional Kinematics](#), is a simple one-dimensional type of projectile motion in which there is no horizontal movement. In this section, we consider two-dimensional projectile motion, such as that of a football or other object for which **air resistance** is *negligible*.

The most important fact to remember here is that *motions along perpendicular axes are independent* and thus can be analyzed separately. This fact was discussed in [Kinematics in Two Dimensions: An Introduction](#), where vertical and horizontal motions were seen to be independent. The key to analyzing two-dimensional projectile motion is to break it into two motions, one along the horizontal axis and the other along the vertical. (This choice of axes is the most sensible, because acceleration due to gravity is vertical—thus, there will be no acceleration along the horizontal axis when air resistance is negligible.) As is customary, we call the horizontal axis the x -axis and the vertical axis the y -axis. [Figure 3.34](#) illustrates the notation for displacement, where $\mathbf{s}$ is defined to be the total displacement and $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ are its components along the horizontal and vertical axes, respectively. The magnitudes of these vectors are s , x , and y . (Note that in the last section we used the notation $\mathbf{A}$ to represent a vector with components A_x and A_y . If we continued this format, we would call displacement $\mathbf{s}$ with components s_x and s_y . However, to simplify the notation, we will simply represent the component vectors as $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$.)

Of course, to describe motion we must deal with velocity and acceleration, as well as with displacement. We must find their components along the x - and y -axes, too. We will assume all forces except gravity (such as air resistance and friction, for example) are negligible. The components of acceleration are then very simple:

$a_y = -g = -9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$. (Note that this definition assumes that the upwards direction is defined as the positive direction. If you arrange the coordinate system instead such that the downwards direction is positive, then acceleration due to gravity takes a positive value.) Because gravity is vertical, $a_x = 0$. Both accelerations are constant, so the kinematic equations can be used.

REVIEW OF KINEMATIC EQUATIONS (CONSTANT a)

$$x = x_0 + \bar{v}t \quad 3.28$$

$$\bar{v} = \frac{v_0 + v}{2} \quad 3.29$$

$$v = v_0 + at \quad 3.30$$

$$x = x_0 + v_0t + \frac{1}{2}at^2 \quad 3.31$$

$$v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(x - x_0). \quad 3.32$$

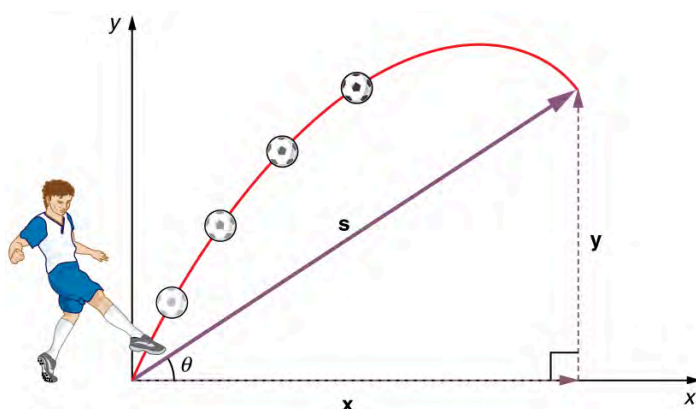


FIGURE 3.34 The total displacement s of a soccer ball at a point along its path. The vector s has components x and y along the horizontal and vertical axes. Its magnitude is s , and it makes an angle θ with the horizontal.

Given these assumptions, the following steps are then used to analyze projectile motion:

Step 1. Resolve or break the motion into horizontal and vertical components along the x - and y -axes. These axes are perpendicular, so $A_x = A \cos \theta$ and $A_y = A \sin \theta$ are used. The magnitude of the components of displacement s along these axes are x and y . The magnitudes of the components of the velocity $\mathbf{v}$ are $v_x = v \cos \theta$ and $v_y = v \sin \theta$, where v is the magnitude of the velocity and θ is its direction, as shown in [Figure 3.35](#). Initial values are denoted with a subscript 0, as usual.

Step 2. Treat the motion as two independent one-dimensional motions, one horizontal and the other vertical. The kinematic equations for horizontal and vertical motion take the following forms:

$$\text{Horizontal Motion}(a_x = 0) \quad 3.33$$

$$x = x_0 + v_x t \quad 3.34$$

$$v_x = v_{0x} = v_x = \text{velocity is a constant.} \quad 3.35$$

$$\text{Vertical Motion}$$

$$(\text{assuming positive is up}) \quad 3.36$$

$$a_y = -g = -9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$$

$$y = y_0 + \frac{1}{2}(v_{0y} + v_y)t \quad 3.37$$

$$v_y = v_{0y} - gt \quad 3.38$$

$$y = y_0 + v_{0y}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2 \quad 3.39$$

$$v_y^2 = v_{0y}^2 - 2g(y - y_0). \quad 3.40$$

Step 3. Solve for the unknowns in the two separate motions—one horizontal and one vertical. Note that the only common variable between the motions is time t . The problem solving procedures here are the same as for one-dimensional **kinematics** and are illustrated in the solved examples below.

Step 4. Recombine the two motions to find the total displacement $\mathbf{s}$ and velocity $\mathbf{v}$. Because the x - and y -motions are perpendicular, we determine these vectors by using the techniques outlined in the [Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods](#) and employing $A = \sqrt{A_x^2 + A_y^2}$ and $\theta = \tan^{-1}(A_y/A_x)$ in the following form, where θ is the direction of the displacement $\mathbf{s}$ and θ_v is the direction of the velocity $\mathbf{v}$:

Total displacement and velocity

$$s = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \quad 3.41$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(y/x) \quad 3.42$$

$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2} \quad 3.43$$

$$\theta_v = \tan^{-1}(v_y/v_x). \quad 3.44$$

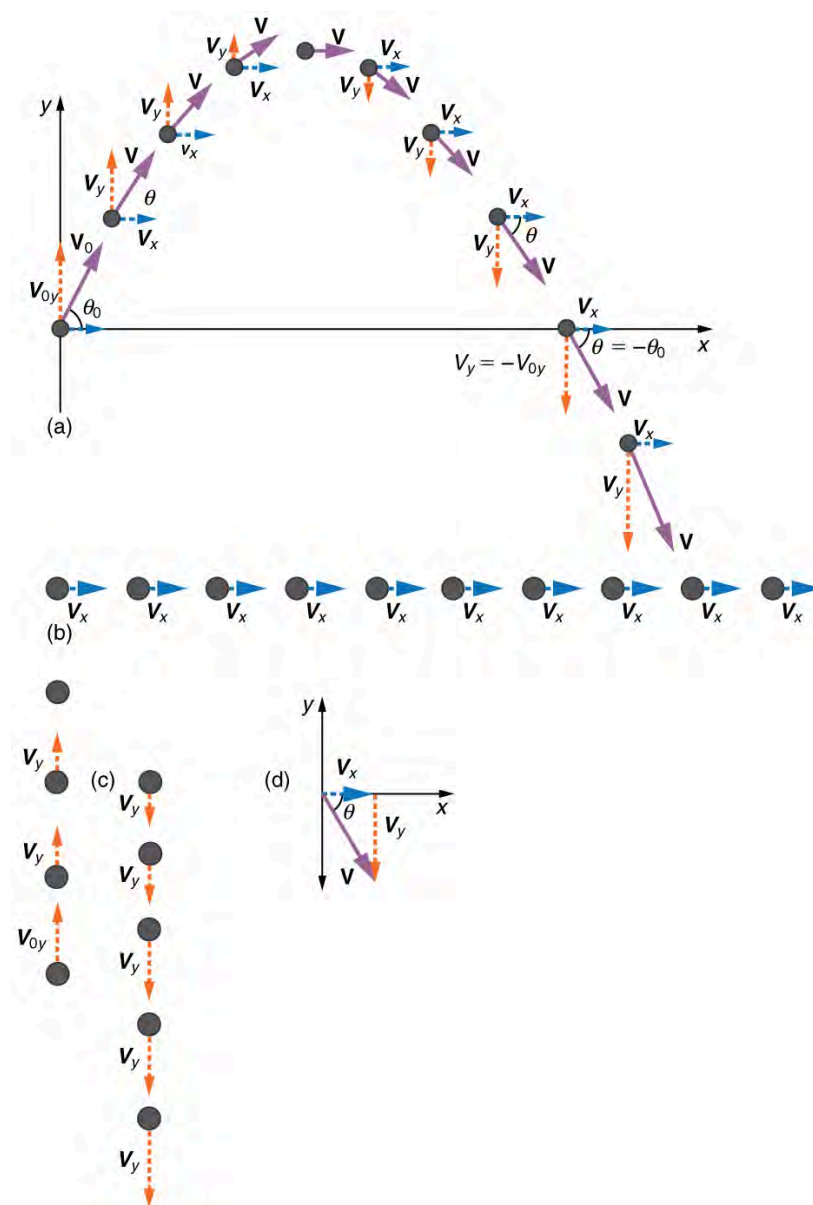


FIGURE 3.35 (a) We analyze two-dimensional projectile motion by breaking it into two independent one-dimensional motions along the vertical and horizontal axes. (b) The horizontal motion is simple, because $a_x = 0$ and v_x is thus constant. (c) The velocity in the vertical direction begins to decrease as the object rises; at its highest point, the vertical velocity is zero. As the object falls towards the Earth again, the vertical velocity increases again in magnitude but points in the opposite direction to the initial vertical velocity. (d) The x - and y -motions are recombined to give the total velocity at any given point on the trajectory.

EXAMPLE 3.4

A Fireworks Projectile Explodes High and Away

During a fireworks display, a shell is shot into the air with an initial speed of 70.0 m/s at an angle of 75.0° above the horizontal, as illustrated in [Figure 3.36](#). The fuse is timed to ignite the shell just as it reaches its highest point above the ground. (a) Calculate the height at which the shell explodes. (b) How much time passed between the launch of the shell and the explosion? (c) What is the horizontal displacement of the shell when it explodes?

Strategy

Because air resistance is negligible for the unexploded shell, the analysis method outlined above can be used. The motion can be broken into horizontal and vertical motions in which $a_x = 0$ and $a_y = -g$. We can then define x_0 and y_0 to be zero and solve for the desired quantities.

Solution for (a)

By “height” we mean the altitude or vertical position y above the starting point. The highest point in any trajectory, called the apex, is reached when $v_y = 0$. Since we know the initial and final velocities as well as the initial position, we use the following equation to find y :

$$v_y^2 = v_{0y}^2 - 2g(y - y_0). \quad 3.45$$

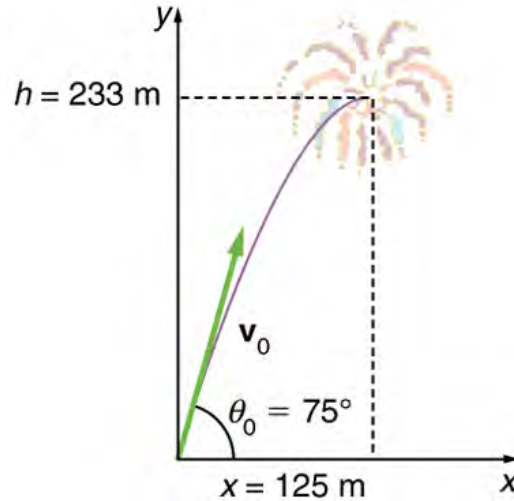


FIGURE 3.36 The trajectory of a fireworks shell. The fuse is set to explode the shell at the highest point in its trajectory, which is found to be at a height of 233 m and 125 m away horizontally.

Because y_0 and v_y are both zero, the equation simplifies to

$$0 = v_{0y}^2 - 2gy. \quad 3.46$$

Solving for y gives

$$y = \frac{v_{0y}^2}{2g}. \quad 3.47$$

Now we must find v_{0y} , the component of the initial velocity in the y -direction. It is given by $v_{0y} = v_0 \sin \theta$, where v_0 is the initial velocity of 70.0 m/s, and $\theta = 75.0^\circ$ is the initial angle. Thus,

$$v_{0y} = v_0 \sin \theta = (70.0 \text{ m/s})(\sin 75^\circ) = 67.6 \text{ m/s}. \quad 3.48$$

and y is

$$y = \frac{(67.6 \text{ m/s})^2}{2(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)}, \quad 3.49$$

so that

$$y = 233 \text{ m}. \quad 3.50$$

Discussion for (a)

Note that because up is positive, the initial velocity is positive, as is the maximum height, but the acceleration due to gravity is negative. Note also that the maximum height depends only on the vertical component of the initial velocity, so that any projectile with a 67.6 m/s initial vertical component of velocity will reach a maximum height of 233 m (neglecting air resistance). The numbers in this example are reasonable for large fireworks displays, the shells of which do reach such heights before exploding. In practice, air resistance is not completely negligible, and so the initial velocity would have to be somewhat larger than that given to reach the same height.

Solution for (b)

As in many physics problems, there is more than one way to solve for the time to the highest point. In this case, the easiest method is to use $y = y_0 + \frac{1}{2}(v_{0y} + v_y)t$. Because y_0 is zero, this equation reduces to simply

$$y = \frac{1}{2}(v_{0y} + v_y)t. \quad 3.51$$

Note that the final vertical velocity, v_y , at the highest point is zero. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} t &= \frac{2y}{(v_{0y} + v_y)} = \frac{2(233 \text{ m})}{(67.6 \text{ m/s})} \\ &= 6.90 \text{ s}. \end{aligned} \quad 3.52$$

Discussion for (b)

This time is also reasonable for large fireworks. When you are able to see the launch of fireworks, you will notice several seconds pass before the shell explodes. (Another way of finding the time is by using $y = y_0 + v_{0y}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$, and solving the quadratic equation for t .)

Solution for (c)

Because air resistance is negligible, $a_x = 0$ and the horizontal velocity is constant, as discussed above. The horizontal displacement is horizontal velocity multiplied by time as given by $x = x_0 + v_x t$, where x_0 is equal to zero:

$$x = v_x t, \quad 3.53$$

where v_x is the x -component of the velocity, which is given by $v_x = v_0 \cos \theta_0$. Now,

$$v_x = v_0 \cos \theta_0 = (70.0 \text{ m/s})(\cos 75.0^\circ) = 18.1 \text{ m/s}. \quad 3.54$$

The time t for both motions is the same, and so x is

$$x = (18.1 \text{ m/s})(6.90 \text{ s}) = 125 \text{ m}. \quad 3.55$$

Discussion for (c)

The horizontal motion is a constant velocity in the absence of air resistance. The horizontal displacement found here could be useful in keeping the fireworks fragments from falling on spectators. Once the shell explodes, air resistance has a major effect, and many fragments will land directly below.

In solving part (a) of the preceding example, the expression we found for y is valid for any projectile motion where air resistance is negligible. Call the maximum height $y = h$; then,

$$h = \frac{v_{0y}^2}{2g}. \quad 3.56$$

This equation defines the *maximum height of a projectile* and depends only on the vertical component of the initial velocity.

DEFINING A COORDINATE SYSTEM

It is important to set up a coordinate system when analyzing projectile motion. One part of defining the coordinate system is to define an origin for the x and y positions. Often, it is convenient to choose the initial position of the object as the origin such that $x_0 = 0$ and $y_0 = 0$. It is also important to define the positive and negative directions in the x and y directions. Typically, we define the positive vertical direction as upwards, and the positive horizontal direction is usually the direction of the object's motion. When this is the case, the vertical acceleration, g , takes a negative value (since it is directed downwards towards the Earth). However, it is occasionally useful to define the coordinates differently. For example, if you are analyzing the motion of a ball

thrown downwards from the top of a cliff, it may make sense to define the positive direction downwards since the motion of the ball is solely in the downwards direction. If this is the case, g takes a positive value.



EXAMPLE 3.5

Calculating Projectile Motion: Hot Rock Projectile

Kilauea in Hawaii is the world's most continuously active volcano. Very active volcanoes characteristically eject red-hot rocks and lava rather than smoke and ash. Suppose a large rock is ejected from the volcano with a speed of 25.0 m/s and at an angle 35.0° above the horizontal, as shown in [Figure 3.37](#). The rock strikes the side of the volcano at an altitude 20.0 m lower than its starting point. (a) Calculate the time it takes the rock to follow this path. (b) What are the magnitude and direction of the rock's velocity at impact?

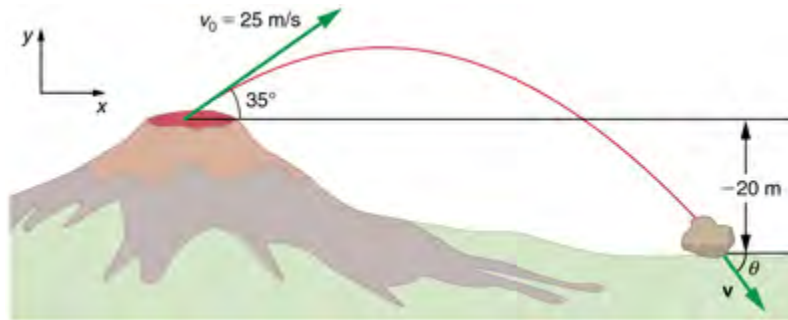


FIGURE 3.37 The trajectory of a rock ejected from the Kilauea volcano.

Strategy

Again, resolving this two-dimensional motion into two independent one-dimensional motions will allow us to solve for the desired quantities. The time a projectile is in the air is governed by its vertical motion alone. We will solve for t first. While the rock is rising and falling vertically, the horizontal motion continues at a constant velocity. This example asks for the final velocity. Thus, the vertical and horizontal results will be recombined to obtain v and θ_v at the final time t determined in the first part of the example.

Solution for (a)

While the rock is in the air, it rises and then falls to a final position 20.0 m lower than its starting altitude. We can find the time for this by using

$$y = y_0 + v_{0y}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2. \quad 3.57$$

If we take the initial position y_0 to be zero, then the final position is $y = -20.0$ m. Now the initial vertical velocity is the vertical component of the initial velocity, found from $v_{0y} = v_0 \sin \theta_0 = (25.0 \text{ m/s})(\sin 35.0^\circ) = 14.3 \text{ m/s}$.

Substituting known values yields

$$-20.0 \text{ m} = (14.3 \text{ m/s})t - (4.90 \text{ m/s}^2)t^2. \quad 3.58$$

Rearranging terms gives a quadratic equation in t :

$$(4.90 \text{ m/s}^2)t^2 - (14.3 \text{ m/s})t - (20.0 \text{ m}) = 0. \quad 3.59$$

This expression is a quadratic equation of the form $at^2 + bt + c = 0$, where the constants are $a = 4.90$, $b = -14.3$, and $c = -20.0$. Its solutions are given by the quadratic formula:

$$t = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}. \quad 3.60$$

This equation yields two solutions: $t = 3.96$ and $t = -1.03$. (It is left as an exercise for the reader to verify these

solutions.) The time is $t = 3.96$ s or -1.03 s. The negative value of time implies an event before the start of motion, and so we discard it. Thus,

$$t = 3.96 \text{ s.} \quad 3.61$$

Discussion for (a)

The time for projectile motion is completely determined by the vertical motion. So any projectile that has an initial vertical velocity of 14.3 m/s and lands 20.0 m below its starting altitude will spend 3.96 s in the air.

Solution for (b)

From the information now in hand, we can find the final horizontal and vertical velocities v_x and v_y and combine them to find the total velocity v and the angle θ_0 it makes with the horizontal. Of course, v_x is constant so we can solve for it at any horizontal location. In this case, we chose the starting point since we know both the initial velocity and initial angle. Therefore:

$$v_x = v_0 \cos \theta_0 = (25.0 \text{ m/s})(\cos 35^\circ) = 20.5 \text{ m/s.} \quad 3.62$$

The final vertical velocity is given by the following equation:

$$v_y = v_{0y} - gt, \quad 3.63$$

where v_{0y} was found in part (a) to be 14.3 m/s. Thus,

$$v_y = 14.3 \text{ m/s} - (9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(3.96 \text{ s}) \quad 3.64$$

so that

$$v_y = -24.5 \text{ m/s.} \quad 3.65$$

To find the magnitude of the final velocity v we combine its perpendicular components, using the following equation:

$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2} = \sqrt{(20.5 \text{ m/s})^2 + (-24.5 \text{ m/s})^2}, \quad 3.66$$

which gives

$$v = 31.9 \text{ m/s.} \quad 3.67$$

The direction θ_v is found from the equation:

$$\theta_v = \tan^{-1}(v_y/v_x) \quad 3.68$$

so that

$$\theta_v = \tan^{-1}(-24.5/20.5) = \tan^{-1}(-1.19). \quad 3.69$$

Thus,

$$\theta_v = -50.1^\circ. \quad 3.70$$

Discussion for (b)

The negative angle means that the velocity is 50.1° below the horizontal. This result is consistent with the fact that the final vertical velocity is negative and hence downward—as you would expect because the final altitude is 20.0 m lower than the initial altitude. (See [Figure 3.37](#).)

One of the most important things illustrated by projectile motion is that vertical and horizontal motions are independent of each other. Galileo was the first person to fully comprehend this characteristic. He used it to predict the range of a projectile. On level ground, we define **range** to be the horizontal distance R traveled by a projectile. Galileo and many others were interested in the range of projectiles primarily for military purposes—such as aiming cannons. However, investigating the range of projectiles can shed light on other interesting phenomena, such as the orbits of satellites around the Earth. Let us consider projectile range further.

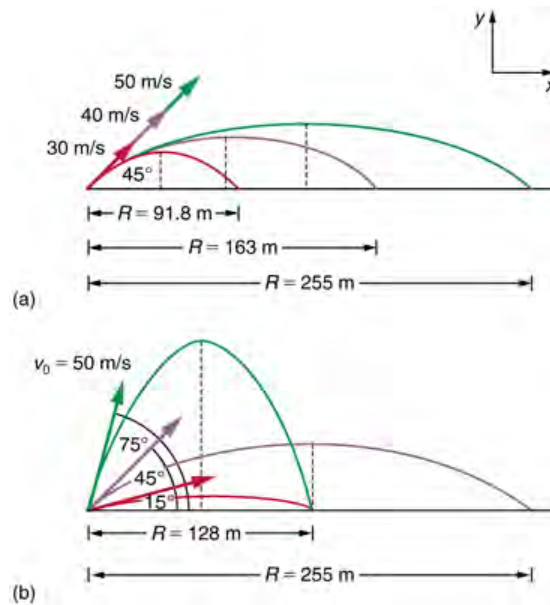


FIGURE 3.38 Trajectories of projectiles on level ground. (a) The greater the initial speed v_0 , the greater the range. (b) The effect of initial angle θ_0 on the range of a projectile with a given initial speed. Note that the range is the same for 15° and 75° , although the maximum heights of those paths are different.

How does the initial velocity of a projectile affect its range? Obviously, the greater the initial speed v_0 , the greater the range, as shown in [Figure 3.38\(a\)](#). The initial angle θ_0 also has a dramatic effect on the range, as illustrated in [Figure 3.38\(b\)](#). For a fixed initial speed, such as might be produced by a cannon, the maximum range is obtained with $\theta_0 = 45^\circ$. This is true only for conditions neglecting air resistance. If air resistance is considered, the maximum angle is approximately 38° . Interestingly, for every initial angle except 45° , there are two angles that give the same range—the sum of those angles is 90° . The range also depends on the value of the acceleration of gravity g . The lunar astronaut Alan Shepherd was able to drive a golf ball a great distance on the Moon because gravity is weaker there. The range R of a projectile on *level ground* for which air resistance is negligible is given by

$$R = \frac{v_0^2 \sin 2\theta_0}{g}, \quad 3.71$$

where v_0 is the initial speed and θ_0 is the initial angle relative to the horizontal. The proof of this equation is left as an end-of-chapter problem (hints are given), but it does fit the major features of projectile range as described.

When we speak of the range of a projectile on level ground, we assume that R is very small compared with the circumference of the Earth. If, however, the range is large, the Earth curves away below the projectile and acceleration of gravity changes direction along the path. The range is larger than predicted by the range equation given above because the projectile has farther to fall than it would on level ground. (See [Figure 3.39](#).) If the initial speed is great enough, the projectile goes into orbit. This possibility was recognized centuries before it could be accomplished. When an object is in orbit, the Earth curves away from underneath the object at the same rate as it falls. The object thus falls continuously but never hits the surface. These and other aspects of orbital motion, such as the rotation of the Earth, will be covered analytically and in greater depth later in this text.

Once again we see that thinking about one topic, such as the range of a projectile, can lead us to others, such as the Earth orbits. In [Addition of Velocities](#), we will examine the addition of velocities, which is another important aspect of two-dimensional kinematics and will also yield insights beyond the immediate topic.

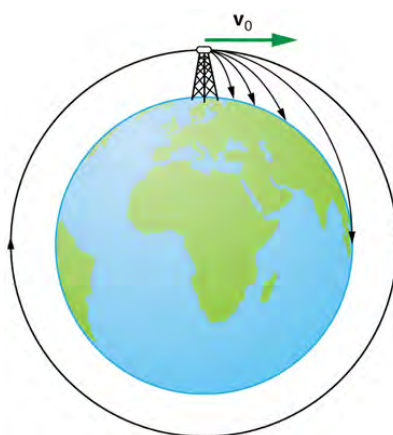


FIGURE 3.39 Hypothetical projectile to satellite. From this theoretical tower, a projectile is launched from a very high tower to avoid air resistance. With increasing initial speed, the range increases and becomes longer than it would be on level ground because the Earth curves away underneath its path. With a large enough initial speed, orbit is achieved.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Projectile Motion

Blast a Buick out of a cannon! Learn about projectile motion by firing various objects. Set the angle, initial speed, and mass. Add air resistance. Make a game out of this simulation by trying to hit a target.

Click to view content (<https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/3-4-projectile-motion>)



3.5 Addition of Velocities

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Apply principles of vector addition to determine relative velocity.
- Explain the significance of the observer in the measurement of velocity.

Relative Velocity

If a person rows a boat across a rapidly flowing river and tries to head directly for the other shore, the boat instead moves *diagonally* relative to the shore, as in [Figure 3.40](#). The boat does not move in the direction in which it is pointed. The reason, of course, is that the river carries the boat downstream. Similarly, if a small airplane flies overhead in a strong crosswind, you can sometimes see that the plane is not moving in the direction in which it is pointed, as illustrated in [Figure 3.41](#). The plane is moving straight ahead relative to the air, but the movement of the air mass relative to the ground carries it sideways.

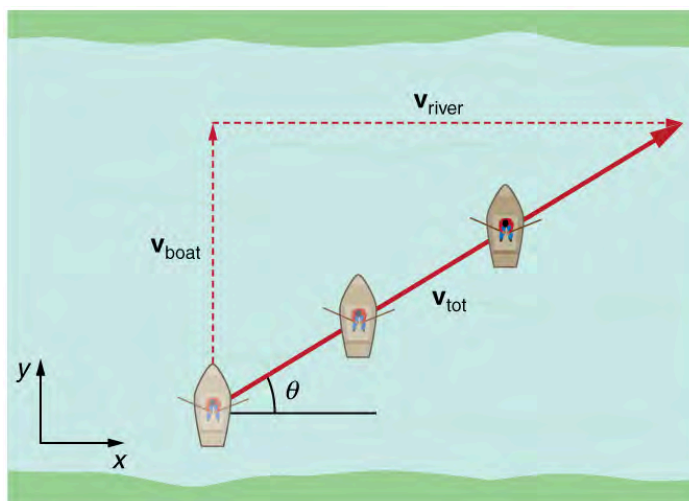


FIGURE 3.40 A boat trying to head straight across a river will actually move diagonally relative to the shore as shown. Its total velocity (solid arrow) relative to the shore is the sum of its velocity relative to the river plus the velocity of the river relative to the shore.

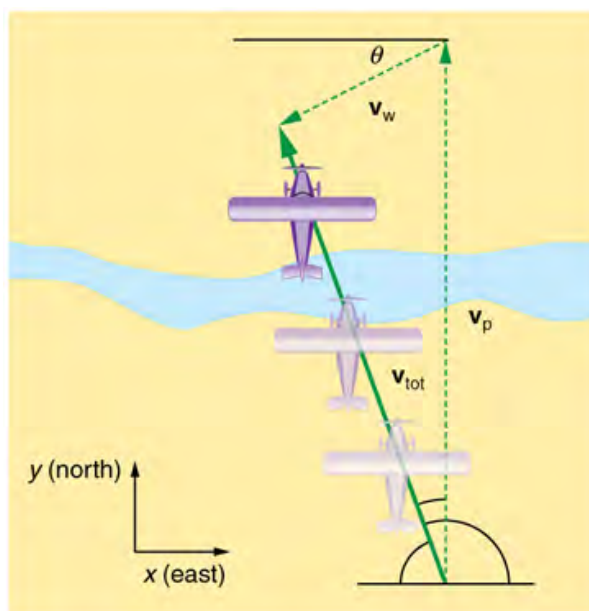


FIGURE 3.41 An airplane heading straight north is instead carried to the west and slowed down by wind. The plane does not move relative to the ground in the direction it points; rather, it moves in the direction of its total velocity (solid arrow).

In each of these situations, an object has a **velocity** relative to a medium (such as a river) and that medium has a velocity relative to an observer on solid ground. The velocity of the object *relative to the observer* is the sum of these velocity vectors, as indicated in [Figure 3.40](#) and [Figure 3.41](#). These situations are only two of many in which it is useful to add velocities. In this module, we first re-examine how to add velocities and then consider certain aspects of what relative velocity means.

How do we add velocities? Velocity is a vector (it has both magnitude and direction); the rules of **vector addition** discussed in [Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods](#) and [Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods](#) apply to the addition of velocities, just as they do for any other vectors. In one-dimensional motion, the addition of velocities is simple—they add like ordinary numbers. For example, if a field hockey player is moving at 5 m/s straight toward the goal and drives the ball in the same direction with a velocity of 30 m/s relative to her body, then the velocity of the ball is 35 m/s relative to the stationary, profusely sweating goalkeeper standing in front of the goal.

In two-dimensional motion, either graphical or analytical techniques can be used to add velocities. We will concentrate on analytical techniques. The following equations give the relationships between the magnitude and

direction of velocity (v and θ) and its components (v_x and v_y) along the x - and y -axes of an appropriately chosen coordinate system:

$$v_x = v \cos \theta \quad 3.72$$

$$v_y = v \sin \theta \quad 3.73$$

$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2} \quad 3.74$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(v_y/v_x). \quad 3.75$$

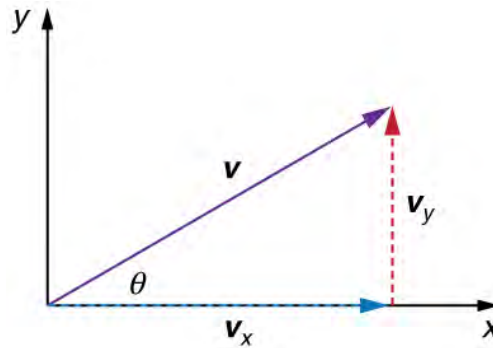


FIGURE 3.42 The velocity, v , of an object traveling at an angle θ to the horizontal axis is the sum of component vectors $\mathbf{v}_x$ and $\mathbf{v}_y$.

These equations are valid for any vectors and are adapted specifically for velocity. The first two equations are used to find the components of a velocity when its magnitude and direction are known. The last two are used to find the magnitude and direction of velocity when its components are known.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT: RELATIVE VELOCITY OF A BOAT

Fill a bathtub half-full of water. Take a toy boat or some other object that floats in water. Unplug the drain so water starts to drain. Try pushing the boat from one side of the tub to the other and perpendicular to the flow of water. Which way do you need to push the boat so that it ends up immediately opposite? Compare the directions of the flow of water, heading of the boat, and actual velocity of the boat.

EXAMPLE 3.6

Adding Velocities: A Boat on a River

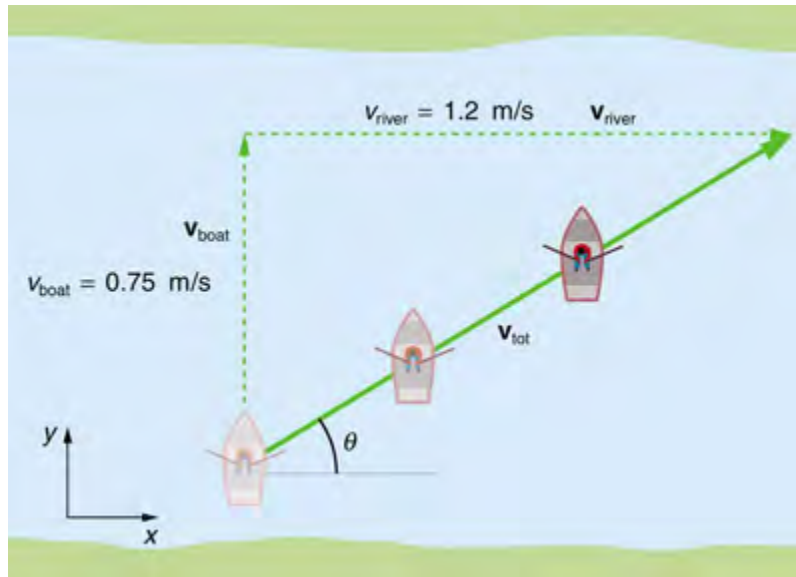


FIGURE 3.43 A boat attempts to travel straight across a river at a speed 0.75 m/s. The current in the river, however, flows at a speed of 1.20 m/s to the right.

Refer to [Figure 3.43](#), which shows a boat trying to go straight across the river. Let us calculate the magnitude and direction of the boat's velocity relative to an observer on the shore, $\mathbf{v}_{\text{tot}}$. The velocity of the boat, $\mathbf{v}_{\text{boat}}$, is 0.75 m/s in the y -direction relative to the river and the velocity of the river, $\mathbf{v}_{\text{river}}$, is 1.20 m/s to the right.

Strategy

We start by choosing a coordinate system with its x -axis parallel to the velocity of the river, as shown in [Figure 3.43](#). Because the boat is directed straight toward the other shore, its velocity relative to the water is parallel to the y -axis and perpendicular to the velocity of the river. Thus, we can add the two velocities by using the equations

$$v_{\text{tot}} = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2} \text{ and } \theta = \tan^{-1}(v_y/v_x) \text{ directly.}$$

Solution

The magnitude of the total velocity is

$$v_{\text{tot}} = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2}, \quad 3.76$$

where

$$v_x = v_{\text{river}} = 1.20 \text{ m/s} \quad 3.77$$

and

$$v_y = v_{\text{boat}} = 0.750 \text{ m/s.} \quad 3.78$$

Thus,

$$v_{\text{tot}} = \sqrt{(1.20 \text{ m/s})^2 + (0.750 \text{ m/s})^2} \quad 3.79$$

yielding

$$v_{\text{tot}} = 1.42 \text{ m/s.} \quad 3.80$$

The direction of the total velocity θ is given by:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(v_y/v_x) = \tan^{-1}(0.750/1.20). \quad 3.81$$

This equation gives

$$\theta = 32.0^\circ. \quad 3.82$$

Discussion

Both the magnitude v and the direction θ of the total velocity are consistent with [Figure 3.43](#). Note that because the velocity of the river is large compared with the velocity of the boat, it is swept rapidly downstream. This result is evidenced by the small angle (only 32.0°) the total velocity has relative to the riverbank.

EXAMPLE 3.7

Calculating Velocity: Wind Velocity Causes an Airplane to Drift

Calculate the wind velocity for the situation shown in [Figure 3.44](#). The plane is known to be moving at 45.0 m/s due north relative to the air mass, while its velocity relative to the ground (its total velocity) is 38.0 m/s in a direction 20.0° west of north.

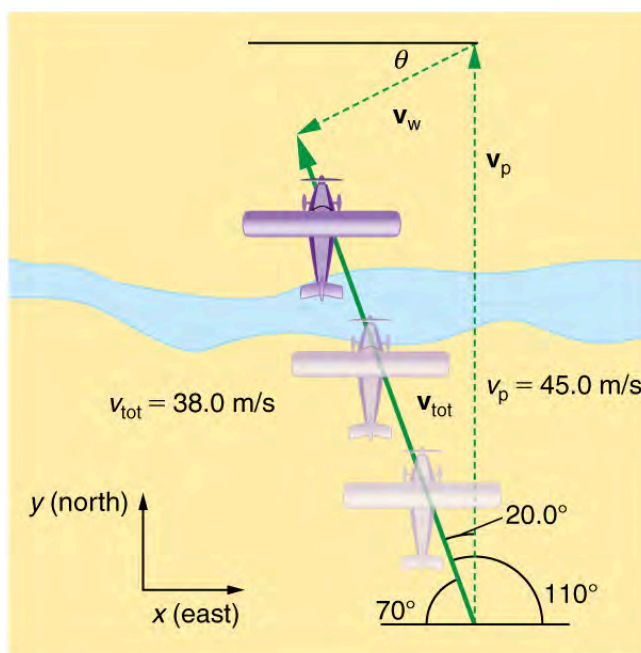


FIGURE 3.44 An airplane is known to be heading north at 45.0 m/s, though its velocity relative to the ground is 38.0 m/s at an angle west of north. What is the speed and direction of the wind?

Strategy

In this problem, somewhat different from the previous example, we know the total velocity $\mathbf{v}_{\text{tot}}$ and that it is the sum of two other velocities, $\mathbf{v}_w$ (the wind) and $\mathbf{v}_p$ (the plane relative to the air mass). The quantity $\mathbf{v}_p$ is known, and we are asked to find $\mathbf{v}_w$. None of the velocities are perpendicular, but it is possible to find their components along a common set of perpendicular axes. If we can find the components of $\mathbf{v}_w$, then we can combine them to solve for its magnitude and direction. As shown in [Figure 3.44](#), we choose a coordinate system with its x -axis due east and its y -axis due north (parallel to $\mathbf{v}_p$). (You may wish to look back at the discussion of the addition of vectors using perpendicular components in [Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods](#).)

Solution

Because $\mathbf{v}_{\text{tot}}$ is the vector sum of the $\mathbf{v}_w$ and $\mathbf{v}_p$, its x - and y -components are the sums of the x - and y -components of the wind and plane velocities. Note that the plane only has vertical component of velocity so $v_{px} = 0$ and

$v_{py} = v_p$. That is,

$$v_{totx} = v_{wx} \quad 3.83$$

and

$$v_{toty} = v_{wy} + v_p. \quad 3.84$$

We can use the first of these two equations to find v_{wx} :

$$v_{wx} = v_{totx} = v_{tot} \cos 110^\circ. \quad 3.85$$

Because $v_{tot} = 38.0 \text{ m/s}$ and $\cos 110^\circ = -0.342$ we have

$$v_{wx} = (38.0 \text{ m/s})(-0.342) = -13 \text{ m/s}. \quad 3.86$$

The minus sign indicates motion west which is consistent with the diagram.

Now, to find v_{wy} we note that

$$v_{toty} = v_{wy} + v_p \quad 3.87$$

Here $v_{toty} = v_{tot} \sin 110^\circ$; thus,

$$v_{wy} = (38.0 \text{ m/s})(0.940) - 45.0 \text{ m/s} = -9.29 \text{ m/s}. \quad 3.88$$

This minus sign indicates motion south which is consistent with the diagram.

Now that the perpendicular components of the wind velocity v_{wx} and v_{wy} are known, we can find the magnitude and direction of $\mathbf{v}_w$. First, the magnitude is

$$\begin{aligned} v_w &= \sqrt{v_{wx}^2 + v_{wy}^2} \\ &= \sqrt{(-13.0 \text{ m/s})^2 + (-9.29 \text{ m/s})^2} \end{aligned} \quad 3.89$$

so that

$$v_w = 16.0 \text{ m/s}. \quad 3.90$$

The direction is:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(v_{wy}/v_{wx}) = \tan^{-1}(-9.29/-13.0) \quad 3.91$$

giving

$$\theta = 35.6^\circ. \quad 3.92$$

Discussion

The wind's speed and direction are consistent with the significant effect the wind has on the total velocity of the plane, as seen in [Figure 3.44](#). Because the plane is fighting a strong combination of crosswind and head-wind, it ends up with a total velocity significantly less than its velocity relative to the air mass as well as heading in a different direction.

Note that in both of the last two examples, we were able to make the mathematics easier by choosing a coordinate system with one axis parallel to one of the velocities. We will repeatedly find that choosing an appropriate coordinate system makes problem solving easier. For example, in projectile motion we always use a coordinate system with one axis parallel to gravity.

Relative Velocities and Classical Relativity

When adding velocities, we have been careful to specify that the *velocity is relative to some reference frame*. These velocities are called **relative velocities**. For example, the velocity of an airplane relative to an air mass is different from its velocity relative to the ground. Both are quite different from the velocity of an airplane relative to its passengers (which should be close to zero). Relative velocities are one aspect of **relativity**, which is defined to be the study of how different observers moving relative to each other measure the same phenomenon.

Nearly everyone has heard of relativity and immediately associates it with Albert Einstein (1879–1955), the greatest physicist of the 20th century. Einstein revolutionized our view of nature with his *modern* theory of relativity, which we shall study in later chapters. The relative velocities in this section are actually aspects of classical relativity, first discussed correctly by Galileo and Isaac Newton. **Classical relativity** is limited to situations where speeds are less than about 1% of the speed of light—that is, less than 3,000 km/s. Most things we encounter in daily life move slower than this speed.

Let us consider an example of what two different observers see in a situation analyzed long ago by Galileo. Suppose a sailor at the top of a mast on a moving ship drops their binoculars. Where will it hit the deck? Will it hit at the base of the mast, or will it hit behind the mast because the ship is moving forward? The answer is that if air resistance is negligible, the binoculars will hit at the base of the mast at a point directly below its point of release. Now let us consider what two different observers see when the binoculars drop. One observer is on the ship and the other on shore. The binoculars have no horizontal velocity relative to the observer on the ship, and so he sees them fall straight down the mast. (See [Figure 3.45](#).) To the observer on shore, the binoculars and the ship have the *same* horizontal velocity, so both move the same distance forward while the binoculars are falling. This observer sees the curved path shown in [Figure 3.45](#). Although the paths look different to the different observers, each sees the same result—the binoculars hit at the base of the mast and not behind it. To get the correct description, it is crucial to correctly specify the velocities relative to the observer.

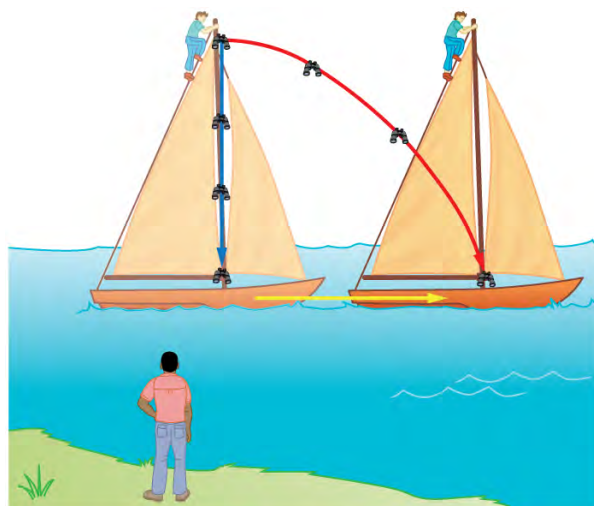


FIGURE 3.45 Classical relativity. The same motion as viewed by two different observers. An observer on the moving ship sees the binoculars dropped from the top of its mast fall straight down. An observer on shore sees the binoculars take the curved path, moving forward with the ship. Both observers see the binoculars strike the deck at the base of the mast. The initial horizontal velocity is different relative to the two observers. (The ship is shown moving rather fast to emphasize the effect.)

EXAMPLE 3.8

Calculating Relative Velocity: An Airline Passenger Drops a Coin

An airline passenger drops a coin while the plane is moving at 260 m/s. What is the velocity of the coin when it strikes the floor 1.50 m below its point of release: (a) Measured relative to the plane? (b) Measured relative to the Earth?



FIGURE 3.46 The motion of a coin dropped inside an airplane as viewed by two different observers. (a) An observer in the plane sees the coin fall straight down. (b) An observer on the ground sees the coin move almost horizontally.

Strategy

Both problems can be solved with the techniques for falling objects and projectiles. In part (a), the initial velocity of the coin is zero relative to the plane, so the motion is that of a falling object (one-dimensional). In part (b), the initial velocity is 260 m/s horizontal relative to the Earth and gravity is vertical, so this motion is a projectile motion. In both parts, it is best to use a coordinate system with vertical and horizontal axes.

Solution for (a)

Using the given information, we note that the initial velocity and position are zero, and the final position is 1.50 m. The final velocity can be found using the equation:

$$v_y^2 = v_{0,y}^2 - 2g(y - y_0). \quad 3.93$$

Substituting known values into the equation, we get

$$v_y^2 = 0^2 - 2(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(-1.50 \text{ m} - 0 \text{ m}) = 29.4 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2 \quad 3.94$$

yielding

$$v_y = -5.42 \text{ m/s}. \quad 3.95$$

We know that the square root of 29.4 has two roots: 5.42 and -5.42. We choose the negative root because we know that the velocity is directed downwards, and we have defined the positive direction to be upwards. There is no initial horizontal velocity relative to the plane and no horizontal acceleration, and so the motion is straight down relative to the plane.

Solution for (b)

Because the initial vertical velocity is zero relative to the ground and vertical motion is independent of horizontal motion, the final vertical velocity for the coin relative to the ground is $v_y = -5.42 \text{ m/s}$, the same as found in part (a). In contrast to part (a), there now is a horizontal component of the velocity. However, since there is no horizontal acceleration, the initial and final horizontal velocities are the same and $v_x = 260 \text{ m/s}$. The x - and y -components of velocity can be combined to find the magnitude of the final velocity:

$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2}. \quad 3.96$$

Thus,

$$v = \sqrt{(260 \text{ m/s})^2 + (-5.42 \text{ m/s})^2} \quad 3.97$$

yielding

$$v = 260.06 \text{ m/s}. \quad 3.98$$

The direction is given by:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(v_y/v_x) = \tan^{-1}(-5.42/260) \quad 3.99$$

so that

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(-0.0208) = -1.19^\circ. \quad 3.100$$

Discussion

In part (a), the final velocity relative to the plane is the same as it would be if the coin were dropped from rest on the Earth and fell 1.50 m. This result fits our experience; objects in a plane fall the same way when the plane is flying horizontally as when it is at rest on the ground. This result is also true in moving cars. In part (b), an observer on the ground sees a much different motion for the coin. The plane is moving so fast horizontally to begin with that its final velocity is barely greater than the initial velocity. Once again, we see that in two dimensions, vectors do not add like ordinary numbers—the final velocity v in part (b) is *not* $(260 - 5.42) \text{ m/s}$; rather, it is 260.06 m/s. The velocity's magnitude had to be calculated to five digits to see any difference from that of the airplane. The motions as seen by different observers (one in the plane and one on the ground) in this example are analogous to those discussed for the binoculars dropped from the mast of a moving ship, except that the velocity of the plane is much larger, so that the two observers see *very* different paths. (See [Figure 3.46](#).) In addition, both observers see the coin fall 1.50 m vertically, but the one on the ground also sees it move forward 144 m (this calculation is left for the reader). Thus, one observer sees a vertical path, the other a nearly horizontal path.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: RELATIVITY AND EINSTEIN

Because Einstein was able to clearly define how measurements are made (some involve light) and because the speed of light is the same for all observers, the outcomes are spectacularly unexpected. Time varies with observer, energy is stored as increased mass, and more surprises await.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Motion in 2D

Try the "Motion in 2D" simulation to Learn about position, velocity, and acceleration vectors. Move the ball with the mouse or let the simulation move the ball in four types of motion (2 types of linear, simple harmonic, circle).

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/l/motion-2d\)](https://openstax.org/l/motion-2d).



Glossary

air resistance a frictional force that slows the motion of objects as they travel through the air; when solving basic physics problems, air resistance is assumed to be zero

analytical method the method of determining the magnitude and direction of a resultant vector using the Pythagorean theorem and trigonometric identities

classical relativity the study of relative velocities in situations where speeds are less than about 1% of the speed of light—that is, less than 3000 km/s

commutative refers to the interchangeability of order in a function; vector addition is commutative because the order in which vectors are added together does not affect the final sum

component (of a 2-d vector) a piece of a vector that points in either the vertical or the horizontal direction; every 2-d vector can be expressed as a sum of two vertical and horizontal vector components

direction (of a vector) the orientation of a vector in space

head (of a vector) the end point of a vector; the location of the tip of the vector's arrowhead; also referred to as the "tip"

head-to-tail method a method of adding vectors in which the tail of each vector is placed at the head of the previous vector

kinematics the study of motion without regard to

mass or force

magnitude (of a vector) the length or size of a vector; magnitude is a scalar quantity

motion displacement of an object as a function of time

projectile an object that travels through the air and experiences only acceleration due to gravity

projectile motion the motion of an object that is subject only to the acceleration of gravity

range the maximum horizontal distance that a projectile travels

relative velocity the velocity of an object as observed from a particular reference frame

relativity the study of how different observers moving relative to each other measure the same phenomenon

resultant the sum of two or more vectors

resultant vector the vector sum of two or more vectors

scalar a quantity with magnitude but no direction

tail the start point of a vector; opposite to the head or tip of the arrow

trajectory the path of a projectile through the air

vector a quantity that has both magnitude and direction; an arrow used to represent quantities with both magnitude and direction

vector addition the rules that apply to adding vectors together

velocity speed in a given direction

Section Summary

3.1 Kinematics in Two Dimensions: An Introduction

- The shortest path between any two points is a straight line. In two dimensions, this path can be represented by a vector with horizontal and vertical components.
- The horizontal and vertical components of a vector are independent of one another. Motion in the horizontal direction does not affect motion in the vertical direction, and vice versa.

3.2 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods

- The **graphical method of adding vectors $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$** involves drawing vectors on a graph and adding them using the head-to-tail method. The resultant vector $\mathbf{R}$ is defined such that $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{R}$. The magnitude and direction of $\mathbf{R}$ are then determined with a ruler and protractor, respectively.
- The **graphical method of subtracting vector $\mathbf{B}$**

from $\mathbf{A}$ involves adding the opposite of vector $\mathbf{B}$, which is defined as $-\mathbf{B}$. In this case, $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{R}$. Then, the head-to-tail method of addition is followed in the usual way to obtain the resultant vector $\mathbf{R}$.

- Addition of vectors is **commutative** such that $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}$.
- The **head-to-tail method** of adding vectors involves drawing the first vector on a graph and then placing the tail of each subsequent vector at the head of the previous vector. The resultant vector is then drawn from the tail of the first vector to the head of the final vector.
- If a vector $\mathbf{A}$ is multiplied by a scalar quantity c , the magnitude of the product is given by cA . If c is positive, the direction of the product points in the same direction as $\mathbf{A}$; if c is negative, the direction of the product points in the opposite direction as $\mathbf{A}$.

3.3 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods

- The analytical method of vector addition and subtraction involves using the Pythagorean theorem and trigonometric identities to determine the magnitude and direction of a resultant vector.
- The steps to add vectors **A** and **B** using the analytical method are as follows:
Step 1: Determine the coordinate system for the vectors. Then, determine the horizontal and vertical components of each vector using the equations

$$A_x = A \cos \theta$$

$$B_x = B \cos \theta$$

and

$$A_y = A \sin \theta$$

$$B_y = B \sin \theta.$$

Step 2: Add the horizontal and vertical components of each vector to determine the components R_x and R_y of the resultant vector, **R**:

$$R_x = A_x + B_x$$

and

$$R_y = A_y + B_y.$$

Step 3: Use the Pythagorean theorem to determine the magnitude, **R**, of the resultant vector **R**:

$$R = \sqrt{R_x^2 + R_y^2}.$$

Step 4: Use a trigonometric identity to determine the direction, θ , of **R**:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(R_y/R_x).$$

3.4 Projectile Motion

- Projectile motion is the motion of an object through the air that is subject only to the acceleration of gravity.
- To solve projectile motion problems, perform the following steps:
 - Determine a coordinate system. Then, resolve the position and/or velocity of the object in the horizontal and vertical components. The components of position **s** are given by the quantities x and y , and the components of the velocity **v** are given by $v_x = v \cos \theta$ and $v_y = v \sin \theta$, where v is the magnitude of the velocity and θ is its direction.
 - Analyze the motion of the projectile in the horizontal direction using the following equations:
Horizontal motion($a_x = 0$)

$$x = x_0 + v_x t$$

$$v_x = v_{0x} = v_x = \text{velocity is a constant.}$$

- Analyze the motion of the projectile in the vertical direction using the following equations:

Vertical Motion

(assuming positive is up)

$$a_y = -g = -9.80\text{m/s}^2$$

$$y = y_0 + \frac{1}{2}(v_{0y} + v_y)t$$

$$v_y = v_{0y} - gt$$

$$y = y_0 + v_{0y}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

$$v_y^2 = v_{0y}^2 - 2g(y - y_0).$$

- Recombine the horizontal and vertical components of location and/or velocity using the following equations:

$$s = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(y/x)$$

$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2}$$

$$\theta_v = \tan^{-1}(v_y/v_x).$$

- The maximum height h of a projectile launched with initial vertical velocity v_{0y} is given by

$$h = \frac{v_{0y}^2}{2g}.$$
- The maximum horizontal distance traveled by a projectile is called the **range**. The range R of a projectile on level ground launched at an angle θ_0 above the horizontal with initial speed v_0 is given by

$$R = \frac{v_0^2 \sin 2\theta_0}{g}.$$

3.5 Addition of Velocities

- Velocities in two dimensions are added using the same analytical vector techniques, which are rewritten as

$$v_x = v \cos \theta$$

$$v_y = v \sin \theta$$

$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2}$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(v_y/v_x).$$
- Relative velocity is the velocity of an object as observed from a particular reference frame, and it varies dramatically with reference frame.
- Relativity** is the study of how different observers measure the same phenomenon, particularly when the observers move relative to one another.
Classical relativity is limited to situations where speed is less than about 1% of the speed of light (3000 km/s).

Conceptual Questions

3.2 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods

- Which of the following is a vector: a person's height, the altitude on Mt. Everest, the age of the Earth, the boiling point of water, the cost of this book, the Earth's population, the acceleration of gravity?
- Give a specific example of a vector, stating its magnitude, units, and direction.
- What do vectors and scalars have in common? How do they differ?
- Two campers in a national park hike from their cabin to the same spot on a lake, each taking a different path, as illustrated below. The total distance traveled along Path 1 is 7.5 km, and that along Path 2 is 8.2 km. What is the final displacement of each camper?

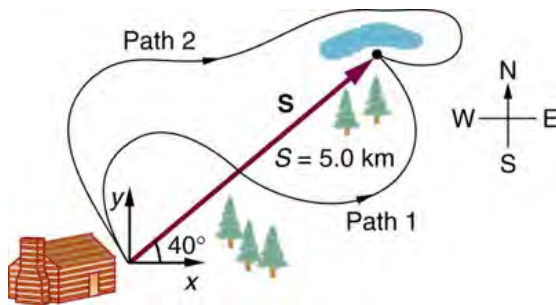


FIGURE 3.47

- If an airplane pilot is told to fly 123 km in a straight line to get from San Francisco to Sacramento, explain why he could end up anywhere on the circle shown in Figure 3.48. What other information would he need to get to Sacramento?



FIGURE 3.48

- Suppose you take two steps **A** and **B** (that is, two nonzero displacements). Under what circumstances can you end up at your starting point? More generally, under what circumstances can two nonzero vectors add to give zero? Is the maximum distance you can end up from the starting point $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$ the sum of the lengths of the two steps?
- Explain why it is not possible to add a scalar to a vector.
- If you take two steps of different sizes, can you end up at your starting point? More generally, can two vectors with different magnitudes ever add to zero? Can three or more?

3.3 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods

- Suppose you add two vectors **A** and **B**. What relative direction between them produces the resultant with the greatest magnitude? What is the maximum magnitude? What relative direction between them produces the resultant with the smallest magnitude? What is the minimum magnitude?
- Give an example of a nonzero vector that has a component of zero.
- Explain why a vector cannot have a component greater than its own magnitude.
- If the vectors **A** and **B** are perpendicular, what is

displacement for the hikers shown in [Figure 3.47](#).

4. Suppose you walk 18.0 m straight west and then 25.0 m straight north. How far are you from your starting point, and what is the compass direction of a line connecting your starting point to your final position? (If you represent the two legs of the walk as vector displacements $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$, as in [Figure 3.50](#), then this problem asks you to find their sum $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$.)

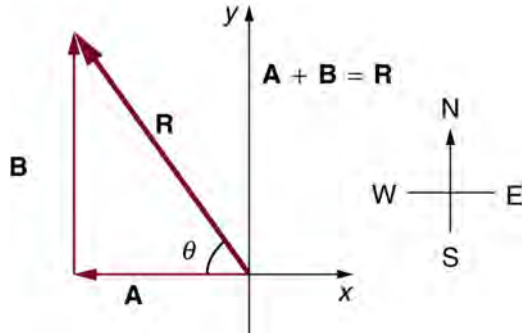


FIGURE 3.50 The two displacements $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ add to give a total displacement $\mathbf{R}$ having magnitude R and direction θ .

5. Suppose you first walk 12.0 m in a direction 20° west of north and then 20.0 m in a direction 40.0° south of west. How far are you from your starting point, and what is the compass direction of a line connecting your starting point to your final position? (If you represent the two legs of the walk as vector displacements $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$, as in [Figure 3.51](#), then this problem finds their sum $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$.)

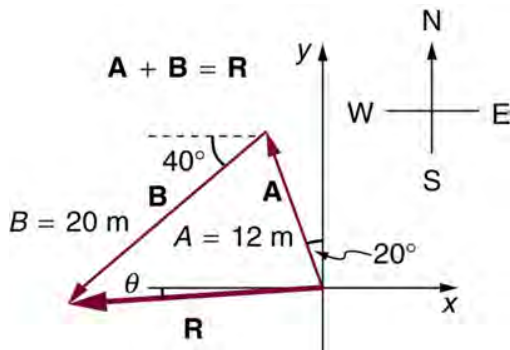


FIGURE 3.51

6. Repeat the problem above, but reverse the order of the two legs of the walk; show that you get the same final result. That is, you first walk leg $\mathbf{B}$, which is 20.0 m in a direction exactly 40° south of west, and then leg $\mathbf{A}$, which is 12.0 m in a direction exactly 20° west of north. (This problem shows that $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}$.)
7. (a) Repeat the problem two problems prior, but for

the second leg you walk 20.0 m in a direction 40.0° . (b) Repeat the problem two problems prior, but now you first walk 20.0 m in a direction 40.0° east of south (which is equivalent to subtracting $\mathbf{A}$ from $\mathbf{B}$ —that is, to finding $\mathbf{R}' = \mathbf{B} - \mathbf{A} = -\mathbf{R}'$). Show that this is the case.

8. Show that the *order* of addition of three vectors does not affect their sum. Show this property by choosing any three vectors $\mathbf{A}$, $\mathbf{B}$, and $\mathbf{C}$, all having different lengths and directions. Find the sum $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}$ then find their sum when added in a different order and show the result is the same. (There are five other orders in which $\mathbf{A}$, $\mathbf{B}$, and $\mathbf{C}$ can be added; choose only one.)
9. Show that the sum of the vectors discussed in [Example 3.2](#) gives the result shown in [Figure 3.23](#).
10. Find the magnitudes of velocities v_A and v_B in [Figure 3.52](#)

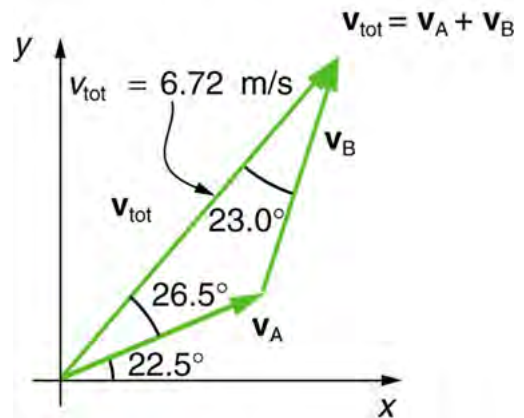


FIGURE 3.52 The two velocities $\mathbf{v}_A$ and $\mathbf{v}_B$ add to give a total $\mathbf{v}_{\text{tot}}$.

11. Find the components of $\mathbf{v}_{\text{tot}}$ along the x - and y -axes in [Figure 3.52](#).
12. Find the components of $\mathbf{v}_{\text{tot}}$ along a set of perpendicular axes rotated 30° counterclockwise relative to those in [Figure 3.52](#).

3.3 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods

13. Find the following for path C in [Figure 3.53](#): (a) the total distance traveled and (b) the magnitude and direction of the displacement from start to finish. In this part of the problem, explicitly show how you follow the steps of the analytical method of vector addition.

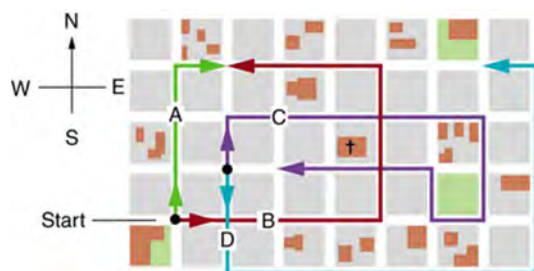


FIGURE 3.53 The various lines represent paths taken by different people walking in a city. All blocks are 120 m on a side.

14. Find the following for path D in [Figure 3.53](#): (a) the total distance traveled and (b) the magnitude and direction of the displacement from start to finish. In this part of the problem, explicitly show how you follow the steps of the analytical method of vector addition.
15. Find the north and east components of the displacement from San Francisco to Sacramento shown in [Figure 3.54](#).



FIGURE 3.54

16. Solve the following problem using analytical techniques: Suppose you walk 18.0 m straight west and then 25.0 m straight north. How far are you from your starting point, and what is the compass direction of a line connecting your starting point to your final position? (If you represent the two legs of the walk as vector displacements **A** and **B**, as in [Figure 3.55](#), then this problem asks you to find their sum $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$.)

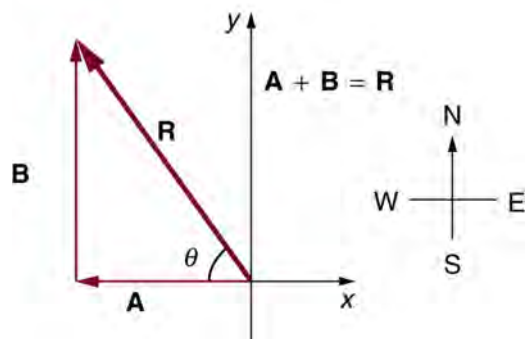


FIGURE 3.55 The two displacements **A** and **B** add to give a total displacement **R** having magnitude *R* and direction θ .

Note that you can also solve this graphically. Discuss why the analytical technique for solving this problem is potentially more accurate than the graphical technique.

17. Repeat [Exercise 3.16](#) using analytical techniques, but reverse the order of the two legs of the walk and show that you get the same final result. (This problem shows that adding them in reverse order gives the same result—that is, $\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$.) Discuss how taking another path to reach the same point might help to overcome an obstacle blocking your other path.
18. You drive 7.50 km in a straight line in a direction 15° east of north. (a) Find the distances you would have to drive straight east and then straight north to arrive at the same point. (This determination is equivalent to find the components of the displacement along the east and north directions.) (b) Show that you still arrive at the same point if the east and north legs are reversed in order.
19. Do [Exercise 3.16](#) again using analytical techniques and change the second leg of the walk to 25.0 m straight south. (This is equivalent to subtracting **B** from **A**—that is, finding $\mathbf{R}' = \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$) (b) Repeat again, but now you first walk 25.0 m north and then 18.0 m east. (This is equivalent to subtract **A** from **B**—that is, to find $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}$. Is that consistent with your result?)
20. A new landowner has a triangular piece of flat land she wishes to fence. Starting at the west corner, she measures the first side to be 80.0 m long and the next to be 105 m. These sides are represented as displacement vectors **A** from **B** in [Figure 3.56](#). She then correctly calculates the length and orientation of the third side **C**. What is her result?

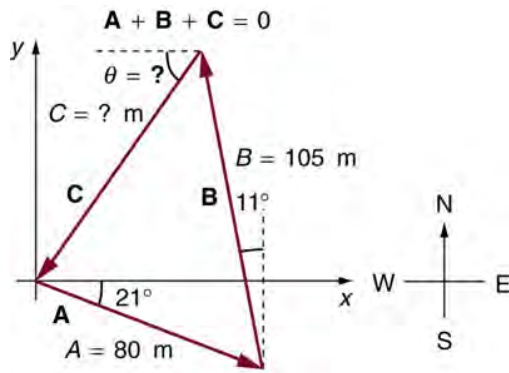


FIGURE 3.56

21. You fly 32.0 km in a straight line in still air in the direction 35.0° south of west. (a) Find the distances you would have to fly straight south and then straight west to arrive at the same point. (This determination is equivalent to finding the components of the displacement along the south and west directions.) (b) Find the distances you would have to fly first in a direction 45.0° south of west and then in a direction 45.0° west of north. These are the components of the displacement along a different set of axes—one rotated 45° .
22. A farmer wants to fence off a four-sided plot of flat land. They measure the first three sides, shown as **A**, **B**, and **C** in Figure 3.57, and then correctly calculate the length and orientation of the fourth side **D**. What is their result?

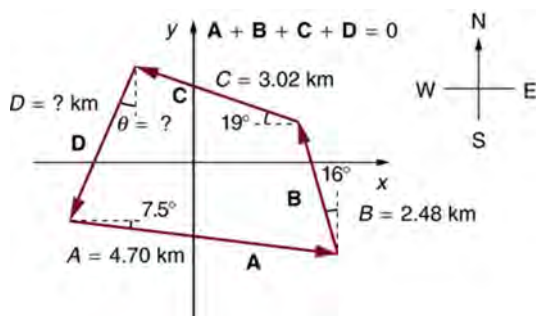


FIGURE 3.57

23. In an attempt to escape his island, Gilligan builds a raft and sets to sea. The wind shifts a great deal during the day, and he is blown along the following straight lines: 2.50 km 45.0° north of west; then 4.70 km 60.0° south of east; then 1.30 km 25.0° south of west; then 5.10 km straight east; then 1.70 km 5.00° east of north; then 7.20 km 55.0° south of west; and finally 2.80 km 10.0° north of east. What is his final position relative to the island?

24. Suppose a pilot flies 40.0 km in a direction 60° north of east and then flies 30.0 km in a direction 15° north of east as shown in Figure 3.58. Find her total distance R from the starting point and the direction θ of the straight-line path to the final position. Discuss qualitatively how this flight would be altered by a wind from the north and how the effect of the wind would depend on both wind speed and the speed of the plane relative to the air mass.

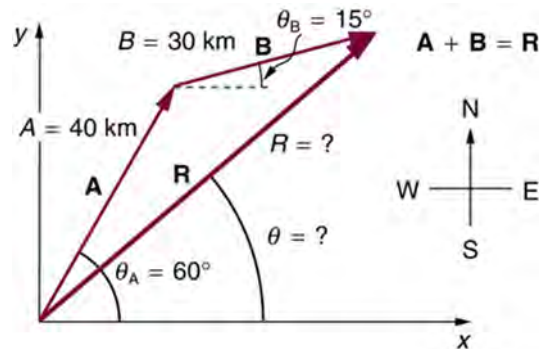


FIGURE 3.58

3.4 Projectile Motion

25. A projectile is launched at ground level with an initial speed of 50.0 m/s at an angle of 30.0° above the horizontal. It strikes a target above the ground 3.00 seconds later. What are the x and y distances from where the projectile was launched to where it lands?
26. A ball is kicked with an initial velocity of 16 m/s in the horizontal direction and 12 m/s in the vertical direction. (a) At what speed does the ball hit the ground? (b) For how long does the ball remain in the air? (c) What maximum height is attained by the ball?
27. A ball is thrown horizontally from the top of a 60.0-m building and lands 100.0 m from the base of the building. Ignore air resistance. (a) How long is the ball in the air? (b) What must have been the initial horizontal component of the velocity? (c) What is the vertical component of the velocity just before the ball hits the ground? (d) What is the velocity (including both the horizontal and vertical components) of the ball just before it hits the ground?
28. (a) A daredevil is attempting to jump his motorcycle over a line of buses parked end to end by driving up a 32° ramp at a speed of 40.0 m/s (144 km/h). How many buses can he clear if the top of the takeoff ramp is at the same

- height as the bus tops and the buses are 20.0 m long? (b) Discuss what your answer implies about the margin of error in this act—that is, consider how much greater the range is than the horizontal distance he must travel to miss the end of the last bus. (Neglect air resistance.)
29. An archer shoots an arrow at a 75.0 m distant target; the bull's-eye of the target is at same height as the release height of the arrow. (a) At what angle must the arrow be released to hit the bull's-eye if its initial speed is 35.0 m/s? In this part of the problem, explicitly show how you follow the steps involved in solving projectile motion problems. (b) There is a large tree halfway between the archer and the target with an overhanging horizontal branch 3.50 m above the release height of the arrow. Will the arrow go over or under the branch?
 30. A rugby player passes the ball 7.00 m across the field, where it is caught at the same height as it left his hand. (a) At what angle was the ball thrown if its initial speed was 12.0 m/s, assuming that the smaller of the two possible angles was used? (b) What other angle gives the same range, and why would it not be used? (c) How long did this pass take?
 31. Verify the ranges for the projectiles in [Figure 3.38\(a\)](#) for $\theta = 45^\circ$ and the given initial velocities.
 32. Verify the ranges shown for the projectiles in [Figure 3.38\(b\)](#) for an initial velocity of 50 m/s at the given initial angles.
 33. The cannon on a battleship can fire a shell a maximum distance of 32.0 km. (a) Calculate the initial velocity of the shell. (b) What maximum height does it reach? (At its highest, the shell is above 60% of the atmosphere—but air resistance is not really negligible as assumed to make this problem easier.) (c) The ocean is not flat, because the Earth is curved. Assume that the radius of the Earth is 6.37×10^3 km. How many meters lower will its surface be 32.0 km from the ship along a horizontal line parallel to the surface at the ship? Does your answer imply that error introduced by the assumption of a flat Earth in projectile motion is significant here?
 34. An arrow is shot from a height of 1.5 m toward a cliff of height H . It is shot with a velocity of 30 m/s at an angle of 60° above the horizontal. It lands on the top edge of the cliff 4.0 s later. (a) What is the height of the cliff? (b) What is the maximum height reached by the arrow along its trajectory? (c) What is the arrow's impact speed just before hitting the cliff?
 35. In the standing broad jump, one squats and then pushes off with the legs to see how far one can jump. Suppose the extension of the legs from the crouch position is 0.600 m and the acceleration achieved from this position is 1.25 times the acceleration due to gravity, g . How far can they jump? State your assumptions. (Increased range can be achieved by swinging the arms in the direction of the jump.)
 36. The world long jump record is 8.95 m (Mike Powell, USA, 1991). Treated as a projectile, what is the maximum range obtainable by a person if he has a take-off speed of 9.5 m/s? State your assumptions.
 37. Serving at a speed of 170 km/h, a tennis player hits the ball at a height of 2.5 m and an angle θ below the horizontal. The base line is 11.9 m from the net, which is 0.91 m high. What is the angle θ such that the ball just crosses the net? Will the ball land in the service box, whose service line is 6.40 m from the net?
 38. A football quarterback is moving straight backward at a speed of 2.00 m/s when he throws a pass to a player 18.0 m straight downfield. (a) If the ball is thrown at an angle of 25° relative to the ground and is caught at the same height as it is released, what is its initial speed relative to the ground? (b) How long does it take to get to the receiver? (c) What is its maximum height above its point of release?
 39. Gun sights are adjusted to aim high to compensate for the effect of gravity, effectively making the gun accurate only for a specific range. (a) If a gun is sighted to hit targets that are at the same height as the gun and 100.0 m away, how low will the bullet hit if aimed directly at a target 150.0 m away? The muzzle velocity of the bullet is 275 m/s. (b) Discuss qualitatively how a larger muzzle velocity would affect this problem and what would be the effect of air resistance.
 40. An eagle is flying horizontally at a speed of 3.00 m/s when the fish in her talons wiggles loose and falls into the lake 5.00 m below. Calculate the velocity of the fish relative to the water when it hits the water.
 41. An owl is carrying a mouse to the chicks in its nest. Its position at that time is 4.00 m west and

- 12.0 m above the center of the 30.0 cm diameter nest. The owl is flying east at 3.50 m/s at an angle 30.0° below the horizontal when it accidentally drops the mouse. Is the owl lucky enough to have the mouse hit the nest? To answer this question, calculate the horizontal position of the mouse when it has fallen 12.0 m.
- 42.** Suppose a soccer player kicks the ball from a distance 30 m toward the goal. Find the initial speed of the ball if it just passes over the goal, 2.4 m above the ground, given the initial direction to be 40° above the horizontal.
- 43.** Can a goalkeeper at her/ his goal kick a soccer ball into the opponent's goal without the ball touching the ground? The distance will be about 95 m. A goalkeeper can give the ball a speed of 30 m/s.
- 44.** The free throw line in basketball is 4.57 m (15 ft) from the basket, which is 3.05 m (10 ft) above the floor. A player standing on the free throw line throws the ball with an initial speed of 8.15 m/s, releasing it at a height of 2.44 m (8 ft) above the floor. At what angle above the horizontal must the ball be thrown to exactly hit the basket? Note that most players will use a large initial angle rather than a flat shot because it allows for a larger margin of error. Explicitly show how you follow the steps involved in solving projectile motion problems.
- 45.** In 2007, Michael Carter (U.S.) set a world record in the shot put with a throw of 24.77 m. What was the initial speed of the shot if he released it at a height of 2.10 m and threw it at an angle of 38.0° above the horizontal? (Although the maximum distance for a projectile on level ground is achieved at 45° when air resistance is neglected, the actual angle to achieve maximum range is smaller; thus, 38° will give a longer range than 45° in the shot put.)
- 46.** A basketball player is running at 5.00 m/s directly toward the basket when he jumps into the air to dunk the ball. He maintains his horizontal velocity. (a) What vertical velocity does he need to rise 0.750 m above the floor? (b) How far from the basket (measured in the horizontal direction) must he start his jump to reach his maximum height at the same time as he reaches the basket?
- 47.** A football player punts the ball at a 45.0° angle. Without an effect from the wind, the ball would travel 60.0 m horizontally. (a) What is the initial speed of the ball? (b) When the ball is near its maximum height it experiences a brief gust of wind that reduces its horizontal velocity by 1.50 m/s. What distance does the ball travel horizontally?
- 48.** Prove that the trajectory of a projectile is parabolic, having the form $y = ax + bx^2$. To obtain this expression, solve the equation $x = v_{0x}t$ for t and substitute it into the expression for $y = v_{0y}t - (1/2)gt^2$ (These equations describe the x and y positions of a projectile that starts at the origin.) You should obtain an equation of the form $y = ax + bx^2$ where a and b are constants.
- 49.** Derive $R = \frac{v_0^2 \sin 2\theta_0}{g}$ for the range of a projectile on level ground by finding the time t at which y becomes zero and substituting this value of t into the expression for $x - x_0$, noting that $R = x - x_0$.
- 50.** Unreasonable Results (a) Find the maximum range of a super cannon that has a muzzle velocity of 4.0 km/s. (b) What is unreasonable about the range you found? (c) Is the premise unreasonable or is the available equation inapplicable? Explain your answer. (d) If such a muzzle velocity could be obtained, discuss the effects of air resistance, thinning air with altitude, and the curvature of the Earth on the range of the super cannon.
- 51.** Construct Your Own Problem Consider a ball tossed over a fence. Construct a problem in which you calculate the ball's needed initial velocity to just clear the fence. Among the things to determine are; the height of the fence, the distance to the fence from the point of release of the ball, and the height at which the ball is released. You should also consider whether it is possible to choose the initial speed for the ball and just calculate the angle at which it is thrown. Also examine the possibility of multiple solutions given the distances and heights you have chosen.

3.5 Addition of Velocities

- 52.** Bryan Allen pedaled a human-powered aircraft across the English Channel from the cliffs of Dover to Cap Gris-Nez on June 12, 1979. (a) He flew for 169 min at an average velocity of 3.53 m/s in a direction 45° south of east. What was his total displacement? (b) Allen encountered a headwind averaging 2.00 m/s almost precisely in the opposite direction of his motion relative to the Earth. What was his average velocity relative to the air? (c) What was his total displacement relative to the air mass?

- 53.** A seagull flies at a velocity of 9.00 m/s straight into the wind. (a) If it takes the bird 20.0 min to travel 6.00 km relative to the Earth, what is the velocity of the wind? (b) If the bird turns around and flies with the wind, how long will he take to return 6.00 km? (c) Discuss how the wind affects the total round-trip time compared to what it would be with no wind.
- 54.** Near the end of a marathon race, the first two runners are separated by a distance of 45.0 m. The front runner has a velocity of 3.50 m/s, and the second a velocity of 4.20 m/s. (a) What is the velocity of the second runner relative to the first? (b) If the front runner is 250 m from the finish line, who will win the race, assuming they run at constant velocity? (c) What distance ahead will the winner be when she crosses the finish line?
- 55.** Verify that the coin dropped by the airline passenger in the [Example 3.8](#) travels 144 m horizontally while falling 1.50 m in the frame of reference of the Earth.
- 56.** A football quarterback is moving straight backward at a speed of 2.00 m/s when he throws a pass to a player 18.0 m straight downfield. The ball is thrown at an angle of 25.0° relative to the ground and is caught at the same height as it is released. What is the initial velocity of the ball *relative to the quarterback*?
- 57.** A ship sets sail from Rotterdam, The Netherlands, heading due north at 7.00 m/s relative to the water. The local ocean current is 1.50 m/s in a direction 40.0° north of east. What is the velocity of the ship relative to the Earth?
- 58.** (a) A jet airplane flying from Darwin, Australia, has an air speed of 260 m/s in a direction 5.0° south of west. It is in the jet stream, which is blowing at 35.0 m/s in a direction 15° south of east. What is the velocity of the airplane relative to the Earth? (b) Discuss whether your answers are consistent with your expectations for the effect of the wind on the plane's path.
- 59.** (a) In what direction would the ship in [Exercise 3.57](#) have to travel in order to have a velocity straight north relative to the Earth, assuming its speed relative to the water remains 7.00 m/s? (b) What would its speed be relative to the Earth?
- 60.** (a) Another airplane is flying in a jet stream that is blowing at 45.0 m/s in a direction 20° south of east (as in [Exercise 3.58](#)). Its direction of motion relative to the Earth is 45.0° south of west, while its direction of travel relative to the air is 5.00° south of west. What is the airplane's speed relative to the air mass? (b) What is the airplane's speed relative to the Earth?
- 61.** A sandal is dropped from the top of a 15.0-m-high mast on a ship moving at 1.75 m/s due south. Calculate the velocity of the sandal when it hits the deck of the ship: (a) relative to the ship and (b) relative to a stationary observer on shore. (c) Discuss how the answers give a consistent result for the position at which the sandal hits the deck.
- 62.** The velocity of the wind relative to the water is crucial to sailboats. Suppose a sailboat is in an ocean current that has a velocity of 2.20 m/s in a direction 30.0° east of north relative to the Earth. It encounters a wind that has a velocity of 4.50 m/s in a direction of 50.0° south of west relative to the Earth. What is the velocity of the wind relative to the water?
- 63.** The great astronomer Edwin Hubble discovered that all distant galaxies are receding from our Milky Way Galaxy with velocities proportional to their distances. It appears to an observer on the Earth that we are at the center of an expanding universe. [Figure 3.59](#) illustrates this for five galaxies lying along a straight line, with the Milky Way Galaxy at the center. Using the data from the figure, calculate the velocities: (a) relative to galaxy 2 and (b) relative to galaxy 5. The results mean that observers on all galaxies will see themselves at the center of the expanding universe, and they would likely be aware of relative velocities, concluding that it is not possible to locate the center of expansion with the given information.



FIGURE 3.59 Five galaxies on a straight line, showing their distances and velocities relative to the Milky Way (MW) Galaxy. The distances are in millions of light years (Mly), where a light year is the distance light travels in one year. The velocities are nearly proportional to the distances. The sizes of the galaxies are greatly exaggerated; an average galaxy is about 0.1 Mly across.

- 64.** (a) Use the distance and velocity data in [Figure 3.59](#) to find the rate of expansion as a function of distance. (b) If you extrapolate back in time, how long ago would all of the galaxies have been at approximately the same position? The two parts of

this problem give you some idea of how the Hubble constant for universal expansion and the time back to the Big Bang are determined, respectively.

- 65.** An athlete crosses a 25-m-wide river by swimming perpendicular to the water current at a speed of 0.5 m/s relative to the water. They reach the opposite side at a distance 40 m downstream from the starting point. How fast is the water in the river flowing with respect to the ground? What is the speed of the swimmer with respect to a friend at rest on the ground?
- 66.** A ship sailing in the Gulf Stream is heading 25.0° west of north at a speed of 4.00 m/s relative to the water. Its velocity relative to the Earth is 4.80 m/s 5.00° west of north. What is the velocity of the Gulf Stream? (The velocity obtained is typical for the Gulf Stream a few hundred kilometers off the east coast of the United States.)
- 67.** An ice hockey player is moving at 8.00 m/s when they hit the puck toward the goal. The speed of the puck relative to the player is 29.0 m/s. The line between the center of the goal and the player makes a 90.0° angle relative to their path as shown in Figure 3.60. What angle must the puck's velocity make relative to the player (in their frame of reference) to hit the center of the goal?

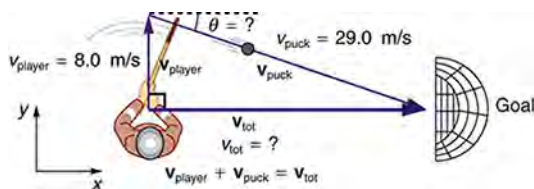


FIGURE 3.60 An ice hockey player moving across the rink must shoot backward to give the puck a velocity toward the goal.

- 68.** Unreasonable Results Suppose you wish to shoot supplies straight up to astronauts in an orbit 36,000 km above the surface of the Earth. (a) At what velocity must the supplies be launched? (b) What is unreasonable about this velocity? (c) Is there a problem with the relative velocity between the supplies and the astronauts when the supplies

reach their maximum height? (d) Is the premise unreasonable or is the available equation inapplicable? Explain your answer.

- 69.** Unreasonable Results A commercial airplane has an air speed of 280 m/s due east and flies with a strong tailwind. It travels 3000 km in a direction 5° south of east in 1.50 h. (a) What was the velocity of the plane relative to the ground? (b) Calculate the magnitude and direction of the tailwind's velocity. (c) What is unreasonable about both of these velocities? (d) Which premise is unreasonable?
- 70.** Construct Your Own Problem Consider an airplane headed for a runway in a cross wind. Construct a problem in which you calculate the angle the airplane must fly relative to the air mass in order to have a velocity parallel to the runway. Among the things to consider are the direction of the runway, the wind speed and direction (its velocity) and the speed of the plane relative to the air mass. Also calculate the speed of the airplane relative to the ground. Discuss any last minute maneuvers the pilot might have to perform in order for the plane to land with its wheels pointing straight down the runway.
- 71.** Critical Thinking Two identical spring-loaded launchers are fixed to the end of a table. Launcher A is inclined 40° above the horizontal and launcher B is inclined 50° above the horizontal. (a) Which of these launchers will fire the ball the greatest vertical height above the launcher before it crashes into the ground? (b) Based on experimental data, an equation that fits the data is suggested for the vertical height above the launcher, y , which may not be correct: $y = KV_0^2 \sin \theta$, where K is a constant with appropriate units, V_0 is the initial velocity of the launcher, and θ is the angle relative to the x -axis of the launcher. Is this equation consistent with your answer from part a? Explain why or why not. Does this equation make sense? Explain why or why not. (c) Graph the magnitude of the velocity vs. vertical height for both launcher A and B.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

3.1 Kinematics in Two Dimensions: An Introduction

- 1.** A ball is thrown at an angle of 45 degrees above the horizontal. Which of the following best describes the acceleration of the ball from the instant after it

leaves the thrower's hand until the time it hits the ground?

- Always in the same direction as the motion, initially positive and gradually dropping to zero by the time it hits the ground
- Initially positive in the upward direction, then

- zero at maximum height, then negative from there until it hits the ground
- Always in the opposite direction as the motion, initially positive and gradually dropping to zero by the time it hits the ground
 - Always in the downward direction with the same constant value
- In an experiment, a student launches a ball with an initial horizontal velocity at an elevation 2 meters above ground. The ball follows a parabolic trajectory until it hits the ground. Which of the following accurately describes the graph of the ball's vertical acceleration versus time (taking the downward direction to be negative)?
 - A negative value that does not change with time
 - A gradually increasing negative value (straight line)
 - An increasing rate of negative values over time (parabolic curve)
 - Zero at all times since the initial motion is horizontal
 - A student wishes to design an experiment to show that the acceleration of an object is independent of the object's velocity. To do this, ball A is launched horizontally with some initial speed at an elevation 1.5 meters above the ground, ball B is dropped from rest 1.5 meters above the ground, and ball C is launched vertically with some initial speed at an elevation 1.5 meters above the ground. What information would the student need to collect about each ball in order to test the hypothesis?

3.2 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods

- A ball is launched vertically upward. The vertical position of the ball is recorded at various points in time in the table shown.

Height (m)	Time (sec)
0.490	0.1
0.882	0.2
1.176	0.3
1.372	0.4

TABLE 3.1

Height (m)	Time (sec)
1.470	0.5
1.470	0.6
1.372	0.7

TABLE 3.1

Which of the following correctly describes the graph of the ball's vertical velocity versus time?

- Always positive, steadily decreasing
- Always positive, constant
- Initially positive, steadily decreasing, becoming negative at the end
- Initially zero, steadily getting more and more negative

5.

Height (m)	Time (sec)
0.490	0.1
0.882	0.2
1.176	0.3
1.372	0.4
1.470	0.5
1.470	0.6
1.372	0.7

TABLE 3.2

A ball is launched at an angle of 60 degrees above the horizontal, and the vertical position of the ball is recorded at various points in time in the table shown, assuming the ball was at a height of 0 at time $t = 0$.

- Draw a graph of the ball's vertical velocity versus time.
- Describe the graph of the ball's horizontal velocity.
- Draw a graph of the ball's vertical acceleration versus time.

3.4 Projectile Motion

- In an experiment, a student launches a ball with an initial horizontal velocity of 5.00 meters/sec at an elevation 2.00 meters above ground. Draw and

clearly label with appropriate values and units a graph of the ball's horizontal velocity vs. time and the ball's vertical velocity vs. time. The graph should cover the motion from the instant after the

ball is launched until the instant before it hits the ground. Assume the downward direction is negative for this problem.

CHAPTER 4

Dynamics: Force and Newton's Laws of Motion



FIGURE 4.1 Newton's laws of motion describe the motion of the dolphin's path. (credit: Jin Jang)

CHAPTER OUTLINE

- 4.1 Development of Force Concept
- 4.2 Newton's First Law of Motion: Inertia
- 4.3 Newton's Second Law of Motion: Concept of a System
- 4.4 Newton's Third Law of Motion: Symmetry in Forces
- 4.5 Normal, Tension, and Other Examples of Forces
- 4.6 Problem-Solving Strategies
- 4.7 Further Applications of Newton's Laws of Motion
- 4.8 Extended Topic: The Four Basic Forces—An Introduction

CONNECTION FOR AP® COURSES Motion draws our attention. Motion itself can be beautiful, causing us to marvel at the forces needed to achieve spectacular motion, such as that of a jumping dolphin, a leaping pole vaulter, a bird in flight, or an orbiting satellite. The study of motion is kinematics, but kinematics only *describes* the way objects move—their velocity and their acceleration. **Dynamics** considers the forces that affect the motion of moving objects and systems. Newton's laws of motion are the foundation of dynamics. These laws provide an example of the breadth and simplicity of principles under which nature functions. They are also universal laws in that they apply to situations on Earth as well as in space.

Isaac Newton's (1642–1727) laws of motion were just one part of the monumental work that has made him legendary. The development of Newton's laws marks the transition from the Renaissance into the modern era. This transition was characterized by a revolutionary change in the way people thought about the physical universe. For many centuries natural philosophers had debated the nature of the universe based largely on certain rules of logic, with great weight given to the thoughts of earlier classical philosophers such as Aristotle (384–322 BC). Among the many great thinkers who contributed to this change were Newton and Galileo Galilei (1564–1647).

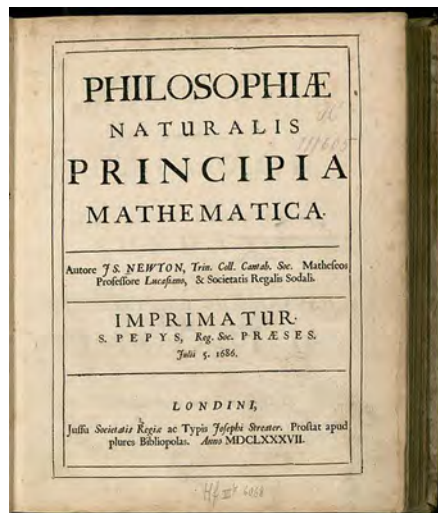


FIGURE 4.2 Isaac Newton's monumental work, *Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica*, was published in 1687. It proposed scientific laws that are still used today to describe the motion of objects. (credit: Service commun de la documentation de l'Université de Strasbourg)

Galileo was instrumental in establishing *observation* as the absolute determinant of truth, rather than “logical” argument. Galileo's use of the telescope was his most notable achievement in demonstrating the importance of observation. He discovered moons orbiting Jupiter and made other observations that were inconsistent with certain ancient ideas and religious dogma. For this reason, and because of the manner in which he dealt with those in authority, Galileo was tried by the Inquisition and punished. He spent the final years of his life under a form of house arrest. Because others before Galileo had also made discoveries by *observing* the nature of the universe and because repeated observations verified those of Galileo, his work could not be suppressed or denied. After his death, his work was verified by others, and his ideas were eventually accepted by the church and scientific communities.

Galileo also contributed to the formulation of what is now called Newton's first law of motion. Newton made use of the work of his predecessors, which enabled him to develop laws of motion, discover the law of gravity, invent calculus, and make great contributions to the theories of light and color. It is amazing that many of these developments were made by Newton working alone, without the benefit of the usual interactions that take place among scientists today.

Newton's laws are introduced along with Big Idea 3, that interactions can be described by forces. These laws provide a theoretical basis for studying motion depending on interactions between the objects. In particular, Newton's laws are applicable to all forces in inertial frames of references (Enduring Understanding 3.A). We will find that all forces are vectors; that is, forces always have both a magnitude and a direction (Essential Knowledge 3.A.2). Furthermore, we will learn that all forces are a result of interactions between two or more objects (Essential Knowledge 3.A.3). These interactions between any two objects are described by Newton's third law, stating that the forces exerted on these objects are equal in magnitude and opposite in direction to each other (Essential Knowledge 3.A.4).

We will discover that there is an empirical cause-effect relationship between the net force exerted on an object of mass m and its acceleration, with this relationship described by Newton's second law (Enduring Understanding 3.B). This supports Big Idea 1, that inertial mass is a property of an object or a system. The mass of an object or a system is one of the factors affecting changes in motion when an object or a system interacts with other objects or systems (Essential Knowledge 1.C.1). Another is the net force on an object, which is the vector sum of all the forces exerted on the object (Essential Knowledge 3.B.1). To analyze this, we use free-body diagrams to visualize the forces

exerted on a given object in order to find the net force and analyze the object's motion (Essential Knowledge 3.B.2).

Thinking of these objects as systems is a concept introduced in this chapter, where a system is a collection of elements that could be considered as a single object without any internal structure (Essential Knowledge 5.A.1). This will support Big Idea 5, that changes that occur to the system due to interactions are governed by conservation laws. These conservation laws will be the focus of later chapters in this book. They explain whether quantities are conserved in the given system or change due to transfer to or from another system due to interactions between the systems (Enduring Understanding 5.A).

Furthermore, when a situation involves more than one object, it is important to define the system and analyze the motion of a whole system, not its elements, based on analysis of external forces on the system. This supports Big Idea 4, that interactions between systems cause changes in those systems. All kinematics variables in this case describe the motion of the center of mass of the system (Essential Knowledge 4.A.1, Essential Knowledge 4.A.2). The internal forces between the elements of the system do not affect the velocity of the center of mass (Essential Knowledge 4.A.3). The velocity of the center of mass will change only if there is a net external force exerted on the system (Enduring Understanding 4.A).

We will learn that some of these interactions can be explained by the existence of fields extending through space, supporting Big Idea 2. For example, any object that has mass creates a gravitational field in space (Enduring Understanding 2.B). Any material object (one that has mass) placed in the gravitational field will experience gravitational force (Essential Knowledge 2.B.1).

Forces may be categorized as contact or long-distance (Enduring Understanding 3.C). In this chapter we will work with both. An example of a long-distance force is gravitation (Essential Knowledge 3.C.1). Contact forces, such as tension, friction, normal force, and the force of a spring, result from interatomic electric forces at the microscopic level (Essential Knowledge 3.C.4).

It was not until the advent of modern physics early in the twentieth century that it was discovered that Newton's laws of motion produce a good approximation to motion only when the objects are moving at speeds much, much less than the speed of light and when those objects are larger than the size of most molecules (about 10^{-9} m in diameter). These constraints define the realm of classical mechanics, as discussed in [Introduction to the Nature of Science and Physics](#). At the beginning of the twentieth century, Albert Einstein (1879–1955) developed the theory of relativity and, along with many other scientists, quantum theory. Quantum theory does not have the constraints present in classical physics. All of the situations we consider in this chapter, and all those preceding the introduction of relativity in **Special Relativity**, are in the realm of classical physics.

The development of special relativity and empirical observations at atomic scales led to the idea that there are four basic forces that account for all known phenomena. These forces are called fundamental (Enduring Understanding 3.G). The properties of gravitational (Essential Knowledge 3.G.1) and electromagnetic (Essential Knowledge 3.G.2) forces are explained in more detail.

Big Idea 1 Objects and systems have properties such as mass and charge. Systems may have internal structure.

Essential Knowledge 1.C.1 Inertial mass is the property of an object or a system that determines how its motion changes when it interacts with other objects or systems.

Big Idea 2 Fields existing in space can be used to explain interactions.

Enduring Understanding 2.A A field associates a value of some physical quantity with every point in space. Field models are useful for describing interactions that occur at a distance (long-range forces) as well as a variety of other physical phenomena.

Essential Knowledge 2.A.1 A vector field gives, as a function of position (and perhaps time), the value of a physical quantity that is described by a vector.

Essential Knowledge 2.A.2 A scalar field gives the value of a physical quantity.

Enduring Understanding 2.B A gravitational field is caused by an object with mass.

Essential Knowledge 2.B.1 A gravitational field g at the location of an object with mass m causes a gravitational

force of magnitude mg to be exerted on the object in the direction of the field.

Big Idea 3 The interactions of an object with other objects can be described by forces.

Enduring Understanding 3.A All forces share certain common characteristics when considered by observers in inertial reference frames.

Essential Knowledge 3.A.2 Forces are described by vectors.

Essential Knowledge 3.A.3 A force exerted on an object is always due to the interaction of that object with another object.

Essential Knowledge 3.A.4 If one object exerts a force on a second object, the second object always exerts a force of equal magnitude on the first object in the opposite direction.

Enduring Understanding 3.B Classically, the acceleration of an object interacting with other objects can be predicted by using $a = \sum F/m$.

Essential Knowledge 3.B.1 If an object of interest interacts with several other objects, the net force is the vector sum of the individual forces.

Essential Knowledge 3.B.2 Free-body diagrams are useful tools for visualizing the forces being exerted on a single object and writing the equations that represent a physical situation.

Enduring Understanding 3.C At the macroscopic level, forces can be categorized as either long-range (action-at-a-distance) forces or contact forces.

Essential Knowledge 3.C.1 Gravitational force describes the interaction of one object that has mass with another object that has mass.

Essential Knowledge 3.C.4 Contact forces result from the interaction of one object touching another object, and they arise from interatomic electric forces. These forces include tension, friction, normal, spring (Physics 1), and buoyant (Physics 2).

Enduring Understanding 3.G Certain types of forces are considered fundamental.

Essential Knowledge 3.G.1 Gravitational forces are exerted at all scales and dominate at the largest distance and mass scales.

Essential Knowledge 3.G.2 Electromagnetic forces are exerted at all scales and can dominate at the human scale.

Big Idea 4 Interactions between systems can result in changes in those systems.

Enduring Understanding 4.A The acceleration of the center of mass of a system is related to the net force exerted on the system, where $a = \sum F/m$.

Essential Knowledge 4.A.1 The linear motion of a system can be described by the displacement, velocity, and acceleration of its center of mass.

Essential Knowledge 4.A.2 The acceleration is equal to the rate of change of velocity with time, and velocity is equal to the rate of change of position with time.

Essential Knowledge 4.A.3 Forces that systems exert on each other are due to interactions between objects in the systems. If the interacting objects are parts of the same system, there will be no change in the center-of-mass velocity of that system.

Big Idea 5 Changes that occur as a result of interactions are constrained by conservation laws.

Enduring Understanding 5.A Certain quantities are conserved, in the sense that the changes of those quantities in a given system are always equal to the transfer of that quantity to or from the system by all possible interactions with other systems.

Essential Knowledge 5.A.1 A system is an object or a collection of objects. The objects are treated as having no internal structure.

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4.1 Development of Force Concept

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Understand the definition of force.

Dynamics is the study of the forces that cause objects and systems to move. To understand this, we need a working definition of force. Our intuitive definition of **force**—that is, a push or a pull—is a good place to start. We know that a push or pull has both magnitude and direction (therefore, it is a vector quantity) and can vary considerably in each regard. For example, a cannon exerts a strong force on a cannonball that is launched into the air. In contrast, Earth exerts only a tiny downward pull on a flea. Our everyday experiences also give us a good idea of how multiple forces add. If two people push in different directions on a third person, as illustrated in [Figure 4.3](#), we might expect the total force to be in the direction shown. Since force is a vector, it adds just like other vectors, as illustrated in [Figure 4.3\(a\)](#) for two ice skaters. Forces, like other vectors, are represented by arrows and can be added using the familiar head-to-tail method or by trigonometric methods. These ideas were developed in [Two-Dimensional Kinematics](#).

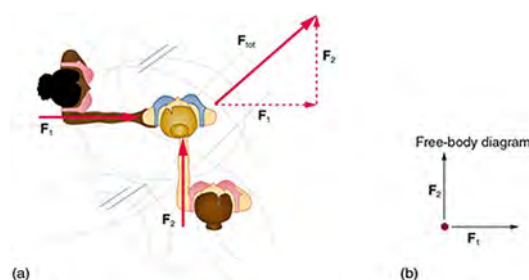


FIGURE 4.3 Part (a) shows an overhead view of two ice skaters pushing on a third. Forces are vectors and add like other vectors, so the total force on the third skater is in the direction shown. In part (b), we see a free-body diagram representing the forces acting on the third skater.

[Figure 4.3\(b\)](#) is our first example of a **free-body diagram**, which is a technique used to illustrate all the **external forces** acting on a body. The body is represented by a single isolated point (or free body), and only those forces acting *on* the body from the outside (external forces) are shown. (These forces are the only ones shown, because only external forces acting on the body affect its motion. We can ignore any internal forces within the body.) Free-body diagrams are very useful in analyzing forces acting on a system and are employed extensively in the study and application of Newton's laws of motion.

A more quantitative definition of force can be based on some standard force, just as distance is measured in units relative to a standard distance. One possibility is to stretch a spring a certain fixed distance, as illustrated in [Figure 4.4](#), and use the force it exerts to pull itself back to its relaxed shape—called a *restoring force*—as a standard. The magnitude of all other forces can be stated as multiples of this standard unit of force. Many other possibilities exist for standard forces. (One that we will encounter in [Magnetism](#) is the magnetic force between two wires carrying electric current.) Some alternative definitions of force will be given later in this chapter.

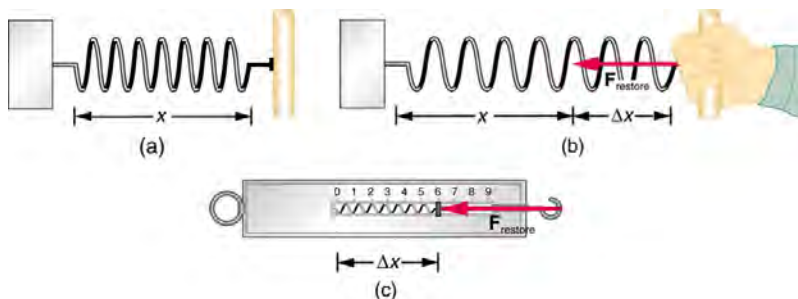


FIGURE 4.4 The force exerted by a stretched spring can be used as a standard unit of force. (a) This spring has a length x when undistorted. (b) When stretched a distance Δx , the spring exerts a restoring force, F_{restore} , which is reproducible. (c) A spring scale is one device that uses a spring to measure force. The force F_{restore} is exerted on whatever is attached to the hook. Here F_{restore} has a magnitude of 6 units in the force standard being employed.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT: FORCE STANDARDS

To investigate force standards and cause and effect, get two identical rubber bands. Hang one rubber band vertically on a hook. Find a small household item that could be attached to the rubber band using a paper clip, and use this item as a weight to investigate the stretch of the rubber band. Measure the amount of stretch produced in the rubber band with one, two, and four of these (identical) items suspended from the rubber band. What is the relationship between the number of items and the amount of stretch? How large a stretch would you expect for the same number of items suspended from two rubber bands? What happens to the amount of stretch of the rubber band (with the weights attached) if the weights are also pushed to the side with a pencil?

4.2 Newton's First Law of Motion: Inertia

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define mass and inertia.
- Understand Newton's first law of motion.

Experience suggests that an object at rest will remain at rest if left alone, and that an object in motion tends to slow down and stop unless some effort is made to keep it moving. What **Newton's first law of motion** states, however, is the following:

NEWTON'S FIRST LAW OF MOTION

A body at rest remains at rest, or, if in motion, remains in motion at a constant velocity unless acted on by a net external force.

Note the repeated use of the verb “remains.” We can think of this law as preserving the status quo of motion.

Rather than contradicting our experience, **Newton's first law of motion** states that there must be a *cause* (which is a net external force) *for there to be any change in velocity (either a change in magnitude or direction)*. We will define *net external force* in the next section. An object sliding across a table or floor slows down due to the net force of friction acting on the object. If friction disappeared, would the object still slow down?

The idea of cause and effect is crucial in accurately describing what happens in various situations. For example, consider what happens to an object sliding along a rough horizontal surface. The object quickly grinds to a halt. If we spray the surface with talcum powder to make the surface smoother, the object slides farther. If we make the surface even smoother by rubbing lubricating oil on it, the object slides farther yet. Extrapolating to a frictionless surface, we can imagine the object sliding in a straight line indefinitely. Friction is thus the *cause* of the slowing (consistent with Newton's first law). The object would not slow down at all if friction were completely eliminated. Consider an air hockey table. When the air is turned off, the puck slides only a short distance before friction slows it to a stop. However, when the air is turned on, it creates a nearly frictionless surface, and the puck glides long distances without slowing down. Additionally, if we know enough about the friction, we can accurately predict how quickly the object will slow down. Friction is an external force.

Newton's first law is completely general and can be applied to anything from an object sliding on a table to a satellite in orbit to blood pumped from the heart. Experiments have thoroughly verified that any change in velocity (speed or direction) must be caused by an external force. The idea of *generally applicable or universal laws* is important not only here—it is a basic feature of all laws of physics. Identifying these laws is like recognizing patterns in nature from which further patterns can be discovered. The genius of Galileo, who first developed the idea for the first law, and Newton, who clarified it, was to ask the fundamental question, “What is the cause?” Thinking in terms of cause and effect is a worldview fundamentally different from the typical ancient Greek approach when questions such as “Why does a tiger have stripes?” would have been answered in Aristotelian fashion, “That is the nature of the beast.” True perhaps, but not a useful insight.

Mass

The property of a body to remain at rest or to remain in motion with constant velocity is called **inertia**. Newton's first law is often called the **law of inertia**. As we know from experience, some objects have more inertia than others. It is obviously more difficult to change the motion of a large boulder than that of a basketball, for example. The inertia of an object is measured by its **mass**. Roughly speaking, mass is a measure of the amount of “stuff” (or matter) in something. The quantity or amount of matter in an object is determined by the numbers of atoms and molecules of various types it contains. Unlike weight, mass does not vary with location. The mass of an object is the same on Earth, in orbit, or on the surface of the Moon. In practice, it is very difficult to count and identify all of the atoms and molecules in an object, so masses are not often determined in this manner. Operationally, the masses of objects are determined by comparison with the standard kilogram.

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Which has more mass: a kilogram of cotton balls or a kilogram of gold?

Solution

They are equal. A kilogram of one substance is equal in mass to a kilogram of another substance. The quantities that might differ between them are volume and density.

4.3 Newton's Second Law of Motion: Concept of a System

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define net force, external force, and system.
- Understand Newton's second law of motion.
- Apply Newton's second law to determine the weight of an object.

Newton's second law of motion is closely related to Newton's first law of motion. It mathematically states the cause and effect relationship between force and changes in motion. Newton's second law of motion is more quantitative and is used extensively to calculate what happens in situations involving a force. Before we can write down Newton's second law as a simple equation giving the exact relationship of force, mass, and acceleration, we need to sharpen some ideas that have already been mentioned.

First, what do we mean by a change in motion? The answer is that a change in motion is equivalent to a change in velocity. A change in velocity means, by definition, that there is an **acceleration**. Newton's first law says that a net external force causes a change in motion; thus, we see that a *net external force causes acceleration*.

Another question immediately arises. What do we mean by an external force? An intuitive notion of external is correct—an **external force** acts from outside the **system** of interest. For example, in [Figure 4.5\(a\)](#) the system of interest is the wagon plus the child in it. The two forces exerted by the other children are external forces. An internal force acts between elements of the system. Again looking at [Figure 4.5\(a\)](#), the force the child in the wagon exerts to hang onto the wagon is an internal force between elements of the system of interest. Only external forces affect the motion of a system, according to Newton's first law. (The internal forces actually cancel, as we shall see in the next section.) *You must define the boundaries of the system before you can determine which forces are external.*

Sometimes the system is obvious, whereas other times identifying the boundaries of a system is more subtle. The concept of a system is fundamental to many areas of physics, as is the correct application of Newton's laws. This concept will be revisited many times on our journey through physics.

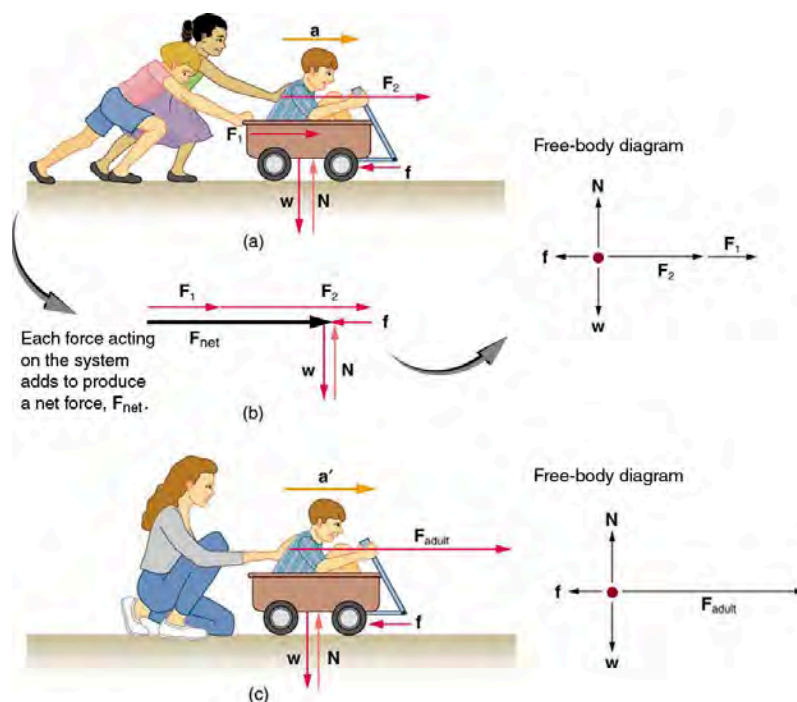


FIGURE 4.5 Different forces exerted on the same mass produce different accelerations. (a) Two children push a wagon with a child in it. Arrows representing all external forces are shown. The system of interest is the wagon and its rider. The weight w of the system and the support of the ground N are also shown for completeness and are assumed to cancel. The vector f represents the friction acting on the wagon, and it acts to the left, opposing the motion of the wagon. (b) All of the external forces acting on the system add together to produce a net force, F_{net} . The free-body diagram shows all of the forces acting on the system of interest. The dot represents the center of mass of the system. Each force vector extends from this dot. Because there are two forces acting to the right, we draw the vectors collinearly. (c) A larger net external force produces a larger acceleration ($a' > a$) when an adult pushes the child.

Now, it seems reasonable that acceleration should be directly proportional to and in the same direction as the net (total) external force acting on a system. This assumption has been verified experimentally and is illustrated in [Figure 4.5](#). In part (a), a smaller force causes a smaller acceleration than the larger force illustrated in part (c). For completeness, the vertical forces are also shown; they are assumed to cancel since there is no acceleration in the vertical direction. The vertical forces are the weight w and the support of the ground N , and the horizontal force f represents the force of friction. These will be discussed in more detail in later sections. For now, we will define **friction** as a force that opposes the motion past each other of objects that are touching. [Figure 4.5\(b\)](#) shows how vectors representing the external forces add together to produce a net force, F_{net} .

To obtain an equation for Newton's second law, we first write the relationship of acceleration and net external force as the proportionality

$$a \propto F_{net}, \quad 4.1$$

where the symbol $\propto$ means “proportional to,” and F_{net} is the **net external force**. (The net external force is the vector sum of all external forces and can be determined graphically, using the head-to-tail method, or analytically, using components. The techniques are the same as for the addition of other vectors, and are covered in [Two-Dimensional Kinematics](#).) This proportionality states what we have said in words—*acceleration is directly proportional to the net external force*. Once the system of interest is chosen, it is important to identify the external forces and ignore the internal ones. It is a tremendous simplification not to have to consider the numerous internal forces acting between objects within the system, such as muscular forces within the child's body, let alone the myriad of forces between atoms in the objects, but by doing so, we can easily solve some very complex problems with only minimal error due to our simplification.

Now, it also seems reasonable that acceleration should be inversely proportional to the mass of the system. In other words, the larger the mass (the inertia), the smaller the acceleration produced by a given force. And indeed, as illustrated in [Figure 4.6](#), the same net external force applied to a car produces a much smaller acceleration than when applied to a basketball. The proportionality is written as

$$\mathbf{a} \propto \frac{1}{m} \quad 4.2$$

where m is the mass of the system. Experiments have shown that acceleration is exactly inversely proportional to mass, just as it is exactly linearly proportional to the net external force.

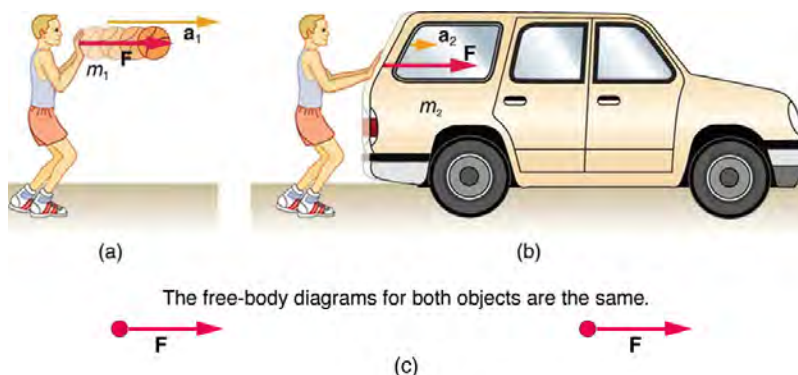


FIGURE 4.6 The same force exerted on systems of different masses produces different accelerations. (a) A basketball player pushes on a basketball to make a pass. (The effect of gravity on the ball is ignored.) (b) The same player exerts an identical force on a stalled SUV and produces a far smaller acceleration (even if friction is negligible). (c) The free-body diagrams are identical, permitting direct comparison of the two situations. A series of patterns for the free-body diagram will emerge as you do more problems.

It has been found that the acceleration of an object depends *only* on the net external force and the mass of the object. Combining the two proportionalities just given yields Newton's second law of motion.

NEWTON'S SECOND LAW OF MOTION

The acceleration of a system is directly proportional to and in the same direction as the net external force acting on the system, and inversely proportional to its mass.

In equation form, Newton's second law of motion is

$$\mathbf{a} = \frac{\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}}}{m}. \quad 4.3$$

This is often written in the more familiar form

$$\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = m\mathbf{a}. \quad 4.4$$

When only the magnitude of force and acceleration are considered, this equation is simply

$$F_{\text{net}} = ma. \quad 4.5$$

Although these last two equations are really the same, the first gives more insight into what Newton's second law means. The law is a *cause and effect relationship* among three quantities that is not simply based on their definitions. The validity of the second law is completely based on experimental verification.

Units of Force

$\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = m\mathbf{a}$ is used to define the units of force in terms of the three basic units for mass, length, and time. The SI unit of force is called the **newton** (abbreviated N) and is the force needed to accelerate a 1-kg system at the rate of 1 m/s^2 . That is, since $\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = m\mathbf{a}$,

$$1\text{ N} = 1\text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}^2. \quad 4.6$$

While almost the entire world uses the newton for the unit of force, in the United States the most familiar unit of force is the pound (lb), where $1\text{ N} = 0.225\text{ lb}$.

Weight and the Gravitational Force

When an object is dropped, it accelerates toward the center of Earth. Newton's second law states that a net force on an object is responsible for its acceleration. If air resistance is negligible, the net force on a falling object is the

gravitational force, commonly called its **weight w** . Weight can be denoted as a vector $\mathbf{w}$ because it has a direction; *down* is, by definition, the direction of gravity, and hence weight is a downward force. The magnitude of weight is denoted as w . Galileo was instrumental in showing that, in the absence of air resistance, all objects fall with the same acceleration g . Using Galileo's result and Newton's second law, we can derive an equation for weight.

Consider an object with mass m falling downward toward Earth. It experiences only the downward force of gravity, which has magnitude w . Newton's second law states that the magnitude of the net external force on an object is $F_{\text{net}} = ma$.

Since the object experiences only the downward force of gravity, $F_{\text{net}} = w$. We know that the acceleration of an object due to gravity is g , or $a = g$. Substituting these into Newton's second law gives

WEIGHT

This is the equation for *weight*—the gravitational force on a mass m :

$$w = mg. \quad 4.7$$

Since $g = 9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$ on Earth, the weight of a 1.0 kg object on Earth is 9.8 N, as we see:

$$w = mg = (1.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) = 9.8 \text{ N}. \quad 4.8$$

Recall that g can take a positive or negative value, depending on the positive direction in the coordinate system. Be sure to take this into consideration when solving problems with weight.

When the net external force on an object is its weight, we say that it is in **free-fall**. That is, the only force acting on the object is the force of gravity. In the real world, when objects fall downward toward Earth, they are never truly in free-fall because there is always some upward force from the air acting on the object.

The acceleration due to gravity g varies slightly over the surface of Earth, so that the weight of an object depends on location and is not an intrinsic property of the object. Weight varies dramatically if one leaves Earth's surface. On the Moon, for example, the acceleration due to gravity is only 1.625 m/s^2 . A 1.0-kg mass thus has a weight of 9.8 N on Earth and only about 1.7 N on the Moon.

The broadest definition of weight in this sense is that *the weight of an object is the gravitational force on it from the nearest large body*, such as Earth, the Moon, the Sun, and so on. This is the most common and useful definition of weight in physics. It differs dramatically, however, from the definition of weight used by NASA and the popular media in relation to space travel and exploration. When they speak of “weightlessness” and “microgravity,” they are really referring to the phenomenon we call “free-fall” in physics. We shall use the above definition of weight, and we will make careful distinctions between free-fall and actual weightlessness.

It is important to be aware that weight and mass are very different physical quantities, although they are closely related. Mass is the quantity of matter (how much “stuff”) and does not vary in classical physics, whereas weight is the gravitational force and does vary depending on gravity. It is tempting to equate the two, since most of our examples take place on Earth, where the weight of an object only varies a little with the location of the object. Furthermore, the terms *mass* and *weight* are used interchangeably in everyday language; for example, our medical records often show our “weight” in kilograms, but never in the correct units of newtons.

COMMON MISCONCEPTIONS: MASS VS. WEIGHT

Mass and weight are often used interchangeably in everyday language. However, in science, these terms are distinctly different from one another. Mass is a measure of how much matter is in an object. The typical measure of mass is the kilogram (or the “slug” in English units). Weight, on the other hand, is a measure of the force of gravity acting on an object. Weight is equal to the mass of an object (m) multiplied by the acceleration due to gravity (g). Like any other force, weight is measured in terms of newtons (or pounds in English units).

Assuming the mass of an object is kept intact, it will remain the same, regardless of its location. However,

because weight depends on the acceleration due to gravity, the weight of an object *can change* when the object enters into a region with stronger or weaker gravity. For example, the acceleration due to gravity on the Moon is 1.625 m/s^2 (which is much less than the acceleration due to gravity on Earth, 9.80 m/s^2). If you measured your weight on Earth and then measured your weight on the Moon, you would find that you “weigh” much less, even though you do not look any skinnier. This is because the force of gravity is weaker on the Moon. In fact, when people say that they are “losing weight,” they really mean that they are losing “mass” (which in turn causes them to weigh less).

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT: MASS AND WEIGHT

What do bathroom scales measure? When you stand on a bathroom scale, what happens to the scale? It depresses slightly. The scale contains springs that compress in proportion to your weight—similar to rubber bands expanding when pulled. The springs provide a measure of your weight (for an object which is not accelerating). This is a force in newtons (or pounds). In most countries, the measurement is divided by 9.80 to give a reading in mass units of kilograms. The scale measures weight but is calibrated to provide information about mass. While standing on a bathroom scale, push down on a table next to you. What happens to the reading? Why? Would your scale measure the same “mass” on Earth as on the Moon?



EXAMPLE 4.1

What Acceleration Can a Person Produce when Pushing a Lawn Mower?

Suppose that the net external force (push minus friction) exerted on a lawn mower is 51 N (about 11 lb) parallel to the ground. The mass of the mower is 24 kg . What is its acceleration?

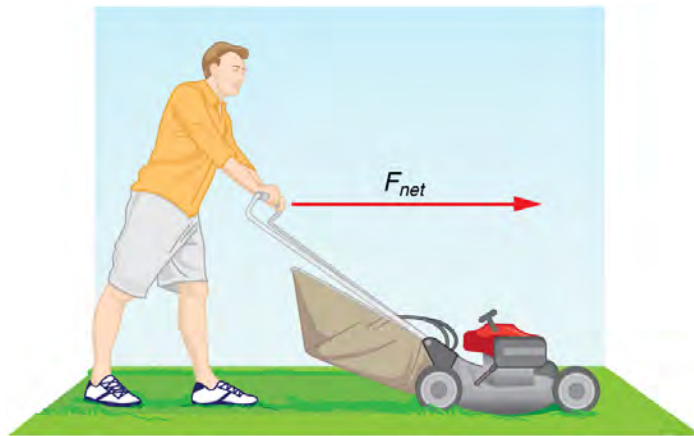


FIGURE 4.7 The net force on a lawn mower is 51 N to the right. At what rate does the lawn mower accelerate to the right?

Strategy

Since F_{net} and m are given, the acceleration can be calculated directly from Newton's second law as stated in $F_{\text{net}} = ma$.

Solution

The magnitude of the acceleration a is $a = \frac{F_{\text{net}}}{m}$. Entering known values gives

$$a = \frac{51 \text{ N}}{24 \text{ kg}} \quad 4.9$$

Substituting the units $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m/s}^2$ for N yields

$$a = \frac{51 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}^2}{24 \text{ kg}} = 2.1 \text{ m/s}^2. \quad 4.10$$

Discussion

The direction of the acceleration is the same direction as that of the net force, which is parallel to the ground. There is no information given in this example about the individual external forces acting on the system, but we can say something about their relative magnitudes. For example, the force exerted by the person pushing the mower must be greater than the friction opposing the motion (since we know the mower moves forward), and the vertical forces must cancel if there is to be no acceleration in the vertical direction (the mower is moving only horizontally). The acceleration found is small enough to be reasonable for a person pushing a mower. Such an effort would not last too long because the person's top speed would soon be reached.

EXAMPLE 4.2

What Rocket Thrust Accelerates This Sled?

Prior to space flights carrying astronauts, rocket sleds were used to test aircraft, missile equipment, and physiological effects on human subjects at high speeds. They consisted of a platform that was mounted on one or two rails and propelled by several rockets. Calculate the magnitude of force exerted by each rocket, called its thrust T , for the four-rocket propulsion system shown in [Figure 4.8](#). The sled's initial acceleration is 49 m/s^2 , the mass of the system is 2100 kg , and the force of friction opposing the motion is known to be 650 N .

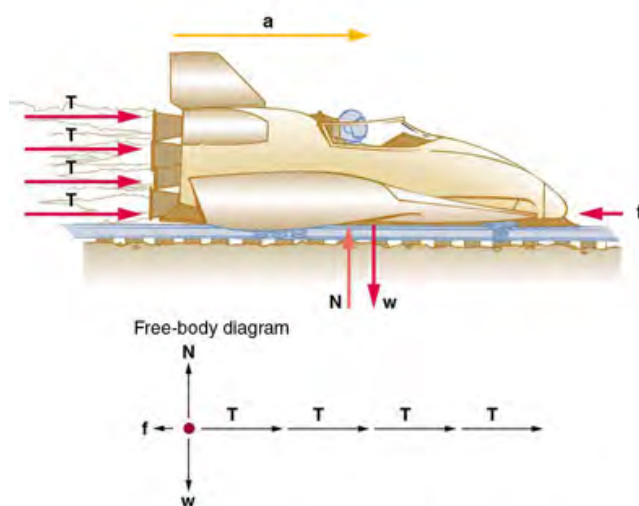


FIGURE 4.8 A sled experiences a rocket thrust that accelerates it to the right. Each rocket creates an identical thrust T . As in other situations where there is only horizontal acceleration, the vertical forces cancel. The ground exerts an upward force N on the system that is equal in magnitude and opposite in direction to its weight, w . The system here is the sled, its rockets, and rider, so none of the forces *between* these objects are considered. The arrow representing friction (f) is drawn larger than scale.

Strategy

Although there are forces acting vertically and horizontally, we assume the vertical forces cancel since there is no vertical acceleration. This leaves us with only horizontal forces and a simpler one-dimensional problem. Directions are indicated with plus or minus signs, with right taken as the positive direction. See the free-body diagram in the figure.

Solution

Since acceleration, mass, and the force of friction are given, we start with Newton's second law and look for ways to find the thrust of the engines. Since we have defined the direction of the force and acceleration as acting "to the right," we need to consider only the magnitudes of these quantities in the calculations. Hence we begin with

$$F_{\text{net}} = ma, \quad 4.11$$

where F_{net} is the net force along the horizontal direction. We can see from [Figure 4.8](#) that the engine thrusts add, while friction opposes the thrust. In equation form, the net external force is

$$F_{\text{net}} = 4T - f. \quad 4.12$$

Substituting this into Newton's second law gives

$$F_{\text{net}} = ma = 4T - f. \quad 4.13$$

Using a little algebra, we solve for the total thrust $4T$:

$$4T = ma + f. \quad 4.14$$

Substituting known values yields

$$4T = ma + f = (2100 \text{ kg})(49 \text{ m/s}^2) + 650 \text{ N}. \quad 4.15$$

So the total thrust is

$$4T = 1.0 \times 10^5 \text{ N}, \quad 4.16$$

and the individual thrusts are

$$T = \frac{1.0 \times 10^5 \text{ N}}{4} = 2.6 \times 10^4 \text{ N}. \quad 4.17$$

Discussion

The numbers are quite large, so the result might surprise you. Experiments such as this were performed in the early 1960s to test the limits of human endurance and the setup designed to protect human subjects in jet fighter emergency ejections. Speeds of 1000 km/h were obtained, with accelerations of 45 g's. (Recall that g , the acceleration due to gravity, is 9.80 m/s^2 . When we say that an acceleration is 45 g's, it is $45 \times 9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$, which is approximately 440 m/s^2 .) While living subjects are not used any more, land speeds of 10,000 km/h have been obtained with rocket sleds. In this example, as in the preceding one, the system of interest is obvious. We will see in later examples that choosing the system of interest is crucial—and the choice is not always obvious.

Newton's second law of motion is more than a definition; it is a relationship among acceleration, force, and mass. It can help us make predictions. Each of those physical quantities can be defined independently, so the second law tells us something basic and universal about nature. The next section introduces the third and final law of motion.

4.4 Newton's Third Law of Motion: Symmetry in Forces

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Understand Newton's third law of motion.
- Apply Newton's third law to define systems and solve problems of motion.

Baseball relief pitcher Mariano Rivera was so highly regarded that during his retirement year, opposing teams conducted farewell presentations when he played at their stadiums. The Minnesota Twins offered a unique gift: A chair made of broken bats. Any pitch can break a bat, but with Rivera's signature pitch—known as a cutter—the ball and the bat frequently came together at a point that shattered the hardwood. Typically, we think of a baseball or softball hitter exerting a force on the incoming ball, and baseball analysts focus on the resulting "exit velocity" as a key statistic. But the force of the ball can do its own damage. This is exactly what happens whenever one body exerts a force on another—the first also experiences a force (equal in magnitude and opposite in direction). Numerous common experiences, such as stubbing a toe or pushing off the floor during a jump, confirm this. It is precisely stated in **Newton's third law of motion**.

NEWTON'S THIRD LAW OF MOTION

Whenever one body exerts a force on a second body, the first body experiences a force that is equal in magnitude and opposite in direction to the force that it exerts.

This law represents a certain *symmetry in nature*: Forces always occur in pairs, and one body cannot exert a force on another without experiencing a force itself. We sometimes refer to this law loosely as “action-reaction,” where the force exerted is the action and the force experienced as a consequence is the reaction. Newton’s third law has practical uses in analyzing the origin of forces and understanding which forces are external to a system.

We can readily see Newton’s third law at work by taking a look at how people move about. Consider a swimmer pushing off from the side of a pool, as illustrated in [Figure 4.9](#). She pushes against the pool wall with her feet and accelerates in the direction *opposite* to that of her push. The wall has exerted an equal and opposite force back on the swimmer. You might think that two equal and opposite forces would cancel, but they do not *because they act on different systems*. In this case, there are two systems that we could investigate: the swimmer or the wall. If we select the swimmer to be the system of interest, as in the figure, then $\mathbf{F}_{\text{wall on feet}}$ is an external force on this system and affects its motion. The swimmer moves in the direction of $\mathbf{F}_{\text{wall on feet}}$. In contrast, the force $\mathbf{F}_{\text{feet on wall}}$ acts on the wall and not on our system of interest. Thus $\mathbf{F}_{\text{feet on wall}}$ does not directly affect the motion of the system and does not cancel $\mathbf{F}_{\text{wall on feet}}$. Note that the swimmer pushes in the direction opposite to that in which she wishes to move. The reaction to her push is thus in the desired direction.

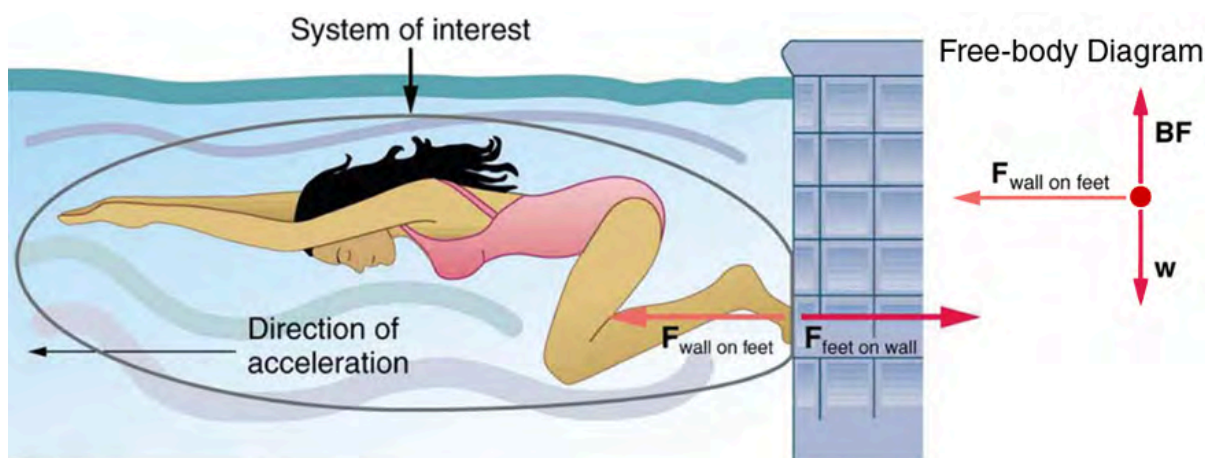


FIGURE 4.9 When the swimmer exerts a force $\mathbf{F}_{\text{feet on wall}}$ on the wall, she accelerates in the direction opposite to that of her push. This means the net external force on her is in the direction opposite to $\mathbf{F}_{\text{feet on wall}}$. This opposition occurs because, in accordance with Newton’s third law of motion, the wall exerts a force $\mathbf{F}_{\text{wall on feet}}$ on her, equal in magnitude but in the direction opposite to the one she exerts on it. The line around the swimmer indicates the system of interest. Note that $\mathbf{F}_{\text{feet on wall}}$ does not act on this system (the swimmer) and, thus, does not cancel $\mathbf{F}_{\text{wall on feet}}$. Thus the free-body diagram shows only $\mathbf{F}_{\text{wall on feet}}$, $\mathbf{w}$, the gravitational force, and $\mathbf{BF}$, the buoyant force of the water supporting the swimmer’s weight. The vertical forces $\mathbf{w}$ and $\mathbf{BF}$ cancel since there is no vertical motion.

Other examples of Newton’s third law are easy to find. As a professor walks in front of a whiteboard, she exerts a force backward on the floor. The floor exerts a reaction force forward on the professor that causes her to accelerate forward. Similarly, a car accelerates because the ground pushes forward on the drive wheels in reaction to the drive wheels pushing backward on the ground. You can see evidence of the wheels pushing backward when tires spin on a gravel road and throw rocks backward. In another example, rockets move forward by expelling gas backward at high velocity. This means the rocket exerts a large backward force on the gas in the rocket combustion chamber, and the gas therefore exerts a large reaction force forward on the rocket. This reaction force is called **thrust**. It is a common misconception that rockets propel themselves by pushing on the ground or on the air behind them. They actually work better in a vacuum, where they can more readily expel the exhaust gases. Helicopters similarly create lift by pushing air down, thereby experiencing an upward reaction force. Birds and airplanes also fly by exerting force on air in a direction opposite to that of whatever force they need. For example, the wings of a bird force air downward and backward in order to get lift and move forward. An octopus propels itself in the water by ejecting water through a funnel from its body, similar to a jet ski. Boxers and other martial arts fighters experience reaction forces when they punch, sometimes breaking their hand by hitting an opponent’s body.

EXAMPLE 4.3

Getting Up To Speed: Choosing the Correct System

A physics professor pushes a cart of demonstration equipment to a lecture hall, as seen in [Figure 4.10](#). Her mass is 65.0 kg, the cart's is 12.0 kg, and the equipment's is 7.0 kg. Calculate the acceleration produced when the professor exerts a backward force of 150 N on the floor. All forces opposing the motion, such as friction on the cart's wheels and air resistance, total 24.0 N.

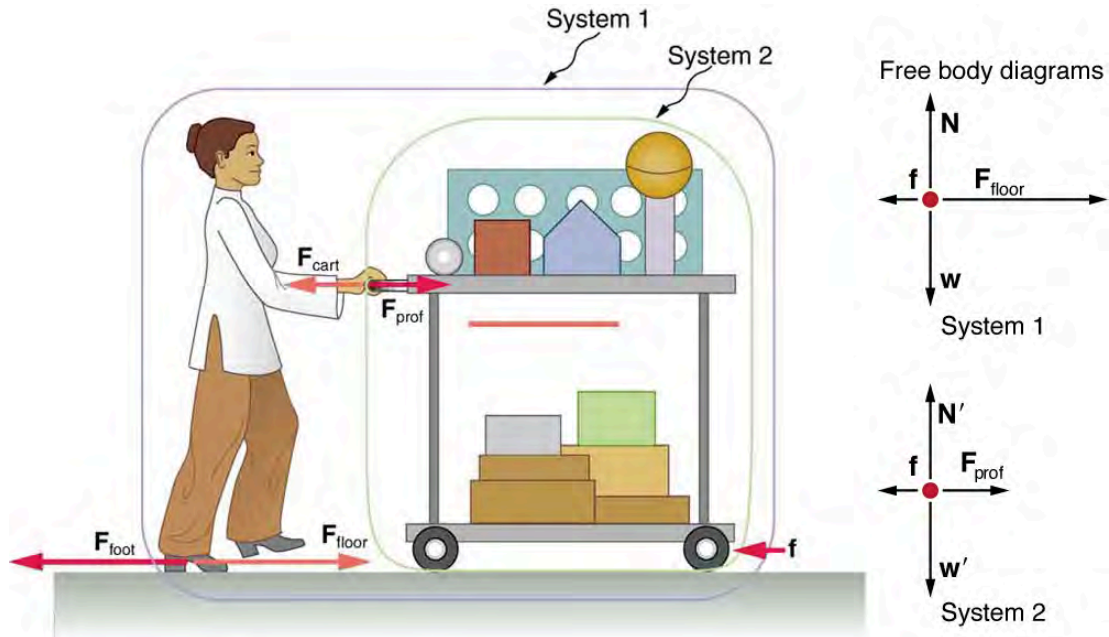


FIGURE 4.10 A professor pushes a cart of demonstration equipment. The lengths of the arrows are proportional to the magnitudes of the forces (except for f , since it is too small to draw to scale). Different questions are asked in each example; thus, the system of interest must be defined differently for each. System 1 is appropriate for this example, since it asks for the acceleration of the entire group of objects. Only F_{floor} and f are external forces acting on System 1 along the line of motion. All other forces either cancel or act on the outside world. System 2 is chosen for [Example 4.4](#) so that F_{prof} will be an external force and enter into Newton's second law. Note that the free-body diagrams, which allow us to apply Newton's second law, vary with the system chosen.

Strategy

Since they accelerate as a unit, we define the system to be the professor, cart, and equipment. This is System 1 in [Figure 4.10](#). The professor pushes backward with a force F_{foot} of 150 N. According to Newton's third law, the floor exerts a forward reaction force F_{floor} of 150 N on System 1. Because all motion is horizontal, we can assume there is no net force in the vertical direction. The problem is therefore one-dimensional along the horizontal direction. As noted, f opposes the motion and is thus in the opposite direction of F_{floor} . Note that we do not include the forces F_{prof} or F_{cart} because these are internal forces, and we do not include F_{foot} because it acts on the floor, not on the system. There are no other significant forces acting on System 1. If the net external force can be found from all this information, we can use Newton's second law to find the acceleration as requested. See the free-body diagram in the figure.

Solution

Newton's second law is given by

$$a = \frac{F_{\text{net}}}{m}. \quad 4.18$$

The net external force on System 1 is deduced from [Figure 4.10](#) and the discussion above to be

$$F_{\text{net}} = F_{\text{floor}} - f = 150 \text{ N} - 24.0 \text{ N} = 126 \text{ N}. \quad 4.19$$

The mass of System 1 is

$$m = (65.0 + 12.0 + 7.0) \text{ kg} = 84 \text{ kg}. \quad 4.20$$

These values of F_{net} and m produce an acceleration of

$$a = \frac{F_{\text{net}}}{m},$$

$$a = \frac{126 \text{ N}}{84 \text{ kg}} = 1.5 \text{ m/s}^2. \quad 4.21$$

Discussion

None of the forces between components of System 1, such as between the professor's hands and the cart, contribute to the net external force because they are internal to System 1. Another way to look at this is to note that forces between components of a system cancel because they are equal in magnitude and opposite in direction. For example, the force exerted by the professor on the cart results in an equal and opposite force back on her. In this case both forces act on the same system and, therefore, cancel. Thus internal forces (between components of a system) cancel. Choosing System 1 was crucial to solving this problem.



EXAMPLE 4.4

Force on the Cart—Choosing a New System

Calculate the force the professor exerts on the cart in [Figure 4.10](#) using data from the previous example if needed.

Strategy

If we now define the system of interest to be the cart plus equipment (System 2 in [Figure 4.10](#)), then the net external force on System 2 is the force the professor exerts on the cart minus friction. The force she exerts on the cart, F_{prof} , is an external force acting on System 2. F_{prof} was internal to System 1, but it is external to System 2 and will enter Newton's second law for System 2.

Solution

Newton's second law can be used to find F_{prof} . Starting with

$$a = \frac{F_{\text{net}}}{m} \quad 4.22$$

and noting that the magnitude of the net external force on System 2 is

$$F_{\text{net}} = F_{\text{prof}} - f, \quad 4.23$$

we solve for F_{prof} , the desired quantity:

$$F_{\text{prof}} = F_{\text{net}} + f. \quad 4.24$$

The value of f is given, so we must calculate net F_{net} . That can be done since both the acceleration and mass of System 2 are known. Using Newton's second law we see that

$$F_{\text{net}} = ma, \quad 4.25$$

where the mass of System 2 is 19.0 kg ($m = 12.0 \text{ kg} + 7.0 \text{ kg}$) and its acceleration was found to be $a = 1.5 \text{ m/s}^2$ in the previous example. Thus,

$$F_{\text{net}} = ma, \quad 4.26$$

$$F_{\text{net}} = (19.0 \text{ kg})(1.5 \text{ m/s}^2) = 29 \text{ N}. \quad 4.27$$

Now we can find the desired force:

$$F_{\text{prof}} = F_{\text{net}} + f, \quad 4.28$$

$$F_{\text{prof}} = 29 \text{ N} + 24.0 \text{ N} = 53 \text{ N}. \quad 4.29$$

Discussion

It is interesting that this force is significantly less than the 150-N force the professor exerted backward on the floor. Not all of that 150-N force is transmitted to the cart; some of it accelerates the professor.

The choice of a system is an important analytical step both in solving problems and in thoroughly understanding the physics of the situation (which is not necessarily the same thing).



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Gravity Force Lab

Visualize the gravitational force that two objects exert on each other. Change properties of the objects in order to see how it changes the gravity force.

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/4-4-newtons-third-law-of-motion-symmetry-in-forces\)](https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/4-4-newtons-third-law-of-motion-symmetry-in-forces)



4.5 Normal, Tension, and Other Examples of Forces

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define normal and tension forces.
- Apply Newton's laws of motion to solve problems involving a variety of forces.
- Use trigonometric identities to resolve weight into components.

Forces are given many names, such as push, pull, thrust, lift, weight, friction, and tension. Traditionally, forces have been grouped into several categories and given names relating to their source, how they are transmitted, or their effects. The most important of these categories are discussed in this section, together with some interesting applications. Further examples of forces are discussed later in this text.

Normal Force

Weight (also called force of gravity) is a pervasive force that acts at all times and must be counteracted to keep an object from falling. You definitely notice that you must support the weight of a heavy object by pushing up on it when you hold it stationary, as illustrated in [Figure 4.11\(a\)](#). But how do inanimate objects like a table support the weight of a mass placed on them, such as shown in [Figure 4.11\(b\)](#)? When the bag of dog food is placed on the table, the table actually sags slightly under the load. This would be noticeable if the load were placed on a card table, but even rigid objects deform when a force is applied to them. Unless the object is deformed beyond its limit, it will exert a restoring force much like a deformed spring (or trampoline or diving board). The greater the deformation, the greater the restoring force. So when the load is placed on the table, the table sags until the restoring force becomes as large as the weight of the load. At this point the net external force on the load is zero. That is the situation when the load is stationary on the table. The table sags quickly, and the sag is slight so we do not notice it. But it is similar to the sagging of a trampoline when you climb onto it.

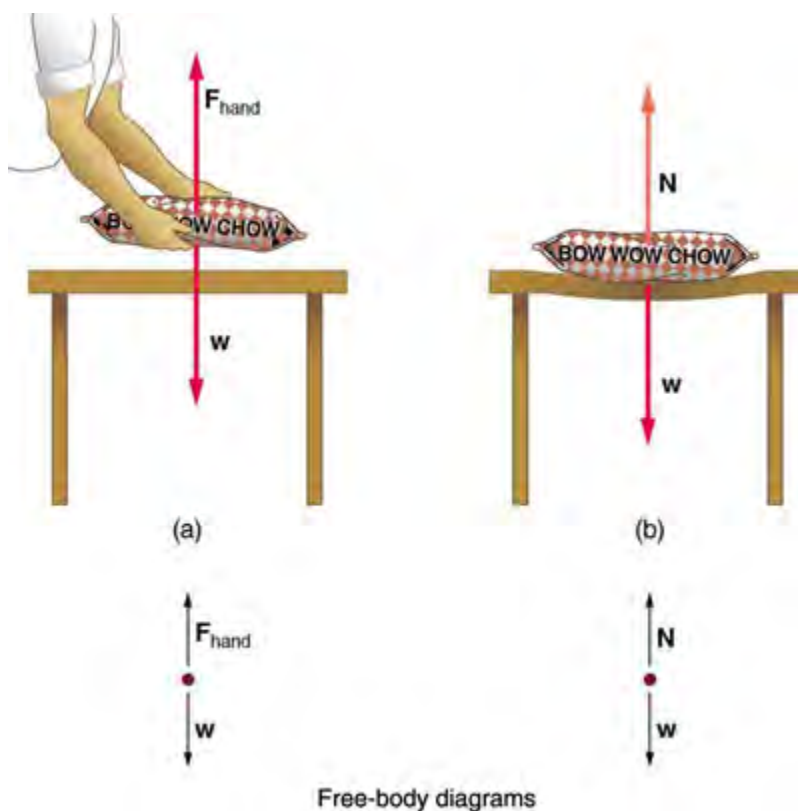


FIGURE 4.11 (a) The person holding the bag of dog food must supply an upward force F_{hand} equal in magnitude and opposite in direction to the weight of the food w . (b) The card table sags when the dog food is placed on it, much like a stiff trampoline. Elastic restoring forces in the table grow as it sags until they supply a force N equal in magnitude and opposite in direction to the weight of the load.

We must conclude that whatever supports a load, be it animate or not, must supply an upward force equal to the weight of the load, as we assumed in a few of the previous examples. If the force supporting a load is perpendicular to the surface of contact between the load and its support, this force is defined to be a **normal force** and here is given the symbol N . (This is not the unit for force N .) The word *normal* means perpendicular to a surface. The normal force can be less than the object's weight if the object is on an incline, as you will see in the next example.

COMMON MISCONCEPTION: NORMAL FORCE (N) VS. NEWTON (N)

In this section we have introduced the quantity normal force, which is represented by the variable N . This should not be confused with the symbol for the newton, which is also represented by the letter N . These symbols are particularly important to distinguish because the units of a normal force (N) happen to be newtons (N). For example, the normal force N that the floor exerts on a chair might be $N = 100 \text{ N}$. One important difference is that normal force is a vector, while the newton is simply a unit. Be careful not to confuse these letters in your calculations! You will encounter more similarities among variables and units as you proceed in physics. Another example of this is the quantity work (W) and the unit watts (W).

EXAMPLE 4.5

Weight on an Incline, a Two-Dimensional Problem

Consider the skier on a slope shown in [Figure 4.12](#). Her mass including equipment is 60.0 kg . (a) What is her acceleration if friction is negligible? (b) What is her acceleration if friction is known to be 45.0 N ?

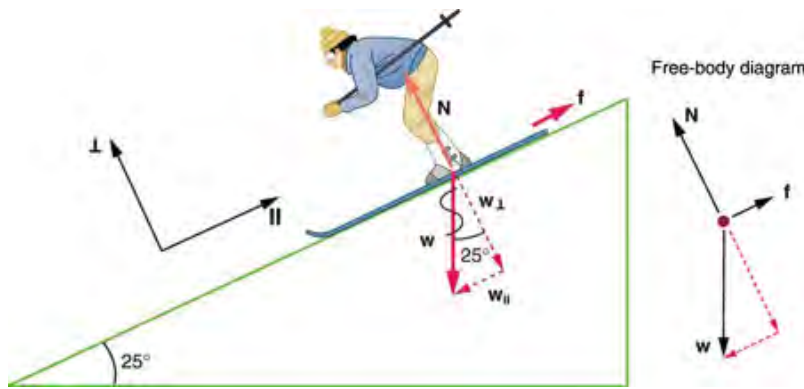


FIGURE 4.12 Since motion and friction are parallel to the slope, it is most convenient to project all forces onto a coordinate system where one axis is parallel to the slope and the other is perpendicular (axes shown to left of skier). $\mathbf{N}$ is perpendicular to the slope and $\mathbf{f}$ is parallel to the slope, but $\mathbf{w}$ has components along both axes, namely $w_{\perp}$ and $w_{\parallel}$. $\mathbf{N}$ is equal in magnitude to $w_{\perp}$, so that there is no motion perpendicular to the slope, but f is less than $w_{\parallel}$, so that there is a downslope acceleration (along the parallel axis).

Strategy

This is a two-dimensional problem, since the forces on the skier (the system of interest) are not parallel. The approach we have used in two-dimensional kinematics also works very well here. Choose a convenient coordinate system and project the vectors onto its axes, creating *two* connected *one*-dimensional problems to solve. The most convenient coordinate system for motion on an incline is one that has one coordinate parallel to the slope and one perpendicular to the slope. (Remember that motions along mutually perpendicular axes are independent.) We use the symbols $\perp$ and $\parallel$ to represent perpendicular and parallel, respectively. This choice of axes simplifies this type of problem, because there is no motion perpendicular to the slope and because friction is always parallel to the surface between two objects. The only external forces acting on the system are the skier's weight, friction, and the support of the slope, respectively labeled $\mathbf{w}$, $\mathbf{f}$, and $\mathbf{N}$ in Figure 4.12. $\mathbf{N}$ is always perpendicular to the slope, and $\mathbf{f}$ is parallel to it. But $\mathbf{w}$ is not in the direction of either axis, and so the first step we take is to project it into components along the chosen axes, defining $w_{\parallel}$ to be the component of weight parallel to the slope and $w_{\perp}$ the component of weight perpendicular to the slope. Once this is done, we can consider the two separate problems of forces parallel to the slope and forces perpendicular to the slope.

Solution

The magnitude of the component of the weight parallel to the slope is $w_{\parallel} = w \sin(25^\circ) = mg \sin(25^\circ)$, and the magnitude of the component of the weight perpendicular to the slope is $w_{\perp} = w \cos(25^\circ) = mg \cos(25^\circ)$.

(a) Neglecting friction. Since the acceleration is parallel to the slope, we need only consider forces parallel to the slope. (Forces perpendicular to the slope add to zero, since there is no acceleration in that direction.) The forces parallel to the slope are the amount of the skier's weight parallel to the slope $w_{\parallel}$ and friction f . Using Newton's second law, with subscripts to denote quantities parallel to the slope,

$$a_{\parallel} = \frac{F_{\text{net}\parallel}}{m} \quad 4.30$$

where $F_{\text{net}\parallel} = w_{\parallel} = mg \sin(25^\circ)$, assuming no friction for this part, so that

$$a_{\parallel} = \frac{F_{\text{net}\parallel}}{m} = \frac{mg \sin(25^\circ)}{m} = g \sin(25^\circ) \quad 4.31$$

$$(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(0.4226) = 4.14 \text{ m/s}^2 \quad 4.32$$

is the acceleration.

(b) Including friction. We now have a given value for friction, and we know its direction is parallel to the slope and it opposes motion between surfaces in contact. So the net external force is now

$$F_{\text{net}\parallel} = w_{\parallel} - f, \quad 4.33$$

and substituting this into Newton's second law, $a_{\parallel} = \frac{F_{\text{net}\parallel}}{m}$, gives

$$a_{\parallel} = \frac{F_{\text{net}\parallel}}{m} = \frac{w_{\parallel} - f}{m} = \frac{mg \sin(25^\circ) - f}{m}. \quad 4.34$$

We substitute known values to obtain

$$a_{\parallel} = \frac{(60.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(0.4226) - 45.0 \text{ N}}{60.0 \text{ kg}}, \quad 4.35$$

which yields

$$a_{\parallel} = 3.39 \text{ m/s}^2, \quad 4.36$$

which is the acceleration parallel to the incline when there is 45.0 N of opposing friction.

Discussion

Since friction always opposes motion between surfaces, the acceleration is smaller when there is friction than when there is none. In fact, it is a general result that if friction on an incline is negligible, then the acceleration down the incline is $a = g \sin \theta$, *regardless of mass*. This is related to the previously discussed fact that all objects fall with the same acceleration in the absence of air resistance. Similarly, all objects, regardless of mass, slide down a frictionless incline with the same acceleration (if the angle is the same).

RESOLVING WEIGHT INTO COMPONENTS

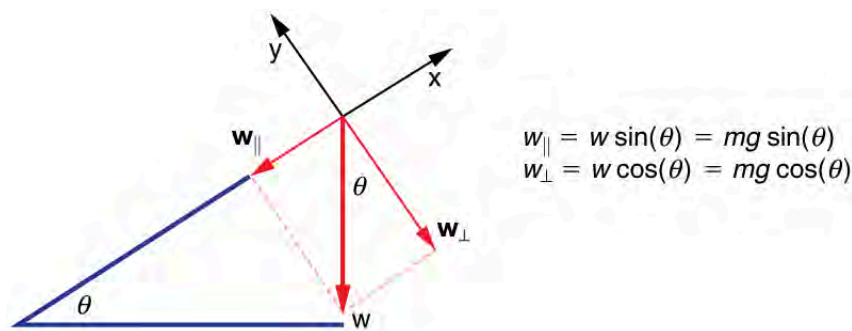


FIGURE 4.13 An object rests on an incline that makes an angle θ with the horizontal.

When an object rests on an incline that makes an angle θ with the horizontal, the force of gravity acting on the object is divided into two components: a force acting perpendicular to the plane, $w_{\perp}$, and a force acting parallel to the plane, $w_{\parallel}$. The perpendicular force of weight, $w_{\perp}$, is typically equal in magnitude and opposite in direction to the normal force, $\mathbf{N}$. The force acting parallel to the plane, $w_{\parallel}$, causes the object to accelerate down the incline. The force of friction, $\mathbf{f}$, opposes the motion of the object, so it acts upward along the plane.

It is important to be careful when resolving the weight of the object into components. If the angle of the incline is at an angle θ to the horizontal, then the magnitudes of the weight components are

$$w_{\parallel} = w \sin(\theta) = mg \sin(\theta) \quad 4.37$$

and

$$w_{\perp} = w \cos(\theta) = mg \cos(\theta). \quad 4.38$$

Instead of memorizing these equations, it is helpful to be able to determine them from reason. To do this, draw the right triangle formed by the three weight vectors. Notice that the angle θ of the incline is the same as the angle formed between w and $w_{\perp}$. Knowing this property, you can use trigonometry to determine the magnitude of the weight components:

$$\begin{aligned}\cos(\theta) &= \frac{w_{\perp}}{w} & 4.39 \\ w_{\perp} &= w \cos(\theta) = mg \cos(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) &= \frac{w_{\parallel}}{w} & 4.40 \\ w_{\parallel} &= w \sin(\theta) = mg \sin(\theta)\end{aligned}$$

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT: FORCE PARALLEL

To investigate how a force parallel to an inclined plane changes, find a rubber band, some objects to hang from the end of the rubber band, and a board you can position at different angles. How much does the rubber band stretch when you hang the object from the end of the board? Now place the board at an angle so that the object slides off when placed on the board. How much does the rubber band extend if it is lined up parallel to the board and used to hold the object stationary on the board? Try two more angles. What does this show?

Tension

A **tension** is a force along the length of a medium, especially a force carried by a flexible medium, such as a rope or cable. The word “tension” comes from a Latin word meaning “to stretch.” Not coincidentally, the flexible cords that carry muscle forces to other parts of the body are called *tendons*. Any flexible connector, such as a string, rope, chain, wire, or cable, can exert pulls only parallel to its length; thus, a force carried by a flexible connector is a tension with direction parallel to the connector. It is important to understand that tension is a pull in a connector. In contrast, consider the phrase: “You can’t push a rope.” The tension force pulls outward along the two ends of a rope.

Consider a person holding a mass on a rope as shown in [Figure 4.14](#).

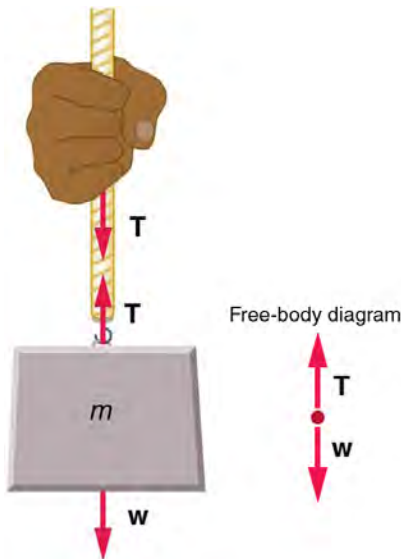


FIGURE 4.14 When a perfectly flexible connector (one requiring no force to bend it) such as this rope transmits a force T , that force must be parallel to the length of the rope, as shown. The pull such a flexible connector exerts is a tension. Note that the rope pulls with equal force but in opposite directions on the hand and the supported mass (neglecting the weight of the rope). This is an example of Newton’s third law. The rope is the medium that carries the equal and opposite forces between the two objects. The tension anywhere in the rope between the hand and the mass is equal. Once you have determined the tension in one location, you have determined the tension at all locations along the rope.

Tension in the rope must equal the weight of the supported mass, as we can prove using Newton’s second law. If the 5.00-kg mass in the figure is stationary, then its acceleration is zero, and thus $F_{\text{net}} = 0$. The only external forces acting on the mass are its weight w and the tension T supplied by the rope. Thus,

$$F_{\text{net}} = T - w = 0, \quad 4.41$$

where T and w are the magnitudes of the tension and weight and their signs indicate direction, with up being

positive here. Thus, just as you would expect, the tension equals the weight of the supported mass:

$$T = w = mg. \quad 4.42$$

For a 5.00-kg mass, then (neglecting the mass of the rope) we see that

$$T = mg = (5.00 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) = 49.0 \text{ N}. \quad 4.43$$

If we cut the rope and insert a spring, the spring would extend a length corresponding to a force of 49.0 N, providing a direct observation and measure of the tension force in the rope.

Flexible connectors are often used to transmit forces around corners, such as in a hospital traction system, a finger joint, or a bicycle brake cable. If there is no friction, the tension is transmitted undiminished. Only its direction changes, and it is always parallel to the flexible connector. This is illustrated in [Figure 4.15](#) (a) and (b).

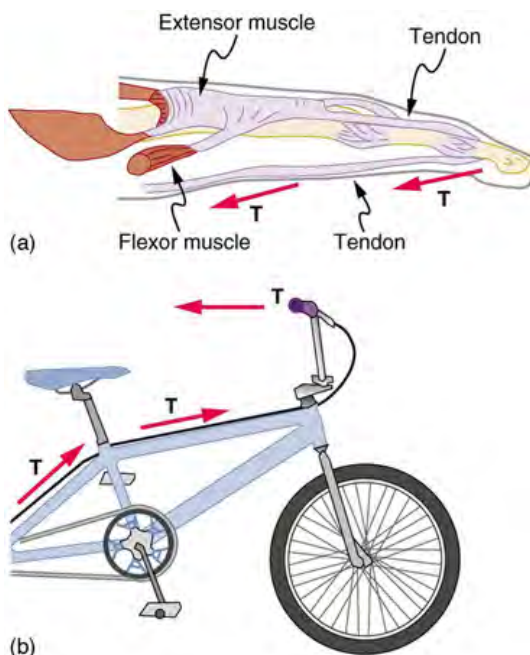


FIGURE 4.15 (a) Tendons in the finger carry force $\mathbf{T}$ from the muscles to other parts of the finger, usually changing the force's direction, but not its magnitude (the tendons are relatively friction free). (b) The brake cable on a bicycle carries the tension $\mathbf{T}$ from the handlebars to the brake mechanism. Again, the direction but not the magnitude of $\mathbf{T}$ is changed.



EXAMPLE 4.6

What Is the Tension in a Tightrope?

Calculate the tension in the wire supporting the 70.0-kg tightrope walker shown in [Figure 4.16](#).

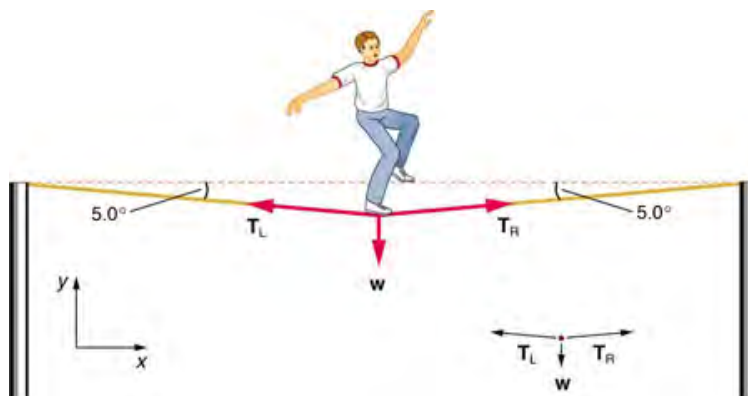


FIGURE 4.16 The weight of a tightrope walker causes a wire to sag by 5.0 degrees. The system of interest here is the point in the wire at which the tightrope walker is standing.

Strategy

As you can see in the figure, the wire is not perfectly horizontal (it cannot be!), but is bent under the person's weight. Thus, the tension on either side of the person has an upward component that can support his weight. As usual, forces are vectors represented pictorially by arrows having the same directions as the forces and lengths proportional to their magnitudes. The system is the tightrope walker, and the only external forces acting on him are his weight $\mathbf{w}$ and the two tensions $\mathbf{T}_L$ (left tension) and $\mathbf{T}_R$ (right tension), as illustrated. It is reasonable to neglect the weight of the wire itself. The net external force is zero since the system is stationary. A little trigonometry can now be used to find the tensions. One conclusion is possible at the outset—we can see from part (b) of the figure that the magnitudes of the tensions T_L and T_R must be equal. This is because there is no horizontal acceleration in the rope, and the only forces acting to the left and right are T_L and T_R . Thus, the magnitude of those forces must be equal so that they cancel each other out.

Whenever we have two-dimensional vector problems in which no two vectors are parallel, the easiest method of solution is to pick a convenient coordinate system and project the vectors onto its axes. In this case the best coordinate system has one axis horizontal and the other vertical. We call the horizontal the x -axis and the vertical the y -axis.

Solution

First, we need to resolve the tension vectors into their horizontal and vertical components. It helps to draw a new free-body diagram showing all of the horizontal and vertical components of each force acting on the system.

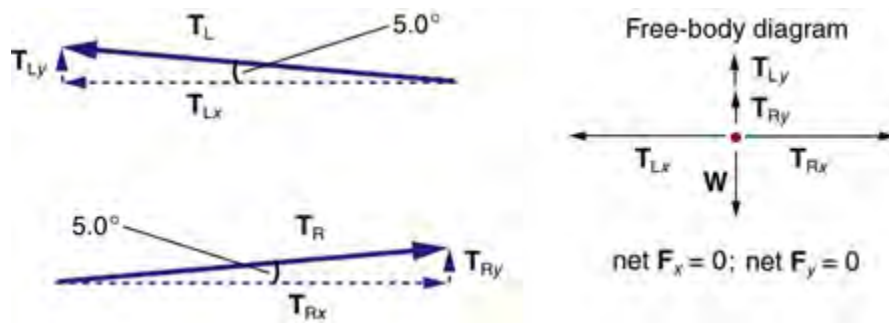


FIGURE 4.17 When the vectors are projected onto vertical and horizontal axes, their components along those axes must add to zero, since the tightrope walker is stationary. The small angle results in T being much greater than w .

Consider the horizontal components of the forces (denoted with a subscript x):

$$F_{\text{net}x} = T_{Lx} - T_{Rx}. \quad 4.44$$

The net external horizontal force $F_{\text{net}x} = 0$, since the person is stationary. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} F_{\text{net}x} = 0 &= T_{Lx} - T_{Rx} \\ T_{Lx} &= T_{Rx}. \end{aligned} \quad 4.45$$

Now, observe [Figure 4.17](#). You can use trigonometry to determine the magnitude of T_L and T_R . Notice that:

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(5.0^\circ) &= \frac{T_{Lx}}{T_L} \\ T_{Lx} &= T_L \cos(5.0^\circ) \\ \cos(5.0^\circ) &= \frac{T_{Rx}}{T_R} \\ T_{Rx} &= T_R \cos(5.0^\circ). \end{aligned} \quad 4.46$$

Equating T_{Lx} and T_{Rx} :

$$T_L \cos(5.0^\circ) = T_R \cos(5.0^\circ). \quad 4.47$$

Thus,

$$T_L = T_R = T, \quad 4.48$$

as predicted. Now, considering the vertical components (denoted by a subscript y), we can solve for T . Again, since the person is stationary, Newton's second law implies that net $F_y = 0$. Thus, as illustrated in the free-body diagram in [Figure 4.17](#),

$$F_{\text{net}y} = T_{Ly} + T_{Ry} - w = 0. \quad 4.49$$

Observing [Figure 4.17](#), we can use trigonometry to determine the relationship between T_{Ly} , T_{Ry} , and T . As we determined from the analysis in the horizontal direction, $T_L = T_R = T$:

$$\begin{aligned} \sin(5.0^\circ) &= \frac{T_{Ly}}{T_L} \\ T_{Ly} = T_L \sin(5.0^\circ) &= T \sin(5.0^\circ) \\ \sin(5.0^\circ) &= \frac{T_{Ry}}{T_R} \\ T_{Ry} = T_R \sin(5.0^\circ) &= T \sin(5.0^\circ). \end{aligned} \quad 4.50$$

Now, we can substitute the values for T_{Ly} and T_{Ry} , into the net force equation in the vertical direction:

$$\begin{aligned} F_{\text{net}y} &= T_{Ly} + T_{Ry} - w = 0 \\ F_{\text{net}y} &= T \sin(5.0^\circ) + T \sin(5.0^\circ) - w = 0 \\ 2T \sin(5.0^\circ) - w &= 0 \\ 2T \sin(5.0^\circ) &= w \end{aligned} \quad 4.51$$

and

$$T = \frac{w}{2 \sin(5.0^\circ)} = \frac{mg}{2 \sin(5.0^\circ)}, \quad 4.52$$

so that

$$T = \frac{(70.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)}{2(0.0872)}, \quad 4.53$$

and the tension is

$$T = 3900 \text{ N}. \quad 4.54$$

Discussion

Note that the vertical tension in the wire acts as a normal force that supports the weight of the tightrope walker. The tension is almost six times the 686-N weight of the tightrope walker. Since the wire is nearly horizontal, the vertical component of its tension is only a small fraction of the tension in the wire. The large horizontal components are in opposite directions and cancel, and so most of the tension in the wire is not used to support the weight of the tightrope walker.

If we wish to *create* a very large tension, all we have to do is exert a force perpendicular to a flexible connector, as illustrated in [Figure 4.18](#). As we saw in the last example, the weight of the tightrope walker acted as a force perpendicular to the rope. We saw that the tension in the roped related to the weight of the tightrope walker in the following way:

$$T = \frac{w}{2 \sin(\theta)}. \quad 4.55$$

We can extend this expression to describe the tension T created when a perpendicular force ($F_\perp$) is exerted at the middle of a flexible connector:

$$T = \frac{F_\perp}{2 \sin(\theta)}. \quad 4.56$$

Note that θ is the angle between the horizontal and the bent connector. In this case, T becomes very large as θ approaches zero. Even the relatively small weight of any flexible connector will cause it to sag, since an infinite

tension would result if it were horizontal (i.e., $\theta = 0$ and $\sin \theta = 0$). (See [Figure 4.18](#).)

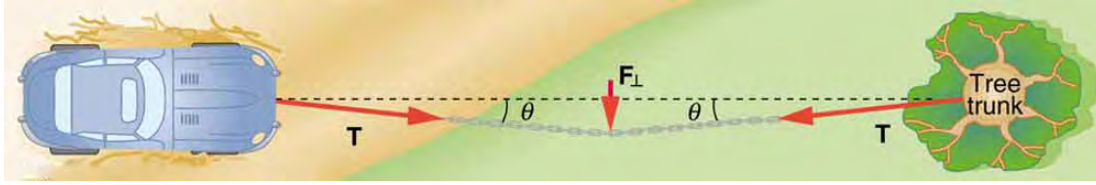


FIGURE 4.18 We can create a very large tension in the chain by pushing on it perpendicular to its length, as shown. Suppose we wish to pull a car out of the mud when no tow truck is available. Each time the car moves forward, the chain is tightened to keep it as nearly straight as possible. The tension in the chain is given by $T = \frac{F_{\perp}}{2 \sin(\theta)}$; since θ is small, T is very large. This situation is analogous to the tightrope walker shown in [Figure 4.16](#), except that the tensions shown here are those transmitted to the car and the tree rather than those acting at the point where $F_{\perp}$ is applied.



FIGURE 4.19 Unless an infinite tension is exerted, any flexible connector—such as the chain at the bottom of the picture—will sag under its own weight, giving a characteristic curve when the weight is evenly distributed along the length. Suspension bridges—such as the Golden Gate Bridge shown in this image—are essentially very heavy flexible connectors. The weight of the bridge is evenly distributed along the length of flexible connectors, usually cables, which take on the characteristic shape. (credit: Leaflet, Wikimedia Commons)

Extended Topic: Real Forces and Inertial Frames

There is another distinction among forces in addition to the types already mentioned. Some forces are real, whereas others are not. *Real forces* are those that have some physical origin, such as the gravitational pull. Contrastingly, *fictitious forces* are those that arise simply because an observer is in an accelerating frame of reference, such as one that rotates (like a merry-go-round) or undergoes linear acceleration (like a car slowing down). For example, if a satellite is heading due north above Earth's northern hemisphere, then to an observer on Earth it will appear to experience a force to the west that has no physical origin. Of course, what is happening here is that Earth is rotating toward the east and moves east under the satellite. In Earth's frame this looks like a westward force on the satellite, or it can be interpreted as a violation of Newton's first law (the law of inertia). An **inertial frame of reference** is one in which all forces are real and, equivalently, one in which Newton's laws have the simple forms given in this chapter.

Earth's rotation is slow enough that Earth is nearly an inertial frame. You ordinarily must perform precise experiments to observe fictitious forces and the slight departures from Newton's laws, such as the effect just described. On the large scale, such as for the rotation of weather systems and ocean currents, the effects can be easily observed.

The crucial factor in determining whether a frame of reference is inertial is whether it accelerates or rotates relative to a known inertial frame. Unless stated otherwise, all phenomena discussed in this text are considered in inertial frames.

All the forces discussed in this section are real forces, but there are a number of other real forces, such as lift and thrust, that are not discussed in this section. They are more specialized, and it is not necessary to discuss every type of force. It is natural, however, to ask where the basic simplicity we seek to find in physics is in the long list of forces. Are some more basic than others? Are some different manifestations of the same underlying force? The answer to

both questions is yes, as will be seen in the next (extended) section and in the treatment of modern physics later in the text.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Forces in 1 Dimension

Explore the forces at work when you try to push a filing cabinet. Create an applied force and see the resulting friction force and total force acting on the cabinet. Charts show the forces, position, velocity, and acceleration vs. time. View a free-body diagram of all the forces (including gravitational and normal forces).

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/l/21forcesatwork\)](https://openstax.org/l/21forcesatwork).



4.6 Problem-Solving Strategies

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Understand and apply a problem-solving procedure to solve problems using Newton's laws of motion.

Success in problem solving is obviously necessary to understand and apply physical principles, not to mention the more immediate need of passing exams. The basics of problem solving, presented earlier in this text, are followed here, but specific strategies useful in applying Newton's laws of motion are emphasized. These techniques also reinforce concepts that are useful in many other areas of physics. Many problem-solving strategies are stated outright in the worked examples, and so the following techniques should reinforce skills you have already begun to develop.

Problem-Solving Strategy for Newton's Laws of Motion

Step 1. As usual, it is first necessary to identify the physical principles involved. *Once it is determined that Newton's laws of motion are involved (if the problem involves forces), it is particularly important to draw a careful sketch of the situation.* Such a sketch is shown in [Figure 4.20\(a\)](#). Then, as in [Figure 4.20\(b\)](#), use arrows to represent all forces, label them carefully, and make their lengths and directions correspond to the forces they represent (whenever sufficient information exists).

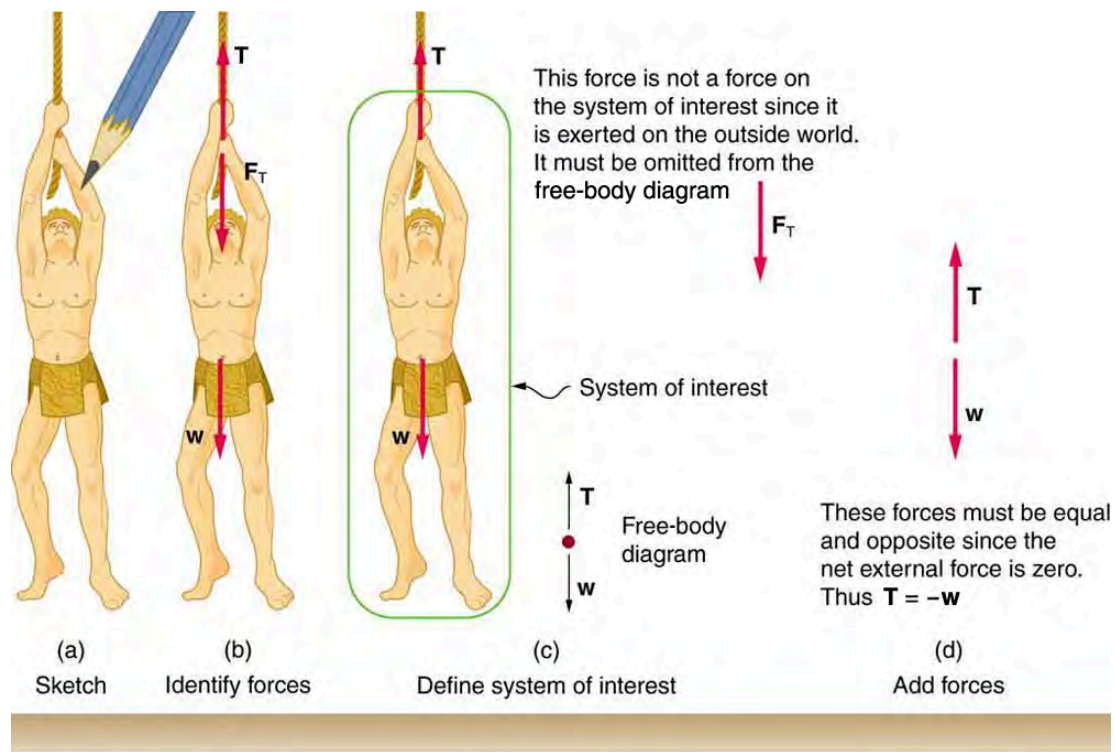


FIGURE 4.20 (a) A sketch of Tarzan hanging from a vine. (b) Arrows are used to represent all forces. T is the tension in the vine above Tarzan, F_T is the force he exerts on the vine, and w is his weight. All other forces, such as the nudge of a breeze, are assumed negligible. (c) Suppose we are given the ape man's mass and asked to find the tension in the vine. We then define the system of interest as shown and draw a free-body diagram. F_T is no longer shown, because it is not a force acting on the system of interest; rather, F_T acts on the outside world. (d) Showing only the arrows, the head-to-tail method of addition is used. It is apparent that $T = -w$, if Tarzan is stationary.

Step 2. Identify what needs to be determined and what is known or can be inferred from the problem as stated. That is, make a list of knowns and unknowns. *Then carefully determine the system of interest.* This decision is a crucial step, since Newton's second law involves only external forces. Once the system of interest has been identified, it becomes possible to determine which forces are external and which are internal, a necessary step to employ Newton's second law. (See [Figure 4.20\(c\)](#).) Newton's third law may be used to identify whether forces are exerted between components of a system (internal) or between the system and something outside (external). As illustrated earlier in this chapter, the system of interest depends on what question we need to answer. This choice becomes easier with practice, eventually developing into an almost unconscious process. Skill in clearly defining systems will be beneficial in later chapters as well.

A diagram showing the system of interest and all of the external forces is called a **free-body diagram**. Only forces are shown on free-body diagrams, not acceleration or velocity. We have drawn several of these in worked examples. [Figure 4.20\(c\)](#) shows a free-body diagram for the system of interest. Note that no internal forces are shown in a free-body diagram.

Step 3. Once a free-body diagram is drawn, *Newton's second law can be applied to solve the problem.* This is done in [Figure 4.20\(d\)](#) for a particular situation. In general, once external forces are clearly identified in free-body diagrams, it should be a straightforward task to put them into equation form and solve for the unknown, as done in all previous examples. If the problem is one-dimensional—that is, if all forces are parallel—then they add like scalars. If the problem is two-dimensional, then it must be broken down into a pair of one-dimensional problems. This is done by projecting the force vectors onto a set of axes chosen for convenience. As seen in previous examples, the choice of axes can simplify the problem. For example, when an incline is involved, a set of axes with one axis parallel to the incline and one perpendicular to it is most convenient. It is almost always convenient to make one axis parallel to the direction of motion, if this is known.

APPLYING NEWTON'S SECOND LAW

Before you write net force equations, it is critical to determine whether the system is accelerating in a particular direction. If the acceleration is zero in a particular direction, then the net force is zero in that direction. Similarly, if the acceleration is nonzero in a particular direction, then the net force is described by the equation:

$$F_{\text{net}} = ma.$$

For example, if the system is accelerating in the horizontal direction, but it is not accelerating in the vertical direction, then you will have the following conclusions:

$$F_{\text{net } x} = ma, \quad 4.57$$

$$F_{\text{net } y} = 0. \quad 4.58$$

You will need this information in order to determine unknown forces acting in a system.

Step 4. As always, *check the solution to see whether it is reasonable*. In some cases, this is obvious. For example, it is reasonable to find that friction causes an object to slide down an incline more slowly than when no friction exists. In practice, intuition develops gradually through problem solving, and with experience it becomes progressively easier to judge whether an answer is reasonable. Another way to check your solution is to check the units. If you are solving for force and end up with units of m/s, then you have made a mistake.

4.7 Further Applications of Newton's Laws of Motion

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Apply problem-solving techniques to solve for quantities in more complex systems of forces.
- Integrate concepts from kinematics to solve problems using Newton's laws of motion.

There are many interesting applications of Newton's laws of motion, a few more of which are presented in this section. These serve also to illustrate some further subtleties of physics and to help build problem-solving skills.



EXAMPLE 4.7

Drag Force on a Barge

Suppose two tugboats push on a barge at different angles, as shown in [Figure 4.21](#). The first tugboat exerts a force of 2.7×10^5 N in the x-direction, and the second tugboat exerts a force of 3.6×10^5 N in the y-direction.

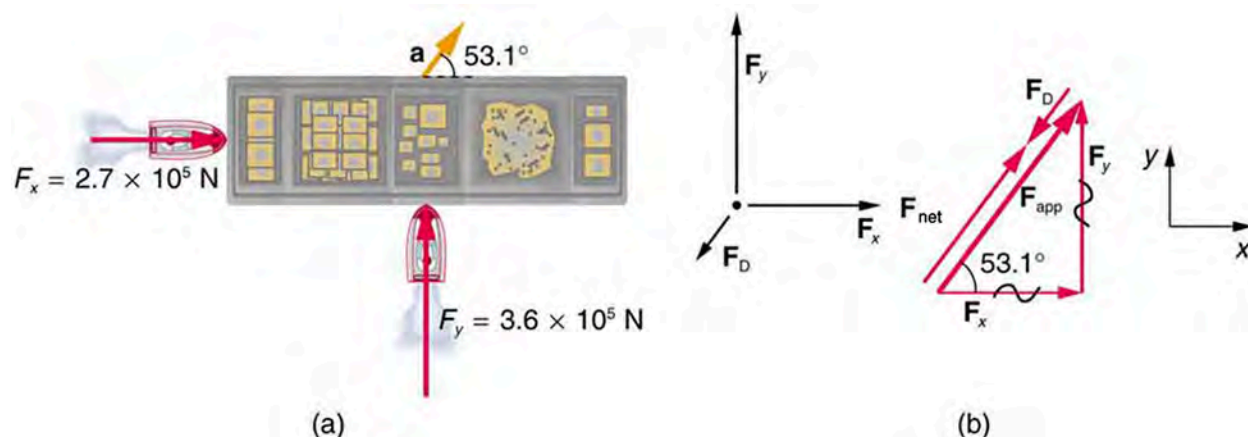


FIGURE 4.21 (a) A view from above of two tugboats pushing on a barge. (b) The free-body diagram for the ship contains only forces acting in the plane of the water. It omits the two vertical forces—the weight of the barge and the buoyant force of the water supporting it cancel and are not shown. Since the applied forces are perpendicular, the x- and y-axes are in the same direction as F_x and F_y . The problem quickly becomes a one-dimensional problem along the direction of F_{app} , since friction is in the direction opposite to F_{app} .

If the mass of the barge is 5.0×10^6 kg and its acceleration is observed to be 7.5×10^{-2} m/s² in the direction

shown, what is the drag force of the water on the barge resisting the motion? (Note: drag force is a frictional force exerted by fluids, such as air or water. The drag force opposes the motion of the object.)

Strategy

The directions and magnitudes of acceleration and the applied forces are given in [Figure 4.21\(a\)](#). We will define the total force of the tugboats on the barge as $\mathbf{F}_{\text{app}}$ so that:

$$\mathbf{F}_{\text{app}} = \mathbf{F}_x + \mathbf{F}_y \quad 4.59$$

Since the barge is flat bottomed, the drag of the water $\mathbf{F}_D$ will be in the direction opposite to $\mathbf{F}_{\text{app}}$, as shown in the free-body diagram in [Figure 4.21\(b\)](#). The system of interest here is the barge, since the forces on it are given as well as its acceleration. Our strategy is to find the magnitude and direction of the net applied force $\mathbf{F}_{\text{app}}$, and then apply Newton's second law to solve for the drag force $\mathbf{F}_D$.

Solution

Since $\mathbf{F}_x$ and $\mathbf{F}_y$ are perpendicular, the magnitude and direction of $\mathbf{F}_{\text{app}}$ are easily found. First, the resultant magnitude is given by the Pythagorean theorem:

$$\begin{aligned} F_{\text{app}} &= \sqrt{F_x^2 + F_y^2} \\ F_{\text{app}} &= \sqrt{(2.7 \times 10^5 \text{ N})^2 + (3.6 \times 10^5 \text{ N})^2} = 4.5 \times 10^5 \text{ N}. \end{aligned} \quad 4.60$$

The angle is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \theta &= \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{F_y}{F_x}\right) \\ \theta &= \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{3.6 \times 10^5 \text{ N}}{2.7 \times 10^5 \text{ N}}\right) = 53^\circ, \end{aligned} \quad 4.61$$

which we know, because of Newton's first law, is the same direction as the acceleration. $\mathbf{F}_D$ is in the opposite direction of $\mathbf{F}_{\text{app}}$, since it acts to slow down the acceleration. Therefore, the net external force is in the same direction as $\mathbf{F}_{\text{app}}$, but its magnitude is slightly less than $\mathbf{F}_{\text{app}}$. The problem is now one-dimensional. From [Figure 4.21\(b\)](#), we can see that

$$F_{\text{net}} = F_{\text{app}} - F_D. \quad 4.62$$

But Newton's second law states that

$$F_{\text{net}} = ma. \quad 4.63$$

Thus,

$$F_{\text{app}} - F_D = ma. \quad 4.64$$

This can be solved for the magnitude of the drag force of the water F_D in terms of known quantities:

$$F_D = F_{\text{app}} - ma. \quad 4.65$$

Substituting known values gives

$$F_D = (4.5 \times 10^5 \text{ N}) - (5.0 \times 10^6 \text{ kg})(7.5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m/s}^2) = 7.5 \times 10^4 \text{ N}. \quad 4.66$$

The direction of $\mathbf{F}_D$ has already been determined to be in the direction opposite to $\mathbf{F}_{\text{app}}$, or at an angle of 53° south of west.

Discussion

The numbers used in this example are reasonable for a moderately large barge. It is certainly difficult to obtain larger accelerations with tugboats, and small speeds are desirable to avoid running the barge into the docks. Drag is relatively small for a well-designed hull at low speeds, consistent with the answer to this example, where F_D is less than 1/600th of the weight of the ship.

In the earlier example of a tightrope walker we noted that the tensions in wires supporting a mass were equal only because the angles on either side were equal. Consider the following example, where the angles are not equal; slightly more trigonometry is involved.

EXAMPLE 4.8

Different Tensions at Different Angles

Consider the traffic light (mass 15.0 kg) suspended from two wires as shown in [Figure 4.22](#). Find the tension in each wire, neglecting the masses of the wires.

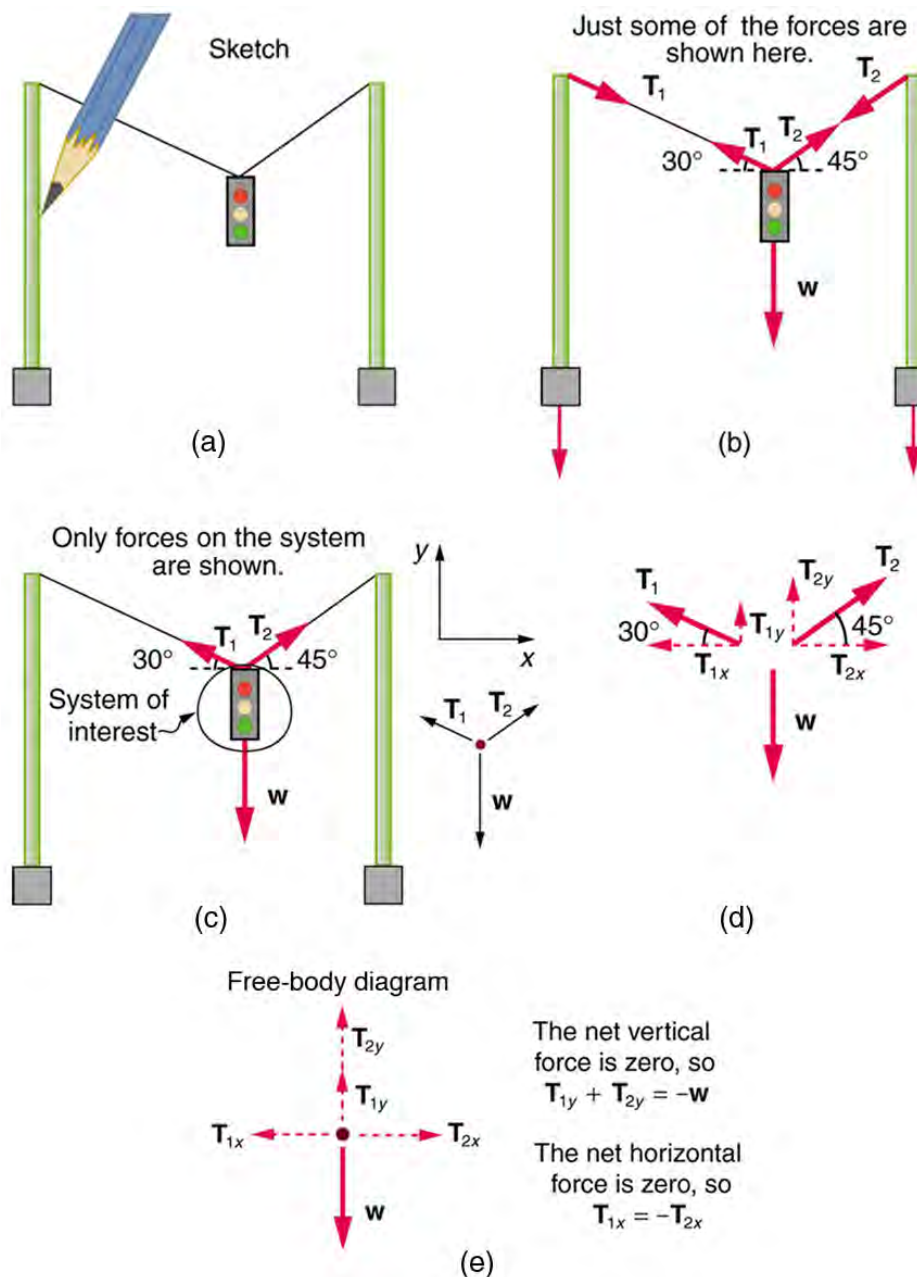


FIGURE 4.22 A traffic light is suspended from two wires. (b) Some of the forces involved. (c) Only forces acting on the system are shown here. The free-body diagram for the traffic light is also shown. (d) The forces projected onto vertical (y) and horizontal (x) axes. The horizontal components of the tensions must cancel, and the sum of the vertical components of the tensions must equal the weight of the traffic light. (e) The free-body diagram shows the vertical and horizontal forces acting on the traffic light.

Strategy

The system of interest is the traffic light, and its free-body diagram is shown in [Figure 4.22\(c\)](#). The three forces involved are not parallel, and so they must be projected onto a coordinate system. The most convenient coordinate system has one axis vertical and one horizontal, and the vector projections on it are shown in part (d) of the figure. There are two unknowns in this problem (T_1 and T_2), so two equations are needed to find them. These two equations come from applying Newton's second law along the vertical and horizontal axes, noting that the net external force is zero along each axis because acceleration is zero.

Solution

First consider the horizontal or x-axis:

$$F_{\text{net}x} = T_{2x} - T_{1x} = 0. \quad 4.67$$

Thus, as you might expect,

$$T_{1x} = T_{2x}. \quad 4.68$$

This gives us the following relationship between T_1 and T_2 :

$$T_1 \cos(30^\circ) = T_2 \cos(45^\circ). \quad 4.69$$

Thus,

$$T_2 = (1.225)T_1. \quad 4.70$$

Note that T_1 and T_2 are not equal in this case, because the angles on either side are not equal. It is reasonable that T_2 ends up being greater than T_1 , because it is exerted more vertically than T_1 .

Now consider the force components along the vertical or y-axis:

$$F_{\text{net}y} = T_{1y} + T_{2y} - w = 0. \quad 4.71$$

This implies

$$T_{1y} + T_{2y} = w. \quad 4.72$$

Substituting the expressions for the vertical components gives

$$T_1 \sin(30^\circ) + T_2 \sin(45^\circ) = w. \quad 4.73$$

There are two unknowns in this equation, but substituting the expression for T_2 in terms of T_1 reduces this to one equation with one unknown:

$$T_1(0.500) + (1.225T_1)(0.707) = w = mg, \quad 4.74$$

which yields

$$(1.366)T_1 = (15.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2). \quad 4.75$$

Solving this last equation gives the magnitude of T_1 to be

$$T_1 = 108 \text{ N}. \quad 4.76$$

Finally, the magnitude of T_2 is determined using the relationship between them, $T_2 = 1.225 T_1$, found above. Thus we obtain

$$T_2 = 132 \text{ N}. \quad 4.77$$

Discussion

Both tensions would be larger if both wires were more horizontal, and they will be equal if and only if the angles on either side are the same (as they were in the earlier example of a tightrope walker).

The bathroom scale is an excellent example of a normal force acting on a body. It provides a quantitative reading of how much it must push upward to support the weight of an object. But can you predict what you would see on the

dial of a bathroom scale if you stood on it during an elevator ride? Will you see a value greater than your weight when the elevator starts up? What about when the elevator moves upward at a constant speed: will the scale still read more than your weight at rest? Consider the following example.

EXAMPLE 4.9

What Does the Bathroom Scale Read in an Elevator?

Figure 4.23 shows a 75.0-kg man (weight of about 165 lb) standing on a bathroom scale in an elevator. Calculate the scale reading: (a) if the elevator accelerates upward at a rate of 1.20 m/s^2 , and (b) if the elevator moves upward at a constant speed of 1 m/s .

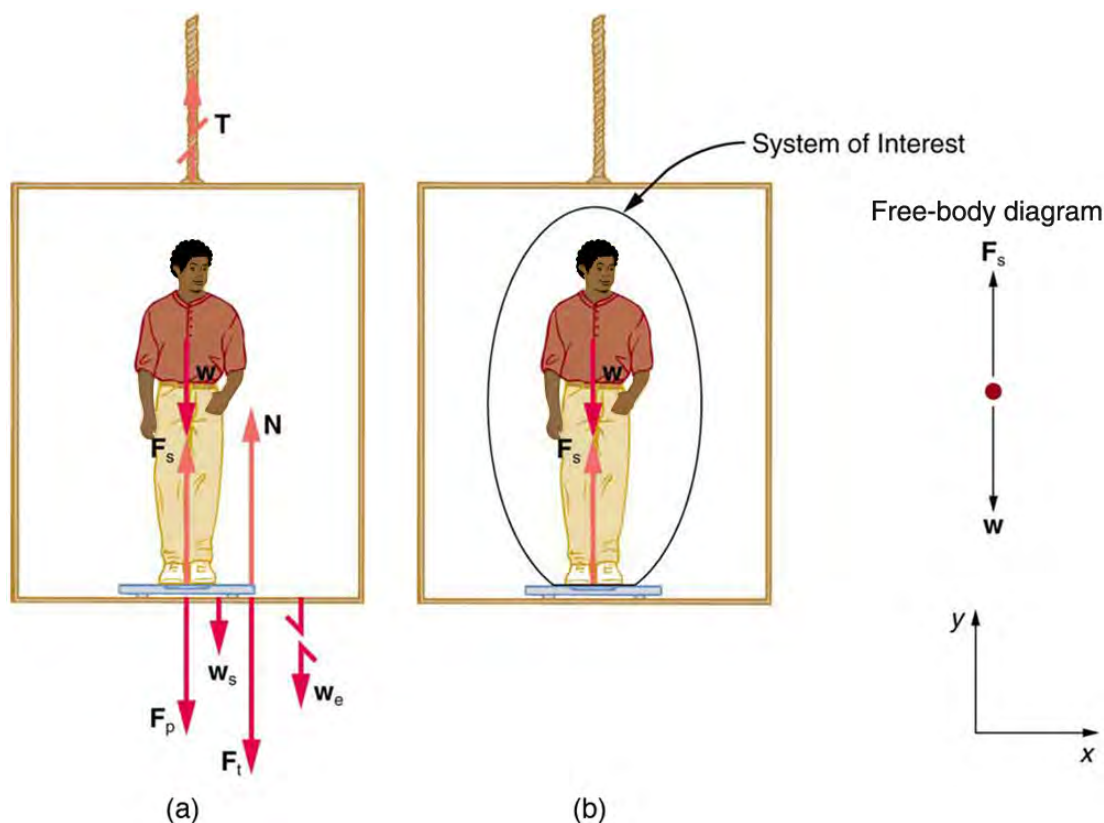


FIGURE 4.23 (a) The various forces acting when a person stands on a bathroom scale in an elevator. The arrows are approximately correct for when the elevator is accelerating upward—broken arrows represent forces too large to be drawn to scale. $\mathbf{T}$ is the weight of the scale, $\mathbf{w}_e$ is the weight of the elevator, $\mathbf{F}_s$ is the force of the scale on the person, $\mathbf{F}_p$ is the force of the person on the scale, $\mathbf{F}_t$ is the force of the scale on the floor of the elevator, and $\mathbf{N}$ is the force of the floor upward on the scale. (b) The free-body diagram shows only the external forces acting on the designated system of interest—the person.

Strategy

If the scale is accurate, its reading will equal F_p , the magnitude of the force the person exerts downward on it. Figure 4.23(a) shows the numerous forces acting on the elevator, scale, and person. It makes this one-dimensional problem look much more formidable than if the person is chosen to be the system of interest and a free-body diagram is drawn as in Figure 4.23(b). Analysis of the free-body diagram using Newton's laws can produce answers to both parts (a) and (b) of this example, as well as some other questions that might arise. The only forces acting on the person are his weight $\mathbf{w}$ and the upward force of the scale $\mathbf{F}_s$. According to Newton's third law $\mathbf{F}_p$ and $\mathbf{F}_s$ are equal in magnitude and opposite in direction, so that we need to find F_s in order to find what the scale reads. We can do this, as usual, by applying Newton's second law,

$$F_{\text{net}} = ma. \quad 4.78$$

From the free-body diagram we see that $F_{\text{net}} = F_s - w$, so that

$$F_s - w = ma. \quad 4.79$$

Solving for F_s gives an equation with only one unknown:

$$F_s = ma + w, \quad 4.80$$

or, because $w = mg$, simply

$$F_s = ma + mg. \quad 4.81$$

No assumptions were made about the acceleration, and so this solution should be valid for a variety of accelerations in addition to the ones in this exercise.

Solution for (a)

In this part of the problem, $a = 1.20 \text{ m/s}^2$, so that

$$F_s = (75.0 \text{ kg})(1.20 \text{ m/s}^2) + (75.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2), \quad 4.82$$

yielding

$$F_s = 825 \text{ N}. \quad 4.83$$

Discussion for (a)

This is about 185 lb. What would the scale have read if he were stationary? Since his acceleration would be zero, the force of the scale would be equal to his weight:

$$\begin{aligned} F_{\text{net}} &= ma = 0 = F_s - w \\ F_s &= w = mg \\ F_s &= (75.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) \\ F_s &= 735 \text{ N}. \end{aligned} \quad 4.84$$

So, the scale reading in the elevator is greater than his 735-N (165 lb) weight. This means that the scale is pushing up on the person with a force greater than his weight, as it must in order to accelerate him upward. Clearly, the greater the acceleration of the elevator, the greater the scale reading, consistent with what you feel in rapidly accelerating versus slowly accelerating elevators.

Solution for (b)

Now, what happens when the elevator reaches a constant upward velocity? Will the scale still read more than his weight? For any constant velocity—up, down, or stationary—acceleration is zero because $a = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t}$, and $\Delta v = 0$.

Thus,

$$F_s = ma + mg = 0 + mg. \quad 4.85$$

Now

$$F_s = (75.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2), \quad 4.86$$

which gives

$$F_s = 735 \text{ N}. \quad 4.87$$

Discussion for (b)

The scale reading is 735 N, which equals the person's weight. This will be the case whenever the elevator has a constant velocity—moving up, moving down, or stationary.

The solution to the previous example also applies to an elevator accelerating downward, as mentioned. When an elevator accelerates downward, a is negative, and the scale reading is *less* than the weight of the person, until a constant downward velocity is reached, at which time the scale reading again becomes equal to the person's weight. If the elevator is in free-fall and accelerating downward at g , then the scale reading will be zero and the person will *appear* to be weightless.

Integrating Concepts: Newton's Laws of Motion and Kinematics

Physics is most interesting and most powerful when applied to general situations that involve more than a narrow set of physical principles. Newton's laws of motion can also be integrated with other concepts that have been discussed previously in this text to solve problems of motion. For example, forces produce accelerations, a topic of kinematics, and hence the relevance of earlier chapters. When approaching problems that involve various types of forces, acceleration, velocity, and/or position, use the following steps to approach the problem:

Problem-Solving Strategy

Step 1. *Identify which physical principles are involved.* Listing the givens and the quantities to be calculated will allow you to identify the principles involved.

Step 2. *Solve the problem using strategies outlined in the text.* If these are available for the specific topic, you should refer to them. You should also refer to the sections of the text that deal with a particular topic. The following worked example illustrates how these strategies are applied to an integrated concept problem.



EXAMPLE 4.10

What Force Must a Soccer Player Exert to Reach Top Speed?

A soccer player starts from rest and accelerates forward, reaching a velocity of 8.00 m/s in 2.50 s. (a) What was his average acceleration? (b) What average force did he exert backward on the ground to achieve this acceleration? The player's mass is 70.0 kg, and air resistance is negligible.

Strategy

1. To solve an *integrated concept problem*, we must first identify the physical principles involved and identify the chapters in which they are found. Part (a) of this example considers *acceleration* along a straight line. This is a topic of *kinematics*. Part (b) deals with *force*, a topic of *dynamics* found in this chapter.
2. The following solutions to each part of the example illustrate how the specific problem-solving strategies are applied. These involve identifying knowns and unknowns, checking to see if the answer is reasonable, and so forth.

Solution for (a)

We are given the initial and final velocities (zero and 8.00 m/s forward); thus, the change in velocity is $\Delta v = 8.00$ m/s. We are given the elapsed time, and so $\Delta t = 2.50$ s. The unknown is acceleration, which can be found from its definition:

$$a = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t}. \quad 4.88$$

Substituting the known values yields

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \frac{8.00 \text{ m/s}}{2.50 \text{ s}} \\ &= 3.20 \text{ m/s}^2. \end{aligned} \quad 4.89$$

Discussion for (a)

This is an attainable acceleration for an athlete in good condition.

Solution for (b)

Here we are asked to find the average force the player exerts backward to achieve this forward acceleration. Neglecting air resistance, this would be equal in magnitude to the net external force on the player, since this force causes his acceleration. Since we now know the player's acceleration and are given his mass, we can use Newton's second law to find the force exerted. That is,

$$F_{\text{net}} = ma. \quad 4.90$$

Substituting the known values of m and a gives

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_{\text{net}} &= (70.0 \text{ kg})(3.20 \text{ m/s}^2) \\
 &= 224 \text{ N.}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{4.91}$$

Discussion for (b)

This is about 50 pounds, a reasonable average force.

This worked example illustrates how to apply problem-solving strategies to situations that include topics from different chapters. The first step is to identify the physical principles involved in the problem. The second step is to solve for the unknown using familiar problem-solving strategies. These strategies are found throughout the text, and many worked examples show how to use them for single topics. You will find these techniques for integrated concept problems useful in applications of physics outside of a physics course, such as in your profession, in other science disciplines, and in everyday life. The following problems will build your skills in the broad application of physical principles.

4.8 Extended Topic: The Four Basic Forces—An Introduction

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Understand the four basic forces that underlie the processes in nature.

One of the most remarkable simplifications in physics is that only four distinct forces account for all known phenomena. In fact, nearly all of the forces we experience directly are due to only one basic force, called the electromagnetic force. (The gravitational force is the only force we experience directly that is not electromagnetic.) This is a tremendous simplification of the myriad of *apparently* different forces we can list, only a few of which were discussed in the previous section. As we will see, the basic forces are all thought to act through the exchange of microscopic carrier particles, and the characteristics of the basic forces are determined by the types of particles exchanged. Action at a distance, such as the gravitational force of Earth on the Moon, is explained by the existence of a **force field** rather than by “physical contact.”

The *four basic forces* are the gravitational force, the electromagnetic force, the weak nuclear force, and the strong nuclear force. Their properties are summarized in [Table 4.1](#). Since the weak and strong nuclear forces act over an extremely short range, the size of a nucleus or less, we do not experience them directly, although they are crucial to the very structure of matter. These forces determine which nuclei are stable and which decay, and they are the basis of the release of energy in certain nuclear reactions. Nuclear forces determine not only the stability of nuclei, but also the relative abundance of elements in nature. The properties of the nucleus of an atom determine the number of electrons it has and, thus, indirectly determine the chemistry of the atom. More will be said of all of these topics in later chapters.

CONCEPT CONNECTIONS: THE FOUR BASIC FORCES

The four basic forces will be encountered in more detail as you progress through the text. The gravitational force is defined in [Uniform Circular Motion and Gravitation](#), electric force in [Electric Charge and Electric Field](#), magnetic force in [Magnetism](#), and nuclear forces in [Radioactivity and Nuclear Physics](#). On a macroscopic scale, electromagnetism and gravity are the basis for all forces. The nuclear forces are vital to the substructure of matter, but they are not directly experienced on the macroscopic scale.

Force	Approximate Relative Strengths	Range	Attraction/Repulsion	Carrier Particle
Gravitational	10^{-38}	∞	attractive only	Graviton
Electromagnetic	10^{-2}	∞	attractive and repulsive	Photon
Weak nuclear	10^{-6}	$< 10^{-18}\text{ m}$	attractive and repulsive	W^+ , W^- , Z^0
Strong nuclear	1	∞	attractive and repulsive	gluons

TABLE 4.1 Properties of the Four Basic Forces¹

The gravitational force is surprisingly weak—it is only because gravity is always attractive that we notice it at all. Our weight is the gravitational force due to the *entire* Earth acting on us. On the very large scale, as in astronomical systems, the gravitational force is the dominant force determining the motions of moons, planets, stars, and galaxies. The gravitational force also affects the nature of space and time. As we shall see later in the study of general relativity, space is curved in the vicinity of very massive bodies, such as the Sun, and time actually slows down near massive bodies.

Electromagnetic forces can be either attractive or repulsive. They are long-range forces, which act over extremely large distances, and they nearly cancel for macroscopic objects. (Remember that it is the *net* external force that is important.) If they did not cancel, electromagnetic forces would completely overwhelm the gravitational force. The electromagnetic force is a combination of electrical forces (such as those that cause static electricity) and magnetic forces (such as those that affect a compass needle). These two forces were thought to be quite distinct until early in the 19th century, when scientists began to discover that they are different manifestations of the same force. This discovery is a classical case of the *unification of forces*. Similarly, friction, tension, and all of the other classes of forces we experience directly (except gravity, of course) are due to electromagnetic interactions of atoms and molecules. It is still convenient to consider these forces separately in specific applications, however, because of the ways they manifest themselves.

CONCEPT CONNECTIONS: UNIFYING FORCES

Attempts to unify the four basic forces are discussed in relation to elementary particles later in this text. By “unify” we mean finding connections between the forces that show that they are different manifestations of a single force. Even if such unification is achieved, the forces will retain their separate characteristics on the macroscopic scale and may be identical only under extreme conditions such as those existing in the early universe.

Physicists are now exploring whether the four basic forces are in some way related. Attempts to unify all forces into one come under the rubric of Grand Unified Theories (GUTs), with which there has been some success in recent years. It is now known that under conditions of extremely high density and temperature, such as existed in the early universe, the electromagnetic and weak nuclear forces are indistinguishable. They can now be considered to be different manifestations of one force, called the *electroweak* force. So the list of four has been reduced in a sense to only three. Further progress in unifying all forces is proving difficult—especially the inclusion of the gravitational force, which has the special characteristics of affecting the space and time in which the other forces exist.

While the unification of forces will not affect how we discuss forces in this text, it is fascinating that such underlying simplicity exists in the face of the overt complexity of the universe. There is no reason that nature must be simple—it simply is.

1 The graviton is a proposed particle, though it has not yet been observed by scientists. See the discussion of gravitational waves later in this section. The particles W^+ , W^- , and Z^0 are called vector bosons; these were predicted by theory and first observed in 1983. There are eight types of gluons proposed by scientists, and their existence is indicated by meson exchange in the nuclei of atoms.

Action at a Distance: Concept of a Field

All forces act at a distance. This is obvious for the gravitational force. Earth and the Moon, for example, interact without coming into contact. It is also true for all other forces. Friction, for example, is an electromagnetic force between atoms that may not actually touch. What is it that carries forces between objects? One way to answer this question is to imagine that a **force field** surrounds whatever object creates the force. A second object (often called a *test object*) placed in this field will experience a force that is a function of location and other variables. The field itself is the “thing” that carries the force from one object to another. The field is defined so as to be a characteristic of the object creating it; the field does not depend on the test object placed in it. Earth’s gravitational field, for example, is a function of the mass of Earth and the distance from its center, independent of the presence of other masses. The concept of a field is useful because equations can be written for force fields surrounding objects (for gravity, this yields $w = mg$ at Earth’s surface), and motions can be calculated from these equations. (See [Figure 4.24](#).)

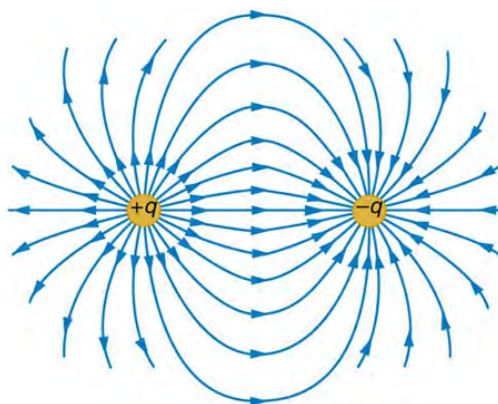


FIGURE 4.24 The electric force field between a positively charged particle and a negatively charged particle. When a positive test charge is placed in the field, the charge will experience a force in the direction of the force field lines.

CONCEPT CONNECTIONS: FORCE FIELDS

The concept of a *force field* is also used in connection with electric charge and is presented in [Electric Charge and Electric Field](#). It is also a useful idea for all the basic forces, as will be seen in [Particle Physics](#). Fields help us to visualize forces and how they are transmitted, as well as to describe them with precision and to link forces with subatomic carrier particles.

The field concept has been applied very successfully; we can calculate motions and describe nature to high precision using field equations. As useful as the field concept is, however, it leaves unanswered the question of what carries the force. It has been proposed in recent decades, starting in 1935 with Hideki Yukawa’s (1907–1981) work on the strong nuclear force, that all forces are transmitted by the exchange of elementary particles. We can visualize particle exchange as analogous to macroscopic phenomena such as two people passing a basketball back and forth, thereby exerting a repulsive force without touching one another. (See [Figure 4.25](#).)

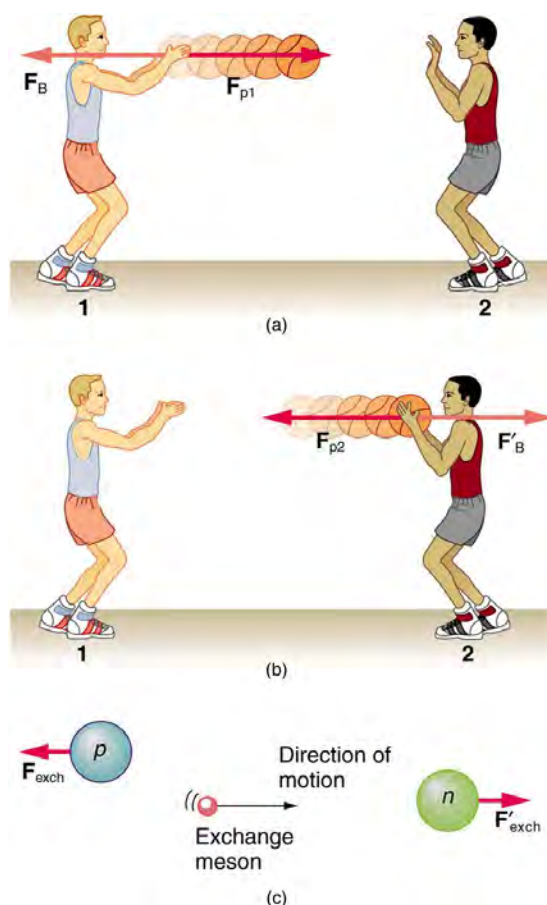


FIGURE 4.25 The exchange of masses resulting in repulsive forces. (a) The person throwing the basketball exerts a force F_{p1} on it toward the other person and feels a reaction force F_B away from the second person. (b) The person catching the basketball exerts a force F_{p2} on it to stop the ball and feels a reaction force F'_B away from the first person. (c) The analogous exchange of a meson between a proton and a neutron carries the strong nuclear forces F_{exch} and F'_{exch} between them. An attractive force can also be exerted by the exchange of a mass—if person 2 pulled the basketball away from the first person as he tried to retain it, then the force between them would be attractive.

This idea of particle exchange deepens rather than contradicts field concepts. It is more satisfying philosophically to think of something physical actually moving between objects acting at a distance. [Table 4.1](#) lists the exchange or **carrier particles**, both observed and proposed, that carry the four forces. But the real fruit of the particle-exchange proposal is that searches for Yukawa's proposed particle found it *and* a number of others that were completely unexpected, stimulating yet more research. All of this research eventually led to the proposal of quarks as the underlying substructure of matter, which is a basic tenet of GUTs. If successful, these theories will explain not only forces, but also the structure of matter itself. Yet physics is an experimental science, so the test of these theories must lie in the domain of the real world. As of this writing, scientists at the CERN laboratory in Switzerland are starting to test these theories using the world's largest particle accelerator: the Large Hadron Collider. This accelerator (27 km in circumference) allows two high-energy proton beams, traveling in opposite directions, to collide. An energy of 14 trillion electron volts will be available. It is anticipated that some new particles, possibly force carrier particles, will be found. (See [Figure 4.26](#).) One of the force carriers of high interest that researchers hope to detect is the Higgs boson. The observation of its properties might tell us why different particles have different masses.



FIGURE 4.26 The world's largest particle accelerator spans the border between Switzerland and France. Two beams, traveling in opposite directions close to the speed of light, collide in a tube similar to the central tube shown here. External magnets determine the beam's path. Special detectors will analyze particles created in these collisions. Questions as broad as what is the origin of mass and what was matter like the first few seconds of our universe will be explored. This accelerator began preliminary operation in 2008. (credit: Frank Hommes)

Tiny particles also have wave-like behavior, something we will explore more in a later chapter. To better understand force-carrier particles from another perspective, let us consider gravity. The search for gravitational waves has been going on for a number of years. Over 100 years ago, Einstein predicted the existence of these waves as part of his general theory of relativity. Gravitational waves are created during the collision of massive stars, in black holes, or in supernova explosions—like shock waves. These gravitational waves will travel through space from such sites much like a pebble dropped into a pond sends out ripples—except these waves move at the speed of light. A detector apparatus has been built in the U.S., consisting of two large installations nearly 3000 km apart—one in Washington state and one in Louisiana! The facility is called the Laser Interferometer Gravitational-Wave Observatory (LIGO). Each installation is designed to use optical lasers to examine any slight shift in the relative positions of two masses due to the effect of gravity waves. The two sites allow simultaneous measurements of these small effects to be separated from other natural phenomena, such as earthquakes. Initial operation of the detectors began in 2002, and work is proceeding on increasing their sensitivity. Similar installations have been built in Italy (VIRGO), Germany (GEO600), and Japan (TAMA300) to provide a worldwide network of gravitational wave detectors.

In September, 2015, LIGO fulfilled its promise and helped prove Einstein's predictions. The system detected the first gravitational waves arising from the merger of two black holes—one 29 times the mass of our Sun and the other 36 times the mass of our Sun—that occurred 1.3 billion years ago. About 3 times the mass of the Sun was converted into gravitational waves in a fraction of a second—with a peak power output about 50 times that of the whole visible universe. Due to the 7 millisecond delay in detection, researchers established that the merger occurred on the southern hemisphere side of Earth. Since then, LIGO and VIRGO have combined to detect about a dozen similar events, with better and more precise measurements. Waves from neutron star mergers and different-sized black holes have deepened our understanding of these objects and their impact on the universe.

International collaboration in this area is moving into space with the joint EU/US project LISA (Laser Interferometer Space Antenna). Earthquakes and other Earthly noises will be no problem for these monitoring spacecraft. LISA will complement LIGO by looking at much more massive black holes through the observation of gravitational-wave sources emitting much larger wavelengths. Three satellites will be placed in space above Earth in an equilateral triangle (with 5,000,000-km sides) ([Figure 4.27](#)). The system will measure the relative positions of each satellite to detect passing gravitational waves. Accuracy to within 10% of the size of an atom will be needed to detect any waves. The launch of this project will likely be in the 2030s.

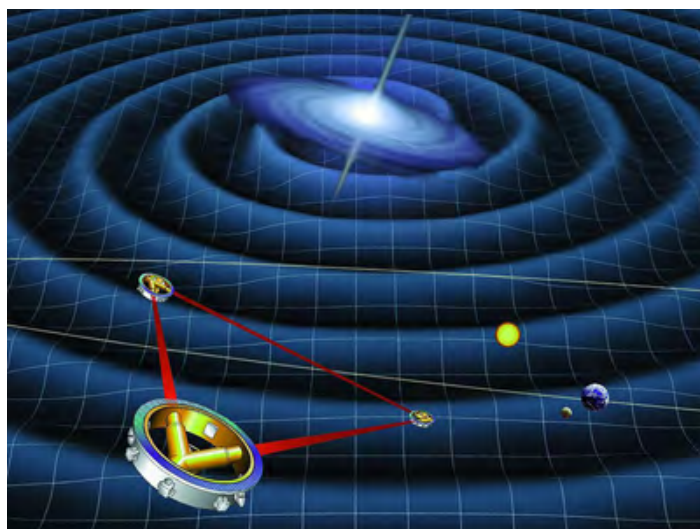


FIGURE 4.27 Space-based future experiments for the measurement of gravitational waves. Shown here is a drawing of LISA's orbit. Each satellite of LISA will consist of a laser source and a mass. The lasers will transmit a signal to measure the distance between each satellite's test mass. The relative motion of these masses will provide information about passing gravitational waves. (credit: NASA)

As you can see above, some of the most groundbreaking developments in physics are made with a relatively long gap from theoretical prediction to experimental detection. This pattern continues the process of science from its earliest days, where early thinkers and researchers made discoveries that only led to more questions. Einstein was unique in many ways, but he was not unique in that later scientists, building on his and each other's work, would prove his theories. Evidence for black holes became more and more concrete as scientists developed new and better ways to look for them. Some of the most prominent have been Roger Penrose, who developed new mathematical models related to black holes, as well as Reinhard Genzel and Andrea Ghez, who independently used telescope observations to identify a region of our galaxy where a massive unseen gravity source (4 million times the size of our Sun) was pulling on stars. And soon after, collaborators on the Event Horizon Telescope project produced the first actual image of a black hole.

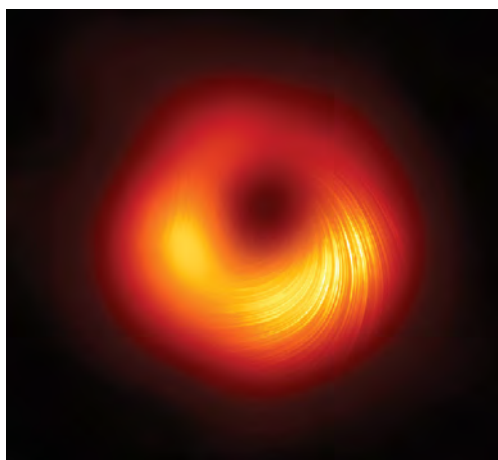


FIGURE 4.28 This updated image of the supermassive black hole at the center of the M87 galaxy shows the polarization created by the powerful magnetic field that surrounds the object. The image was created by the Event Horizon Telescope, which combines data from telescopes around the world. The project involves over 200 researchers and produced the first image of a black hole in 2019. (credit: EHT Collaboration/NASA APOD)

Glossary

acceleration the rate at which an object's velocity changes over a period of time

carrier particle a fundamental particle of nature that is surrounded by a characteristic force field; photons are carrier particles of the electromagnetic force

dynamics the study of how forces affect the motion of objects and systems

external force a force acting on an object or system that originates outside of the object or system

force a push or pull on an object with a specific magnitude and direction; can be represented by vectors; can be expressed as a multiple of a standard force

force field a region in which a test particle will experience a force

free-body diagram a sketch showing all of the external forces acting on an object or system; the system is represented by a dot, and the forces are represented by vectors extending outward from the dot

free-fall a situation in which the only force acting on an object is the force due to gravity

friction a force past each other of objects that are touching; examples include rough surfaces and air resistance

inertia the tendency of an object to remain at rest or remain in motion

inertial frame of reference a coordinate system that is not accelerating; all forces acting in an inertial frame of reference are real forces, as opposed to fictitious forces that are observed due to an accelerating frame of reference

law of inertia see Newton's first law of motion

mass the quantity of matter in a substance; measured in kilograms

net external force the vector sum of all external forces acting on an object or system; causes a mass

to accelerate

Newton's first law of motion a body at rest remains at rest, or, if in motion, remains in motion at a constant velocity unless acted on by a net external force; also known as the law of inertia

Newton's second law of motion the net external force $\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}}$ on an object with mass m is proportional to and in the same direction as the acceleration of the object, $\mathbf{a}$, and inversely proportional to the mass; defined mathematically as $\mathbf{a} = \frac{\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}}}{m}$

Newton's third law of motion whenever one body exerts a force on a second body, the first body experiences a force that is equal in magnitude and opposite in direction to the force that the first body exerts

normal force the force that a surface applies to an object to support the weight of the object; acts perpendicular to the surface on which the object rests

system defined by the boundaries of an object or collection of objects being observed; all forces originating from outside of the system are considered external forces

tension the pulling force that acts along a medium, especially a stretched flexible connector, such as a rope or cable; when a rope supports the weight of an object, the force on the object due to the rope is called a tension force

thrust a reaction force that pushes a body forward in response to a backward force; rockets, airplanes, and cars are pushed forward by a thrust reaction force

weight the force $\mathbf{w}$ due to gravity acting on an object of mass m ; defined mathematically as: $\mathbf{w} = m\mathbf{g}$, where $\mathbf{g}$ is the magnitude and direction of the acceleration due to gravity

Section Summary

4.1 Development of Force Concept

- **Dynamics** is the study of how forces affect the motion of objects.
- **Force** is a push or pull that can be defined in terms of various standards, and it is a vector having both magnitude and direction.
- **External forces** are any outside forces that act on a body. A **free-body diagram** is a drawing of all external forces acting on a body.

4.2 Newton's First Law of Motion: Inertia

- **Newton's first law of motion** states that a body at rest remains at rest, or, if in motion, remains in motion at a constant velocity unless acted on by a net external force. This is also known as the **law of inertia**.
- **Inertia** is the tendency of an object to remain at rest or remain in motion. Inertia is related to an object's mass.
- **Mass** is the quantity of matter in a substance.

4.3 Newton's Second Law of Motion: Concept of a System

- Acceleration, $\mathbf{a}$, is defined as a change in velocity, meaning a change in its magnitude or direction, or both.
- An external force is one acting on a system from outside the system, as opposed to internal forces, which act between components within the system.
- Newton's second law of motion states that the acceleration of a system is directly proportional to and in the same direction as the net external force acting on the system, and inversely proportional to its mass.
- In equation form, Newton's second law of motion is $\mathbf{a} = \frac{\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}}}{m}$.
- This is often written in the more familiar form: $\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = m\mathbf{a}$.
- The weight $\mathbf{w}$ of an object is defined as the force of gravity acting on an object of mass m . The object experiences an acceleration due to gravity $\mathbf{g}$: $\mathbf{w} = m\mathbf{g}$.
- If the only force acting on an object is due to gravity, the object is in free fall.
- Friction is a force that opposes the motion past each other of objects that are touching.

4.4 Newton's Third Law of Motion: Symmetry in Forces

- **Newton's third law of motion** represents a basic symmetry in nature. It states: Whenever one body exerts a force on a second body, the first body experiences a force that is equal in magnitude and opposite in direction to the force that the first body exerts.
- A **thrust** is a reaction force that pushes a body forward in response to a backward force. Rockets, airplanes, and cars are pushed forward by a thrust reaction force.

4.5 Normal, Tension, and Other Examples of Forces

- When objects rest on a surface, the surface applies a force to the object that supports the weight of the object. This supporting force acts perpendicular to and away from the surface. It is called a normal force, $\mathbf{N}$.
- When objects rest on a non-accelerating horizontal surface, the magnitude of the normal force is equal to the weight of the object: $N = mg$.
- When objects rest on an inclined plane that makes an angle θ with the horizontal surface, the weight

of the object can be resolved into components that act perpendicular ($\mathbf{w}_{\perp}$) and parallel ($\mathbf{w}_{\parallel}$) to the surface of the plane. These components can be calculated using:

$$w_{\parallel} = w \sin(\theta) = mg \sin(\theta)$$

$$w_{\perp} = w \cos(\theta) = mg \cos(\theta).$$

- The pulling force that acts along a stretched flexible connector, such as a rope or cable, is called tension, $\mathbf{T}$. When a rope supports the weight of an object that is at rest, the tension in the rope is equal to the weight of the object: $T = mg$.
- In any inertial frame of reference (one that is not accelerated or rotated), Newton's laws have the simple forms given in this chapter and all forces are real forces having a physical origin.

4.6 Problem-Solving Strategies

- To solve problems involving Newton's laws of motion, follow the procedure described:
 1. Draw a sketch of the problem.
 2. Identify known and unknown quantities, and identify the system of interest. Draw a free-body diagram, which is a sketch showing all of the forces acting on an object. The object is represented by a dot, and the forces are represented by vectors extending in different directions from the dot. If vectors act in directions that are not horizontal or vertical, resolve the vectors into horizontal and vertical components and draw them on the free-body diagram.
 3. Write Newton's second law in the horizontal and vertical directions and add the forces acting on the object. If the object does not accelerate in a particular direction (for example, the x -direction) then $F_{\text{net } x} = 0$. If the object does accelerate in that direction, $F_{\text{net } x} = ma$.
 4. Check your answer. Is the answer reasonable? Are the units correct?

4.7 Further Applications of Newton's Laws of Motion

- Newton's laws of motion can be applied in numerous situations to solve problems of motion.
- Some problems will contain multiple force vectors acting in different directions on an object. Be sure to draw diagrams, resolve all force vectors into horizontal and vertical components, and draw a free-body diagram. Always analyze the direction in which an object accelerates so that you can determine whether $F_{\text{net}} = ma$ or $F_{\text{net}} = 0$.
- The normal force on an object is not always equal

in magnitude to the weight of the object. If an object is accelerating, the normal force will be less than or greater than the weight of the object. Also, if the object is on an inclined plane, the normal force will always be less than the full weight of the object.

- Some problems will contain various physical quantities, such as forces, acceleration, velocity, or position. You can apply concepts from kinematics and dynamics in order to solve these problems of motion.

4.8 Extended Topic: The Four Basic Forces—An Introduction

- The various types of forces that are categorized for

Conceptual Questions

4.1 Development of Force Concept

1. Propose a force standard different from the example of a stretched spring discussed in the text. Your standard must be capable of producing the same force repeatedly.
2. What properties do forces have that allow us to classify them as vectors?

4.2 Newton's First Law of Motion: Inertia

3. How are inertia and mass related?
4. What is the relationship between weight and mass? Which is an intrinsic, unchanging property of a body?

4.3 Newton's Second Law of Motion: Concept of a System

5. Which statement is correct? (a) Net force causes motion. (b) Net force causes change in motion. Explain your answer and give an example.
6. Why can we neglect forces such as those holding a body together when we apply Newton's second law of motion?
7. Explain how the choice of the "system of interest" affects which forces must be considered when applying Newton's second law of motion.
8. Describe a situation in which the net external force on a system is not zero, yet its speed remains constant.
9. A system can have a nonzero velocity while the net external force on it *is* zero. Describe such a situation.
10. A rock is thrown straight up. What is the net

use in many applications are all manifestations of the *four basic forces* in nature.

- The properties of these forces are summarized in [Table 4.1](#).
- Everything we experience directly without sensitive instruments is due to either electromagnetic forces or gravitational forces. The nuclear forces are responsible for the submicroscopic structure of matter, but they are not directly sensed because of their short ranges. Attempts are being made to show all four forces are different manifestations of a single unified force.
- A force field surrounds an object creating a force and is the carrier of that force.

external force acting on the rock when it is at the top of its trajectory?

11. (a) Give an example of different net external forces acting on the same system to produce different accelerations. (b) Give an example of the same net external force acting on systems of different masses, producing different accelerations. (c) What law accurately describes both effects? State it in words and as an equation.
12. If the acceleration of a system is zero, are no external forces acting on it? What about internal forces? Explain your answers.
13. If a constant, nonzero force is applied to an object, what can you say about the velocity and acceleration of the object?
14. The gravitational force on the basketball in [Figure 4.6](#) is ignored. When gravity *is* taken into account, what is the direction of the net external force on the basketball—above horizontal, below horizontal, or still horizontal?

4.4 Newton's Third Law of Motion: Symmetry in Forces

15. When you take off in a jet aircraft, there is a sensation of being pushed back into the seat. Explain why you move backward in the seat—is there really a force backward on you? (The same reasoning explains whiplash injuries, in which the head is apparently thrown backward.)
16. A device used since the 1940s to measure the kick or recoil of the body due to heart beats is the "ballistocardiograph." What physics principle(s) are involved here to measure the force of cardiac

contraction? How might we construct such a device?

17. Describe a situation in which one system exerts a force on another and, as a consequence, experiences a force that is equal in magnitude and opposite in direction. Which of Newton's laws of motion apply?
18. Why does an ordinary rifle recoil (kick backward) when fired? The barrel of a recoilless rifle is open at both ends. Describe how Newton's third law applies when one is fired. Can you safely stand close behind one when it is fired?
19. An American football lineman reasons that it is senseless to try to out-push the opposing player, since no matter how hard he pushes he will experience an equal and opposite force from the other player. Use Newton's laws and draw a free-body diagram of an appropriate system to explain how he can still out-push the opposition if he is strong enough.
20. Newton's third law of motion tells us that forces always occur in pairs of equal and opposite magnitude. Explain how the choice of the "system of interest" affects whether one such pair of forces cancels.

4.5 Normal, Tension, and Other Examples of Forces

21. If a leg is suspended by a traction setup as shown in [Figure 4.29](#), what is the tension in the rope?

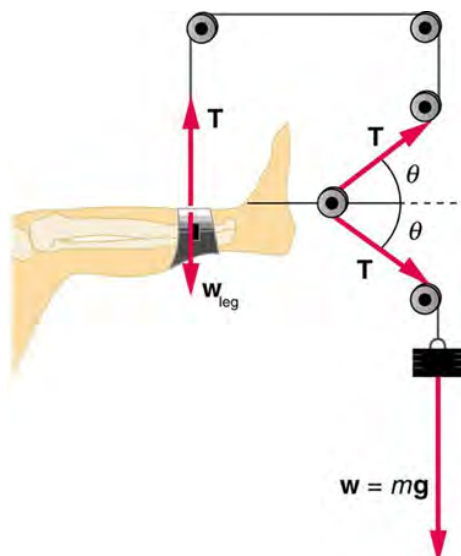


FIGURE 4.29 A leg is suspended by a traction system in which wires are used to transmit forces. Frictionless pulleys

change the direction of the force T without changing its magnitude.

22. In a traction setup for a broken bone, with pulleys and rope available, how might we be able to increase the force along the tibia using the same weight? (See [Figure 4.29](#).) (Note that the tibia is the shin bone shown in this image.)

4.7 Further Applications of Newton's Laws of Motion

23. To simulate the apparent weightlessness of space orbit, astronauts are trained in the hold of a cargo aircraft that is accelerating downward at g . Why will they appear to be weightless, as measured by standing on a bathroom scale, in this accelerated frame of reference? Is there any difference between their apparent weightlessness in orbit and in the aircraft?
24. A cartoon shows the hat coming off the head of an elevator passenger when the elevator rapidly stops during an upward ride. Can this really happen without the person being tied to the floor of the elevator? Explain your answer.

4.8 Extended Topic: The Four Basic Forces—An Introduction

25. Explain, in terms of the properties of the four basic forces, why people notice the gravitational force acting on their bodies if it is such a comparatively weak force.
26. What is the dominant force between astronomical objects? Why are the other three basic forces less significant over these very large distances?
27. Give a detailed example of how the exchange of a particle can result in an *attractive* force. (For example, consider one child pulling a toy out of the hands of another.)

Problems & Exercises

4.3 Newton's Second Law of Motion: Concept of a System

You may assume data taken from illustrations is accurate to three digits.

1. A 63.0-kg sprinter starts a race with an acceleration of 4.20 m/s^2 . What is the net external force on him?
2. If the sprinter from the previous problem accelerates at that rate for 20 m, and then maintains that velocity for the remainder of the 100-m dash, what will be his time for the race?
3. A cleaner pushes a 4.50-kg laundry cart in such a way that the net external force on it is 60.0 N. Calculate the magnitude of its acceleration.
4. Since astronauts in orbit are apparently weightless, a clever method of measuring their masses is needed to monitor their mass gains or losses to adjust diets. One way to do this is to exert a known force on an astronaut and measure the acceleration produced. Suppose a net external force of 50.0 N is exerted and the astronaut's acceleration is measured to be 0.893 m/s^2 . (a) Calculate her mass. (b) By exerting a force on the astronaut, the vehicle in which they orbit experiences an equal and opposite force. Discuss how this would affect the measurement of the astronaut's acceleration. Propose a method in which recoil of the vehicle is avoided.
5. In [Figure 4.7](#), the net external force on the 24-kg mower is stated to be 51 N. If the force of friction opposing the motion is 24 N, what force F (in newtons) is the person exerting on the mower? Suppose the mower is moving at 1.5 m/s when the force F is removed. How far will the mower go before stopping?
6. The same rocket sled drawn in [Figure 4.30](#) is decelerated at a rate of 196 m/s^2 . What force is necessary to produce this deceleration? Assume that the rockets are off. The mass of the system is 2100 kg.

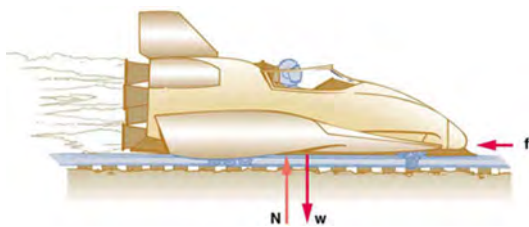


FIGURE 4.30

7. (a) If the rocket sled shown in [Figure 4.31](#) starts with only one rocket burning, what is the magnitude of its acceleration? Assume that the mass of the system is 2100 kg, the thrust T is $2.4 \times 10^4 \text{ N}$, and the force of friction opposing the motion is known to be 650 N. (b) Why is the acceleration not one-fourth of what it is with all rockets burning?

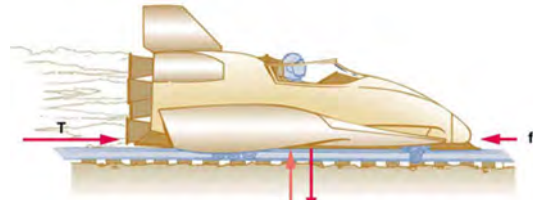


FIGURE 4.31

8. What is the deceleration of the rocket sled if it comes to rest in 1.1 s from a speed of 1000 km/h? (Such deceleration caused one test subject to black out and have temporary blindness.)
9. Suppose two children push horizontally, but in exactly opposite directions, on a third child in a wagon. The first child exerts a force of 75.0 N, the second a force of 90.0 N, friction is 12.0 N, and the mass of the third child plus wagon is 23.0 kg.
 - a. What is the system of interest if the acceleration of the child in the wagon is to be calculated?
 - b. Draw a free-body diagram, including all forces acting on the system.
 - c. Calculate the acceleration.
 - d. What would the acceleration be if friction were 15.0 N?
10. A powerful motorcycle can produce an acceleration of 3.50 m/s^2 while traveling at 90.0 km/h. At that speed the forces resisting motion, including friction and air resistance, total 400 N. (Air resistance is analogous to air friction. It always opposes the motion of an object.) What is the magnitude of the force the motorcycle exerts backward on the ground to produce its acceleration if the mass of the motorcycle with rider is 245 kg?
11. The rocket sled shown in [Figure 4.32](#) accelerates at a rate of 49.0 m/s^2 . Its passenger has a mass of 75.0 kg. (a) Calculate the horizontal component of the force the seat exerts against his body. Compare this with his weight by using a ratio. (b) Calculate the direction and magnitude of the total force the seat exerts against his body.

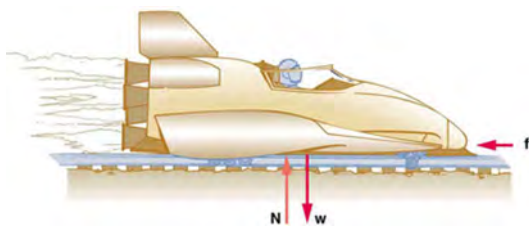


FIGURE 4.32

12. Repeat the previous problem for the situation in which the rocket sled decelerates at a rate of 201 m/s^2 . In this problem, the forces are exerted by the seat and restraining belts.
13. The weight of an astronaut plus their space suit on the Moon is only 250 N. How much do they weigh on Earth? What is the mass on the Moon? On Earth?
14. Suppose the mass of a fully loaded module in which astronauts take off from the Moon is 10,000 kg. The thrust of its engines is 30,000 N. (a) Calculate its the magnitude of acceleration in a vertical takeoff from the Moon. (b) Could it lift off from Earth? If not, why not? If it could, calculate the magnitude of its acceleration.

4.4 Newton's Third Law of Motion: Symmetry in Forces

15. What net external force is exerted on a 1100-kg artillery shell fired from a battleship if the shell is accelerated at $2.40 \times 10^4 \text{ m/s}^2$? What is the magnitude of the force exerted on the ship by the artillery shell?
16. A rugby player is being pushed backward by an opposing player who is exerting a force of 800 N on him. The mass of the losing player plus equipment is 90.0 kg, and he is accelerating at 1.20 m/s^2 backward. (a) What is the force of friction between the losing player's feet and the grass? (b) What force does the winning player exert on the ground to move forward if his mass plus equipment is 110 kg? (c) Draw a sketch of the situation showing the system of interest used to solve each part. For this situation, draw a free-body diagram and write the net force equation.

4.5 Normal, Tension, and Other Examples of Forces

17. Two teams of nine members each engage in a tug of war. Each of the first team's members has an average mass of 68 kg and exerts an average force of 1350 N horizontally. Each of the second team's members has an average mass of 73 kg and exerts

an average force of 1365 N horizontally. (a) What is magnitude of the acceleration of the two teams? (b) What is the tension in the section of rope between the teams?

18. What force does a trampoline have to apply to a 45.0-kg gymnast to accelerate her straight up at 7.50 m/s^2 ? Note that the answer is independent of the velocity of the gymnast—she can be moving either up or down, or be stationary.
19. (a) Calculate the tension in a vertical strand of spider web if a spider of mass $8.00 \times 10^{-5} \text{ kg}$ hangs motionless on it. (b) Calculate the tension in a horizontal strand of spider web if the same spider sits motionless in the middle of it much like the tightrope walker in [Figure 4.16](#). The strand sags at an angle of 12° below the horizontal. Compare this with the tension in the vertical strand (find their ratio).
20. Suppose a 60.0-kg gymnast climbs a rope. (a) What is the tension in the rope if they climb at a constant speed? (b) What is the tension in the rope if they accelerate upward at a rate of 1.50 m/s^2 ?
21. Show that, as stated in the text, a force $F_\perp$ exerted on a flexible medium at its center and perpendicular to its length (such as on the tightrope wire in [Figure 4.16](#)) gives rise to a tension of magnitude $T = \frac{F_\perp}{2 \sin(\theta)}$.
22. Consider the baby being weighed in [Figure 4.33](#). (a) What is the mass of the child and basket if a scale reading of 55 N is observed? (b) What is the tension T_1 in the cord attaching the baby to the scale? (c) What is the tension T_2 in the cord attaching the scale to the ceiling, if the scale has a mass of 0.500 kg? (d) Draw a sketch of the situation indicating the system of interest used to solve each part. The masses of the cords are negligible.

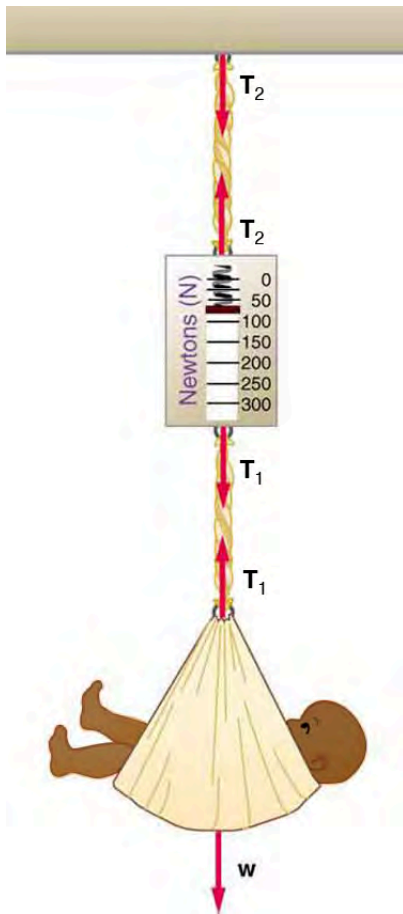


FIGURE 4.33 A baby is weighed using a spring scale.

4.6 Problem-Solving Strategies

23. A 5.00×10^5 -kg rocket is accelerating straight up. Its engines produce 1.250×10^7 N of thrust, and air resistance is 4.50×10^6 N. What is the rocket's acceleration? Explicitly show how you follow the steps in the Problem-Solving Strategy for Newton's laws of motion.
24. The wheels of a midsize car exert a force of 2100 N backward on the road to accelerate the car in the forward direction. If the force of friction including air resistance is 250 N and the acceleration of the car is 1.80 m/s^2 , what is the mass of the car plus its occupants? Explicitly show how you follow the steps in the Problem-Solving Strategy for Newton's laws of motion. For this situation, draw a free-body diagram and write the net force equation.
25. Calculate the force a 70.0-kg high jumper must exert on the ground to produce an upward acceleration 4.00 times the acceleration due to gravity. Explicitly show how you follow the steps in the Problem-Solving Strategy for Newton's laws of motion.
26. When landing after a spectacular somersault, a 40.0-kg gymnast decelerates by pushing straight down on the mat. Calculate the force she must exert if her deceleration is 7.00 times the acceleration due to gravity. Explicitly show how you follow the steps in the Problem-Solving Strategy for Newton's laws of motion.
27. A freight train consists of two 8.00×10^4 -kg engines and 45 cars with average masses of 5.50×10^4 kg. (a) What force must each engine exert backward on the track to accelerate the train at a rate of $5.00 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m/s}^2$ if the force of friction is 7.50×10^5 N, assuming the engines exert identical forces? This is not a large frictional force for such a massive system. Rolling friction for trains is small, and consequently trains are very energy-efficient transportation systems. (b) What is the force in the coupling between the 37th and 38th cars (this is the force each exerts on the other), assuming all cars have the same mass and that friction is evenly distributed among all of the cars and engines?
28. Commercial airplanes are sometimes pushed out of the passenger loading area by a tractor. (a) An 1800-kg tractor exerts a force of 1.75×10^4 N backward on the pavement, and the system experiences forces resisting motion that total 2400 N. If the acceleration is 0.150 m/s^2 , what is the mass of the airplane? (b) Calculate the force exerted by the tractor on the airplane, assuming 2200 N of the friction is experienced by the airplane. (c) Draw two sketches showing the systems of interest used to solve each part, including the free-body diagrams for each.
29. A 1100-kg car pulls a boat on a trailer. (a) What total force resists the motion of the car, boat, and trailer, if the car exerts a 1900-N force on the road and produces an acceleration of 0.550 m/s^2 ? The mass of the boat plus trailer is 700 kg. (b) What is the force in the hitch between the car and the trailer if 80% of the resisting forces are experienced by the boat and trailer?
30. (a) Find the magnitudes of the forces $\mathbf{F}_1$ and $\mathbf{F}_2$ that add to give the total force $\mathbf{F}_{\text{tot}}$ shown in Figure 4.34. This may be done either graphically or by using trigonometry. (b) Show graphically that the same total force is obtained independent of the order of addition of $\mathbf{F}_1$ and $\mathbf{F}_2$. (c) Find the direction and magnitude of some other pair of vectors that add to give $\mathbf{F}_{\text{tot}}$. Draw these to scale on the same drawing used in part (b) or a similar

picture.

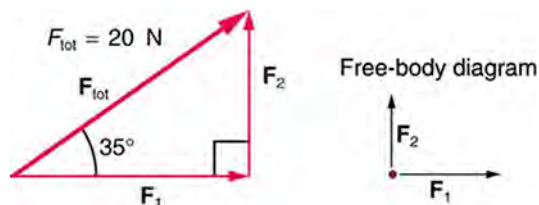


FIGURE 4.34

31. Two children pull a third child on a snow saucer sled exerting forces $\mathbf{F}_1$ and $\mathbf{F}_2$ as shown from above in Figure 4.35. Find the acceleration of the 49.00-kg sled and child system. Note that the direction of the frictional force is unspecified; it will be in the opposite direction of the sum of $\mathbf{F}_1$ and $\mathbf{F}_2$.

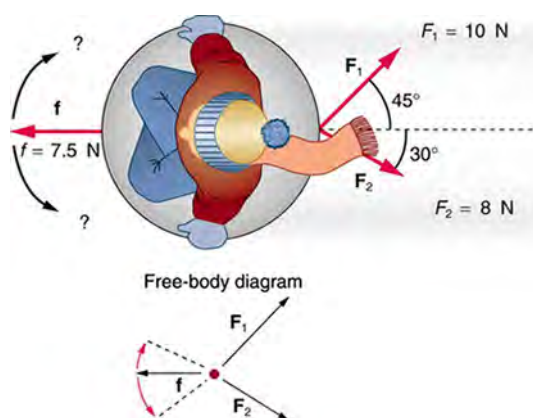


FIGURE 4.35 An overhead view of the horizontal forces acting on a child's snow saucer sled.

32. Suppose your car was mired deeply in the mud and you wanted to use the method illustrated in Figure 4.36 to pull it out. (a) What force would you have to exert perpendicular to the center of the rope to produce a force of 12,000 N on the car if the angle is 2.00° ? In this part, explicitly show how you follow the steps in the Problem-Solving Strategy for Newton's laws of motion. (b) Real ropes stretch under such forces. What force would be exerted on the car if the angle increases to 7.00° and you still apply the force found in part (a) to its center?

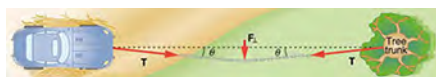


FIGURE 4.36

33. What force is exerted on the tooth in Figure 4.37 if the tension in the wire is 25.0 N? Note that the force applied to the tooth is smaller than the tension in the wire, but this is necessitated by practical considerations of how force can be applied in the mouth. Explicitly show how you

follow steps in the Problem-Solving Strategy for Newton's laws of motion.

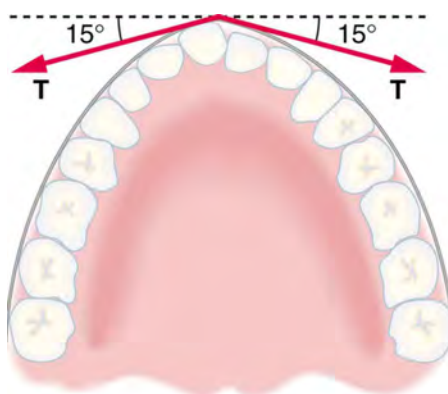


FIGURE 4.37 Braces are used to apply forces to teeth to realign them. Shown in this figure are the tensions applied by the wire to the protruding tooth. The total force applied to the tooth by the wire, $\mathbf{F}_{\text{app}}$, points straight toward the back of the mouth.

34. Figure 4.38 shows Superhero and Trusty Sidekick hanging motionless from a rope. Superhero's mass is 90.0 kg, while Trusty Sidekick's is 55.0 kg, and the mass of the rope is negligible. (a) Draw a free-body diagram of the situation showing all forces acting on Superhero, Trusty Sidekick, and the rope. (b) Find the tension in the rope above Superhero. (c) Find the tension in the rope between Superhero and Trusty Sidekick. Indicate on your free-body diagram the system of interest used to solve each part.



FIGURE 4.38 Superhero and Trusty Sidekick hang motionless on a rope as they try to figure out what to do next. Will the tension be the same everywhere in the rope?

35. A nurse pushes a cart by exerting a force on the handle at a downward angle 35.0° below the horizontal. The loaded cart has a mass of 28.0 kg,

and the force of friction is 60.0 N. (a) Draw a free-body diagram for the system of interest. (b) What force must the nurse exert to move at a constant velocity?

- 36. Construct Your Own Problem** Consider the tension in an elevator cable during the time the elevator starts from rest and accelerates its load upward to some cruising velocity. Taking the elevator and its load to be the system of interest, draw a free-body diagram. Then calculate the tension in the cable. Among the things to consider are the mass of the elevator and its load, the final velocity, and the time taken to reach that velocity.
- 37. Construct Your Own Problem** Consider two people pushing a toboggan with four children on it up a snow-covered slope. Construct a problem in which you calculate the acceleration of the toboggan and its load. Include a free-body diagram of the appropriate system of interest as the basis for your analysis. Show vector forces and their components and explain the choice of coordinates. Among the things to be considered are the forces exerted by those pushing, the angle of the slope, and the masses of the toboggan and children.
- 38. Unreasonable Results** (a) Repeat [Exercise 4.29](#), but assume an acceleration of 1.20 m/s^2 is produced. (b) What is unreasonable about the result? (c) Which premise is unreasonable, and why is it unreasonable?
- 39. Unreasonable Results** (a) What is the initial acceleration of a rocket that has a mass of $1.50 \times 10^6 \text{ kg}$ at takeoff, the engines of which produce a thrust of $2.00 \times 10^6 \text{ N}$? Do not neglect gravity. (b) What is unreasonable about the result? (This result has been unintentionally achieved by several real rockets.) (c) Which premise is unreasonable, or which premises are inconsistent? (You may find it useful to compare this problem to the rocket problem earlier in this section.)

4.7 Further Applications of Newton's Laws of Motion

- 40.** A flea jumps by exerting a force of $1.20 \times 10^{-5} \text{ N}$ straight down on the ground. A breeze blowing on the flea parallel to the ground exerts a force of $0.500 \times 10^{-6} \text{ N}$ on the flea. Find the direction and magnitude of the acceleration of the flea if its mass is $6.00 \times 10^{-7} \text{ kg}$. Do not neglect the gravitational force.

- 41.** Two muscles in the back of the leg pull upward on the Achilles tendon, as shown in [Figure 4.39](#). (These muscles are called the medial and lateral heads of the gastrocnemius muscle.) Find the magnitude and direction of the total force on the Achilles tendon. What type of movement could be caused by this force?

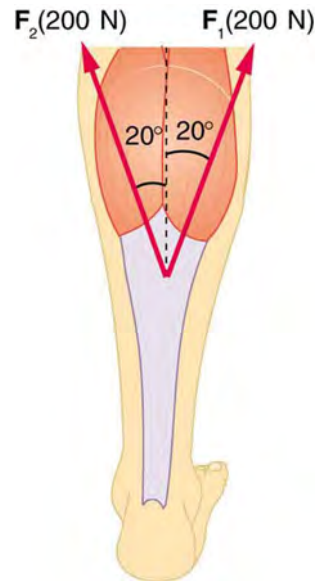


FIGURE 4.39 Achilles tendon

- 42.** A 76.0-kg person is being pulled away from a burning building as shown in [Figure 4.40](#). Calculate the tension in the two ropes if the person is momentarily motionless. Include a free-body diagram in your solution.

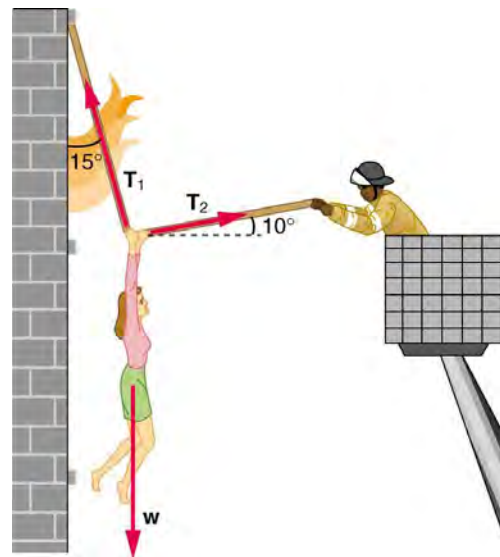


FIGURE 4.40 The force T_2 needed to hold steady the person being rescued from the fire is less than her weight and less than the force T_1 in the other rope, since the more vertical rope supports a greater part of her weight (a vertical force).

- 43. Integrated Concepts** A 35.0-kg dolphin decelerates from 12.0 to 7.50 m/s in 2.30 s to join

another dolphin in play. What average force was exerted to slow him if he was moving horizontally? (The gravitational force is balanced by the buoyant force of the water.)

44. Integrated Concepts When starting a foot race, a 70.0-kg sprinter exerts an average force of 650 N backward on the ground for 0.800 s. (a) What is his final speed? (b) How far does he travel?
45. Integrated Concepts A large rocket has a mass of 2.00×10^6 kg at takeoff, and its engines produce a thrust of 3.50×10^7 N. (a) Find its initial acceleration if it takes off vertically. (b) How long does it take to reach a velocity of 120 km/h straight up, assuming constant mass and thrust? (c) In reality, the mass of a rocket decreases significantly as its fuel is consumed. Describe qualitatively how this affects the acceleration and time for this motion.
46. Integrated Concepts A basketball player jumps straight up for a ball. To do this, they lower their body 0.300 m and then accelerate through this distance by forcefully straightening their legs. This player leaves the floor with a vertical velocity sufficient to carry the player 0.900 m above the floor. (a) Calculate the player's velocity when they leave the floor. (b) Calculate their acceleration while they are straightening their legs. They go from zero to the velocity found in part (a) in a distance of 0.300 m. (c) Calculate the force they exert on the floor to do this, given that their mass is 110 kg.
47. Integrated Concepts A 2.50-kg fireworks shell is fired straight up from a mortar and reaches a height of 110 m. (a) Neglecting air resistance (a poor assumption, but we will make it for this example), calculate the shell's velocity when it leaves the mortar. (b) The mortar itself is a tube 0.450 m long. Calculate the average acceleration of the shell in the tube as it goes from zero to the velocity found in (a). (c) What is the average force on the shell in the mortar? Express your answer in newtons and as a ratio to the weight of the shell.
48. Integrated Concepts Repeat [Exercise 4.47](#) for a shell fired at an angle 10.0° from the vertical.
49. Integrated Concepts An elevator filled with passengers has a mass of 1700 kg. (a) The elevator accelerates upward from rest at a rate of 1.20 m/s^2 for 1.50 s. Calculate the tension in the cable supporting the elevator. (b) The elevator continues upward at constant velocity for 8.50 s.

What is the tension in the cable during this time? (c) The elevator decelerates at a rate of 0.600 m/s^2 for 3.00 s. What is the tension in the cable during deceleration? (d) How high has the elevator moved above its original starting point, and what is its final velocity?

50. Unreasonable Results (a) What is the final velocity of a car originally traveling at 50.0 km/h that decelerates at a rate of 0.400 m/s^2 for 50.0 s? (b) What is unreasonable about the result? (c) Which premise is unreasonable, or which premises are inconsistent?
51. Unreasonable Results A 75.0-kg man stands on a bathroom scale in an elevator that accelerates from rest to 30.0 m/s in 2.00 s. (a) Calculate the scale reading in newtons and compare it with his weight. (The scale exerts an upward force on him equal to its reading.) (b) What is unreasonable about the result? (c) Which premise is unreasonable, or which premises are inconsistent?

4.8 Extended Topic: The Four Basic Forces—An Introduction

52. (a) What is the strength of the weak nuclear force relative to the strong nuclear force? (b) What is the strength of the weak nuclear force relative to the electromagnetic force? Since the weak nuclear force acts at only very short distances, such as inside nuclei, where the strong and electromagnetic forces also act, it might seem surprising that we have any knowledge of it at all. We have such knowledge because the weak nuclear force is responsible for beta decay, a type of nuclear decay not explained by other forces.
53. (a) What is the ratio of the strength of the gravitational force to that of the strong nuclear force? (b) What is the ratio of the strength of the gravitational force to that of the weak nuclear force? (c) What is the ratio of the strength of the gravitational force to that of the electromagnetic force? What do your answers imply about the influence of the gravitational force on atomic nuclei?
54. What is the ratio of the strength of the strong nuclear force to that of the electromagnetic force? Based on this ratio, you might expect that the strong force dominates the nucleus, which is true for small nuclei. Large nuclei, however, have sizes greater than the range of the strong nuclear force. At these sizes, the electromagnetic force begins to

affect nuclear stability. These facts will be used to explain nuclear fusion and fission later in this text.

- 55. Critical Thinking** Two boxes of equal mass slide start from rest and slide with different horizontal applied forces across frictionless surfaces to reach the same distance away. Box A has a horizontal force of three times that of box B. (a) Which box is traveling faster at this distance away from the starting point? Briefly explain your reasoning. (b) Based on experimental data, an equation that fits the data is suggested for the

final speed, V , which may not be correct:

$V = KF$, where K is a constant with appropriate units and F is the horizontal applied force. Is this equation consistent with your answer from part a? Explain why or why not. Does this equation make sense? Explain why or why not. (c) Now the applied force can be any value and the distance from the starting point is measured when the speed gets to a consistent value. Graph the distance the box gets to at a given speed as a function of the applied force.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

4.1 Development of Force Concept

1.

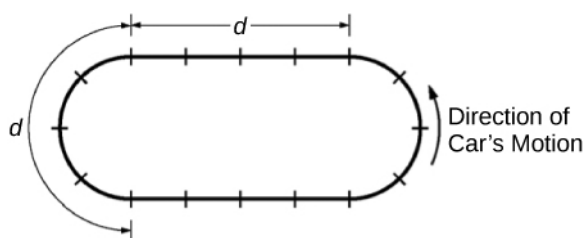


FIGURE 4.42

The figure above represents a racetrack with semicircular sections connected by straight sections. Each section has length d , and markers along the track are spaced $d/4$ apart. Two people drive cars counterclockwise around the track, as shown. Car X goes around the curves at constant speed v_c , increases speed at constant acceleration for half of each straight section to reach a maximum speed of $2v_c$, then brakes at constant acceleration for the other half of each straight section to return to speed v_c . Car Y also goes around the curves at constant speed v_c , increases its speed at constant acceleration for one-fourth of each straight section to reach the same maximum speed $2v_c$, stays at that speed for half of each straight section, then brakes at constant acceleration for the remaining fourth of each straight section to return to speed v_c .

(a) On the figures below, draw an arrow showing the direction of the net force on each of the cars at the positions noted by the dots. If the net force is zero at any position, label the dot with 0.

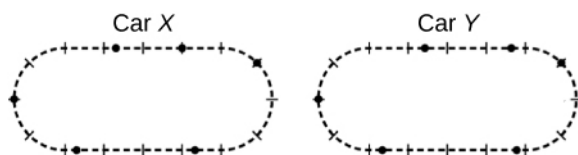


FIGURE 4.43

The position of the six dots on the Car Y track on the right are as follows:

The first dot on the left center of the track is at the same position as it is on the Car X track. The second dot is just slight to the right of the Car X dot (less than a dash) past three perpendicular hash marks moving to the right. The third dot is about one and two-thirds perpendicular hash marks to the right of the center top perpendicular hash mark. The fourth dot is in the same position as the Car X figure (one perpendicular hash mark above the center right perpendicular hash mark). The fifth dot is about one and two-third perpendicular hash marks to the right of the center bottom perpendicular hash mark. The sixth dot is in the same position as the Car Y dot (one and two third perpendicular hash marks to the left of the center bottom hash mark).

(b)

- Indicate which car, if either, completes one trip around the track in less time, and justify your answer qualitatively without using equations.
 - Justify your answer about which car, if either, completes one trip around the track in less time quantitatively with appropriate equations.
- Which of the following is an example of a body exerting a force on itself?
 - a person standing up from a seated position
 - a car accelerating while driving
 - both of the above
 - none of the above
 - A hawk accelerates as it glides in the air. Does the force causing the acceleration come from the hawk itself? Explain.
 - What causes the force that moves a boat forward when someone rows it?
 - The force is caused by the rower's arms.

- b. The force is caused by an interaction between the oars and gravity.
- c. The force is caused by an interaction between the oars and the water the boat is traveling in.
- d. The force is caused by friction.

4.4 Newton's Third Law of Motion: Symmetry in Forces

5. What object or objects commonly exert forces on the following objects in motion? (a) a soccer ball being kicked, (b) a dolphin jumping, (c) a parachutist drifting to Earth.
6. A ball with a mass of 0.25 kg hits a gym ceiling with a force of 78.0 N. What is the net force on the ball?
 - a. 2.50 N downward
 - b. 75.5 N downward
 - c. 78.0 N downward
 - d. 80.5 N downward
7. Which of the following is true?
 - a. Earth exerts a force due to gravity on your body, and your body exerts a smaller force on the Earth, because your mass is smaller than the mass of the Earth.
 - b. The Moon orbits the Earth because the Earth exerts a force on the Moon and the Moon exerts a force equal in magnitude and direction on the Earth.
 - c. A rocket taking off exerts a force on the Earth equal to the force the Earth exerts on the rocket.
 - d. An airplane cruising at a constant speed is not affected by gravity.
8. Stationary skater A pushes stationary skater B, who then accelerates at 5.0 m/s^2 . Skater A does not move. Since forces act in action-reaction pairs, explain why Skater A did not move?
9. The current in a river exerts a force of 9.0 N on a balloon floating in the river. A wind exerts a force of 13.0 N on the balloon in the opposite direction. Draw a free-body diagram to show the forces acting on the balloon. Use your free-body diagram to predict the effect on the balloon.
10. A force is applied to accelerate an object on a smooth icy surface. When the force stops, which of the following will be true? (Assume zero friction.)
 - a. The object's acceleration becomes zero.
 - b. The object's speed becomes zero.
 - c. The object's acceleration continues to increase at a constant rate.
 - d. The object accelerates, but in the opposite direction.
11. A parachutist's fall to Earth is determined by two opposing forces. A gravitational force of 539 N acts on the parachutist. After 2 s, she opens her parachute and experiences an air resistance of 615 N. At what speed is the parachutist falling after 10 s?
12. A flight attendant pushes a cart down the aisle of a plane in flight. In determining the acceleration of the cart relative to the plane, which factor do you not need to consider?
 - a. The friction of the cart's wheels.
 - b. The force with which the flight attendant's feet push on the floor.
 - c. The velocity of the plane.
 - d. The mass of the items in the cart.
13. A landscaper is easing a wheelbarrow full of soil down a hill. Define the system you would analyze and list all the forces that you would need to include to calculate the acceleration of the wheelbarrow.
14. Two water-skiers, with masses of 48 kg and 61 kg, are preparing to be towed behind the same boat. When the boat accelerates, the rope the skiers hold onto accelerates with it and exerts a net force of 290 N on the skiers. At what rate will the skiers accelerate?
 - a. 10.8 m/s^2
 - b. 2.7 m/s^2
 - c. 6.0 m/s^2 and 4.8 m/s^2
 - d. 5.3 m/s^2
15. A figure skater has a mass of 40 kg and her partner's mass is 50 kg. She pushes against the ice with a force of 120 N, causing her and her partner to move forward. Calculate the pair's acceleration. Assume that all forces opposing the motion, such as friction and air resistance, total 5.0 N.

4.5 Normal, Tension, and Other Examples of Forces

16. An archer shoots an arrow straight up with a force of 24.5 N. The arrow has a mass of 0.4 kg. What is the force of gravity on the arrow?
 - a. 9.8 m/s^2
 - b. 9.8 N
 - c. 61.25 N

- d. 3.9 N
- 17.** A cable raises a mass of 120.0 kg with an acceleration of 1.3 m/s^2 . What force of tension is in the cable?
- 18.** A child pulls a wagon along a grassy field. Define the system, the pairs of forces at work, and the results.
- 19.** Two teams are engaging in a tug-of-war. The rope suddenly snaps. Which statement is true about the forces involved?
- The forces exerted by the two teams are no longer equal; the teams will accelerate in opposite directions as a result.
 - The forces exerted by the players are no longer balanced by the force of tension in the rope; the teams will accelerate in opposite directions as a result.
 - The force of gravity balances the forces exerted by the players; the teams will fall as a result.
 - The force of tension in the rope is transferred to the players; the teams will accelerate in opposite directions as a result.
- 20.** The following free-body diagram represents a toboggan on a hill. What acceleration would you expect, and why?

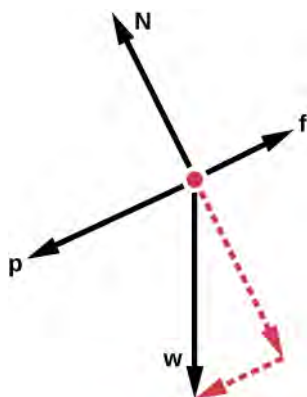


FIGURE 4.46

- Acceleration down the hill; the force due to being pushed, together with the downhill component of gravity, overcomes the opposing force of friction.
- Acceleration down the hill; friction is less than the opposing component of force due to gravity.
- No movement; friction is greater than the force due to being pushed.
- No movement; friction is greater than the sum

of the downhill forces.

- 21.** Draw a free-body diagram to represent the forces acting on a kite on a string that is floating stationary in the air. Label the forces in your diagram.
- 22.** A car is sliding down a hill with a slope of 20° . The mass of the car is 965 kg. When a cable is used to pull the car up the slope, a force of 4215 N is applied. What is the car's acceleration, ignoring friction?

4.6 Problem-Solving Strategies

- 23.** A toboggan with two riders has a total mass of 85.0 kg. A third person is pushing with a horizontal force of 42.5 N on a toboggan moving on a horizontal surface at the top of a hill that has a downward angle of 15° . The force of friction on the toboggan is 31.0 N. Which statement describes an accurate free-body diagram to represent the situation?
- An arrow of magnitude 10.5 N points down the slope of the hill.
 - An arrow of magnitude 833 N points straight down.
 - An arrow of magnitude 833 N points perpendicular to the slope of the hill.
 - An arrow of magnitude 73.5 N points down the slope of the hill.
- 24.** A mass of 2.0 kg is suspended from the ceiling of an elevator by a rope. What is the tension in the rope when the elevator (i) accelerates upward at 1.5 m/s^2 ? (ii) accelerates downward at 1.5 m/s^2 ?
- (i) 22.6 N; (ii) 16.6 N
 - Because the mass is hanging from the elevator itself, the tension in the rope will not change in either case.
 - (i) 22.6 N; (ii) 19.6 N
 - (i) 16.6 N; (ii) 19.6 N
- 25.** Which statement is true about drawing free-body diagrams?
- Drawing a free-body diagram should be the last step in solving a problem about forces.
 - Drawing a free-body diagram helps you compare forces quantitatively.
 - The forces in a free-body diagram should always balance.
 - Drawing a free-body diagram can help you determine the net force.

4.7 Further Applications of Newton's Laws of Motion

- 26.** A basketball player jumps as he shoots the ball. Describe the forces that are acting on the ball and on the basketball player. What are the results?
- 27.** Two people push on a boulder to try to move it. The mass of the boulder is 825 kg. One person pushes north with a force of 64 N. The other pushes west with a force of 38 N. Predict the magnitude of the acceleration of the boulder. Assume that friction is negligible.

28.

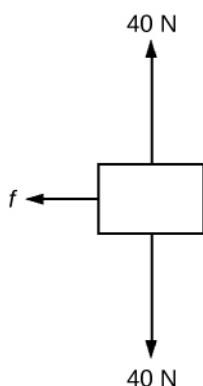


FIGURE 4.48

The figure shows the forces exerted on a block that is sliding on a horizontal surface: the gravitational force of 40 N, the 40 N normal force exerted by the surface, and a frictional force exerted to the left. The coefficient of friction between the block and the surface is 0.20. The acceleration of the block is most nearly

- 1.0 m/s^2 to the right
- 1.0 m/s^2 to the left
- 2.0 m/s^2 to the right
- 2.0 m/s^2 to the left

4.8 Extended Topic: The Four Basic Forces—An Introduction

- 29.** Which phenomenon correctly describes the direction and magnitude of normal forces?
- electromagnetic attraction
 - electromagnetic repulsion
 - gravitational attraction
 - gravitational repulsion
- 30.** Explain which of the four fundamental forces is responsible for a ball bouncing off the ground after it hits, and why this force has this effect.
- 31.** Which of the basic forces best explains tension in a rope being pulled between two people? Is the acting force causing attraction or repulsion in this instance?
- gravity; attraction
 - electromagnetic; attraction
 - weak and strong nuclear; attraction
 - weak and strong nuclear; repulsion
- 32.** Explain how interatomic electric forces produce the normal force, and why it has the direction it does.
- 33.** The gravitational force is the weakest of the four basic forces. In which case can the electromagnetic, strong, and weak forces be ignored because the gravitational force is so strongly dominant?
- a person jumping on a trampoline
 - a rocket blasting off from Earth
 - a log rolling down a hill
 - all of the above
- 34.** Describe a situation in which gravitational force is the dominant force. Why can the other three basic forces be ignored in the situation you described?

CHAPTER 5

Further Applications of Newton's Laws: Friction, Drag, and Elasticity



FIGURE 5.1 Total hip replacement surgery has become a common procedure. The head (or ball) of the patient's femur fits into a cup that has a hard plastic-like inner lining. (credit: National Institutes of Health, via Wikimedia Commons)

CHAPTER OUTLINE

5.1 Friction

5.2 Drag Forces

5.3 Elasticity: Stress and Strain

CONNECTION FOR AP® COURSES Have you ever wondered why it is difficult to walk on a smooth surface like ice? The interaction between you and the surface is a result of forces that affect your motion. In the previous chapter, you learned Newton's laws of motion and examined how net force affects the motion, position and shape of an

object. Now we will look at some interesting and common forces that will provide further applications of Newton's laws of motion.

The information presented in this chapter supports learning objectives covered under Big Idea 3 of the AP Physics Curriculum Framework, which refer to the nature of forces and their roles in interactions among objects. The chapter discusses examples of specific contact forces, such as friction, air or liquid drag, and elasticity that may affect the motion or shape of an object. It also discusses the nature of forces on both macroscopic and microscopic levels (Enduring Understanding 3.C and Essential Knowledge 3.C.4). In addition, Newton's laws are applied to describe the motion of an object (Enduring Understanding 3.B) and to examine relationships between contact forces and other forces exerted on an object (Enduring Understanding 3.A, 3.A.3 and Essential Knowledge 3.A.4). The examples in this chapter give you practice in using vector properties of forces (Essential Knowledge 3.A.2) and free-body diagrams (Essential Knowledge 3.B.2) to determine net force (Essential Knowledge 3.B.1).

Big Idea 3 The interactions of an object with other objects can be described by forces.

Enduring Understanding 3.A All forces share certain common characteristics when considered by observers in inertial reference frames.

Essential Knowledge 3.A.2 Forces are described by vectors.

Essential Knowledge 3.A.3 A force exerted on an object is always due to the interaction of that object with another object.

Essential Knowledge 3.A.4 If one object exerts a force on a second object, the second object always exerts a force of equal magnitude on the first object in the opposite direction.

Enduring Understanding 3.B Classically, the acceleration of an object interacting with other objects can be predicted by using $\vec{a} = \frac{\sum \vec{F}}{m}$.

Essential Knowledge 3.B.1 If an object of interest interacts with several other objects, the net force is the vector sum of the individual forces.

Essential Knowledge 3.B.2 Free-body diagrams are useful tools for visualizing forces being exerted on a single object and writing the equations that represent a physical situation.

Enduring Understanding 3.C At the macroscopic level, forces can be categorized as either long-range (action-at-a-distance) forces or contact forces.

Essential Knowledge 3.C.4 Contact forces result from the interaction of one object touching another object, and they arise from interatomic electric forces. These forces include tension, friction, normal, spring (Physics 1), and buoyant (Physics 2).

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5.1 Friction

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Discuss the general characteristics of friction.
- Describe the various types of friction.
- Calculate the magnitude of static and kinetic friction.

Friction is a force that is around us all the time that opposes relative motion between surfaces in contact but also allows us to move (which you have discovered if you have ever tried to walk on ice). While a common force, the behavior of friction is actually very complicated and is still not completely understood. We have to rely heavily on observations for whatever understandings we can gain. However, we can still deal with its more elementary general characteristics and understand the circumstances in which it behaves.

FRICTION

Friction is a force that opposes relative motion between surfaces in contact.

One of the simpler characteristics of friction is that it is parallel to the contact surface between surfaces and always in a direction that opposes motion or attempted motion of the systems relative to each other. If two surfaces are in contact and moving relative to one another, then the friction between them is called **kinetic friction**. For example, friction slows a hockey puck sliding on ice. But when objects are stationary, **static friction** can act between them; the static friction is usually greater than the kinetic friction between the surfaces.

KINETIC FRICTION

If two surfaces are in contact and moving relative to one another, then the friction between them is called kinetic friction.

Imagine, for example, trying to slide a heavy crate across a concrete floor—you may push harder and harder on the crate and not move it at all. This means that the static friction responds to what you do—it increases to be equal to and in the opposite direction of your push. But if you finally push hard enough, the crate seems to slip suddenly and starts to move. Once in motion it is easier to keep it in motion than it was to get it started, indicating that the kinetic friction force is less than the static friction force. If you add mass to the crate, say by placing a box on top of it, you need to push even harder to get it started and also to keep it moving. Furthermore, if you oiled the concrete you would find it to be easier to get the crate started and keep it going (as you might expect).

[Figure 5.2](#) is a crude pictorial representation of how friction occurs at the interface between two objects. Close-up inspection of these surfaces shows them to be rough. So when you push to get an object moving (in this case, a crate), you must raise the object until it can skip along with just the tips of the surface hitting, break off the points, or do both. A considerable force can be resisted by friction with no apparent motion. The harder the surfaces are pushed together (such as if another box is placed on the crate), the more force is needed to move them. Part of the friction is due to adhesive forces between the surface molecules of the two objects, which explain the dependence of friction on the nature of the substances. Adhesion varies with substances in contact and is a complicated aspect of surface physics. Once an object is moving, there are fewer points of contact (fewer molecules adhering), so less force is required to keep the object moving. At small but nonzero speeds, friction is nearly independent of speed.

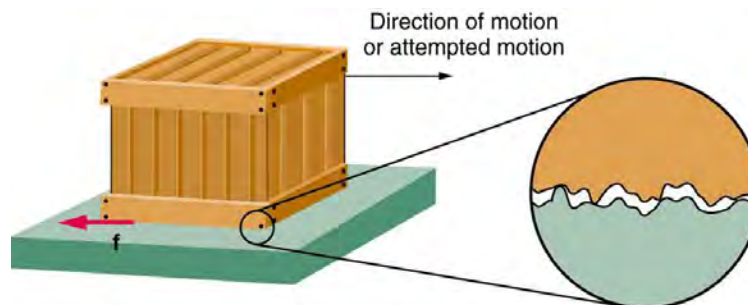


FIGURE 5.2 Frictional forces, such as f , always oppose motion or attempted motion between surfaces in contact. Friction arises in part because of the roughness of the surfaces in contact, as seen in the expanded view. In order for the object to move, it must rise to where the peaks can skip along the bottom surface. Thus a force is required just to set the object in motion. Some of the peaks will be broken off, also requiring a force to maintain motion. Much of the friction is actually due to attractive forces between molecules making up the two objects, so that even perfectly smooth surfaces are not friction-free. Such adhesive forces also depend on the substances the surfaces are made of, explaining, for example, why rubber-soled shoes slip less than those with leather soles.

The magnitude of the frictional force has two forms: one for static situations (static friction), the other for when there is motion (kinetic friction).

When there is no motion between the objects, the **magnitude of static friction** f_s is

$$f_s \leq \mu_s N, \quad 5.1$$

where μ_s is the coefficient of static friction and N is the magnitude of the normal force (the force perpendicular to

the surface).

MAGNITUDE OF STATIC FRICTION

Magnitude of static friction f_s is

$$f_s \leq \mu_s N, \quad 5.2$$

where μ_s is the coefficient of static friction and N is the magnitude of the normal force.

The symbol $\leq$ means *less than or equal to*, implying that static friction can have a minimum and a maximum value of $\mu_s N$. Static friction is a responsive force that increases to be equal and opposite to whatever force is exerted, up to its maximum limit. Once the applied force exceeds $f_{s(\max)}$, the object will move. Thus

$$f_{s(\max)} = \mu_s N. \quad 5.3$$

Once an object is moving, the **magnitude of kinetic friction f_k** is given by

$$f_k = \mu_k N, \quad 5.4$$

where μ_k is the coefficient of kinetic friction. A system in which $f_k = \mu_k N$ is described as a system in which *friction behaves simply*.

MAGNITUDE OF KINETIC FRICTION

The magnitude of kinetic friction f_k is given by

$$f_k = \mu_k N, \quad 5.5$$

where μ_k is the coefficient of kinetic friction.

As seen in [Table 5.1](#), the coefficients of kinetic friction are less than their static counterparts. That values of μ in [Table 5.1](#) are stated to only one or, at most, two digits is an indication of the approximate description of friction given by the above two equations.

System	Static friction μ_s	Kinetic friction μ_k
Rubber on dry concrete	1.0	0.7
Rubber on wet concrete	0.7	0.5
Wood on wood	0.5	0.3
Waxed wood on wet snow	0.14	0.1
Metal on wood	0.5	0.3
Steel on steel (dry)	0.6	0.3
Steel on steel (oiled)	0.05	0.03
Teflon on steel	0.04	0.04
Bone lubricated by synovial fluid	0.016	0.015

TABLE 5.1 Coefficients of Static and Kinetic Friction

System	Static friction μ_s	Kinetic friction μ_k
Shoes on wood	0.9	0.7
Shoes on ice	0.1	0.05
Ice on ice	0.1	0.03
Steel on ice	0.04	0.02

TABLE 5.1 Coefficients of Static and Kinetic Friction

The equations given earlier include the dependence of friction on materials and the normal force. The direction of friction is always opposite that of motion, parallel to the surface between objects, and perpendicular to the normal force. For example, if the crate you try to push (with a force parallel to the floor) has a mass of 100 kg, then the normal force would be equal to its weight, $W = mg = (100 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) = 980 \text{ N}$, perpendicular to the floor. If the coefficient of static friction is 0.45, you would have to exert a force parallel to the floor greater than $f_{s(\text{max})} = \mu_s N = (0.45)(980 \text{ N}) = 440 \text{ N}$ to move the crate. Once there is motion, friction is less and the coefficient of kinetic friction might be 0.30, so that a force of only 290 N ($f_k = \mu_k N = (0.30)(980 \text{ N}) = 290 \text{ N}$) would keep it moving at a constant speed. If the floor is lubricated, both coefficients are considerably less than they would be without lubrication. Coefficient of friction is a unit less quantity with a magnitude usually between 0 and 1.0. The coefficient of the friction depends on the two surfaces that are in contact.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT

Find a small plastic object (such as a food container) and slide it on a kitchen table by giving it a gentle tap. Now spray water on the table, simulating a light shower of rain. What happens now when you give the object the same-sized tap? Now add a few drops of (vegetable or olive) oil on the surface of the water and give the same tap. What happens now? This latter situation is particularly important for drivers to note, especially after a light rain shower. Why?

Many people have experienced the slipperiness of walking on ice. However, many parts of the body, especially the joints, have much smaller coefficients of friction—often three or four times less than ice. A joint is formed by the ends of two bones, which are connected by thick tissues. The knee joint is formed by the lower leg bone (the tibia) and the thighbone (the femur). The hip is a ball (at the end of the femur) and socket (part of the pelvis) joint. The ends of the bones in the joint are covered by cartilage, which provides a smooth, almost glassy surface. The joints also produce a fluid (synovial fluid) that reduces friction and wear. A damaged or arthritic joint can be replaced by an artificial joint ([Figure 5.3](#)). These replacements can be made of metals (stainless steel or titanium) or plastic (polyethylene), also with very small coefficients of friction.



FIGURE 5.3 Artificial knee replacement is a procedure that has been performed for more than 20 years. In this figure, we see the post-op X-rays of the right knee joint replacement. (credit: Mike Baird, Flickr)

Other natural lubricants include saliva produced in our mouths to aid in the swallowing process, and the slippery mucus found between organs in the body, allowing them to move freely past each other during heartbeats, during breathing, and when a person moves. Artificial lubricants are also common in hospitals and doctor's clinics. For example, when ultrasonic imaging is carried out, the gel that couples the transducer to the skin also serves to lubricate the surface between the transducer and the skin—thereby reducing the coefficient of friction between the two surfaces. This allows the transducer to move freely over the skin.

EXAMPLE 5.1

Skiing Exercise

A skier with a mass of 62 kg is sliding down a snowy slope. Find the coefficient of kinetic friction for the skier if friction is known to be 45.0 N.

Strategy

The magnitude of kinetic friction was given in to be 45.0 N. Kinetic friction is related to the normal force N as $f_k = \mu_k N$; thus, the coefficient of kinetic friction can be found if we can find the normal force of the skier on a slope. The normal force is always perpendicular to the surface, and since there is no motion perpendicular to the surface, the normal force should equal the component of the skier's weight perpendicular to the slope. (See the skier and free-body diagram in [Figure 5.4](#).)

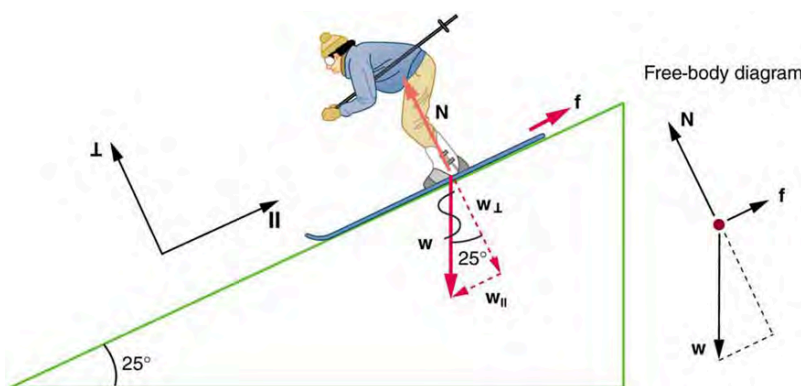


FIGURE 5.4 The motion of the skier and friction are parallel to the slope and so it is most convenient to project all forces onto a coordinate system where one axis is parallel to the slope and the other is perpendicular (axes shown to left of skier). $\mathbf{N}$ (the normal force) is perpendicular to the slope, and $\mathbf{f}$ (the friction) is parallel to the slope, but $\mathbf{w}$ (the skier's weight) has components along both axes, namely $\mathbf{w}_\perp$ and $\mathbf{w}_\parallel$. $\mathbf{N}$ is equal in magnitude to $\mathbf{w}_\perp$, so there is no motion perpendicular to the slope. However, $\mathbf{f}$ is less than $\mathbf{w}_\parallel$ in magnitude, so there is acceleration down the slope (along the x-axis).

That is,

$$N = w_\perp = w \cos 25^\circ = mg \cos 25^\circ. \quad 5.6$$

Substituting this into our expression for kinetic friction, we get

$$f_k = \mu_k mg \cos 25^\circ, \quad 5.7$$

which can now be solved for the coefficient of kinetic friction μ_k .

Solution

Solving for μ_k gives

$$\mu_k = \frac{f_k}{N} = \frac{f_k}{w \cos 25^\circ} = \frac{f_k}{mg \cos 25^\circ}. \quad 5.8$$

Substituting known values on the right-hand side of the equation,

$$\mu_k = \frac{45.0 \text{ N}}{(62 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(0.906)} = 0.082. \quad 5.9$$

Discussion

This result is a little smaller than the coefficient listed in [Table 5.1](#) for waxed wood on snow, but it is still reasonable since values of the coefficients of friction can vary greatly. In situations like this, where an object of mass m slides down a slope that makes an angle θ with the horizontal, friction is given by $f_k = \mu_k mg \cos \theta$. All objects will slide down a slope with constant acceleration under these circumstances. Proof of this is left for this chapter's Problems and Exercises.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT

An object will slide down an inclined plane at a constant velocity if the net force on the object is zero. We can use this fact to measure the coefficient of kinetic friction between two objects. As shown in [Example 5.1](#), the kinetic friction on a slope $f_k = \mu_k mg \cos \theta$. The component of the weight down the slope is equal to $mg \sin \theta$ (see the free-body diagram in [Figure 5.4](#)). These forces act in opposite directions, so when they have equal magnitude, the acceleration is zero. Writing these out:

$$f_k = mg_x \quad 5.10$$

$$\mu_k mg \cos \theta = mg \sin \theta. \quad 5.11$$

Solving for μ_k , we find that

$$\mu_k = \frac{mg \sin \theta}{mg \cos \theta} = \tan \theta.$$

5.12

Put a coin on a book and tilt it until the coin slides at a constant velocity down the book. You might need to tap the book lightly to get the coin to move. Measure the angle of tilt relative to the horizontal and find μ_k . Note that the coin will not start to slide at all until an angle greater than θ is attained, since the coefficient of static friction is larger than the coefficient of kinetic friction. Discuss how this may affect the value for μ_k and its uncertainty.

We have discussed that when an object rests on a horizontal surface, there is a normal force supporting it equal in magnitude to its weight. Furthermore, simple friction is always proportional to the normal force.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: SUBMICROSCOPIC EXPLANATIONS OF FRICTION

The simpler aspects of friction dealt with so far are its macroscopic (large-scale) characteristics. Great strides have been made in the atomic-scale explanation of friction during the past several decades. Researchers are finding that the atomic nature of friction seems to have several fundamental characteristics. These characteristics not only explain some of the simpler aspects of friction—they also hold the potential for the development of nearly friction-free environments that could save hundreds of billions of dollars in energy which is currently being converted (unnecessarily) to heat.

[Figure 5.5](#) illustrates one macroscopic characteristic of friction that is explained by microscopic (small-scale) research. We have noted that friction is proportional to the normal force, but not to the area in contact, a somewhat counterintuitive notion. When two rough surfaces are in contact, the actual contact area is a tiny fraction of the total area since only high spots touch. When a greater normal force is exerted, the actual contact area increases, and it is found that the friction is proportional to this area.

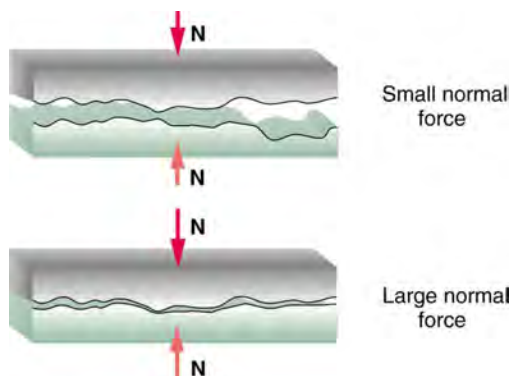


FIGURE 5.5 Two rough surfaces in contact have a much smaller area of actual contact than their total area. When there is a greater normal force as a result of a greater applied force, the area of actual contact increases as does friction.

But the atomic-scale view promises to explain far more than the simpler features of friction. The mechanism for how heat is generated is now being determined. In other words, why do surfaces get warmer when rubbed? Essentially, atoms are linked with one another to form lattices. When surfaces rub, the surface atoms adhere and cause atomic lattices to vibrate—essentially creating sound waves that penetrate the material. The sound waves diminish with distance and their energy is converted into heat. Chemical reactions that are related to frictional wear can also occur between atoms and molecules on the surfaces. [Figure 5.6](#) shows how the tip of a probe drawn across another material is deformed by atomic-scale friction. The force needed to drag the tip can be measured and is found to be related to shear stress, which will be discussed later in this chapter. The variation in shear stress is remarkable (more than a factor of 10^{12}) and difficult to predict theoretically, but shear stress is yielding a fundamental understanding of a large-scale phenomenon known since ancient times—friction.

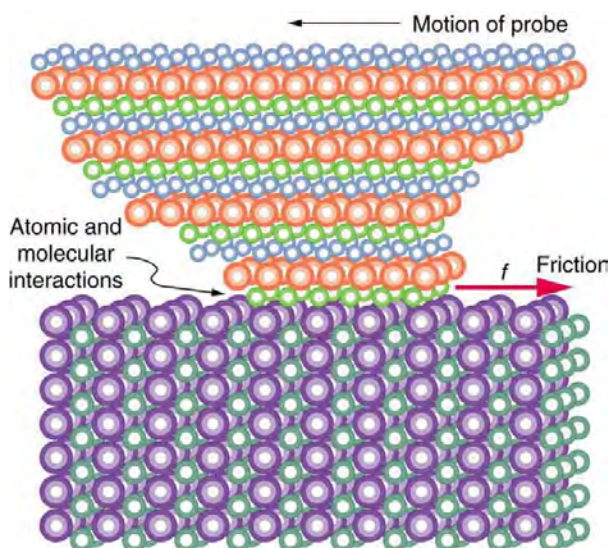


FIGURE 5.6 The tip of a probe is deformed sideways by frictional force as the probe is dragged across a surface. Measurements of how the force varies for different materials are yielding fundamental insights into the atomic nature of friction.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Forces and Motion

Explore the forces at work when you try to push a filing cabinet. Create an applied force and see the resulting friction force and total force acting on the cabinet. Charts show the forces, position, velocity, and acceleration vs. time. Draw a free-body diagram of all the forces (including gravitational and normal forces).

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5.2 Drag Forces

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Express mathematically the drag force.
- Discuss the applications of drag force.
- Define terminal velocity.
- Determine the terminal velocity given mass.

Another interesting force in everyday life is the force of drag on an object when it is moving in a fluid (either a gas or a liquid). You feel the drag force when you move your hand through water. You might also feel it if you move your hand during a strong wind. The faster you move your hand, the harder it is to move. You feel a smaller drag force when you tilt your hand so only the side goes through the air—you have decreased the area of your hand that faces the direction of motion. Like friction, the **drag force** always opposes the motion of an object. Unlike simple friction, the drag force is proportional to some function of the velocity of the object in that fluid. This functionality is complicated and depends upon the shape of the object, its size, its velocity, and the fluid it is in. For most large objects such as bicyclists, cars, and baseballs not moving too slowly, the magnitude of the drag force F_D is found to be proportional to the square of the speed of the object. We can write this relationship mathematically as $F_D \propto v^2$. When taking into account other factors, this relationship becomes

$$F_D = \frac{1}{2} C \rho A v^2, \quad 5.13$$

where C is the drag coefficient, A is the area of the object facing the fluid, and ρ is the density of the fluid. (Recall that density is mass per unit volume.) This equation can also be written in a more generalized fashion as $F_D = b v^2$, where b is a constant equivalent to $0.5 C \rho A$. We have set the exponent for these equations as 2 because, when an object is moving at high velocity through air, the magnitude of the drag force is proportional to the square of the

speed. As we shall see in a few pages on fluid dynamics, for small particles moving at low speeds in a fluid, the exponent is equal to 1.

DRAG FORCE

Drag force F_D is found to be proportional to the square of the speed of the object. Mathematically

$$F_D \propto v^2 \quad 5.14$$

$$F_D = \frac{1}{2} C \rho A v^2, \quad 5.15$$

where C is the drag coefficient, A is the area of the object facing the fluid, and ρ is the density of the fluid.

Athletes as well as car designers seek to reduce the drag force to lower their race times. (See [Figure 5.7](#)). “Aerodynamic” shaping of an automobile can reduce the drag force and so increase a car’s gas mileage.



FIGURE 5.7 From racing cars to bobsled racers, aerodynamic shaping is crucial to achieving top speeds. Bobsleds are designed for speed. They are shaped like a bullet with tapered fins. (credit: U.S. Army, via Wikimedia Commons)

The value of the drag coefficient, C , is determined empirically, usually with the use of a wind tunnel. (See [Figure 5.8](#)).



FIGURE 5.8 NASA researchers test a model plane in a wind tunnel. (credit: NASA/Ames)

The drag coefficient can depend upon velocity, but we will assume that it is a constant here. [Table 5.2](#) lists some typical drag coefficients for a variety of objects. Notice that the drag coefficient is a dimensionless quantity. At highway speeds, over 50% of the power of a car is used to overcome air drag. The most fuel-efficient cruising speed is about 70–80 km/h (about 45–50 mi/h). For this reason, during the 1970s oil crisis in the United States, maximum speeds on highways were set at about 90 km/h (55 mi/h).

Object	C
Airfoil	0.05
Toyota Camry	0.28
Ford Focus	0.32
Honda Civic	0.36
Ferrari Testarossa	0.37
Dodge Ram pickup	0.43
Sphere	0.45
Hummer H2 SUV	0.64
Skydiver (feet first)	0.70
Bicycle	0.90
Skydiver (horizontal)	1.0
Circular flat plate	1.12

TABLE 5.2 Drag Coefficient Values Typical values of drag coefficient C .

Substantial research is under way in the sporting world to minimize drag. The dimples on golf balls are being redesigned as are the clothes that athletes wear. Bicycle racers and some swimmers and runners wear full bodysuits. Australian Cathy Freeman wore a full body suit in the 2000 Sydney Olympics, and won the gold medal for the 400 m race. Many swimmers in the 2008 Beijing Olympics wore (Speedo) body suits; it might have made a difference in breaking many world records (See [Figure 5.9](#)). Most elite swimmers (and cyclists) shave their body hair. Such innovations can have the effect of slicing away milliseconds in a race, sometimes making the difference between a gold and a silver medal. One consequence is that careful and precise guidelines must be continuously developed to maintain the integrity of the sport.



FIGURE 5.9 Body suits, such as this LZR Racer Suit, have been credited with many world records after their release in 2008. Smoother “skin” and more compression forces on a swimmer’s body provide at least 10% less drag. (credit: NASA/Kathy Barnstorff)

Some interesting situations connected to Newton's second law occur when considering the effects of drag forces upon a moving object. For instance, consider a skydiver falling through air under the influence of gravity. The two forces acting on him are the force of gravity and the drag force (ignoring the buoyant force). The downward force of gravity remains constant regardless of the velocity at which the person is moving. However, as the person's velocity increases, the magnitude of the drag force increases until the magnitude of the drag force is equal to the gravitational force, thus producing a net force of zero. A zero net force means that there is no acceleration, as given by Newton's second law. At this point, the person's velocity remains constant and we say that the person has reached his *terminal velocity* (v_t). Since F_D is proportional to the speed, a heavier skydiver must go faster for F_D to equal his weight. Let's see how this works out more quantitatively.

At the terminal velocity,

$$F_{\text{net}} = mg - F_D = ma = 0. \quad 5.16$$

Thus,

$$mg = F_D. \quad 5.17$$

Using the equation for drag force, we have

$$mg = \frac{1}{2} \rho C A v^2. \quad 5.18$$

Solving for the velocity, we obtain

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2mg}{\rho C A}}. \quad 5.19$$

Assume the density of air is $\rho = 1.21 \text{ kg/m}^3$. A 75-kg skydiver descending head first will have an area approximately $A = 0.18 \text{ m}^2$ and a drag coefficient of approximately $C = 0.70$. We find that

$$\begin{aligned} v &= \sqrt{\frac{2(75 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)}{(1.21 \text{ kg/m}^3)(0.70)(0.18 \text{ m}^2)}} \\ &= 98 \text{ m/s} \\ &= 350 \text{ km/h}. \end{aligned} \quad 5.20$$

This means a skydiver with a mass of 75 kg achieves a maximum terminal velocity of about 350 km/h while traveling in a headfirst position, minimizing the area and his drag. In a spread-eagle position, that terminal velocity may decrease to about 200 km/h as the area increases. This terminal velocity becomes much smaller after the parachute opens.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT

This interesting activity examines the effect of weight upon terminal velocity. Gather together some nested coffee filters. Leaving them in their original shape, measure the time it takes for one, two, three, four, and five nested filters to fall to the floor from the same height (roughly 2 m). (Note that, due to the way the filters are nested, drag is constant and only mass varies.) They obtain terminal velocity quite quickly, so find this velocity as a function of mass. Plot the terminal velocity v versus mass. Also plot v^2 versus mass. Which of these relationships is more linear? What can you conclude from these graphs?



EXAMPLE 5.2

A Terminal Velocity

Find the terminal velocity of an 85-kg skydiver falling in a spread-eagle position.

Strategy

At terminal velocity, $F_{\text{net}} = 0$. Thus the drag force on the skydiver must equal the force of gravity (the person's

weight). Using the equation of drag force, we find $mg = \frac{1}{2}\rho CA v^2$.

Thus the terminal velocity v_t can be written as

$$v_t = \sqrt{\frac{2mg}{\rho CA}}. \quad 5.21$$

Solution

All quantities are known except the person's projected area. This is an adult (85 kg) falling spread eagle. We can estimate the frontal area as

$$A = (2 \text{ m})(0.35 \text{ m}) = 0.70 \text{ m}^2. \quad 5.22$$

Using our equation for v_t , we find that

$$\begin{aligned} v_t &= \sqrt{\frac{2(85 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)}{(1.21 \text{ kg/m}^3)(1.0)(0.70 \text{ m}^2)}} \\ &= 44 \text{ m/s}. \end{aligned} \quad 5.23$$

Discussion

This result is consistent with the value for v_t mentioned earlier. The 75-kg skydiver going feet first had a $v = 98 \text{ m/s}$. He weighed less but had a smaller frontal area and so a smaller drag due to the air.

The size of the object that is falling through air presents another interesting application of air drag. If you fall from a 5-m high branch of a tree, you will likely get hurt—possibly fracturing a bone. However, a small squirrel does this all the time, without getting hurt. You don't reach a terminal velocity in such a short distance, but the squirrel does.

The following interesting quote on animal size and terminal velocity is from a 1928 essay by a British biologist, J.B.S. Haldane, titled "On Being the Right Size."

To the mouse and any smaller animal, [gravity] presents practically no dangers. You can drop a mouse down a thousand-yard mine shaft; and, on arriving at the bottom, it gets a slight shock and walks away, provided that the ground is fairly soft. A rat is killed, a man is broken, and a horse splashes. For the resistance presented to movement by the air is proportional to the surface of the moving object. Divide an animal's length, breadth, and height each by ten; its weight is reduced to a thousandth, but its surface only to a hundredth. So the resistance to falling in the case of the small animal is relatively ten times greater than the driving force.

The above quadratic dependence of air drag upon velocity does not hold if the object is very small, is going very slow, or is in a denser medium than air. Then we find that the drag force is proportional just to the velocity. This relationship is given by **Stokes' law**, which states that

$$F_s = 6\pi r\eta v, \quad 5.24$$

where r is the radius of the object, η is the viscosity of the fluid, and v is the object's velocity.

STOKES' LAW

$$F_s = 6\pi r\eta v, \quad 5.25$$

where r is the radius of the object, η is the viscosity of the fluid, and v is the object's velocity.

Good examples of this law are provided by microorganisms, pollen, and dust particles. Because each of these objects is so small, we find that many of these objects travel unaided only at a constant (terminal) velocity. Terminal velocities for bacteria (size about $1 \mu\text{m}$) can be about $2 \mu\text{m/s}$. To move at a greater speed, many bacteria swim using flagella (organelles shaped like little tails) that are powered by little motors embedded in the cell. Sediment in a lake can move at a greater terminal velocity (about $5 \mu\text{m/s}$), so it can take days to reach the bottom of the lake after being deposited on the surface.

If we compare animals living on land with those in water, you can see how drag has influenced evolution. Fishes, dolphins, and even massive whales are streamlined in shape to reduce drag forces. Birds are streamlined and migratory species that fly large distances often have particular features such as long necks. Flocks of birds fly in the shape of a spear head as the flock forms a streamlined pattern (see [Figure 5.10](#)). In humans, one important example of streamlining is the shape of sperm, which need to be efficient in their use of energy.



FIGURE 5.10 Geese fly in a V formation during their long migratory travels. This shape reduces drag and energy consumption for individual birds, and also allows them a better way to communicate. (credit: Julo, Wikimedia Commons)

GALILEO'S EXPERIMENT

Galileo is said to have dropped two objects of different masses from the Tower of Pisa. He measured how long it took each to reach the ground. Since stopwatches weren't readily available, how do you think he measured their fall time? If the objects were the same size, but with different masses, what do you think he should have observed? Would this result be different if done on the Moon?

5.3 Elasticity: Stress and Strain

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- State Hooke's law.
- Explain Hooke's law using graphical representation between deformation and applied force.
- Discuss the three types of deformations such as changes in length, sideways shear and changes in volume.
- Describe with examples the young's modulus, shear modulus and bulk modulus.
- Determine the change in length given mass, length and radius.

We now move from consideration of forces that affect the motion of an object (such as friction and drag) to those that affect an object's shape. If a bulldozer pushes a car into a wall, the car will not move but it will noticeably change shape. A change in shape due to the application of a force is a **deformation**. Even very small forces are known to cause some deformation. For small deformations, two important characteristics are observed. First, the object returns to its original shape when the force is removed—that is, the deformation is elastic for small deformations. Second, the size of the deformation is proportional to the force—that is, for small deformations, Hooke's law is obeyed. In equation form, **Hooke's law** is given by

$$F = k\Delta L, \quad 5.26$$

where ΔL is the amount of deformation (the change in length, for example) produced by the force F , and k is a proportionality constant that depends on the shape and composition of the object and the direction of the force. Note that this force is a function of the deformation ΔL —it is not constant as a kinetic friction force is. Rearranging this to

$$\Delta L = \frac{F}{k} \quad 5.27$$

makes it clear that the deformation is proportional to the applied force. [Figure 5.11](#) shows the Hooke's law relationship between the extension ΔL of a spring or of a human bone. For metals or springs, the straight line region in which Hooke's law pertains is much larger. Bones are brittle and the elastic region is small and the fracture abrupt. Eventually a large enough stress to the material will cause it to break or fracture. **Tensile strength** is the breaking stress that will cause permanent deformation or fracture of a material.

HOOKE'S LAW

$$F = k\Delta L, \quad 5.28$$

where ΔL is the amount of deformation (the change in length, for example) produced by the force F , and k is a proportionality constant that depends on the shape and composition of the object and the direction of the force.

$$\Delta L = \frac{F}{k} \quad 5.29$$

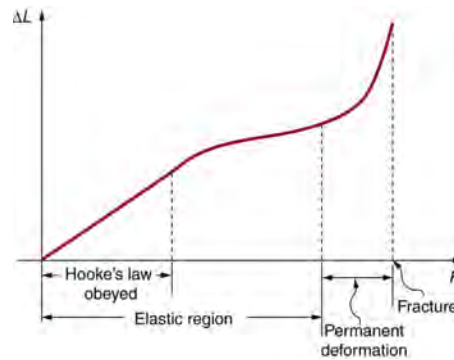


FIGURE 5.11 A graph of deformation ΔL versus applied force F . The straight segment is the linear region where Hooke's law is obeyed. The slope of the straight region is $\frac{1}{k}$. For larger forces, the graph is curved but the deformation is still elastic— ΔL will return to zero if the force is removed. Still greater forces permanently deform the object until it finally fractures. The shape of the curve near fracture depends on several factors, including how the force F is applied. Note that in this graph the slope increases just before fracture, indicating that a small increase in F is producing a large increase in L near the fracture.

The proportionality constant k depends upon a number of factors for the material. For example, a guitar string made of nylon stretches when it is tightened, and the elongation ΔL is proportional to the force applied (at least for small deformations). Thicker nylon strings and ones made of steel stretch less for the same applied force, implying they have a larger k (see [Figure 5.12](#)). Finally, all three strings return to their normal lengths when the force is removed, provided the deformation is small. Most materials will behave in this manner if the deformation is less than about 0.1% or about 1 part in 10^3 .

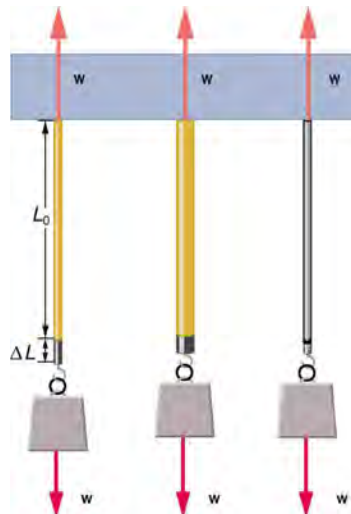


FIGURE 5.12 The same force, in this case a weight (w), applied to three different guitar strings of identical length produces the three different deformations shown as shaded segments. The string on the left is thin nylon, the one in the middle is thicker nylon, and the one on the right is steel.

the right is steel.

STRETCH YOURSELF A LITTLE

How would you go about measuring the proportionality constant k of a rubber band? If a rubber band stretched 3 cm when a 100-g mass was attached to it, then how much would it stretch if two similar rubber bands were attached to the same mass—even if put together in parallel or alternatively if tied together in series?

We now consider three specific types of deformations: changes in length (tension and compression), sideways shear (stress), and changes in volume. All deformations are assumed to be small unless otherwise stated.

Changes in Length—Tension and Compression: Elastic Modulus

A change in length ΔL is produced when a force is applied to a wire or rod parallel to its length L_0 , either stretching it (a tension) or compressing it. (See [Figure 5.13](#).)

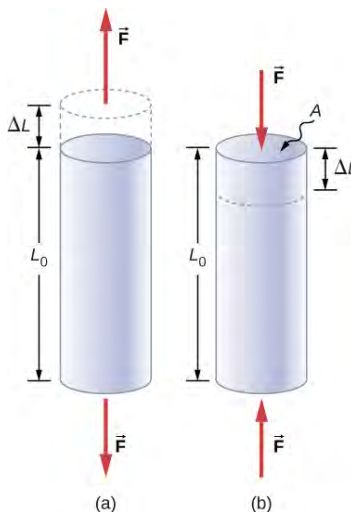


FIGURE 5.13 (a) Tension. The rod is stretched a length ΔL when a force is applied parallel to its length. (b) Compression. The same rod is compressed by forces with the same magnitude in the opposite direction. For very small deformations and uniform materials, ΔL is approximately the same for the same magnitude of tension or compression. For larger deformations, the cross-sectional area changes as the rod is compressed or stretched.

Experiments have shown that the change in length (ΔL) depends on only a few variables. As already noted, ΔL is proportional to the force F and depends on the substance from which the object is made. Additionally, the change in length is proportional to the original length L_0 and inversely proportional to the cross-sectional area of the wire or rod. For example, a long guitar string will stretch more than a short one, and a thick string will stretch less than a thin one. We can combine all these factors into one equation for ΔL :

$$\Delta L = \frac{1}{Y} \frac{F}{A} L_0, \quad 5.30$$

where ΔL is the change in length, F the applied force, Y is a factor, called the elastic modulus or Young's modulus, that depends on the substance, A is the cross-sectional area, and L_0 is the original length. [Table 5.3](#) lists values of Y for several materials—those with a large Y are said to have a large tensile stiffness because they deform less for a given tension or compression.

Material	Young's modulus (tension–compression) Y (10^9 N/m^2)	Shear modulus S (10^9 N/m^2)	Bulk modulus B (10^9 N/m^2)
Aluminum	70	25	75
Bone – tension	16	80	8
Bone – compression	9		
Brass	90	35	75
Brick	15		
Concrete	20		
Glass	70	20	30
Granite	45	20	45
Hair (human)	10		
Hardwood	15	10	
Iron, cast	100	40	90
Lead	16	5	50
Marble	60	20	70
Nylon	5		
Polystyrene	3		
Silk	6		
Spider thread	3		
Steel	210	80	130
Tendon	1		
Acetone			0.7
Ethanol			0.9
Glycerin			4.5

TABLE 5.3 Elastic Moduli¹

¹ Approximate and average values. Young's moduli Y for tension and compression sometimes differ but are averaged here. Bone has significantly different Young's moduli for tension and compression.

Material	Young's modulus (tension–compression) Y (10^9 N/m^2)	Shear modulus S (10^9 N/m^2)	Bulk modulus B (10^9 N/m^2)
Mercury			25
Water			2.2

TABLE 5.3 Elastic Moduli¹

Young's moduli are not listed for liquids and gases in [Table 5.3](#) because they cannot be stretched or compressed in only one direction. Note that there is an assumption that the object does not accelerate, so that there are actually two applied forces of magnitude F acting in opposite directions. For example, the strings in [Figure 5.13](#) are being pulled down by a force of magnitude w and held up by the ceiling, which also exerts a force of magnitude w .

**EXAMPLE 5.3****The Stretch of a Long Cable**

Suspension cables are used to carry gondolas at ski resorts. (See [Figure 5.14](#)) Consider a suspension cable that includes an unsupported span of 3020 m. Calculate the amount of stretch in the steel cable. Assume that the cable has a diameter of 5.6 cm and the maximum tension it can withstand is $3.0 \times 10^6 \text{ N}$.

**FIGURE 5.14** Gondolas travel along suspension cables at the Gala Yuzawa ski resort in Japan. (credit: Rudy Herman, Flickr)**Strategy**

The force is equal to the maximum tension, or $F = 3.0 \times 10^6 \text{ N}$. The cross-sectional area is $\pi r^2 = 2.46 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^2$. The equation $\Delta L = \frac{1}{Y} \frac{F}{A} L_0$ can be used to find the change in length.

Solution

All quantities are known. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta L &= \left(\frac{1}{210 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^2} \right) \left(\frac{3.0 \times 10^6 \text{ N}}{2.46 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^2} \right) (3020 \text{ m}) \\ &= 18 \text{ m.} \end{aligned} \quad \text{5.31}$$

Discussion

This is quite a stretch, but only about 0.6% of the unsupported length. Effects of temperature upon length might be important in these environments.

Bones, on the whole, do not fracture due to tension or compression. Rather they generally fracture due to sideways impact or bending, resulting in the bone shearing or snapping. The behavior of bones under tension and compression is important because it determines the load the bones can carry. Bones are classified as weight-bearing structures such as columns in buildings and trees. Weight-bearing structures have special features; columns in building have steel-reinforcing rods while trees and bones are fibrous. The bones in different parts of the body serve different structural functions and are prone to different stresses. Thus the bone in the top of the femur is

arranged in thin sheets separated by marrow while in other places the bones can be cylindrical and filled with marrow or just solid. Overweight people have a tendency toward bone damage due to sustained compressions in bone joints and tendons.

Another biological example of Hooke's law occurs in tendons. Functionally, the tendon (the tissue connecting muscle to bone) must stretch easily at first when a force is applied, but offer a much greater restoring force for a greater strain. Figure 5.15 shows a stress-strain relationship for a human tendon. Some tendons have a high collagen content so there is relatively little strain, or length change; others, like support tendons (as in the leg) can change length up to 10%. Note that this stress-strain curve is nonlinear, since the slope of the line changes in different regions. In the first part of the stretch called the toe region, the fibers in the tendon begin to align in the direction of the stress—this is called *uncrimping*. In the linear region, the fibrils will be stretched, and in the failure region individual fibers begin to break. A simple model of this relationship can be illustrated by springs in parallel: different springs are activated at different lengths of stretch. Examples of this are given in the problems at end of this chapter. Ligaments (tissue connecting bone to bone) behave in a similar way.

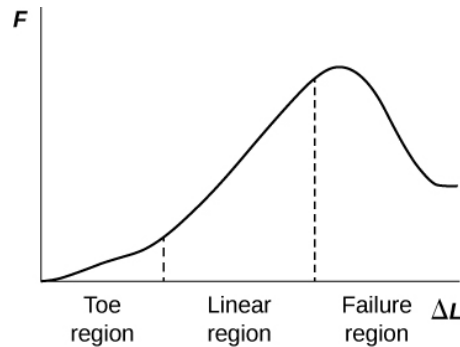


FIGURE 5.15 Typical stress-strain curve for mammalian tendon. Three regions are shown: (1) toe region (2) linear region, and (3) failure region.

Unlike bones and tendons, which need to be strong as well as elastic, the arteries and lungs need to be very stretchable. The elastic properties of the arteries are essential for blood flow. The pressure in the arteries increases and arterial walls stretch when the blood is pumped out of the heart. When the aortic valve shuts, the pressure in the arteries drops and the arterial walls relax to maintain the blood flow. When you feel your pulse, you are feeling exactly this—the elastic behavior of the arteries as the blood gushes through with each pump of the heart. If the arteries were rigid, you would not feel a pulse. The heart is also an organ with special elastic properties. The lungs expand with muscular effort when we breathe in but relax freely and elastically when we breathe out. Our skins are particularly elastic, especially for the young. A young person can go from 100 kg to 60 kg with no visible sag in their skins. The elasticity of all organs reduces with age. Gradual physiological aging through reduction in elasticity starts in the early 20s.



EXAMPLE 5.4

Calculating Deformation: How Much Does Your Leg Shorten When You Stand on It?

Calculate the change in length of the upper leg bone (the femur) when a 70.0 kg man supports 62.0 kg of his mass on it, assuming the bone to be equivalent to a uniform rod that is 40.0 cm long and 2.00 cm in radius.

Strategy

The force is equal to the weight supported, or

$$F = mg = (62.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) = 607.6 \text{ N}, \quad 5.32$$

and the cross-sectional area is $\pi r^2 = 1.257 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^2$. The equation $\Delta L = \frac{1}{Y} \frac{F}{A} L_0$ can be used to find the change in length.

Solution

All quantities except ΔL are known. Note that the compression value for Young's modulus for bone must be used here. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta L &= \left(\frac{1}{9 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^2} \right) \left(\frac{607.6 \text{ N}}{1.257 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^2} \right) (0.400 \text{ m}) \\ &= 2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}.\end{aligned}\tag{5.33}$$

Discussion

This small change in length seems reasonable, consistent with our experience that bones are rigid. In fact, even the rather large forces encountered during strenuous physical activity do not compress or bend bones by large amounts. Although bone is rigid compared with fat or muscle, several of the substances listed in [Table 5.3](#) have larger values of Young's modulus Y . In other words, they are more rigid.

The equation for change in length is traditionally rearranged and written in the following form:

$$\frac{F}{A} = Y \frac{\Delta L}{L_0}.\tag{5.34}$$

The ratio of force to area, $\frac{F}{A}$, is defined as **stress** (measured in N/m^2), and the ratio of the change in length to length, $\frac{\Delta L}{L_0}$, is defined as **strain** (a unitless quantity). In other words,

$$\text{stress} = Y \times \text{strain}.\tag{5.35}$$

In this form, the equation is analogous to Hooke's law, with stress analogous to force and strain analogous to deformation. If we again rearrange this equation to the form

$$F = YA \frac{\Delta L}{L_0},\tag{5.36}$$

we see that it is the same as Hooke's law with a proportionality constant

$$k = \frac{YA}{L_0}.\tag{5.37}$$

This general idea—that force and the deformation it causes are proportional for small deformations—applies to changes in length, sideways bending, and changes in volume.

STRESS

The ratio of force to area, $\frac{F}{A}$, is defined as stress measured in N/m^2 .

STRAIN

The ratio of the change in length to length, $\frac{\Delta L}{L_0}$, is defined as strain (a unitless quantity). In other words,

$$\text{stress} = Y \times \text{strain}.\tag{5.38}$$

Sideways Stress: Shear Modulus

[Figure 5.16](#) illustrates what is meant by a sideways stress or a *shearing force*. Here the deformation is called Δx and it is perpendicular to L_0 , rather than parallel as with tension and compression. Shear deformation behaves similarly to tension and compression and can be described with similar equations. The expression for **shear deformation** is

$$\Delta x = \frac{1}{S} \frac{F}{A} L_0,\tag{5.39}$$

where S is the shear modulus (see [Table 5.3](#)) and F is the force applied perpendicular to L_0 and parallel to the cross-sectional area A . Again, to keep the object from accelerating, there are actually two equal and opposite forces F applied across opposite faces, as illustrated in [Figure 5.16](#). The equation is logical—for example, it is easier to bend a long thin pencil (small A) than a short thick one, and both are more easily bent than similar steel rods (large S).

SHEAR DEFORMATION

$$\Delta x = \frac{1}{S} \frac{F}{A} L_0, \quad 5.40$$

where S is the shear modulus and F is the force applied perpendicular to L_0 and parallel to the cross-sectional area A .

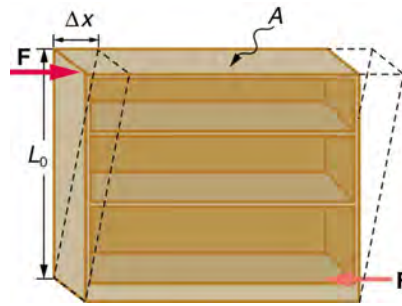


FIGURE 5.16 Shearing forces are applied perpendicular to the length L_0 and parallel to the area A , producing a deformation Δx . Vertical forces are not shown, but it should be kept in mind that in addition to the two shearing forces, F , there must be supporting forces to keep the object from rotating. The distorting effects of these supporting forces are ignored in this treatment. The weight of the object also is not shown, since it is usually negligible compared with forces large enough to cause significant deformations.

Examination of the shear moduli in [Table 5.3](#) reveals some telling patterns. For example, shear moduli are less than Young's moduli for most materials. Bone is a remarkable exception. Its shear modulus is not only greater than its Young's modulus, but it is as large as that of steel. This is why bones are so rigid.

The spinal column (consisting of 26 vertebral segments separated by discs) provides the main support for the head and upper part of the body. The spinal column has normal curvature for stability, but this curvature can be increased, leading to increased shearing forces on the lower vertebrae. Discs are better at withstanding compressional forces than shear forces. Because the spine is not vertical, the weight of the upper body exerts some of both. Pregnant women and people that are overweight (with large abdomens) need to move their shoulders back to maintain balance, thereby increasing the curvature in their spine and so increasing the shear component of the stress. An increased angle due to more curvature increases the shear forces along the plane. These higher shear forces increase the risk of back injury through ruptured discs. The lumbosacral disc (the wedge shaped disc below the last vertebrae) is particularly at risk because of its location.

The shear moduli for concrete and brick are very small; they are too highly variable to be listed. Concrete used in buildings can withstand compression, as in pillars and arches, but is very poor against shear, as might be encountered in heavily loaded floors or during earthquakes. Modern structures were made possible by the use of steel and steel-reinforced concrete. Almost by definition, liquids and gases have shear moduli near zero, because they flow in response to shearing forces.



EXAMPLE 5.5

Calculating Force Required to Deform: That Nail Does Not Bend Much Under a Load

Find the mass of the picture hanging from a steel nail as shown in [Figure 5.17](#), given that the nail bends only $1.80 \mu\text{m}$. (Assume the shear modulus is known to two significant figures.)

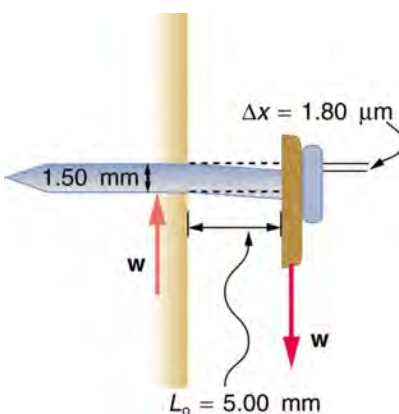


FIGURE 5.17 Side view of a nail with a picture hung from it. The nail flexes very slightly (shown much larger than actual) because of the shearing effect of the supported weight. Also shown is the upward force of the wall on the nail, illustrating that there are equal and opposite forces applied across opposite cross sections of the nail. See [Example 5.5](#) for a calculation of the mass of the picture.

Strategy

The force F on the nail (neglecting the nail's own weight) is the weight of the picture w . If we can find w , then the mass of the picture is just $\frac{w}{g}$. The equation $\Delta x = \frac{1}{S} \frac{F}{A} L_0$ can be solved for F .

Solution

Solving the equation $\Delta x = \frac{1}{S} \frac{F}{A} L_0$ for F , we see that all other quantities can be found:

$$F = \frac{SA}{L_0} \Delta x. \quad 5.41$$

S is found in [Table 5.3](#) and is $S = 80 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^2$. The radius r is 0.750 mm (as seen in the figure), so the cross-sectional area is

$$A = \pi r^2 = 1.77 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2. \quad 5.42$$

The value for L_0 is also shown in the figure. Thus,

$$F = \frac{(80 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^2)(1.77 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2)}{(5.00 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m})} (1.80 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}) = 51 \text{ N}. \quad 5.43$$

This 51 N force is the weight w of the picture, so the picture's mass is

$$m = \frac{w}{g} = \frac{F}{g} = 5.2 \text{ kg}. \quad 5.44$$

Discussion

This is a fairly massive picture, and it is impressive that the nail flexes only $1.80 \mu\text{m}$ —an amount undetectable to the unaided eye.

Changes in Volume: Bulk Modulus

An object will be compressed in all directions if inward forces are applied evenly on all its surfaces as in [Figure 5.18](#). It is relatively easy to compress gases and extremely difficult to compress liquids and solids. For example, air in a wine bottle is compressed when it is corked. But if you try corking a brim-full bottle, you cannot compress the wine—some must be removed if the cork is to be inserted. The reason for these different compressibilities is that atoms and molecules are separated by large empty spaces in gases but packed close together in liquids and solids. To compress a gas, you must force its atoms and molecules closer together. To compress liquids and solids, you must actually compress their atoms and molecules, and very strong electromagnetic forces in them oppose this compression.

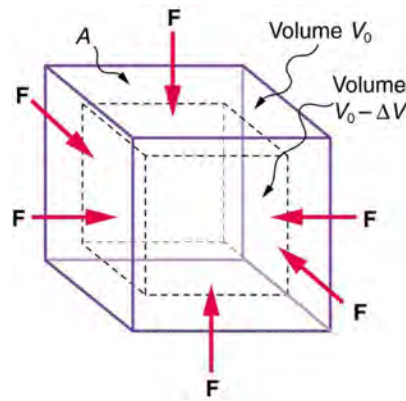


FIGURE 5.18 An inward force on all surfaces compresses this cube. Its change in volume is proportional to the force per unit area and its original volume, and is related to the compressibility of the substance.

We can describe the compression or volume deformation of an object with an equation. First, we note that a force “applied evenly” is defined to have the same stress, or ratio of force to area $\frac{F}{A}$ on all surfaces. The deformation produced is a change in volume ΔV , which is found to behave very similarly to the shear, tension, and compression previously discussed. (This is not surprising, since a compression of the entire object is equivalent to compressing each of its three dimensions.) The relationship of the change in volume to other physical quantities is given by

$$\Delta V = \frac{1}{B} \frac{F}{A} V_0, \quad 5.45$$

where B is the bulk modulus (see [Table 5.3](#)), V_0 is the original volume, and $\frac{F}{A}$ is the force per unit area applied uniformly inward on all surfaces. Note that no bulk moduli are given for gases.

What are some examples of bulk compression of solids and liquids? One practical example is the manufacture of industrial-grade diamonds by compressing carbon with an extremely large force per unit area. The carbon atoms rearrange their crystalline structure into the more tightly packed pattern of diamonds. In nature, a similar process occurs deep underground, where extremely large forces result from the weight of overlying material. Another natural source of large compressive forces is the pressure created by the weight of water, especially in deep parts of the oceans. Water exerts an inward force on all surfaces of a submerged object, and even on the water itself. At great depths, water is measurably compressed, as the following example illustrates.

EXAMPLE 5.6

Calculating Change in Volume with Deformation: How Much Is Water Compressed at Great Ocean Depths?

Calculate the fractional decrease in volume ($\frac{\Delta V}{V_0}$) for seawater at 5.00 km depth, where the force per unit area is $5.00 \times 10^7 \text{ N/m}^2$.

Strategy

Equation $\Delta V = \frac{1}{B} \frac{F}{A} V_0$ is the correct physical relationship. All quantities in the equation except $\frac{\Delta V}{V_0}$ are known.

Solution

Solving for the unknown $\frac{\Delta V}{V_0}$ gives

$$\frac{\Delta V}{V_0} = \frac{1}{B} \frac{F}{A}. \quad 5.46$$

Substituting known values with the value for the bulk modulus B from [Table 5.3](#),

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\Delta V}{V_0} &= \frac{5.00 \times 10^7 \text{ N/m}^2}{2.2 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^2} \\ &= 0.023 = 2.3\%.\end{aligned}\quad 5.47$$

Discussion

Although measurable, this is not a significant decrease in volume considering that the force per unit area is about 500 atmospheres (1 million pounds per square foot). Liquids and solids are extraordinarily difficult to compress.

Conversely, very large forces are created by liquids and solids when they try to expand but are constrained from doing so—which is equivalent to compressing them to less than their normal volume. This often occurs when a contained material warms up, since most materials expand when their temperature increases. If the materials are tightly constrained, they deform or break their container. Another very common example occurs when water freezes. Water, unlike most materials, expands when it freezes, and it can easily fracture a boulder, rupture a biological cell, or crack an engine block that gets in its way.

Other types of deformations, such as torsion or twisting, behave analogously to the tension, shear, and bulk deformations considered here.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Masses & Springs

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/5-3-elasticity-stress-and-strain\)](https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/5-3-elasticity-stress-and-strain)



Glossary

deformation change in shape due to the application of force

drag force F_D , found to be proportional to the square of the speed of the object; mathematically $F_D \propto v^2$

$$F_D = \frac{1}{2} C \rho A v^2,$$

where C is the drag coefficient, A is the area of the object facing the fluid, and ρ is the density of the fluid

friction a force that opposes relative motion or attempts at motion between systems in contact

Hooke's law proportional relationship between the force F on a material and the deformation ΔL it causes, $F = k\Delta L$

kinetic friction a force that opposes the motion of two systems that are in contact and moving relative

to one another

magnitude of kinetic friction $f_k = \mu_k N$, where μ_k is the coefficient of kinetic friction

magnitude of static friction $f_s \leq \mu_s N$, where μ_s is the coefficient of static friction and N is the magnitude of the normal force

shear deformation deformation perpendicular to the original length of an object

static friction a force that opposes the motion of two systems that are in contact and are not moving relative to one another

Stokes' law $F_s = 6\pi r \eta v$, where r is the radius of the object, η is the viscosity of the fluid, and v is the object's velocity

strain ratio of change in length to original length

stress ratio of force to area

tensile strength the breaking stress that will cause permanent deformation or fraction of a material

Section Summary

5.1 Friction

- Friction is a contact force between systems that opposes the motion or attempted motion between them. Simple friction is proportional to the normal force N pushing the systems together. (A normal force is always perpendicular to the contact surface between systems.) Friction depends on both of the materials involved. The magnitude of static friction f_s between systems stationary relative to one another is given by $f_s \leq \mu_s N$, where μ_s is the coefficient of static friction, which depends on both of the materials.
- The kinetic friction force f_k between systems moving relative to one another is given by $f_k = \mu_k N$, where μ_k is the coefficient of kinetic friction, which also depends on both materials.

5.2 Drag Forces

- Drag forces acting on an object moving in a fluid oppose the motion. For larger objects (such as a baseball) moving at a velocity v in air, the drag force is given by $F_D = \frac{1}{2} C \rho A v^2$, where C is the drag coefficient (typical values are given in [Table 5.2](#)), A is the area of the object facing the fluid, and ρ is the fluid density.
- For small objects (such as a bacterium) moving in a denser medium (such as water), the drag force is

given by Stokes' law,

$$F_s = 6\pi r \eta v,$$

where r is the radius of the object, η is the fluid viscosity, and v is the object's velocity.

5.3 Elasticity: Stress and Strain

- Hooke's law is given by $F = k\Delta L$, where ΔL is the amount of deformation (the change in length), F is the applied force, and k is a proportionality constant that depends on the shape and composition of the object and the direction of the force. The relationship between the deformation and the applied force can also be written as

$$\Delta L = \frac{1}{Y} \frac{F}{A} L_0,$$

where Y is *Young's modulus*, which depends on the substance, A is the cross-sectional area, and L_0 is the original length.

- The ratio of force to area, $\frac{F}{A}$, is defined as *stress*, measured in N/m^2 .
- The ratio of the change in length to length, $\frac{\Delta L}{L_0}$, is defined as *strain* (a unitless quantity). In other words, $\text{stress} = Y \times \text{strain}$.
- The expression for shear deformation is $\Delta x = \frac{1}{S} \frac{F}{A} L_0$, where S is the shear modulus and F is the force

applied perpendicular to L_0 and parallel to the cross-sectional area A .

- The relationship of the change in volume to other physical quantities is given by

$$\Delta V = \frac{1}{B} \frac{F}{A} V_0,$$

where B is the bulk modulus, V_0 is the original volume, and $\frac{F}{A}$ is the force per unit area applied uniformly inward on all surfaces.

Conceptual Questions

5.1 Friction

1. Define normal force. What is its relationship to friction when friction behaves simply?
2. The glue on a piece of tape can exert forces. Can these forces be a type of simple friction? Explain, considering especially that tape can stick to vertical walls and even to ceilings.
3. When you learn to drive, you discover that you need to let up slightly on the brake pedal as you come to a stop or the car will stop with a jerk. Explain this in terms of the relationship between static and kinetic friction.
4. When you push a piece of chalk across a chalkboard, it sometimes screeches because it rapidly alternates between slipping and sticking to the board. Describe this process in more detail, in particular explaining how it is related to the fact that kinetic friction is less than static friction. (The same slip-grab process occurs when tires screech on pavement.)

5.2 Drag Forces

5. Athletes such as swimmers and bicyclists wear body suits in competition. Formulate a list of pros and cons of such suits.
6. Two expressions were used for the drag force experienced by a moving object in a liquid. One depended upon the speed, while the other was proportional to the square of the speed. In which types of motion would each of these expressions be more applicable than the other one?
7. As cars travel, oil and gasoline leaks onto the road surface. If a light rain falls, what does this do to the control of the car? Does a heavy rain make any difference?
8. Why can a squirrel jump from a tree branch to the

ground and run away undamaged, while a human could break a bone in such a fall?

5.3 Elasticity: Stress and Strain

9. The elastic properties of the arteries are essential for blood flow. Explain the importance of this in terms of the characteristics of the flow of blood (pulsating or continuous).
10. What are you feeling when you feel your pulse? Measure your pulse rate for 10 s and for 1 min. Is there a factor of 6 difference?
11. Examine different types of shoes, including sports shoes and thongs. In terms of physics, why are the bottom surfaces designed as they are? What differences will dry and wet conditions make for these surfaces?
12. Would you expect your height to be different depending upon the time of day? Why or why not?
13. Would you expect a large or small stress to be required to deform a spider web? Why is this elasticity an important feature for a spider web?
14. Explain why pregnant women often suffer from back strain late in their pregnancy.
15. An old carpenter's trick to keep nails from bending when they are pounded into hard materials is to grip the center of the nail firmly with pliers. Why does this help?
16. When a glass bottle full of vinegar warms up, both the vinegar and the glass expand, but vinegar expands significantly more with temperature than glass. The bottle will break if it was filled to its tightly capped lid. Explain why, and also explain how a pocket of air above the vinegar would prevent the break. (This is the function of the air above liquids in glass containers.)

Problems & Exercises

5.1 Friction

1. A physics major is cooking breakfast when he notices that the frictional force between his steel spatula and his Teflon frying pan is only 0.200 N.

Knowing the coefficient of kinetic friction between the two materials, he quickly calculates the normal force. What is it?

2. (a) When rebuilding her car's engine, a physics

major must exert 300 N of force to insert a dry steel piston into a steel cylinder. What is the magnitude of the normal force between the piston and cylinder? (b) What is the magnitude of the force would she have to exert if the steel parts were oiled?

3. (a) What is the maximum frictional force in the knee joint of a person who supports 66.0 kg of her mass on that knee? (b) During strenuous exercise it is possible to exert forces to the joints that are easily ten times greater than the weight being supported. What is the maximum force of friction under such conditions? The frictional forces in joints are relatively small in all circumstances except when the joints deteriorate, such as from injury or arthritis. Increased frictional forces can cause further damage and pain.
4. Suppose you have a 120-kg wooden crate resting on a wood floor. (a) What maximum force can you exert horizontally on the crate without moving it? (b) If you continue to exert this force once the crate starts to slip, what will the magnitude of its acceleration then be?
5. (a) If half of the weight of a small 1.00×10^3 kg utility truck is supported by its two drive wheels, what is the magnitude of the maximum acceleration it can achieve on dry concrete? (b) Will a metal cabinet lying on the wooden bed of the truck slip if it accelerates at this rate? (c) Solve both problems assuming the truck has four-wheel drive.
6. A team of eight dogs pulls a sled with waxed wood runners on wet snow (mush!). The dogs have average masses of 19.0 kg, and the loaded sled with its rider has a mass of 210 kg. (a) Calculate the magnitude of the acceleration starting from rest if each dog exerts an average force of 185 N backward on the snow. (b) What is the magnitude of the acceleration once the sled starts to move? (c) For both situations, calculate the magnitude of the force in the coupling between the dogs and the sled.
7. Consider the 65.0-kg ice skater being pushed by two others shown in [Figure 5.19](#). (a) Find the direction and magnitude of $\mathbf{F}_{\text{tot}}$, the total force exerted on her by the others, given that the magnitudes F_1 and F_2 are 26.4 N and 18.6 N, respectively. (b) What is her initial acceleration if she is initially stationary and wearing steel-bladed skates that point in the direction of $\mathbf{F}_{\text{tot}}$? (c) What is her acceleration assuming she is already moving in

the direction of $\mathbf{F}_{\text{tot}}$? (Remember that friction always acts in the direction opposite that of motion or attempted motion between surfaces in contact.)

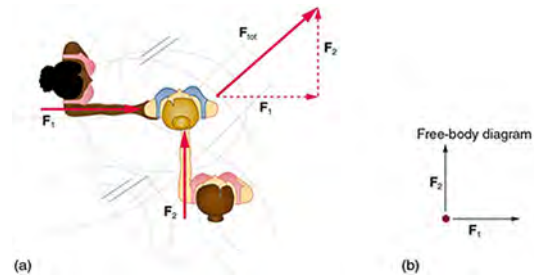


FIGURE 5.19

8. Show that the acceleration of any object down a frictionless incline that makes an angle θ with the horizontal is $a = g \sin \theta$. (Note that this acceleration is independent of mass.)
9. Show that the acceleration of any object down an incline where friction behaves simply (that is, where $f_k = \mu_k N$) is $a = g(\sin \theta - \mu_k \cos \theta)$. Note that the acceleration is independent of mass and reduces to the expression found in the previous problem when friction becomes negligibly small ($\mu_k = 0$).
10. Calculate the deceleration of a snow boarder going up a 5.0° slope assuming the coefficient of friction for waxed wood on wet snow. The result of [Exercise 5.9](#) may be useful, but be careful to consider the fact that the snow boarder is going uphill. Explicitly show how you follow the steps in [Problem-Solving Strategies](#).
11. (a) Calculate the acceleration of a skier heading down a 10.0° slope, assuming the coefficient of friction for waxed wood on wet snow. (b) Find the angle of the slope down which this skier could coast at a constant velocity. You can neglect air resistance in both parts, and you will find the result of [Exercise 5.9](#) to be useful. Explicitly show how you follow the steps in the [Problem-Solving Strategies](#).
12. If an object is to rest on an incline without slipping, then friction must equal the component of the weight of the object parallel to the incline. This requires greater and greater friction for steeper slopes. Show that the maximum angle of an incline above the horizontal for which an object will not slide down is $\theta = \tan^{-1} \mu_s$. You may use the result of the previous problem. Assume that $a = 0$ and that static friction has reached its maximum value.

- 13.** Calculate the maximum deceleration of a car that is heading down a 6° slope (one that makes an angle of 6° with the horizontal) under the following road conditions. You may assume that the weight of the car is evenly distributed on all four tires and that the coefficient of static friction is involved—that is, the tires are not allowed to slip during the deceleration. (Ignore rolling.) Calculate for a car: (a) On dry concrete. (b) On wet concrete. (c) On ice, assuming that $\mu_s = 0.100$, the same as for shoes on ice.
- 14.** Calculate the maximum acceleration of a car that is heading up a 4° slope (one that makes an angle of 4° with the horizontal) under the following road conditions. Assume that only half the weight of the car is supported by the two drive wheels and that the coefficient of static friction is involved—that is, the tires are not allowed to slip during the acceleration. (Ignore rolling.) (a) On dry concrete. (b) On wet concrete. (c) On ice, assuming that $\mu_s = 0.100$, the same as for shoes on ice.
- 15.** Repeat [Exercise 5.14](#) for a car with four-wheel drive.
- 16.** A freight train consists of two 8.00×10^5 -kg engines and 45 cars with average masses of 5.50×10^5 kg. (a) What force must each engine exert backward on the track to accelerate the train at a rate of $5.00 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m/s}^2$ if the force of friction is $7.50 \times 10^5 \text{ N}$, assuming the engines exert identical forces? This is not a large frictional force for such a massive system. Rolling friction for trains is small, and consequently trains are very energy-efficient transportation systems. (b) What is the magnitude of the force in the coupling between the 37th and 38th cars (this is the force each exerts on the other), assuming all cars have the same mass and that friction is evenly distributed among all of the cars and engines?
- 17.** Consider the 52.0-kg mountain climber in [Figure 5.20](#). (a) Find the tension in the rope and the force that the mountain climber must exert with her feet on the vertical rock face to remain stationary. Assume that the force is exerted parallel to her legs. Also, assume negligible force exerted by her arms. (b) What is the minimum coefficient of friction between her shoes and the cliff?

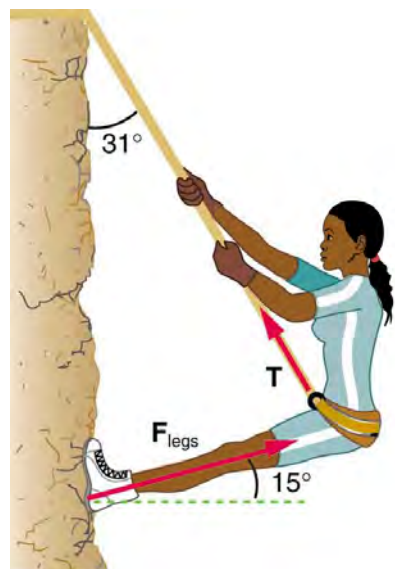


FIGURE 5.20 Part of the climber's weight is supported by her rope and part by friction between her feet and the rock face.

- 18.** A contestant in a winter sporting event pushes a 45.0-kg block of ice across a frozen lake as shown in [Figure 5.21\(a\)](#). (a) Calculate the minimum force F he must exert to get the block moving. (b) What is the magnitude of its acceleration once it starts to move, if that force is maintained?
- 19.** Repeat [Exercise 5.18](#) with the contestant pulling the block of ice with a rope over his shoulder at the same angle above the horizontal as shown in [Figure 5.21\(b\)](#).

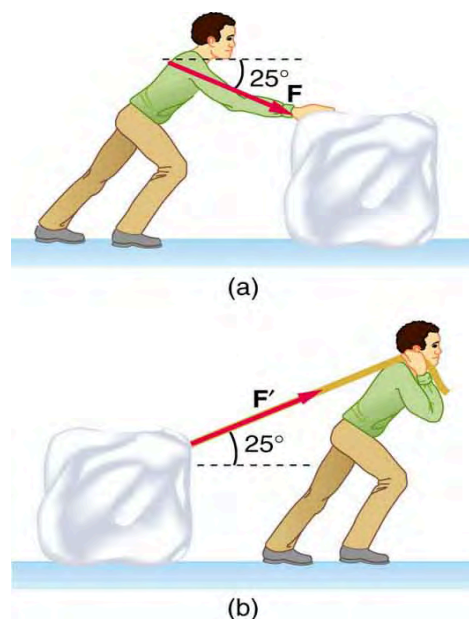


FIGURE 5.21 Which method of sliding a block of ice requires less force—(a) pushing or (b) pulling at the same angle above the horizontal?

5.2 Drag Forces

20. The terminal velocity of a person falling in air depends upon the weight and the area of the person facing the fluid. Find the terminal velocity (in meters per second and kilometers per hour) of an 80.0-kg skydiver falling in a headfirst position with a cross-section area facing the fluid of 0.140 m^2 .
21. A 60-kg and a 90-kg skydiver jump from an airplane at an altitude of 6000 m, both falling in a headfirst position. Make some assumption on their frontal areas and calculate their terminal velocities. How long will it take for each skydiver to reach the ground (assuming the time to reach terminal velocity is small)? Assume all values are accurate to three significant digits.
22. A 560-g squirrel with a cross-section area facing the fluid of 144 cm^2 falls from a 5.0-m tree to the ground. Estimate its terminal velocity. (Use a drag coefficient for a horizontal skydiver.) What will be the velocity of a 56-kg person hitting the ground, assuming no drag contribution in such a short distance?
23. To maintain a constant speed, the force provided by a car's engine must equal the drag force plus the force of friction of the road (the rolling resistance). (a) What are the magnitudes of drag forces at 70 km/h and 100 km/h for a Toyota Camry? (Drag area is 0.70 m^2) (b) What is the magnitude of drag force at 70 km/h and 100 km/h for a Hummer H2? (Drag area is 2.44 m^2) Assume all values are accurate to three significant digits.
24. By what factor does the drag force on a car increase as it goes from 65 to 110 km/h?
25. Calculate the speed a spherical rain drop would achieve falling from 5.00 km (a) in the absence of air drag (b) with air drag. Take the size across of the drop to be 4 mm, the density to be $1.00 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3$, and the cross-section area facing the fluid to be πr^2 .
26. Using Stokes' law, verify that the units for viscosity are kilograms per meter per second.
27. Find the terminal velocity of a spherical bacterium (diameter $2.00 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$) falling in water. You will first need to note that the drag force is equal to the weight at terminal velocity. Take the density of the bacterium to be $1.10 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3$.
28. Stokes' law describes sedimentation of particles

in liquids and can be used to measure viscosity. Particles in liquids achieve terminal velocity quickly. One can measure the time it takes for a particle to fall a certain distance and then use Stokes' law to calculate the viscosity of the liquid. Suppose a steel ball bearing (density $7.8 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3$, diameter 3.0 mm) is dropped in a container of motor oil. It takes 12 s to fall a distance of 0.60 m. Calculate the viscosity of the oil.

5.3 Elasticity: Stress and Strain

29. During a circus act, one performer swings upside down hanging from a trapeze holding another, also upside-down, performer by the legs. If the upward force on the lower performer is three times her weight, how much do the bones (the femurs) in her upper legs stretch? You may assume each is equivalent to a uniform rod 35.0 cm long and 1.80 cm in radius. Her mass is 60.0 kg.
30. During a wrestling match, a 150 kg wrestler briefly stands on one hand during a maneuver designed to perplex her adversary. By how much does the upper arm bone shorten in length? The bone can be represented by a uniform rod 38.0 cm in length and 2.10 cm in radius.
31. (a) The "lead" in pencils is a graphite composition with a Young's modulus of about $1 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^2$. Calculate the change in length of the lead in an automatic pencil if you tap it straight into the pencil with a force of 4.0 N. The lead is 0.50 mm in diameter and 60 mm long. (b) Is the answer reasonable? That is, does it seem to be consistent with what you have observed when using pencils?
32. TV broadcast antennas are the tallest artificial structures on Earth. In 1987, a 72.0-kg physicist placed himself and 400 kg of equipment at the top of one 610-m high antenna to perform gravity experiments. By how much was the antenna compressed, if we consider it to be equivalent to a steel cylinder 0.150 m in radius?
33. (a) By how much does a 65.0-kg mountain climber stretch her 0.800-cm diameter nylon rope when they hang 35.0 m below a rock outcropping? (b) Does the answer seem to be consistent with what you have observed for nylon ropes? Would it make sense if the rope were actually a bungee cord?
34. A 20.0-m tall hollow aluminum flagpole is equivalent in stiffness to a solid cylinder 4.00 cm in diameter. A strong wind bends the pole much as a horizontal force of 900 N exerted at the top

would. How far to the side does the top of the pole flex?

35. As an oil well is drilled, each new section of drill pipe supports its own weight and that of the pipe and drill bit beneath it. Calculate the stretch in a new 6.00 m length of steel pipe that supports 3.00 km of pipe having a mass of 20.0 kg/m and a 100-kg drill bit. The pipe is equivalent in stiffness to a solid cylinder 5.00 cm in diameter.
36. Calculate the force a piano tuner applies to stretch a steel piano wire 8.00 mm, if the wire is originally 0.850 mm in diameter and 1.35 m long.
37. A vertebra is subjected to a shearing force of 500 N. Find the shear deformation, taking the vertebra to be a cylinder 3.00 cm high and 4.00 cm in diameter.
38. A disk between vertebrae in the spine is subjected to a shearing force of 600 N. Find its shear deformation, taking it to have the shear modulus of $1 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^2$. The disk is equivalent to a solid cylinder 0.700 cm high and 4.00 cm in diameter.
39. When using a pencil eraser, you exert a vertical force of 6.00 N at a distance of 2.00 cm from the hardwood-eraser joint. The pencil is 6.00 mm in diameter and is held at an angle of 20.0° to the horizontal. (a) By how much does the wood flex perpendicular to its length? (b) How much is it compressed lengthwise?
40. To consider the effect of wires hung on poles, we take data from [Example 4.8](#), in which tensions in wires supporting a traffic light were calculated. The left wire made an angle 30.0° below the horizontal with the top of its pole and carried a tension of 108 N. The 12.0 m tall hollow aluminum pole is equivalent in stiffness to a 4.50 cm diameter solid cylinder. (a) How far is it bent to the side? (b) By how much is it compressed?
41. A farmer making grape juice fills a glass bottle to the brim and caps it tightly. The juice expands more than the glass when it warms up, in such a way that the volume increases by 0.2% (that is, $\Delta V/V_0 = 2 \times 10^{-3}$) relative to the space available. Calculate the magnitude of the normal force exerted by the juice per square centimeter if its bulk modulus is $1.8 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^2$, assuming the bottle does not break. In view of your answer, do you think the bottle will survive?
42. (a) When water freezes, its volume increases by 9.05% (that is, $\Delta V/V_0 = 9.05 \times 10^{-2}$). What

force per unit area is water capable of exerting on a container when it freezes? (It is acceptable to use the bulk modulus of water in this problem.) (b) Is it surprising that such forces can fracture engine blocks, boulders, and the like?

43. This problem returns to the tightrope walker studied in [Example 4.6](#), who created a tension of $3.94 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$ in a wire making an angle 5.0° below the horizontal with each supporting pole. Calculate how much this tension stretches the steel wire if it was originally 15 m long and 0.50 cm in diameter.
44. The pole in [Figure 5.22](#) is at a 90.0° bend in a power line and is therefore subjected to more shear force than poles in straight parts of the line. The tension in each line is $4.00 \times 10^4 \text{ N}$, at the angles shown. The pole is 15.0 m tall, has an 18.0 cm diameter, and can be considered to have half the stiffness of hardwood. (a) Calculate the compression of the pole. (b) Find how much it bends and in what direction. (c) Find the tension in a guy wire used to keep the pole straight if it is attached to the top of the pole at an angle of 30.0° with the vertical. (Clearly, the guy wire must be in the opposite direction of the bend.)

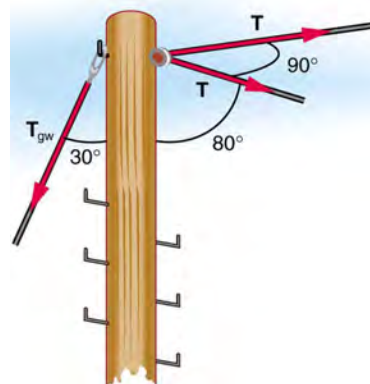


FIGURE 5.22 This telephone pole is at a 90° bend in a power line. A guy wire is attached to the top of the pole at an angle of 30° with the vertical.

45. **Critical Thinking** Two spherical beads of the same mass fall at a constant speed due to a drag force. Bead A takes twice as long to fall the same distance as bead B. (a) Which of these beads has the larger radius? (b) Based on experimental data, an equation that fits the data is suggested for radius of a bead, r , which may not be correct: $r = Kt - \frac{1}{2}$, where K is a constant with appropriate units and t is the time it takes for a bead to reach a determined distance. Is this equation consistent with your answer from part a?

Explain why or why not. Does this equation make sense? Explain why or why not. (c) Beads of different radii are selected and the time it takes to

fall a set distance is recorded. Graph the radius of these beads as a function of the time it takes to fall a determined distance.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

5.1 Friction

1. When a force of 20 N is applied to a stationary box weighing 40 N, the box does not move. This means the coefficient of static friction
 - a. is equal to 0.5.
 - b. is greater than 0.5.
 - c. is less than 0.5.
 - d. cannot be determined.
2. A 2-kg block slides down a ramp which is at an incline of 25° . If the frictional force is 4.86 N, what is the coefficient of friction? At what incline will the box slide at a constant velocity? Assume $g = 10 \text{ m/s}^2$.
3. A block is given a short push and then slides with constant friction across a horizontal floor. Which statement best explains the direction of the force that friction applies on the moving block?
 - a. Friction will be in the same direction as the block's motion because molecular interactions between the block and the floor will deform the block in the direction of motion.
 - b. Friction will be in the same direction as the block's motion because thermal energy generated at the interface between the block and the floor adds kinetic energy to the block.
 - c. Friction will be in the opposite direction of the block's motion because molecular interactions between the block and the floor will deform the block in the opposite direction of motion.
 - d. Friction will be in the opposite direction of the block's motion because thermal energy generated at the interface between the block and the floor converts some of the block's kinetic energy to potential energy.
4. A student pushes a cardboard box across a carpeted floor and afterwards notices that the bottom of the box feels warm. Explain how interactions between molecules in the cardboard and molecules in the carpet produced this heat.

CHAPTER 6

Uniform Circular Motion and Gravitation



FIGURE 6.1 This Australian Grand Prix Formula 1 race car moves in a circular path as it makes the turn. Its wheels also spin rapidly—the latter completing many revolutions, the former only part of one (a circular arc). The same physical principles are involved in each. (credit: Richard Munckton)

CHAPTER OUTLINE

6.1 Rotation Angle and Angular Velocity

6.2 Centripetal Acceleration

6.3 Centripetal Force

6.4 Fictitious Forces and Non-inertial Frames: The Coriolis Force

6.5 Newton's Universal Law of Gravitation

6.6 Satellites and Kepler's Laws: An Argument for Simplicity

CONNECTION FOR AP® COURSES Many motions, such as the arc of a bird's flight or Earth's path around the Sun, are curved. Recall that Newton's first law tells us that motion is along a straight line at constant speed unless there is a net external force. We will therefore study not only motion along curves, but also the forces that cause it, including gravitational forces. This chapter supports Big Idea 3 that interactions between objects are described by forces, and thus change in motion is a result of a net force exerted on an object. In this chapter, this idea is applied to uniform circular motion. In some ways, this chapter is a continuation of [Dynamics: Newton's Laws of Motion](#) as

we study more applications of Newton's laws of motion.

This chapter deals with the simplest form of curved motion, **uniform circular motion**, which is motion in a circular path at constant speed. As an object moves on a circular path, the magnitude of its velocity remains constant, but the direction of the velocity is changing. This means there is an acceleration that we will refer to as a “centripetal” acceleration caused by a net external force, also called the “centripetal” force (Enduring Understanding 3.B). The centripetal force is the net force totaling all external forces acting on the object (Essential Knowledge 3.B.1). In order to determine the net force, a free-body diagram may be useful (Essential Knowledge 3.B.2).

Studying this topic illustrates most of the concepts associated with rotational motion and leads to many new topics we group under the name *rotation*. This motion can be described using kinematics variables (Essential Knowledge 3.A.1), but in addition to linear variables, we will introduce angular variables. We use various ways to describe motion, namely, verbally, algebraically and graphically (Learning Objective 3.A.1.1). Pure *rotational motion* occurs when points in an object move in circular paths centered on one point. Pure *translational motion* is motion with no rotation. Some motion combines both types, such as a rotating hockey puck moving over ice. Some combinations of both types of motion are conveniently described with fictitious forces which appear as a result of using a non-inertial frame of reference (Enduring Understanding 3.A).

Furthermore, the properties of uniform circular motion can be applied to the motion of massive objects in a gravitational field. Thus, this chapter supports Big Idea 1 that gravitational mass is an important property of an object or a system.

We have experimental evidence that gravitational and inertial masses are equal (Enduring Understanding 1.C), and that gravitational mass is a measure of the strength of the gravitational interaction (Essential Knowledge 1.C.2). Therefore, this chapter will support Big Idea 2 that fields existing in space can be used to explain interactions, because any massive object creates a gravitational field in space (Enduring Understanding 2.B). Mathematically, we use Newton's universal law of gravitation to provide a model for the gravitational interaction between two massive objects (Essential Knowledge 2.B.2). We will discover that this model describes the interaction of one object with mass with another object with mass (Essential Knowledge 3.C.1), and also that gravitational force is a long-range force (Enduring Understanding 3.C).

The concepts in this chapter support:

Big Idea 1 Objects and systems have properties such as mass and charge. Systems may have internal structure.

Enduring Understanding 1.C Objects and systems have properties of inertial mass and gravitational mass that are experimentally verified to be the same and that satisfy conservation principles.

Essential Knowledge 1.C.2 Gravitational mass is the property of an object or a system that determines the strength of the gravitational interaction with other objects, systems, or gravitational fields.

Essential Knowledge 1.C.3 Objects and systems have properties of inertial mass and gravitational mass that are experimentally verified to be the same and that satisfy conservation principles.

Big Idea 2 Fields existing in space can be used to explain interactions.

Enduring Understanding 2.B A gravitational field is caused by an object with mass.

Essential Knowledge 2.B.2. The gravitational field caused by a spherically symmetric object with mass is radial and, outside the object, varies as the inverse square of the radial distance from the center of that object.

Big Idea 3 The interactions of an object with other objects can be described by forces.

Enduring Understanding 3.A All forces share certain common characteristics when considered by observers in inertial reference frames.

Essential Knowledge 3.A.1. An observer in a particular reference frame can describe the motion of an object using such quantities as position, displacement, distance, velocity, speed, and acceleration.

Essential Knowledge 3.A.3. A force exerted on an object is always due to the interaction of that object with another object.

Enduring Understanding 3.B Classically, the acceleration of an object interacting with other objects can be predicted by using $a = \sum F/m$.

Essential Knowledge 3.B.1 If an object of interest interacts with several other objects, the net force is the vector sum of the individual forces.

Essential Knowledge 3.B.2 Free-body diagrams are useful tools for visualizing forces being exerted on a single object and writing the equations that represent a physical situation.

Enduring Understanding 3.C At the macroscopic level, forces can be categorized as either long-range (action-at-a-distance) forces or contact forces.

Essential Knowledge 3.C.1. Gravitational force describes the interaction of one object that has mass with another object that has mass.

6.1 Rotation Angle and Angular Velocity

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define arc length, rotation angle, radius of curvature and angular velocity.
- Calculate the angular velocity of a car wheel spin.

In [Kinematics](#), we studied motion along a straight line and introduced such concepts as displacement, velocity, and acceleration. [Two-Dimensional Kinematics](#) dealt with motion in two dimensions. Projectile motion is a special case of two-dimensional kinematics in which the object is projected into the air, while being subject to the gravitational force, and lands a distance away. In this chapter, we consider situations where the object does not land but moves in a curve. We begin the study of uniform circular motion by defining two angular quantities needed to describe rotational motion.

Rotation Angle

When objects rotate about some axis—for example, when the CD (compact disc) in [Figure 6.2](#) rotates about its center—each point in the object follows a circular arc. Consider a line from the center of the CD to its edge. Each **pit** used to record sound along this line moves through the same angle in the same amount of time. The rotation angle is the amount of rotation and is analogous to linear distance. We define the **rotation angle** $\Delta\theta$ to be the ratio of the arc length to the radius of curvature:

$$\Delta\theta = \frac{\Delta s}{r}. \quad 6.1$$



FIGURE 6.2 All points on a CD travel in circular arcs. The pits along a line from the center to the edge all move through the same angle $\Delta\theta$ in a time Δt .

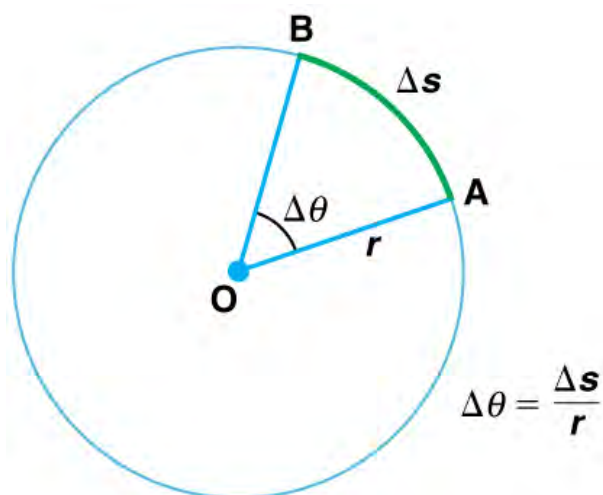


FIGURE 6.3 The radius of a circle is rotated through an angle $\Delta\theta$. The arc length Δs is described on the circumference.

The **arc length** Δs is the distance traveled along a circular path as shown in [Figure 6.3](#). Note that r is the **radius of curvature** of the circular path.

We know that for one complete revolution, the arc length is the circumference of a circle of radius r . The circumference of a circle is $2\pi r$. Thus for one complete revolution the rotation angle is

$$\Delta\theta = \frac{2\pi r}{r} = 2\pi. \quad 6.2$$

This result is the basis for defining the units used to measure rotation angles, $\Delta\theta$ to be **radians** (rad), defined so that

$$2\pi \text{ rad} = 1 \text{ revolution}. \quad 6.3$$

A comparison of some useful angles expressed in both degrees and radians is shown in [Table 6.1](#).

Degree Measures	Radian Measure
30°	$\frac{\pi}{6}$
60°	$\frac{\pi}{3}$
90°	$\frac{\pi}{2}$
120°	$\frac{2\pi}{3}$
135°	$\frac{3\pi}{4}$
180°	π

TABLE 6.1 Comparison of Angular Units

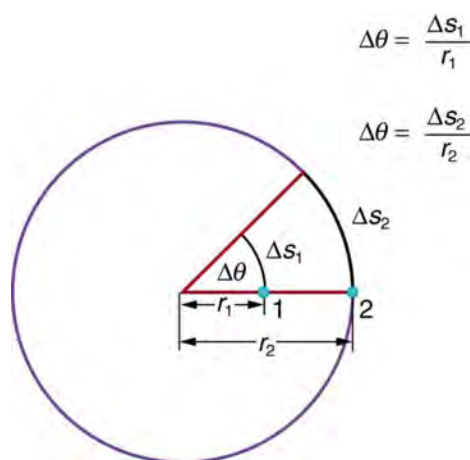


FIGURE 6.4 Points 1 and 2 rotate through the same angle ($\Delta\theta$), but point 2 moves through a greater arc length (Δs) because it is at a greater distance from the center of rotation (r).

If $\Delta\theta = 2\pi$ rad, then the CD has made one complete revolution, and every point on the CD is back at its original position. Because there are 360° in a circle or one revolution, the relationship between radians and degrees is thus

$$2\pi \text{ rad} = 360^\circ \quad 6.4$$

so that

$$1 \text{ rad} = \frac{360^\circ}{2\pi} \approx 57.3^\circ. \quad 6.5$$

Angular Velocity

How fast is an object rotating? We define **angular velocity** ω as the rate of change of an angle. In symbols, this is

$$\omega = \frac{\Delta\theta}{\Delta t}, \quad 6.6$$

where an angular rotation $\Delta\theta$ takes place in a time Δt . The greater the rotation angle in a given amount of time, the greater the angular velocity. The units for angular velocity are radians per second (rad/s).

Angular velocity ω is analogous to linear velocity v . To get the precise relationship between angular and linear velocity, we again consider a pit on the rotating CD. This pit moves an arc length Δs in a time Δt , and so it has a linear velocity

$$v = \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t}. \quad 6.7$$

From $\Delta\theta = \frac{\Delta s}{r}$ we see that $\Delta s = r\Delta\theta$. Substituting this into the expression for v gives

$$v = \frac{r\Delta\theta}{\Delta t} = r\omega. \quad 6.8$$

We write this relationship in two different ways and gain two different insights:

$$v = r\omega \text{ or } \omega = \frac{v}{r}. \quad 6.9$$

The first relationship in $v = r\omega$ or $\omega = \frac{v}{r}$ states that the linear velocity v is proportional to the distance from the center of rotation, thus, it is largest for a point on the rim (largest r), as you might expect. We can also call this linear speed v of a point on the rim the *tangential speed*. The second relationship in $v = r\omega$ or $\omega = \frac{v}{r}$ can be illustrated by considering the tire of a moving car. Note that the speed of a point on the rim of the tire is the same as the speed v of the car. See [Figure 6.5](#). So the faster the car moves, the faster the tire spins—large v means a large ω , because $v = r\omega$. Similarly, a larger-radius tire rotating at the same angular velocity (ω) will produce a greater linear speed (v) for the car.

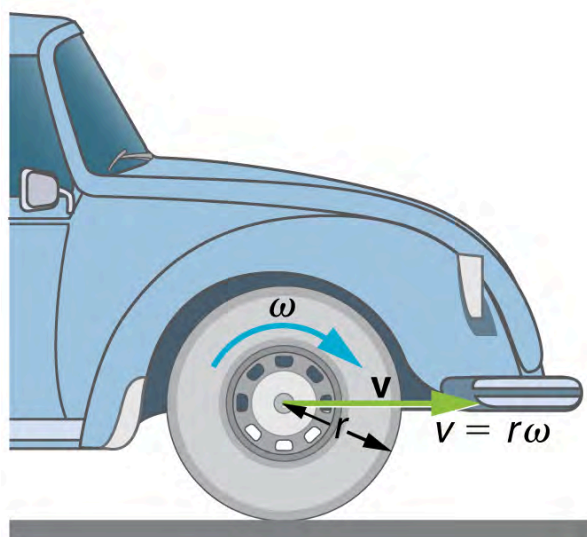


FIGURE 6.5 A car moving at a velocity v to the right has a tire rotating with an angular velocity ω . The speed of the tread of the tire relative to the axle is v , the same as if the car were jacked up. Thus the car moves forward at linear velocity $v = r\omega$, where r is the tire radius. A larger angular velocity for the tire means a greater velocity for the car.

EXAMPLE 6.1

How Fast Does a Car Tire Spin?

Calculate the angular velocity of a 0.300 m radius car tire when the car travels at 15.0 m/s (about 54 km/h). See [Figure 6.5](#).

Strategy

Because the linear speed of the tire rim is the same as the speed of the car, we have $v = 15.0$ m/s. The radius of the tire is given to be $r = 0.300$ m. Knowing v and r , we can use the second relationship in $v = r\omega$, $\omega = \frac{v}{r}$ to calculate the angular velocity.

Solution

To calculate the angular velocity, we will use the following relationship:

$$\omega = \frac{v}{r}. \quad 6.10$$

Substituting the knowns,

$$\omega = \frac{15.0 \text{ m/s}}{0.300 \text{ m}} = 50.0 \text{ rad/s}. \quad 6.11$$

Discussion

When we cancel units in the above calculation, we get 50.0/s. But the angular velocity must have units of rad/s. Because radians are actually unitless (radians are defined as a ratio of distance), we can simply insert them into the answer for the angular velocity. Also note that if an earth mover with much larger tires, say 1.20 m in radius, were moving at the same speed of 15.0 m/s, its tires would rotate more slowly. They would have an angular velocity

$$\omega = (15.0 \text{ m/s}) / (1.20 \text{ m}) = 12.5 \text{ rad/s}. \quad 6.12$$

Both ω and v have directions (hence they are angular and linear *velocities*, respectively). Angular velocity has only two directions with respect to the axis of rotation—it is either clockwise or counterclockwise. Linear velocity is tangent to the path, as illustrated in [Figure 6.6](#).

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT

Tie an object to the end of a string and swing it around in a horizontal circle above your head (swing at your wrist). Maintain uniform speed as the object swings and measure the angular velocity of the motion. What is the approximate speed of the object? Identify a point close to your hand and take appropriate measurements to calculate the linear speed at this point. Identify other circular motions and measure their angular velocities.

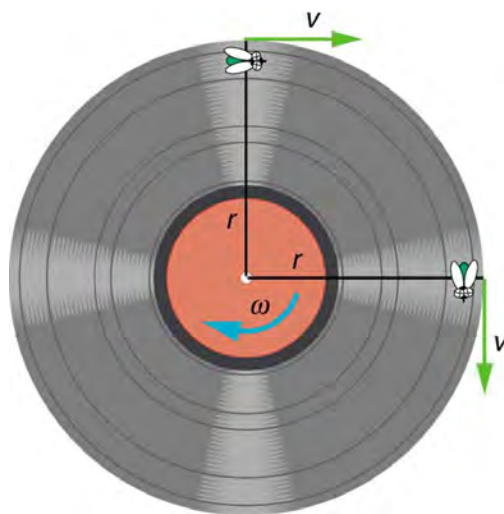


FIGURE 6.6 As an object moves in a circle, here a fly on the edge of an old-fashioned vinyl record, its instantaneous velocity is always tangent to the circle. The direction of the angular velocity is clockwise in this case.

LADYBUG REVOLUTION

Join the ladybug in an exploration of rotational motion. Rotate the merry-go-round to change its angle, or choose a constant angular velocity or angular acceleration. Explore how circular motion relates to the bug's x,y position, velocity, and acceleration using vectors or graphs.

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/l/28ladybugrevolutionrotation\).](https://openstax.org/l/28ladybugrevolutionrotation)

6.2 Centripetal Acceleration

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Establish the expression for centripetal acceleration.
- Explain the centrifuge.

We know from kinematics that acceleration is a change in velocity, either in its magnitude or in its direction, or both. In uniform circular motion, the direction of the velocity changes constantly, so there is always an associated acceleration, even though the magnitude of the velocity might be constant. You experience this acceleration yourself when you turn a corner in your car. (If you hold the wheel steady during a turn and move at constant speed, you are in uniform circular motion.) What you notice is a sideways acceleration because you and the car are changing direction. The sharper the curve and the greater your speed, the more noticeable this acceleration will become. In this section we examine the direction and magnitude of that acceleration.

[Figure 6.7](#) shows an object moving in a circular path at constant speed. The direction of the instantaneous velocity is shown at two points along the path. Acceleration is in the direction of the change in velocity, which points directly toward the center of rotation (the center of the circular path). This pointing is shown with the vector diagram in the figure. We call the acceleration of an object moving in uniform circular motion (resulting from a net external force) the **centripetal acceleration** (a_c); centripetal means “toward the center” or “center seeking.”

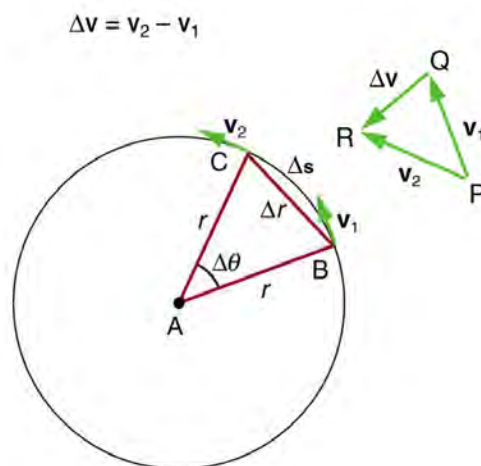


FIGURE 6.7 The directions of the velocity of an object at two different points are shown, and the change in velocity $\Delta \mathbf{v}$ is seen to point directly toward the center of curvature. (See small inset.) Because $\mathbf{a}_c = \Delta \mathbf{v} / \Delta t$, the acceleration is also toward the center; $\mathbf{a}_c$ is called centripetal acceleration. (Because $\Delta \theta$ is very small, the arc length Δs is equal to the chord length Δr for small time differences.)

The direction of centripetal acceleration is toward the center of curvature, but what is its magnitude? Note that the triangle formed by the velocity vectors and the one formed by the radii r and Δs are similar. Both the triangles ABC and PQR are isosceles triangles (two equal sides). The two equal sides of the velocity vector triangle are the speeds $v_1 = v_2 = v$. Using the properties of two similar triangles, we obtain

$$\frac{\Delta v}{v} = \frac{\Delta s}{r}. \quad 6.13$$

Acceleration is $\Delta v / \Delta t$, and so we first solve this expression for Δv :

$$\Delta v = \frac{v}{r} \Delta s. \quad 6.14$$

Then we divide this by Δt , yielding

$$\frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} = \frac{v}{r} \times \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t}. \quad 6.15$$

Finally, noting that $\Delta v / \Delta t = a_c$ and that $\Delta s / \Delta t = v$, the linear or tangential speed, we see that the magnitude of the centripetal acceleration is

$$a_c = \frac{v^2}{r}, \quad 6.16$$

which is the acceleration of an object in a circle of radius r at a speed v . So, centripetal acceleration is greater at high speeds and in sharp curves (smaller radius), as you have noticed when driving a car. But it is a bit surprising that a_c is proportional to speed squared, implying, for example, that it is four times as hard to take a curve at 100 km/h than at 50 km/h. A sharp corner has a small radius, so that a_c is greater for tighter turns, as you have probably noticed.

It is also useful to express a_c in terms of angular velocity. Substituting $v = r\omega$ into the above expression, we find $a_c = (r\omega)^2 / r = r\omega^2$. We can express the magnitude of centripetal acceleration using either of two equations:

$$a_c = \frac{v^2}{r}; \quad a_c = r\omega^2. \quad 6.17$$

Recall that the direction of a_c is toward the center. You may use whichever expression is more convenient, as illustrated in examples below.

A **centrifuge** (see [Figure 6.8b](#)) is a rotating device used to separate specimens of different densities. High centripetal acceleration significantly decreases the time it takes for separation to occur, and makes separation possible with small samples. Centrifuges are used in a variety of applications in science and medicine, including the

separation of single cell suspensions such as bacteria, viruses, and blood cells from a liquid medium and the separation of macromolecules, such as DNA and protein, from a solution. Centrifuges are often rated in terms of their centripetal acceleration relative to acceleration due to gravity (g); maximum centripetal acceleration of several hundred thousand g is possible in a vacuum. Human centrifuges, extremely large centrifuges, have been used to test the tolerance of astronauts to the effects of accelerations larger than that of Earth's gravity.



EXAMPLE 6.2

How Does the Centripetal Acceleration of a Car Around a Curve Compare with That Due to Gravity?

What is the magnitude of the centripetal acceleration of a car following a curve of radius 500 m at a speed of 25.0 m/s (about 90 km/h)? Compare the acceleration with that due to gravity for this fairly gentle curve taken at highway speed. See [Figure 6.8\(a\)](#).

Strategy

Because v and r are given, the first expression in $a_c = \frac{v^2}{r}$; $a_c = r\omega^2$ is the most convenient to use.

Solution

Entering the given values of $v = 25.0$ m/s and $r = 500$ m into the first expression for a_c gives

$$a_c = \frac{v^2}{r} = \frac{(25.0 \text{ m/s})^2}{500 \text{ m}} = 1.25 \text{ m/s}^2. \quad 6.18$$

Discussion

To compare this with the acceleration due to gravity ($g = 9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$), we take the ratio of $a_c/g = (1.25 \text{ m/s}^2)/(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) = 0.128$. Thus, $a_c = 0.128 g$ and is noticeable especially if you were not wearing a seat belt.

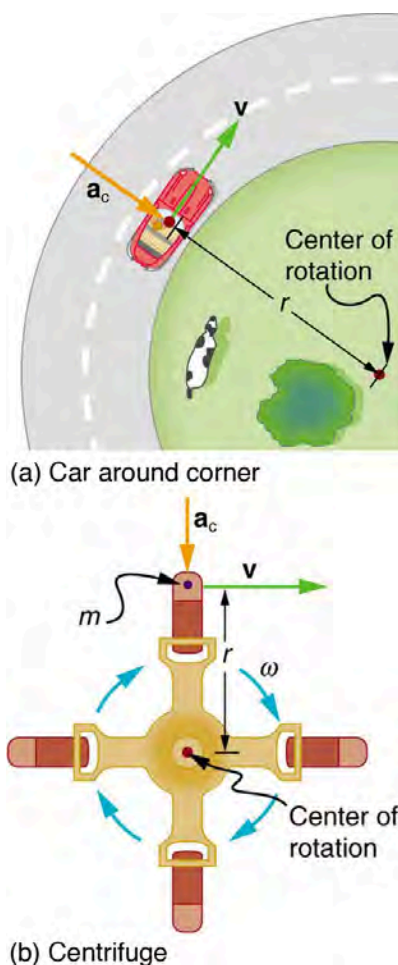


FIGURE 6.8 (a) The car following a circular path at constant speed is accelerated perpendicular to its velocity, as shown. The magnitude of this centripetal acceleration is found in [Example 6.2](#). (b) A particle of mass m in a centrifuge is rotating at constant angular velocity ω . It must be accelerated perpendicular to its velocity or it would continue in a straight line. The magnitude of the necessary acceleration is found in [Example 6.3](#).

EXAMPLE 6.3

How Big Is the Centripetal Acceleration in an Ultracentrifuge?

Calculate the centripetal acceleration of a point 7.50 cm from the axis of an **ultracentrifuge** spinning at 7.5×10^4 rev/min. Determine the ratio of this acceleration to that due to gravity. See [Figure 6.8\(b\)](#).

Strategy

The term rev/min stands for revolutions per minute. By converting this to radians per second, we obtain the angular velocity ω . Because r is given, we can use the second expression in the equation $a_c = \frac{v^2}{r}$; $a_c = r\omega^2$ to calculate the centripetal acceleration.

Solution

To convert 7.50×10^4 rev/min to radians per second, we use the facts that one revolution is 2π rad and one minute is 60.0 s. Thus,

$$\omega = 7.50 \times 10^4 \frac{\text{rev}}{\text{min}} \times \frac{2\pi \text{ rad}}{1 \text{ rev}} \times \frac{1 \text{ min}}{60.0 \text{ s}} = 7854 \text{ rad/s.} \quad 6.19$$

Now the centripetal acceleration is given by the second expression in $a_c = \frac{v^2}{r}$; $a_c = r\omega^2$ as

$$a_c = r\omega^2. \quad 6.20$$

Converting 7.50 cm to meters and substituting known values gives

$$a_c = (0.0750 \text{ m})(7854 \text{ rad/s})^2 = 4.63 \times 10^6 \text{ m/s}^2. \quad 6.21$$

Note that the unitless radians are discarded in order to get the correct units for centripetal acceleration. Taking the ratio of a_c to g yields

$$\frac{a_c}{g} = \frac{4.63 \times 10^6}{9.80} = 4.72 \times 10^5. \quad 6.22$$

Discussion

This last result means that the centripetal acceleration is 472,000 times as strong as g . It is no wonder that such high ω centrifuges are called ultracentrifuges. The extremely large accelerations involved greatly decrease the time needed to cause the sedimentation of blood cells or other materials.

Of course, a net external force is needed to cause any acceleration, just as Newton proposed in his second law of motion. So a net external force is needed to cause a centripetal acceleration. In [Centripetal Force](#), we will consider the forces involved in circular motion.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Ladybug Motion 2D

Learn about position, velocity and acceleration vectors. Move the ladybug by setting the position, velocity or acceleration, and see how the vectors change. Choose linear, circular or elliptical motion, and record and playback the motion to analyze the behavior.

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/l/28ladybugmotion\).](https://openstax.org/l/28ladybugmotion)



6.3 Centripetal Force

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Calculate coefficient of friction on a car tire.
- Calculate ideal speed and angle of a car on a turn.

Any force or combination of forces can cause a centripetal or radial acceleration. Just a few examples are the tension in the rope on a tether ball, the force of Earth's gravity on the Moon, friction between roller skates and a rink floor, a banked roadway's force on a car, and forces on the tube of a spinning centrifuge.

Any net force causing uniform circular motion is called a **centripetal force**. The direction of a centripetal force is toward the center of curvature, the same as the direction of centripetal acceleration. According to Newton's second law of motion, net force is mass times acceleration: net $F = ma$. For uniform circular motion, the acceleration is the centripetal acceleration— $a = a_c$. Thus, the magnitude of centripetal force F_c is

$$F_c = ma_c. \quad 6.23$$

By using the expressions for centripetal acceleration a_c from $a_c = \frac{v^2}{r}$; $a_c = r\omega^2$, we get two expressions for the centripetal force F_c in terms of mass, velocity, angular velocity, and radius of curvature:

$$F_c = m\frac{v^2}{r}; F_c = mr\omega^2. \quad 6.24$$

You may use whichever expression for centripetal force is more convenient. Centripetal force F_c is always perpendicular to the path and pointing to the center of curvature, because $\mathbf{a}_c$ is perpendicular to the velocity and

pointing to the center of curvature.

Note that if you solve the first expression for r , you get

$$r = \frac{mv^2}{F_c}. \quad 6.25$$

This implies that for a given mass and velocity, a large centripetal force causes a small radius of curvature—that is, a tight curve.

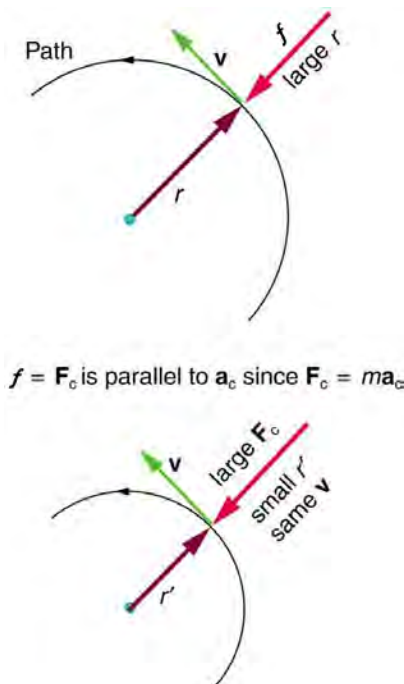


FIGURE 6.9 The frictional force supplies the centripetal force and is numerically equal to it. Centripetal force is perpendicular to velocity and causes uniform circular motion. The larger the F_c , the smaller the radius of curvature r and the sharper the curve. The second curve has the same v , but a larger F_c produces a smaller r' .

EXAMPLE 6.4

What Coefficient of Friction Do Car Tires Need on a Flat Curve?

- (a) Calculate the centripetal force exerted on a 900 kg car that negotiates a 500 m radius curve at 25.0 m/s.
- (b) Assuming an unbanked curve, find the minimum static coefficient of friction, between the tires and the road, static friction being the reason that keeps the car from slipping (see [Figure 6.10](#)).

Strategy and Solution for (a)

We know that $F_c = \frac{mv^2}{r}$. Thus,

$$F_c = \frac{mv^2}{r} = \frac{(900 \text{ kg})(25.0 \text{ m/s})^2}{(500 \text{ m})} = 1125 \text{ N}. \quad 6.26$$

Strategy for (b)

[Figure 6.10](#) shows the forces acting on the car on an unbanked (level ground) curve. Friction is to the left, keeping the car from slipping, and because it is the only horizontal force acting on the car, the friction is the centripetal force in this case. We know that the maximum static friction (at which the tires roll but do not slip) is $\mu_s N$, where μ_s is the static coefficient of friction and N is the normal force. The normal force equals the car's weight on level ground, so that $N = mg$. Thus the centripetal force in this situation is

$$F_c = f = \mu_s N = \mu_s mg. \quad 6.27$$

Now we have a relationship between centripetal force and the coefficient of friction. Using the first expression for F_c from the equation

$$\left. \begin{aligned} F_c &= m \frac{v^2}{r} \\ F_c &= mr\omega^2 \end{aligned} \right\}, \quad 6.28$$

$$m \frac{v^2}{r} = \mu_s mg. \quad 6.29$$

We solve this for μ_s , noting that mass cancels, and obtain

$$\mu_s = \frac{v^2}{rg}. \quad 6.30$$

Solution for (b)

Substituting the knowns,

$$\mu_s = \frac{(25.0 \text{ m/s})^2}{(500 \text{ m})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)} = 0.13. \quad 6.31$$

(Because coefficients of friction are approximate, the answer is given to only two digits.)

Discussion

We could also solve part (a) using the first expression in $\left. \begin{aligned} F_c &= m \frac{v^2}{r} \\ F_c &= mr\omega^2 \end{aligned} \right\}$, because m , v , and r are given. The

coefficient of friction found in part (b) is much smaller than is typically found between tires and roads. The car will still negotiate the curve if the coefficient is greater than 0.13, because static friction is a responsive force, being able to assume a value less than but no more than $\mu_s N$. A higher coefficient would also allow the car to negotiate the curve at a higher speed, but if the coefficient of friction is less, the safe speed would be less than 25 m/s. Note that mass cancels, implying that in this example, it does not matter how heavily loaded the car is to negotiate the turn. Mass cancels because friction is assumed proportional to the normal force, which in turn is proportional to mass. If the surface of the road were banked, the normal force would be less as will be discussed below.

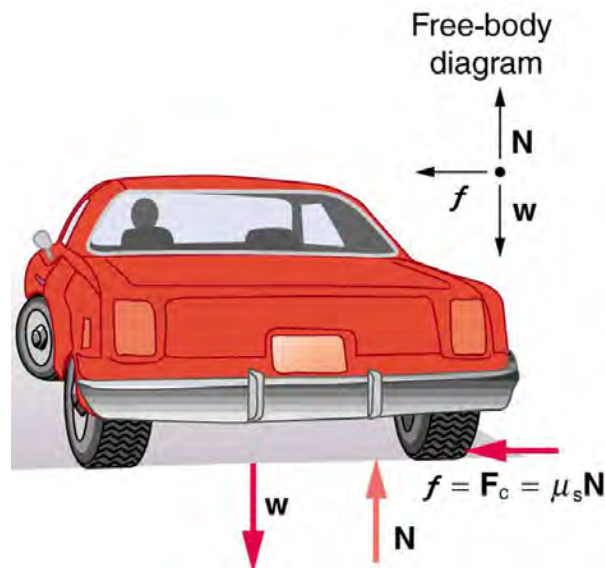


FIGURE 6.10 This car on level ground is moving away and turning to the left. The centripetal force causing the car to turn in a circular path is due to friction between the tires and the road. A minimum coefficient of friction is needed, or the car will move in a larger-radius curve and leave the roadway.

Let us now consider **banked curves**, where the slope of the road helps you negotiate the curve. See [Figure 6.11](#). The greater the angle θ , the faster you can take the curve. Race tracks for bikes as well as cars, for example, often have steeply banked curves. In an “ideally banked curve,” the angle θ is such that you can negotiate the curve at a certain speed without the aid of friction between the tires and the road. We will derive an expression for θ for an ideally banked curve and consider an example related to it.

For **ideal banking**, the net external force equals the horizontal centripetal force in the absence of friction. The components of the normal force N in the horizontal and vertical directions must equal the centripetal force and the weight of the car, respectively. In cases in which forces are not parallel, it is most convenient to consider components along perpendicular axes—in this case, the vertical and horizontal directions.

[Figure 6.11](#) shows a free body diagram for a car on a frictionless banked curve. If the angle θ is ideal for the speed and radius, then the net external force will equal the necessary centripetal force. The only two external forces acting on the car are its weight $\mathbf{w}$ and the normal force of the road $\mathbf{N}$. (A frictionless surface can only exert a force perpendicular to the surface—that is, a normal force.) These two forces must add to give a net external force that is horizontal toward the center of curvature and has magnitude mv^2/r . Because this is the crucial force and it is horizontal, we use a coordinate system with vertical and horizontal axes. Only the normal force has a horizontal component, and so this must equal the centripetal force—that is,

$$N \sin \theta = \frac{mv^2}{r}. \quad 6.32$$

Because the car does not leave the surface of the road, the net vertical force must be zero, meaning that the vertical components of the two external forces must be equal in magnitude and opposite in direction. From the figure, we see that the vertical component of the normal force is $N \cos \theta$, and the only other vertical force is the car’s weight. These must be equal in magnitude; thus,

$$N \cos \theta = mg. \quad 6.33$$

Now we can combine the last two equations to eliminate N and get an expression for θ , as desired. Solving the second equation for $N = mg/(\cos \theta)$, and substituting this into the first yields

$$mg \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta} = \frac{mv^2}{r} \quad 6.34$$

$$mg \tan(\theta) = \frac{mv^2}{r} \quad 6.35$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{v^2}{rg}.$$

Taking the inverse tangent gives

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{v^2}{rg} \right) \text{ (ideally banked curve, no friction).} \quad 6.36$$

This expression can be understood by considering how θ depends on v and r . A large θ will be obtained for a large v and a small r . That is, roads must be steeply banked for high speeds and sharp curves. Friction helps, because it allows you to take the curve at greater or lower speed than if the curve is frictionless. Note that θ does not depend on the mass of the vehicle.

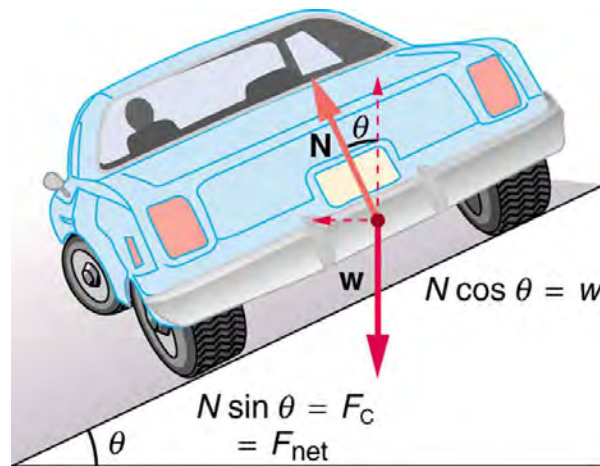


FIGURE 6.11 The car on this banked curve is moving away and turning to the left.



EXAMPLE 6.5

What Is the Ideal Speed to Take a Steeply Banked Tight Curve?

Curves on some test tracks and race courses, such as the Daytona International Speedway in Florida, are very steeply banked. This banking, with the aid of tire friction and very stable car configurations, allows the curves to be taken at very high speed. To illustrate, calculate the speed at which a 100 m radius curve banked at 65.0° should be driven if the road is frictionless.

Strategy

We first note that all terms in the expression for the ideal angle of a banked curve except for speed are known; thus, we need only rearrange it so that speed appears on the left-hand side and then substitute known quantities.

Solution

Starting with

$$\tan \theta = \frac{v^2}{rg} \quad 6.37$$

we get

$$v = (rg \tan \theta)^{1/2}. \quad 6.38$$

Noting that $\tan 65.0^\circ = 2.14$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} v &= [(100 \text{ m})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(2.14)]^{1/2} \\ &= 45.8 \text{ m/s}. \end{aligned} \quad 6.39$$

Discussion

This is just about 165 km/h, consistent with a very steeply banked and rather sharp curve. Tire friction enables a vehicle to take the curve at significantly higher speeds.

Calculations similar to those in the preceding examples can be performed for a host of interesting situations in which centripetal force is involved—a number of these are presented in this chapter's Problems and Exercises.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT

Ask a friend or relative to swing a golf club or a tennis racquet. Take appropriate measurements to estimate the

centripetal acceleration of the end of the club or racquet. You may choose to do this in slow motion.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Gravity and Orbits

Move the sun, earth, moon and space station to see how it affects their gravitational forces and orbital paths. Visualize the sizes and distances between different heavenly bodies, and turn off gravity to see what would happen without it!

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/6-3-centripetal-force\)](https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/6-3-centripetal-force)



6.4 Fictitious Forces and Non-inertial Frames: The Coriolis Force

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Discuss the inertial frame of reference.
- Discuss the non-inertial frame of reference.
- Describe the effects of the Coriolis force.

What do taking off in a jet airplane, turning a corner in a car, riding a merry-go-round, and the circular motion of a tropical cyclone have in common? Each exhibits fictitious forces—unreal forces that arise from motion and may *seem* real, because the observer's frame of reference is accelerating or rotating.

When taking off in a jet, most people would agree it feels as if you are being pushed back into the seat as the airplane accelerates down the runway. Yet a physicist would say that *you* tend to remain stationary while the *seat* pushes forward on you, and there is no real force backward on you. An even more common experience occurs when you make a tight curve in your car—say, to the right. You feel as if you are thrown (that is, *forced*) toward the left relative to the car. Again, a physicist would say that *you* are going in a straight line but the *car* moves to the right, and there is no real force on you to the left. Recall Newton's first law.

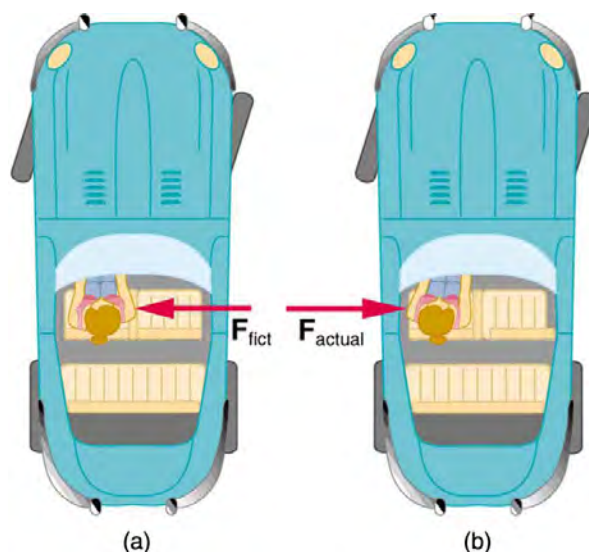


FIGURE 6.12 (a) The car driver feels herself forced to the left relative to the car when she makes a right turn. This is a fictitious force arising from the use of the car as a frame of reference. (b) In the Earth's frame of reference, the driver moves in a straight line, obeying Newton's first law, and the car moves to the right. There is no real force to the left on the driver relative to Earth. There is a real force to the right on the car to make it turn.

We can reconcile these points of view by examining the frames of reference used. Let us concentrate on people in a car. Passengers instinctively use the car as a frame of reference, while a physicist uses Earth. The physicist chooses Earth because it is very nearly an inertial frame of reference—one in which all forces are real (that is, in which all

forces have an identifiable physical origin). In such a frame of reference, Newton's laws of motion take the form given in [Dynamics: Newton's Laws of Motion](#). The car is a **non-inertial frame of reference** because it is accelerated to the side. The force to the left sensed by car passengers is a **fictitious force** having no physical origin. There is nothing real pushing them left—the car, as well as the driver, is actually accelerating to the right.

Let us now take a mental ride on a merry-go-round—specifically, a rapidly rotating playground merry-go-round. You take the merry-go-round to be your frame of reference because you rotate together. In that non-inertial frame, you feel a fictitious force, named **centrifugal force** (not to be confused with centripetal force), trying to throw you off. You must hang on tightly to counteract the centrifugal force. In Earth's frame of reference, there is no force trying to throw you off. Rather you must hang on to make yourself go in a circle because otherwise you would go in a straight line, right off the merry-go-round.

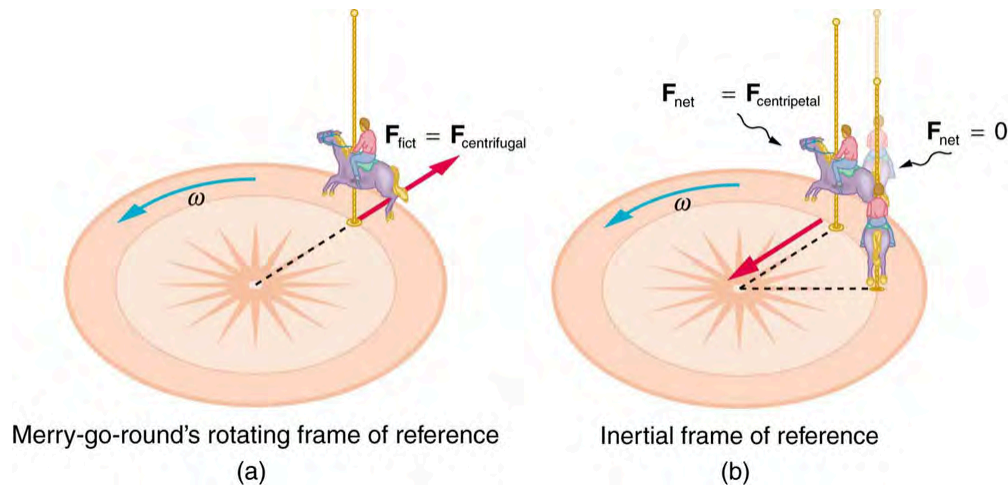


FIGURE 6.13 (a) A rider on a merry-go-round feels as if he is being thrown off. This fictitious force is called the centrifugal force—it explains the rider's motion in the rotating frame of reference. (b) In an inertial frame of reference and according to Newton's laws, it is his inertia that carries him off and not a real force (the unshaded rider has $F_{\text{net}} = 0$ and heads in a straight line). A real force, $F_{\text{centripetal}}$, is needed to cause a circular path.

This inertial effect, carrying you away from the center of rotation if there is no centripetal force to cause circular motion, is put to good use in centrifuges (see [Figure 6.14](#)). A centrifuge spins a sample very rapidly, as mentioned earlier in this chapter. Viewed from the rotating frame of reference, the fictitious centrifugal force throws particles outward, hastening their sedimentation. The greater the angular velocity, the greater the centrifugal force. But what really happens is that the inertia of the particles carries them along a line tangent to the circle while the test tube is forced in a circular path by a centripetal force.

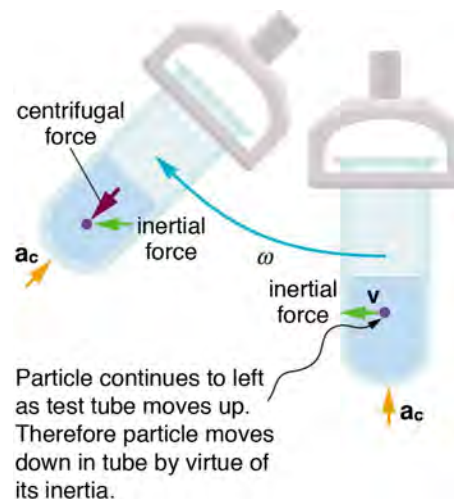


FIGURE 6.14 Centrifuges use inertia to perform their task. Particles in the fluid sediment come out because their inertia carries them away from the center of rotation. The large angular velocity of the centrifuge quickens the sedimentation. Ultimately, the particles will come into contact with the test tube walls, which will then supply the centripetal force needed to make them move in a circle of constant radius.

Let us now consider what happens if something moves in a frame of reference that rotates. For example, what if you slide a ball directly away from the center of the merry-go-round, as shown in [Figure 6.15](#)? The ball follows a straight path relative to Earth (assuming negligible friction) and a path curved to the right on the merry-go-round's surface. A person standing next to the merry-go-round sees the ball moving straight and the merry-go-round rotating underneath it. In the merry-go-round's frame of reference, we explain the apparent curve to the right by using a fictitious force, called the **Coriolis force**, that causes the ball to curve to the right. The fictitious Coriolis force can be used by anyone in that frame of reference to explain why objects follow curved paths and allows us to apply Newton's Laws in non-inertial frames of reference.

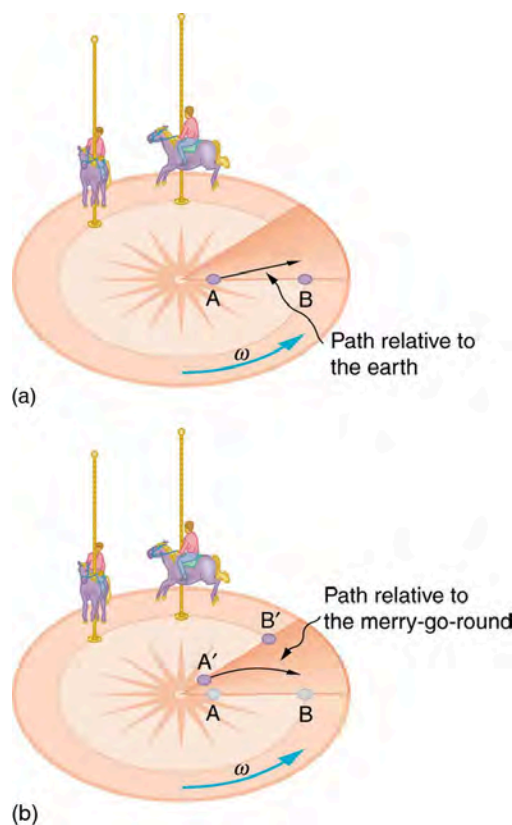


FIGURE 6.15 Looking down on the counterclockwise rotation of a merry-go-round, we see that a ball slid straight toward the edge follows a path curved to the right. The person slides the ball toward point B, starting at point A. Both points rotate to the shaded positions (A' and B') shown in the time that the ball follows the curved path in the rotating frame and a straight path in Earth's frame.

Up until now, we have considered Earth to be an inertial frame of reference with little or no worry about effects due to its rotation. Yet such effects *do* exist—in the rotation of weather systems, for example. Most consequences of Earth's rotation can be qualitatively understood by analogy with the merry-go-round. Viewed from above the North Pole, Earth rotates counterclockwise, as does the merry-go-round in [Figure 6.15](#). As on the merry-go-round, any motion in Earth's northern hemisphere experiences a Coriolis force to the right. Just the opposite occurs in the southern hemisphere; there, the force is to the left. Because Earth's angular velocity is small, the Coriolis force is usually negligible, but for large-scale motions, such as wind patterns, it has substantial effects.

The Coriolis force causes hurricanes in the northern hemisphere to rotate in the counterclockwise direction, while the tropical cyclones (what hurricanes are called below the equator) in the southern hemisphere rotate in the clockwise direction. The terms hurricane, typhoon, and tropical storm are regionally-specific names for tropical cyclones, storm systems characterized by low pressure centers, strong winds, and heavy rains. [Figure 6.16](#) helps show how these rotations take place. Air flows toward any region of low pressure, and tropical cyclones contain particularly low pressures. Thus winds flow toward the center of a tropical cyclone or a low-pressure weather system at the surface. In the northern hemisphere, these inward winds are deflected to the right, as shown in the figure, producing a counterclockwise circulation at the surface for low-pressure zones of any type. Low pressure at the surface is associated with rising air, which also produces cooling and cloud formation, making low-pressure patterns quite visible from space. Conversely, wind circulation around high-pressure zones is clockwise in the

northern hemisphere but is less visible because high pressure is associated with sinking air, producing clear skies.

The rotation of tropical cyclones and the path of a ball on a merry-go-round can just as well be explained by inertia and the rotation of the system underneath. When non-inertial frames are used, fictitious forces, such as the Coriolis force, must be invented to explain the curved path. There is no identifiable physical source for these fictitious forces. In an inertial frame, inertia explains the path, and no force is found to be without an identifiable source. Either view allows us to describe nature, but a view in an inertial frame is the simplest and truest, in the sense that all forces have real origins and explanations.

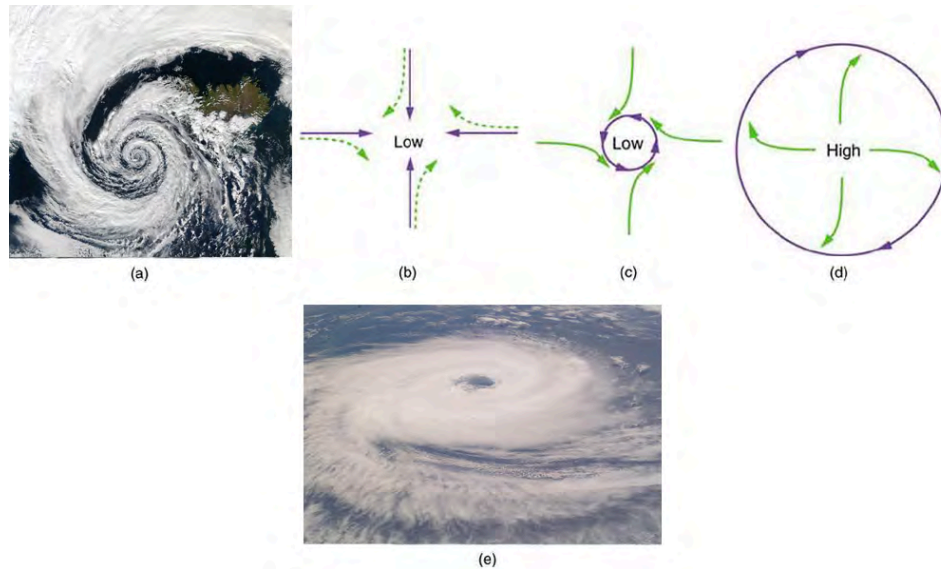


FIGURE 6.16 (a) The counterclockwise rotation of this northern hemisphere hurricane is a major consequence of the Coriolis force. (credit: NASA) (b) Without the Coriolis force, air would flow straight into a low-pressure zone, such as that found in tropical cyclones. (c) The Coriolis force deflects the winds to the right, producing a counterclockwise rotation. (d) Wind flowing away from a high-pressure zone is also deflected to the right, producing a clockwise rotation. (e) The opposite direction of rotation is produced by the Coriolis force in the southern hemisphere, leading to tropical cyclones. (credit: NASA)

6.5 Newton's Universal Law of Gravitation

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain Earth's gravitational force.
- Describe the gravitational effect of the Moon on Earth.
- Discuss weightlessness in space.
- Examine the Cavendish experiment

What do aching feet, a falling apple, and the orbit of the Moon have in common? Each is caused by the gravitational force. Our feet are strained by supporting our weight—the force of Earth's gravity on us. An apple falls from a tree because of the same force acting a few meters above Earth's surface. And the Moon orbits Earth because gravity is able to supply the necessary centripetal force at a distance of hundreds of millions of meters. In fact, the same force causes planets to orbit the Sun, stars to orbit the center of the galaxy, and galaxies to cluster together. Gravity is another example of underlying simplicity in nature. It is the weakest of the four basic forces found in nature, and in some ways the least understood. It is a force that acts at a distance, without physical contact, and is expressed by a formula that is valid everywhere in the universe, for masses and distances that vary from the tiny to the immense.

Sir Isaac Newton was the first scientist to precisely define the gravitational force, and to show that it could explain both falling bodies and astronomical motions. See [Figure 6.17](#). But Newton was not the first to suspect that the same force caused both our weight and the motion of planets. His forerunner Galileo Galilei had contended that falling bodies and planetary motions had the same cause. Some of Newton's contemporaries, such as Robert Hooke, Christopher Wren, and Edmund Halley, had also made some progress toward understanding gravitation. But Newton was the first to propose an exact mathematical form and to use that form to show that the motion of heavenly bodies should be conic sections—circles, ellipses, parabolas, and hyperbolas. This theoretical prediction was a

major triumph—it had been known for some time that moons, planets, and comets follow such paths, but no one had been able to propose a mechanism that caused them to follow these paths and not others. Other prominent scientists and mathematicians of the time, particularly those outside of England, were reluctant to accept Newton's principles. It took the work of another prominent philosopher, writer, and scientist, Émilie du Châtelet, to establish the Newtonian gravitation as the accurate and overarching law. Du Châtelet, who had earlier laid the foundation for the understanding of conservation of energy as well as the principle that light had no mass, translated and augmented Newton's key work. She also utilized calculus to explain gravity, which helped lead to its acceptance.



FIGURE 6.17 According to early accounts, Newton was inspired to make the connection between falling bodies and astronomical motions when he saw an apple fall from a tree and realized that if the gravitational force could extend above the ground to a tree, it might also reach the Sun. The inspiration of Newton's apple is a part of worldwide folklore and may even be based in fact. Newton's universal law of gravitation and his laws of motion answered very old questions about nature and gave tremendous support to the notion of underlying simplicity and unity in nature. Like many revolutionary discoveries, it was not immediately accepted. Prominent French scientist and philosopher Émilie du Châtelet helped establish Newton's theory in France and mainland Europe.

The gravitational force is relatively simple. It is always attractive, and it depends only on the masses involved and the distance between them. Stated in modern language, **Newton's universal law of gravitation** states that every particle in the universe attracts every other particle with a force along a line joining them. The force is directly proportional to the product of their masses and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them.

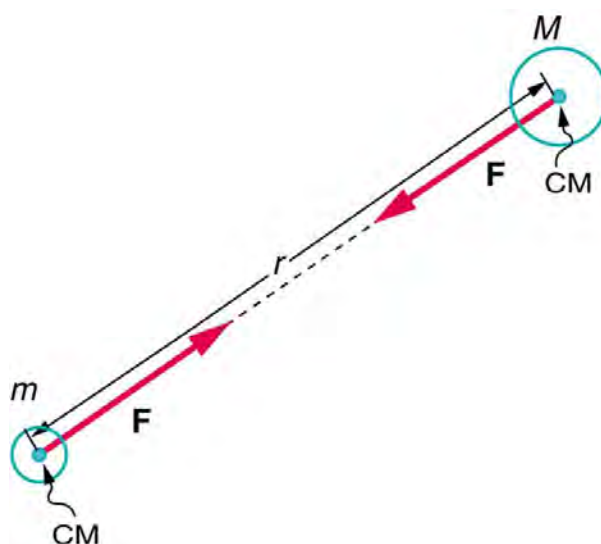


FIGURE 6.18 Gravitational attraction is along a line joining the centers of mass of these two bodies. The magnitude of the force is the same on each, consistent with Newton's third law.

MISCONCEPTION ALERT

The magnitude of the force on each object (one has larger mass than the other) is the same, consistent with Newton's third law.

The bodies we are dealing with tend to be large. To simplify the situation we assume that the body acts as if its entire mass is concentrated at one specific point called the **center of mass** (CM), which will be further explored in [Linear Momentum and Collisions](#). For two bodies having masses m and M with a distance r between their centers of

mass, the equation for Newton's universal law of gravitation is

$$F = G \frac{mM}{r^2}, \quad 6.40$$

where F is the magnitude of the gravitational force and G is a proportionality factor called the **gravitational constant**. G is a universal gravitational constant—that is, it is thought to be the same everywhere in the universe. It has been measured experimentally to be

$$G = 6.674 \times 10^{-11} \frac{\text{N} \cdot \text{m}^2}{\text{kg}^2} \quad 6.41$$

in SI units. Note that the units of G are such that a force in newtons is obtained from $F = G \frac{mM}{r^2}$, when considering masses in kilograms and distance in meters. For example, two 1.000 kg masses separated by 1.000 m will experience a gravitational attraction of 6.674×10^{-11} N. This is an extraordinarily small force. The small magnitude of the gravitational force is consistent with everyday experience. We are unaware that even large objects like mountains exert gravitational forces on us. In fact, our body weight is the force of attraction of the *entire Earth* on us with a mass of 6×10^{24} kg.

Recall that the acceleration due to gravity g is about 9.80 m/s^2 on Earth. We can now determine why this is so. The weight of an object mg is the gravitational force between it and Earth. Substituting mg for F in Newton's universal law of gravitation gives

$$mg = G \frac{mM}{r^2}, \quad 6.42$$

where m is the mass of the object, M is the mass of Earth, and r is the distance to the center of Earth (the distance between the centers of mass of the object and Earth). See [Figure 6.19](#). The mass m of the object cancels, leaving an equation for g :

$$g = G \frac{M}{r^2}. \quad 6.43$$

Substituting known values for Earth's mass and radius (to three significant figures),

$$g = \left(6.67 \times 10^{-11} \frac{\text{N} \cdot \text{m}^2}{\text{kg}^2} \right) \times \frac{5.98 \times 10^{24} \text{ kg}}{(6.38 \times 10^6 \text{ m})^2}, \quad 6.44$$

and we obtain a value for the acceleration of a falling body:

$$g = 9.80 \text{ m/s}^2. \quad 6.45$$

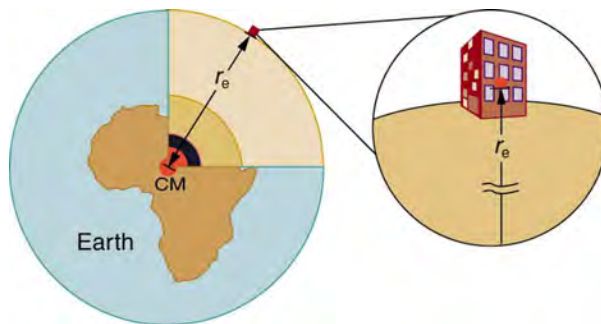


FIGURE 6.19 The distance between the centers of mass of Earth and an object on its surface is very nearly the same as the radius of Earth, because Earth is so much larger than the object.

This is the expected value *and is independent of the body's mass*. Newton's law of gravitation takes Galileo's observation that all masses fall with the same acceleration a step further, explaining the observation in terms of a force that causes objects to fall—in fact, in terms of a universally existing force of attraction between masses.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT

Take a marble, a ball, and a spoon and drop them from the same height. Do they hit the floor at the same time? If you drop a piece of paper as well, does it behave like the other objects? Explain your observations.

MAKING CONNECTIONS

Attempts are still being made to understand the gravitational force. As we shall see in [Particle Physics](#), modern physics is exploring the connections of gravity to other forces, space, and time. General relativity alters our view of gravitation, leading us to think of gravitation as bending space and time.

In the following example, we make a comparison similar to one made by Newton himself. He noted that if the gravitational force caused the Moon to orbit Earth, then the acceleration due to gravity should equal the centripetal acceleration of the Moon in its orbit. Newton found that the two accelerations agreed “pretty nearly.”



EXAMPLE 6.6

Earth's Gravitational Force Is the Centripetal Force Making the Moon Move in a Curved Path

- (a) Find the acceleration due to Earth's gravity at the distance of the Moon.
 (b) Calculate the centripetal acceleration needed to keep the Moon in its orbit (assuming a circular orbit about a fixed Earth), and compare it with the value of the acceleration due to Earth's gravity that you have just found.

Strategy for (a)

This calculation is the same as the one finding the acceleration due to gravity at Earth's surface, except that r is the distance from the center of Earth to the center of the Moon. The radius of the Moon's nearly circular orbit is 3.84×10^8 m.

Solution for (a)

Substituting known values into the expression for g found above, remembering that M is the mass of Earth not the Moon, yields

$$\begin{aligned} g &= G \frac{M}{r^2} = \left(6.67 \times 10^{-11} \frac{\text{N} \cdot \text{m}^2}{\text{kg}^2} \right) \times \frac{5.98 \times 10^{24} \text{ kg}}{(3.84 \times 10^8 \text{ m})^2} \\ &= 2.70 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m/s}^2 \end{aligned} \quad 6.46$$

Strategy for (b)

Centripetal acceleration can be calculated using either form of

$$\left. \begin{aligned} a_c &= \frac{v^2}{r} \\ a_c &= r\omega^2 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad 6.47$$

We choose to use the second form:

$$a_c = r\omega^2, \quad 6.48$$

where ω is the angular velocity of the Moon about Earth.

Solution for (b)

Given that the period (the time it takes to make one complete rotation) of the Moon's orbit is 27.3 days, (d) and using

$$1 \text{ d} \times 24 \frac{\text{hr}}{\text{d}} \times 60 \frac{\text{min}}{\text{hr}} \times 60 \frac{\text{s}}{\text{min}} = 86,400 \text{ s} \quad 6.49$$

we see that

$$\omega = \frac{\Delta\theta}{\Delta t} = \frac{2\pi \text{ rad}}{(27.3 \text{ d})(86,400 \text{ s/d})} = 2.66 \times 10^{-6} \frac{\text{rad}}{\text{s}}. \quad 6.50$$

The centripetal acceleration is

$$\begin{aligned} a_c &= r\omega^2 = (3.84 \times 10^8 \text{ m})(2.66 \times 10^{-6} \text{ rad/s})^2 \\ &= 2.72 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m/s}^2 \end{aligned} \quad 6.51$$

The direction of the acceleration is toward the center of the Earth.

Discussion

The centripetal acceleration of the Moon found in (b) differs by less than 1% from the acceleration due to Earth's gravity found in (a). This agreement is approximate because the Moon's orbit is slightly elliptical, and Earth is not stationary (rather the Earth-Moon system rotates about its center of mass, which is located some 1700 km below Earth's surface). The clear implication is that Earth's gravitational force causes the Moon to orbit Earth.

Why does Earth not remain stationary as the Moon orbits it? This is because, as expected from Newton's third law, if Earth exerts a force on the Moon, then the Moon should exert an equal and opposite force on Earth (see [Figure 6.20](#)). We do not sense the Moon's effect on Earth's motion, because the Moon's gravity moves our bodies right along with Earth but there are other signs on Earth that clearly show the effect of the Moon's gravitational force as discussed in [Satellites and Kepler's Laws: An Argument for Simplicity](#).

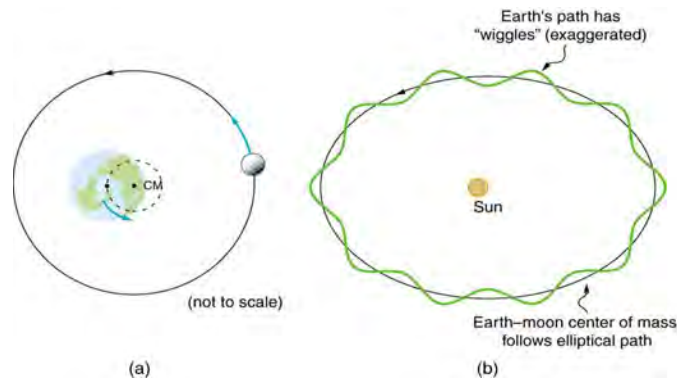


FIGURE 6.20 (a) Earth and the Moon rotate approximately once a month around their common center of mass. (b) Their center of mass orbits the Sun in an elliptical orbit, but Earth's path around the Sun has "wiggles" in it. Similar wiggles in the paths of stars have been observed and are considered direct evidence of planets orbiting those stars. This is important because the planets' reflected light is often too dim to be observed.

Tides

Ocean tides are one very observable result of the Moon's gravity acting on Earth. [Figure 6.21](#) is a simplified drawing of the Moon's position relative to the tides. Because water easily flows on Earth's surface, a high tide is created on the side of Earth nearest to the Moon, where the Moon's gravitational pull is strongest. Why is there also a high tide on the opposite side of Earth? The answer is that Earth is pulled toward the Moon more than the water on the far side, because Earth is closer to the Moon. So the water on the side of Earth closest to the Moon is pulled away from Earth, and Earth is pulled away from water on the far side. As Earth rotates, the tidal bulge (an effect of the tidal forces between an orbiting natural satellite and the primary planet that it orbits) keeps its orientation with the Moon. Thus there are two tides per day (the actual tidal period is about 12 hours and 25.2 minutes), because the Moon moves in its orbit each day as well).

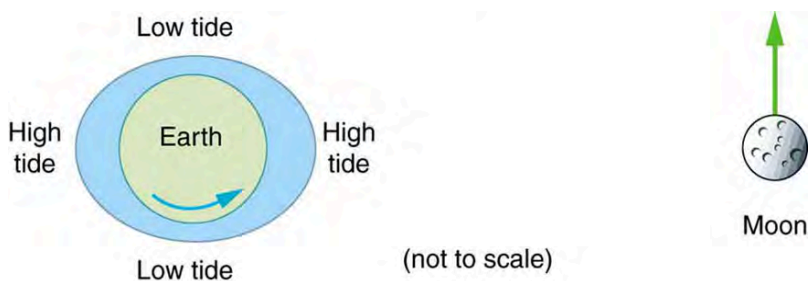


FIGURE 6.21 The Moon causes ocean tides by attracting the water on the near side more than Earth, and by attracting Earth more than the water on the far side. The distances and sizes are not to scale. For this simplified representation of the Earth-Moon system, there are two high and two low tides per day at any location, because Earth rotates under the tidal bulge.

The Sun also affects tides, although it has about half the effect of the Moon. However, the largest tides, called spring tides, occur when Earth, the Moon, and the Sun are aligned. The smallest tides, called neap tides, occur when the Sun is at a 90° angle to the Earth-Moon alignment.

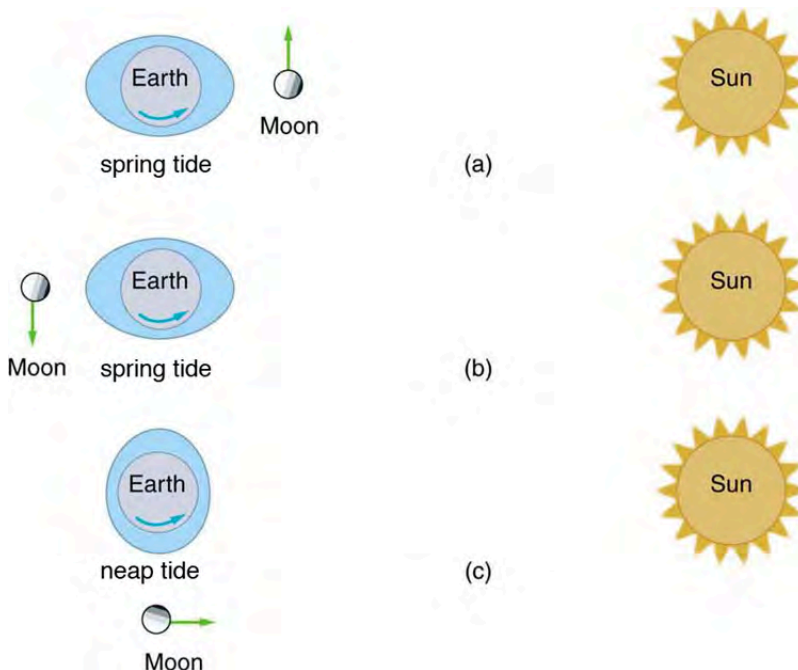


FIGURE 6.22 (a, b) Spring tides: The highest tides occur when Earth, the Moon, and the Sun are aligned. (c) Neap tide: The lowest tides occur when the Sun lies at 90° to the Earth-Moon alignment. Note that this figure is not drawn to scale.

Tides are not unique to Earth but occur in many astronomical systems. The most extreme tides occur where the gravitational force is the strongest and varies most rapidly, such as near black holes (see [Figure 6.23](#)). A few likely candidates for black holes have been observed in our galaxy. These have masses greater than the Sun but have diameters only a few kilometers across. The tidal forces near them are so great that they can actually tear matter from a companion star.

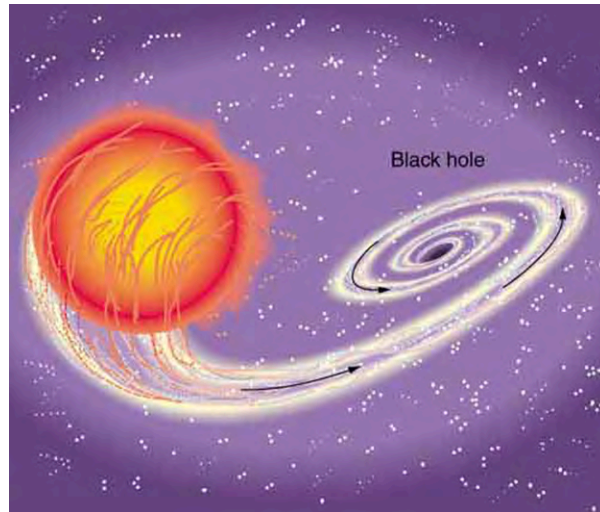


FIGURE 6.23 A black hole is an object with such strong gravity that not even light can escape it. This black hole was created by the supernova of one star in a two-star system. The tidal forces created by the black hole are so great that it tears matter from the companion star. This matter is compressed and heated as it is sucked into the black hole, creating light and X-rays observable from Earth.

"Weightlessness" and Microgravity

In contrast to the tremendous gravitational force near black holes is the apparent gravitational field experienced by astronauts orbiting Earth. What is the effect of "weightlessness" upon an astronaut who is in orbit for months? Or what about the effect of weightlessness upon plant growth? Weightlessness doesn't mean that an astronaut is not being acted upon by the gravitational force. There is no "zero gravity" in an astronaut's orbit. The term just means that the astronaut is in free-fall, accelerating with the acceleration due to gravity. If an elevator cable breaks, the passengers inside will be in free fall and will experience weightlessness. You can experience short periods of weightlessness in some rides in amusement parks.



FIGURE 6.24 Astronauts experiencing weightlessness on board the International Space Station. (credit: NASA)

Microgravity refers to an environment in which the apparent net acceleration of a body is small compared with that produced by Earth at its surface. Many interesting biology and physics topics have been studied over the past three decades in the presence of microgravity. Of immediate concern is the effect on astronauts of extended times in outer space, such as at the International Space Station. Researchers have observed that muscles will atrophy (waste away) in this environment. There is also a corresponding loss of bone mass. Study continues on cardiovascular adaptation to space flight. On Earth, blood pressure is usually higher in the feet than in the head, because the higher column of blood exerts a downward force on it, due to gravity. When standing, 70% of your blood is below the level of the heart, while in a horizontal position, just the opposite occurs. What difference does the absence of this pressure differential have upon the heart?

Some findings in human physiology in space can be clinically important to the management of diseases back on

Earth. On a somewhat negative note, spaceflight is known to affect the human immune system, possibly making the crew members more vulnerable to infectious diseases. Experiments flown in space also have shown that some bacteria grow faster in microgravity than they do on Earth. However, on a positive note, studies indicate that microbial antibiotic production can increase by a factor of two in space-grown cultures. One hopes to be able to understand these mechanisms so that similar successes can be achieved on the ground. In another area of physics space research, inorganic crystals and protein crystals have been grown in outer space that have much higher quality than any grown on Earth, so crystallography studies on their structure can yield much better results.

Plants have evolved with the stimulus of gravity and with gravity sensors. Roots grow downward and shoots grow upward. Plants might be able to provide a life support system for long duration space missions by regenerating the atmosphere, purifying water, and producing food. Some studies have indicated that plant growth and development are not affected by gravity, but there is still uncertainty about structural changes in plants grown in a microgravity environment.

The Cavendish Experiment: Then and Now

As previously noted, the universal gravitational constant G is determined experimentally. This definition was first done accurately by Henry Cavendish (1731–1810), an English scientist, in 1798, more than 100 years after Newton published his universal law of gravitation. The measurement of G is very basic and important because it determines the strength of one of the four forces in nature. Cavendish's experiment was very difficult because he measured the tiny gravitational attraction between two ordinary-sized masses (tens of kilograms at most), using apparatus like that in [Figure 6.25](#). Remarkably, his value for G differs by less than 1% from the best modern value.

One important consequence of knowing G was that an accurate value for Earth's mass could finally be obtained. This was done by measuring the acceleration due to gravity as accurately as possible and then calculating the mass of Earth M from the relationship Newton's universal law of gravitation gives

$$mg = G \frac{mM}{r^2}, \quad 6.52$$

where m is the mass of the object, M is the mass of Earth, and r is the distance to the center of Earth (the distance between the centers of mass of the object and Earth). See [Figure 6.18](#). The mass m of the object cancels, leaving an equation for g :

$$g = G \frac{M}{r^2}. \quad 6.53$$

Rearranging to solve for M yields

$$M = \frac{gr^2}{G}. \quad 6.54$$

So M can be calculated because all quantities on the right, including the radius of Earth r , are known from direct measurements. We shall see in [Satellites and Kepler's Laws: An Argument for Simplicity](#) that knowing G also allows for the determination of astronomical masses. Interestingly, of all the fundamental constants in physics, G is by far the least well determined.

The Cavendish experiment is also used to explore other aspects of gravity. One of the most interesting questions is whether the gravitational force depends on substance as well as mass—for example, whether one kilogram of lead exerts the same gravitational pull as one kilogram of water. A Hungarian scientist named Roland von Eötvös pioneered this inquiry early in the 20th century. He found, with an accuracy of five parts per billion, that the gravitational force does not depend on the substance. Such experiments continue today, and have improved upon Eötvös' measurements. Cavendish-type experiments such as those of Eric Adelberger and others at the University of Washington, have also put severe limits on the possibility of a fifth force and have verified a major prediction of general relativity—that gravitational energy contributes to rest mass. Ongoing measurements there use a torsion balance and a parallel plate (not spheres, as Cavendish used) to examine how Newton's law of gravitation works over sub-millimeter distances. On this small-scale, do gravitational effects depart from the inverse square law? So far, no deviation has been observed.

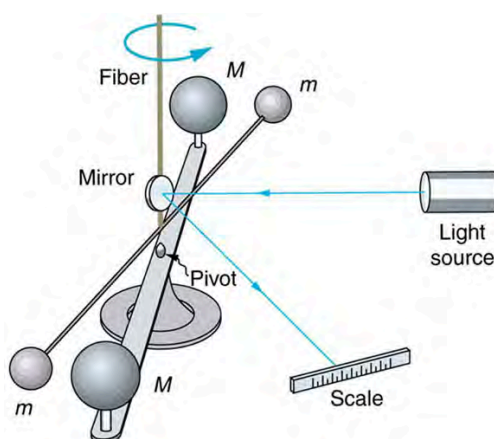


FIGURE 6.25 Cavendish used an apparatus like this to measure the gravitational attraction between the two suspended spheres (m) and the two on the stand (M) by observing the amount of torsion (twisting) created in the fiber. Distance between the masses can be varied to check the dependence of the force on distance. Modern experiments of this type continue to explore gravity.

6.6 Satellites and Kepler's Laws: An Argument for Simplicity

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- State Kepler's laws of planetary motion.
- Derive the third Kepler's law for circular orbits.
- Discuss the Ptolemaic model of the universe.

Examples of gravitational orbits abound. Hundreds of artificial satellites orbit Earth together with thousands of pieces of debris. The Moon's orbit about Earth has intrigued humans from time immemorial. The orbits of planets, asteroids, meteors, and comets about the Sun are no less interesting. If we look further, we see almost unimaginable numbers of stars, galaxies, and other celestial objects orbiting one another and interacting through gravity.

All these motions are governed by gravitational force, and it is possible to describe them to various degrees of precision. Precise descriptions of complex systems must be made with large computers. However, we can describe an important class of orbits without the use of computers, and we shall find it instructive to study them. These orbits have the following characteristics:

1. *A small mass m orbits a much larger mass M .* This allows us to view the motion as if M were stationary—in fact, as if from an inertial frame of reference placed on M —without significant error. Mass m is the satellite of M , if the orbit is gravitationally bound.
2. *The system is isolated from other masses.* This allows us to neglect any small effects due to outside masses.

The conditions are satisfied, to good approximation, by Earth's satellites (including the Moon), by objects orbiting the Sun, and by the satellites of other planets. Historically, planets were studied first, and there is a classical set of three laws, called Kepler's laws of planetary motion, that describe the orbits of all bodies satisfying the two previous conditions (not just planets in our solar system). These descriptive laws are named for the German astronomer Johannes Kepler (1571–1630), who devised them after careful study (over some 20 years) of a large amount of meticulously recorded observations of planetary motion done by Tycho Brahe (1546–1601). Such careful collection and detailed recording of methods and data are hallmarks of good science. Data constitute the evidence from which new interpretations and meanings can be constructed.

Kepler's Laws of Planetary Motion

Kepler's First Law

The orbit of each planet about the Sun is an ellipse with the Sun at one focus.

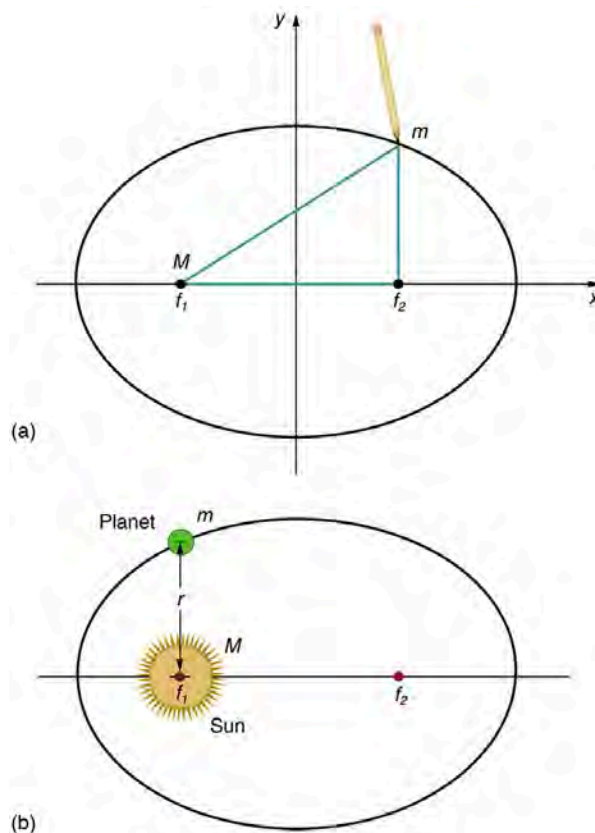


FIGURE 6.26 (a) An ellipse is a closed curve such that the sum of the distances from a point on the curve to the two foci (f_1 and f_2) is a constant. You can draw an ellipse as shown by putting a pin at each focus, and then placing a string around a pencil and the pins and tracing a line on paper. A circle is a special case of an ellipse in which the two foci coincide (thus any point on the circle is the same distance from the center). (b) For any closed gravitational orbit, m follows an elliptical path with M at one focus. Kepler's first law states this fact for planets orbiting the Sun.

Kepler's Second Law

Each planet moves so that an imaginary line drawn from the Sun to the planet sweeps out equal areas in equal times (see [Figure 6.27](#)).

Kepler's Third Law

The ratio of the squares of the periods of any two planets about the Sun is equal to the ratio of the cubes of their average distances from the Sun. In equation form, this is

$$\frac{T_1^2}{T_2^2} = \frac{r_1^3}{r_2^3}, \quad 6.55$$

where T is the period (time for one orbit) and r is the average radius. This equation is valid only for comparing two small masses orbiting the same large one. Most importantly, this is a descriptive equation only, giving no information as to the cause of the equality.

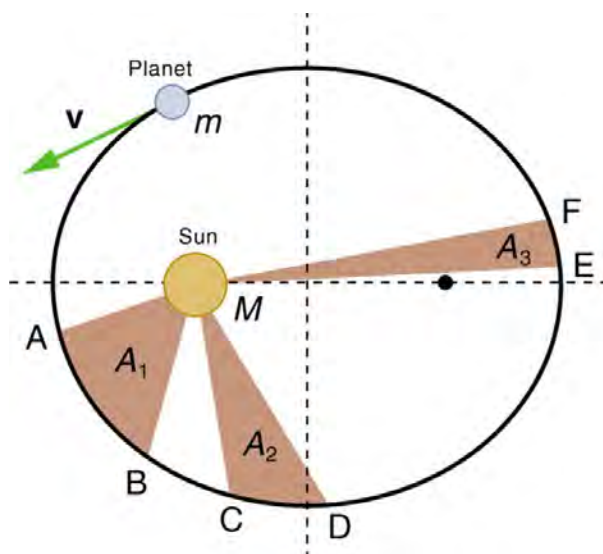


FIGURE 6.27 The shaded regions have equal areas. It takes equal times for m to go from A to B, from C to D, and from E to F. The mass m moves fastest when it is closest to M . Kepler's second law was originally devised for planets orbiting the Sun, but it has broader validity.

Note again that while, for historical reasons, Kepler's laws are stated for planets orbiting the Sun, they are actually valid for all bodies satisfying the two previously stated conditions.



EXAMPLE 6.7

Find the Time for One Orbit of an Earth Satellite

Given that the Moon orbits Earth each 27.3 d and that it is an average distance of 3.84×10^8 m from the center of Earth, calculate the period of an artificial satellite orbiting at an average altitude of 1500 km above Earth's surface.

Strategy

The period, or time for one orbit, is related to the radius of the orbit by Kepler's third law, given in mathematical form in $\frac{T_1^2}{T_2^2} = \frac{r_1^3}{r_2^3}$. Let us use the subscript 1 for the Moon and the subscript 2 for the satellite. We are asked to find

T_2 . The given information tells us that the orbital radius of the Moon is $r_1 = 3.84 \times 10^8$ m, and that the period of the Moon is $T_1 = 27.3$ d. The height of the artificial satellite above Earth's surface is given, and so we must add the radius of Earth (6380 km) to get $r_2 = (1500 + 6380)$ km = 7880 km. Now all quantities are known, and so T_2 can be found.

Solution

Kepler's third law is

$$\frac{T_1^2}{T_2^2} = \frac{r_1^3}{r_2^3}. \quad 6.56$$

To solve for T_2 , we cross-multiply and take the square root, yielding

$$T_2^2 = T_1^2 \left(\frac{r_2}{r_1} \right)^3 \quad 6.57$$

$$T_2 = T_1 \left(\frac{r_2}{r_1} \right)^{3/2}. \quad 6.58$$

Substituting known values yields

$$\begin{aligned}
 T_2 &= 27.3 \text{ d} \times \frac{24.0 \text{ h}}{\text{d}} \times \left(\frac{7880 \text{ km}}{3.84 \times 10^5 \text{ km}} \right)^{3/2} \\
 &= 1.93 \text{ h.}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{6.59}$$

Discussion

This is a reasonable period for a satellite in a fairly low orbit. It is interesting that any satellite at this altitude will orbit in the same amount of time. This fact is related to the condition that the satellite's mass is small compared with that of Earth.

People immediately search for deeper meaning when broadly applicable laws, like Kepler's, are discovered. It was Newton who took the next giant step when he proposed the law of universal gravitation. While Kepler was able to discover *what* was happening, Newton discovered that gravitational force was the cause.

Derivation of Kepler's Third Law for Circular Orbits

We shall derive Kepler's third law, starting with Newton's laws of motion and his universal law of gravitation. The point is to demonstrate that the force of gravity is the cause for Kepler's laws (although we will only derive the third one).

Let us consider a circular orbit of a small mass m around a large mass M , satisfying the two conditions stated at the beginning of this section. Gravity supplies the centripetal force to mass m . Starting with Newton's second law applied to circular motion,

$$F_{\text{net}} = ma_c = m \frac{v^2}{r}. \tag{6.60}$$

The net external force on mass m is gravity, and so we substitute the force of gravity for F_{net} :

$$G \frac{mM}{r^2} = m \frac{v^2}{r}. \tag{6.61}$$

The mass m cancels, yielding

$$G \frac{M}{r} = v^2. \tag{6.62}$$

The fact that m cancels out is another aspect of the oft-noted fact that at a given location all masses fall with the same acceleration. Here we see that at a given orbital radius r , all masses orbit at the same speed. (This was implied by the result of the preceding worked example.) Now, to get at Kepler's third law, we must get the period T into the equation. By definition, period T is the time for one complete orbit. Now the average speed v is the circumference divided by the period—that is,

$$v = \frac{2\pi r}{T}. \tag{6.63}$$

Substituting this into the previous equation gives

$$G \frac{M}{r} = \frac{4\pi^2 r^2}{T^2}. \tag{6.64}$$

Solving for T^2 yields

$$T^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{GM} r^3. \tag{6.65}$$

Using subscripts 1 and 2 to denote two different satellites, and taking the ratio of the last equation for satellite 1 to satellite 2 yields

$$\frac{T_1^2}{T_2^2} = \frac{r_1^3}{r_2^3}. \tag{6.66}$$

This is Kepler's third law. Note that Kepler's third law is valid only for comparing satellites of the same parent body, because only then does the mass of the parent body M cancel.

Now consider what we get if we solve $T^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{GM}r^3$ for the ratio r^3/T^2 . We obtain a relationship that can be used to determine the mass M of a parent body from the orbits of its satellites:

$$\frac{r^3}{T^2} = \frac{G}{4\pi^2}M. \quad 6.67$$

If r and T are known for a satellite, then the mass M of the parent can be calculated. This principle has been used extensively to find the masses of heavenly bodies that have satellites. Furthermore, the ratio r^3/T^2 should be a constant for all satellites of the same parent body (because $r^3/T^2 = GM/4\pi^2$). (See [Table 6.2](#)).

It is clear from [Table 6.2](#) that the ratio of r^3/T^2 is constant, at least to the third digit, for all listed satellites of the Sun, and for those of Jupiter. Small variations in that ratio have two causes—uncertainties in the r and T data, and perturbations of the orbits due to other bodies. Interestingly, those perturbations can be—and have been—used to predict the location of new planets and moons. This is another verification of Newton's universal law of gravitation.

MAKING CONNECTIONS

Newton's universal law of gravitation is modified by Einstein's general theory of relativity, as we shall see in [Particle Physics](#). Newton's gravity is not seriously in error—it was and still is an extremely good approximation for most situations. Einstein's modification is most noticeable in extremely large gravitational fields, such as near black holes. However, general relativity also explains such phenomena as small but long-known deviations of the orbit of the planet Mercury from classical predictions.

The Case for Simplicity

The development of the universal law of gravitation by Newton played a pivotal role in the history of ideas. While it is beyond the scope of this text to cover that history in any detail, we note some important points. The definition of planet set in 2006 by the International Astronomical Union (IAU) states that in the solar system, a planet is a celestial body that:

1. is in orbit around the Sun,
2. has sufficient mass to assume hydrostatic equilibrium and
3. has cleared the neighborhood around its orbit.

A non-satellite body fulfilling only the first two of the above criteria is classified as “dwarf planet.”

In 2006, Pluto was demoted to a ‘dwarf planet’ after scientists revised their definition of what constitutes a “true” planet.

Parent	Satellite	Average orbital radius $r(\text{km})$	Period $T(\text{y})$	$r^3 / T^2 \text{ (km}^3 / \text{y}^2\text{)}$
Earth	Moon	3.84×10^5	0.07481	1.01×10^{19}
Sun	Mercury	5.79×10^7	0.2409	3.34×10^{24}
	Venus	1.082×10^8	0.6150	3.35×10^{24}
	Earth	1.496×10^8	1.000	3.35×10^{24}
	Mars	2.279×10^8	1.881	3.35×10^{24}

TABLE 6.2 Orbital Data and Kepler's Third Law

Parent	Satellite	Average orbital radius $r(\text{km})$	Period $T(\text{y})$	$r^3 / T^2 (\text{km}^3 / \text{y}^2)$
	Jupiter	7.783×10^8	11.86	3.35×10^{24}
	Saturn	1.427×10^9	29.46	3.35×10^{24}
	Neptune	4.497×10^9	164.8	3.35×10^{24}
	Pluto	5.90×10^9	248.3	3.33×10^{24}
Jupiter	Io	4.22×10^5	0.00485 (1.77 d)	3.19×10^{21}
	Europa	6.71×10^5	0.00972 (3.55 d)	3.20×10^{21}
	Ganymede	1.07×10^6	0.0196 (7.16 d)	3.19×10^{21}
	Callisto	1.88×10^6	0.0457 (16.19 d)	3.20×10^{21}

TABLE 6.2 Orbital Data and Kepler's Third Law

The universal law of gravitation is a good example of a physical principle that is very broadly applicable. That single equation for the gravitational force describes all situations in which gravity acts. It gives a cause for a vast number of effects, such as the orbits of the planets and moons in the solar system. It epitomizes the underlying unity and simplicity of physics.

Before the discoveries of Kepler, Copernicus, Galileo, Newton, and others, the solar system was thought to revolve around Earth as shown in [Figure 6.28\(a\)](#). This is called the Ptolemaic view, for the Greek philosopher who lived in the second century AD. This model is characterized by a list of facts for the motions of planets with no cause and effect explanation. There tended to be a different rule for each heavenly body and a general lack of simplicity.

[Figure 6.28\(b\)](#) represents the modern or Copernican model. In this model, a small set of rules and a single underlying force explain not only all motions in the solar system, but all other situations involving gravity. The breadth and simplicity of the laws of physics are compelling. As our knowledge of nature has grown, the basic simplicity of its laws has become ever more evident.

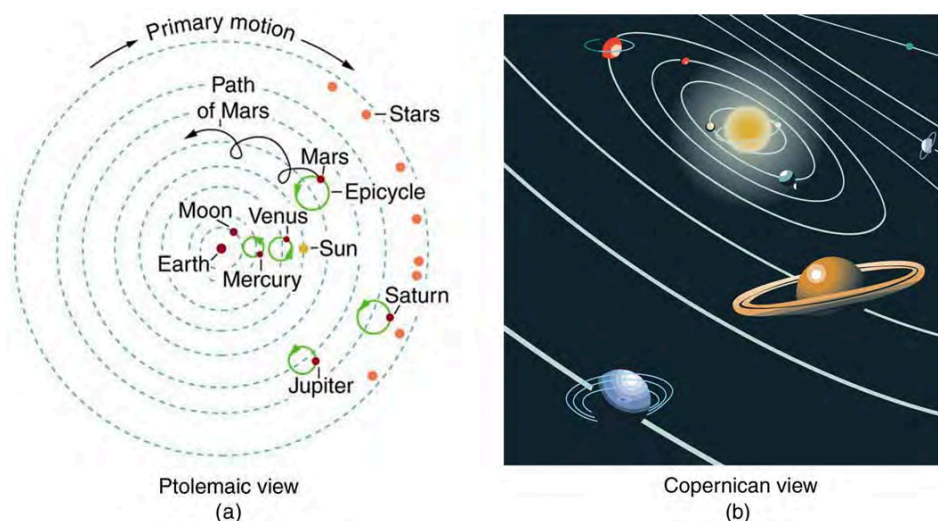


FIGURE 6.28 (a) The Ptolemaic model of the universe has Earth at the center with the Moon, the planets, the Sun, and the stars revolving about it in complex superpositions of circular paths. This geocentric model, which can be made progressively more accurate by adding more circles, is purely descriptive, containing no hints as to what are the causes of these motions. (b) The Copernican model has the Sun at the center of the solar system. It is fully explained by a small number of laws of physics, including Newton's universal law of gravitation.

Glossary

angular velocity ω , the rate of change of the angle with which an object moves on a circular path

arc length Δs , the distance traveled by an object along a circular path

banked curve the curve in a road that is sloping in a manner that helps a vehicle negotiate the curve

center of mass the point where the entire mass of an object can be thought to be concentrated

centrifugal force a fictitious force that tends to throw an object off when the object is rotating in a non-inertial frame of reference

centripetal acceleration the acceleration of an object moving in a circle, directed toward the center

centripetal force any net force causing uniform circular motion

Coriolis force the fictitious force causing the apparent deflection of moving objects when viewed in a rotating frame of reference

fictitious force a force having no physical origin

gravitational constant, G a proportionality factor used in the equation for Newton's universal law of gravitation; it is a universal constant—that is, it is thought to be the same everywhere in the universe

ideal angle the angle at which a car can turn safely on a steep curve, which is in proportion to the ideal speed

ideal banking the sloping of a curve in a road, where the angle of the slope allows the vehicle to negotiate the curve at a certain speed without the

aid of friction between the tires and the road; the net external force on the vehicle equals the horizontal centripetal force in the absence of friction

ideal speed the maximum safe speed at which a vehicle can turn on a curve without the aid of friction between the tire and the road

microgravity an environment in which the apparent net acceleration of a body is small compared with that produced by Earth at its surface

Newton's universal law of gravitation every particle in the universe attracts every other particle with a force along a line joining them; the force is directly proportional to the product of their masses and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them

non-inertial frame of reference an accelerated frame of reference

pit a tiny indentation on the spiral track moulded into the top of the polycarbonate layer of CD

radians a unit of angle measurement

radius of curvature radius of a circular path

rotation angle the ratio of the arc length to the radius of curvature on a circular path: $\Delta\theta = \frac{\Delta s}{r}$

ultracentrifuge a centrifuge optimized for spinning a rotor at very high speeds

uniform circular motion the motion of an object in a circular path at constant speed

Section Summary

6.1 Rotation Angle and Angular Velocity

- Uniform circular motion is motion in a circle at constant speed. The rotation angle $\Delta\theta$ is defined as the ratio of the arc length to the radius of curvature:

$$\Delta\theta = \frac{\Delta s}{r},$$

where arc length Δs is distance traveled along a circular path and r is the radius of curvature of the circular path. The quantity $\Delta\theta$ is measured in units of radians (rad), for which

$$2\pi \text{ rad} = 360^\circ = 1 \text{ revolution.}$$

- The conversion between radians and degrees is $1 \text{ rad} = 57.3^\circ$.
- Angular velocity ω is the rate of change of an angle,

$$\omega = \frac{\Delta\theta}{\Delta t},$$

where a rotation $\Delta\theta$ takes place in a time Δt . The units of angular velocity are radians per second

(rad/s). Linear velocity v and angular velocity ω are related by

$$v = r\omega \text{ or } \omega = \frac{v}{r}.$$

6.2 Centripetal Acceleration

- Centripetal acceleration a_c is the acceleration experienced while in uniform circular motion. It always points toward the center of rotation. It is perpendicular to the linear velocity v and has the magnitude

$$a_c = \frac{v^2}{r}; a_c = r\omega^2.$$

- The unit of centripetal acceleration is m/s^2 .

6.3 Centripetal Force

- Centripetal force F_c is any force causing uniform circular motion. It is a “center-seeking” force that always points toward the center of rotation. It is perpendicular to linear velocity v and has

magnitude

$$F_c = ma_c,$$

which can also be expressed as

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} F_c = m \frac{v^2}{r} \\ \text{or} \\ F_c = m r \omega^2 \end{array} \right\}$$

6.4 Fictitious Forces and Non-inertial Frames: The Coriolis Force

- Rotating and accelerated frames of reference are non-inertial.
- Fictitious forces, such as the Coriolis force, are needed to explain motion in such frames.

6.5 Newton's Universal Law of Gravitation

- Newton's universal law of gravitation: Every particle in the universe attracts every other particle with a force along a line joining them. The force is directly proportional to the product of their masses and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them. In equation form, this is

$$F = G \frac{mM}{r^2},$$

where F is the magnitude of the gravitational force.

G is the gravitational constant, given by

$$G = 6.674 \times 10^{-11} \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{kg}^2.$$

- Newton's law of gravitation applies universally.

6.6 Satellites and Kepler's Laws: An Argument for Simplicity

- Kepler's laws are stated for a small mass m

Conceptual Questions

6.1 Rotation Angle and Angular Velocity

- There is an analogy between rotational and linear physical quantities. What rotational quantities are analogous to distance and velocity?

6.2 Centripetal Acceleration

- Can centripetal acceleration change the speed of circular motion? Explain.

6.3 Centripetal Force

- If you wish to reduce the stress (which is related to centripetal force) on high-speed tires, would you use large- or small-diameter tires? Explain.
- Define centripetal force. Can any type of force (for example, tension, gravitational force, friction, and so on) be a centripetal force? Can any combination

of forces be a centripetal force?

orbiting a larger mass M in near-isolation. Kepler's laws of planetary motion are then as follows:

Kepler's first law

The orbit of each planet about the Sun is an ellipse with the Sun at one focus.

Kepler's second law

Each planet moves so that an imaginary line drawn from the Sun to the planet sweeps out equal areas in equal times.

Kepler's third law

The ratio of the squares of the periods of any two planets about the Sun is equal to the ratio of the cubes of their average distances from the Sun:

$$\frac{T_1^2}{T_2^2} = \frac{r_1^3}{r_2^3},$$

where T is the period (time for one orbit) and r is the average radius of the orbit.

- The period and radius of a satellite's orbit about a larger body M are related by

$$T^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{GM} r^3$$

or

$$\frac{r^3}{T^2} = \frac{G}{4\pi^2} M.$$

- If centripetal force is directed toward the center, why do you feel that you are 'thrown' away from the center as a car goes around a curve? Explain.
- Race car drivers routinely cut corners as shown in [Figure 6.29](#). Explain how this allows the curve to be taken at the greatest speed.

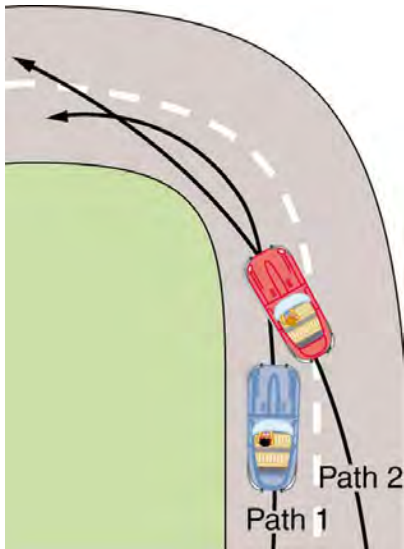


FIGURE 6.29 Two paths around a race track curve are shown. Race car drivers will take the inside path (called cutting the corner) whenever possible because it allows them to take the curve at the highest speed.

7. A number of amusement parks have rides that make vertical loops like the one shown in [Figure 6.30](#). For safety, the cars are attached to the rails in such a way that they cannot fall off. If the car goes over the top at just the right speed, gravity alone will supply the centripetal force. What other force acts and what is its direction if:
- The car goes over the top at faster than this speed?
 - The car goes over the top at slower than this speed?

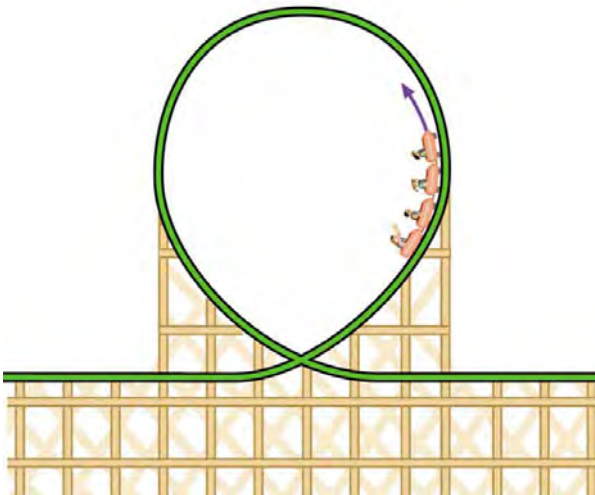


FIGURE 6.30 Amusement rides with a vertical loop are an example of a form of curved motion.

8. What is the direction of the force exerted by the car on the passenger as the car goes over the top of the amusement ride pictured in [Figure 6.30](#) under the

following circumstances:

- The car goes over the top at such a speed that the gravitational force is the only force acting?
 - The car goes over the top faster than this speed?
 - The car goes over the top slower than this speed?
9. As a skater forms a circle, what force is responsible for making her turn? Use a free body diagram in your answer.
10. Suppose a child is riding on a merry-go-round at a distance about halfway between its center and edge. She has a lunch box resting on wax paper, so that there is very little friction between it and the merry-go-round. Which path shown in [Figure 6.31](#) will the lunch box take when she lets go? The lunch box leaves a trail in the dust on the merry-go-round. Is that trail straight, curved to the left, or curved to the right? Explain your answer.

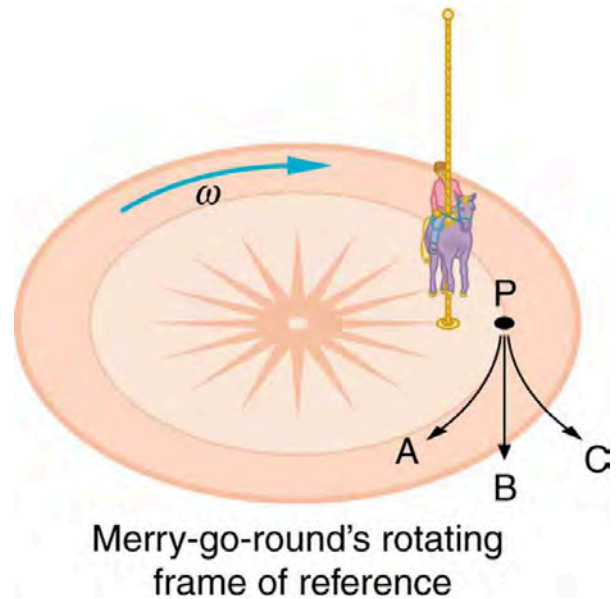


FIGURE 6.31 A child riding on a merry-go-round releases her lunch box at point P. This is a view from above the clockwise rotation. Assuming it slides with negligible friction, will it follow path A, B, or C, as viewed from Earth's frame of reference? What will be the shape of the path it leaves in the dust on the merry-go-round?

11. Do you feel yourself thrown to either side when you negotiate a curve that is ideally banked for your car's speed? What is the direction of the force exerted on you by the car seat?
12. Suppose a mass is moving in a circular path on a frictionless table as shown in figure. In the Earth's frame of reference, there is no centrifugal force pulling the mass away from the centre of rotation, yet there is a very real force stretching the string attaching the mass to the nail. Using concepts

related to centripetal force and Newton's third law, explain what force stretches the string, identifying its physical origin.

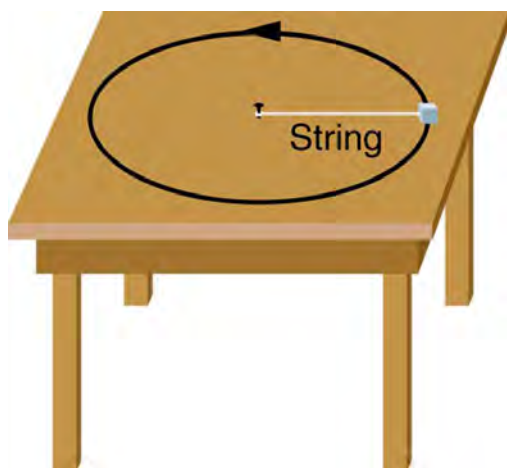


FIGURE 6.32 A mass attached to a nail on a frictionless table moves in a circular path. The force stretching the string is real and not fictional. What is the physical origin of the force on the string?

6.4 Fictitious Forces and Non-inertial Frames: The Coriolis Force

- 13.** When a toilet is flushed or a sink is drained, the water (and other material) begins to rotate about the drain on the way down. Assuming no initial rotation and a flow initially directly straight toward the drain, explain what causes the rotation and which direction it has in the northern hemisphere. (Note that this is a small effect and in most toilets the rotation is caused by directional water jets.) Would the direction of rotation reverse if water were forced up the drain?
- 14.** Is there a real force that throws water from clothes during the spin cycle of a washing machine? Explain how the water is removed.
- 15.** In one amusement park ride, riders enter a large vertical barrel and stand against the wall on its horizontal floor. The barrel is spun up and the floor drops away. Riders feel as if they are pinned to the wall by a force something like the gravitational force. This is a fictitious force sensed and used by the riders to explain events in the rotating frame of reference of the barrel. Explain in an inertial frame of reference (Earth is nearly one) what pins the riders to the wall, and identify all of the real forces acting on them.
- 16.** Action at a distance, such as is the case for gravity, was once thought to be illogical and therefore untrue. What is the ultimate determinant of the truth in physics, and why was this action ultimately accepted?
- 17.** Two friends are having a conversation. Anna says a satellite in orbit is in freefall because the satellite keeps falling toward Earth. Tom says a satellite in orbit is not in freefall because the acceleration due to gravity is not 9.80 m/s^2 . Who do you agree with and why?
- 18.** A non-rotating frame of reference placed at the center of the Sun is very nearly an inertial one. Why is it not exactly an inertial frame?

6.5 Newton's Universal Law of Gravitation

- 19.** Action at a distance, such as is the case for gravity, was once thought to be illogical and therefore untrue. What is the ultimate determinant of the truth in physics, and why was this action ultimately accepted?
- 20.** Two friends are having a conversation. Anna says a satellite in orbit is in freefall because the satellite keeps falling toward Earth. Tom says a satellite in orbit is not in freefall because the acceleration due to gravity is not 9.80 m/s^2 . Who do you agree with and why?
- 21.** Draw a free body diagram for a satellite in an elliptical orbit showing why its speed increases as it approaches its parent body and decreases as it moves away.
- 22.** Newton's laws of motion and gravity were among the first to convincingly demonstrate the underlying simplicity and unity in nature. Many other examples have since been discovered, and we now expect to find such underlying order in complex situations. Is there proof that such order will always be found in new explorations?

6.6 Satellites and Kepler's Laws: An Argument for Simplicity

- 23.** In what frame(s) of reference are Kepler's laws valid? Are Kepler's laws purely descriptive, or do they contain causal information?

Problems & Exercises

6.1 Rotation Angle and Angular Velocity

1. Semi-trailer trucks have an odometer on one hub of a trailer wheel. The hub is weighted so that it does not rotate, but it contains gears to count the number of wheel revolutions—it then calculates the distance traveled. If the wheel has a 1.15 m diameter and goes through 200,000 rotations, how many kilometers should the odometer read?
2. Microwave ovens rotate at a rate of about 6 rev/min. What is this in revolutions per second? What is the angular velocity in radians per second?
3. An automobile with 0.260 m radius tires travels 80,000 km before wearing them out. How many revolutions do the tires make, neglecting any backing up and any change in radius due to wear?
4. (a) What is the period of rotation of Earth in seconds? (b) What is the angular velocity of Earth? (c) Given that Earth has a radius of 6.4×10^6 m at its equator, what is the linear velocity at Earth's surface?
5. A baseball pitcher brings his arm forward during a pitch, rotating the forearm about the elbow. If the velocity of the ball in the pitcher's hand is 35.0 m/s and the ball is 0.300 m from the elbow joint, what is the angular velocity of the forearm?
6. In lacrosse, a ball is thrown from a net on the end of a stick by rotating the stick and forearm about the elbow. If the angular velocity of the ball about the elbow joint is 30.0 rad/s and the ball is 1.30 m from the elbow joint, what is the velocity of the ball?
7. A truck with 0.420-m-radius tires travels at 32.0 m/s. What is the angular velocity of the rotating tires in radians per second? What is this in rev/min?
8. Integrated Concepts When kicking a football, the kicker rotates his leg about the hip joint.
 - (a) If the velocity of the tip of the kicker's shoe is 35.0 m/s and the hip joint is 1.05 m from the tip of the shoe, what is the shoe tip's angular velocity?
 - (b) The shoe is in contact with the initially stationary 0.500 kg football for 20.0 ms. What average force is exerted on the football to give it a velocity of 20.0 m/s?
 - (c) Find the maximum range of the football, neglecting air resistance.
9. Construct Your Own Problem Consider an amusement park ride in which participants are rotated about a vertical axis in a

cylinder with vertical walls. Once the angular velocity reaches its full value, the floor drops away and friction between the walls and the riders prevents them from sliding down. Construct a problem in which you calculate the necessary angular velocity that assures the riders will not slide down the wall. Include a free body diagram of a single rider. Among the variables to consider are the radius of the cylinder and the coefficients of friction between the riders' clothing and the wall.

6.2 Centripetal Acceleration

10. A fairground ride spins its occupants inside a flying saucer-shaped container. If the horizontal circular path the riders follow has an 8.00 m radius, at how many revolutions per minute will the riders be subjected to a centripetal acceleration whose magnitude is 1.50 times that due to gravity?
11. A runner taking part in the 200 m dash must run around the end of a track that has a circular arc with a radius of curvature of 30 m. If the runner completes the 200 m dash in 23.2 s and runs at constant speed throughout the race, what is the magnitude of their centripetal acceleration as they run the curved portion of the track?
12. Taking the age of Earth to be about 4×10^9 years and assuming its orbital radius of 1.5×10^{11} m has not changed and is circular, calculate the approximate total distance Earth has traveled since its birth (in a frame of reference stationary with respect to the Sun).
13. The propeller of a World War II fighter plane is 2.30 m in diameter.
 - (a) What is its angular velocity in radians per second if it spins at 1200 rev/min?
 - (b) What is the linear speed of its tip at this angular velocity if the plane is stationary on the tarmac?
 - (c) What is the centripetal acceleration of the propeller tip under these conditions? Calculate it in meters per second squared and convert to multiples of g .
14. An ordinary workshop grindstone has a radius of 7.50 cm and rotates at 6500 rev/min.
 - (a) Calculate the magnitude of the centripetal acceleration at its edge in meters per second squared and convert it to multiples of g .
 - (b) What is the linear speed of a point on its edge?
15. Helicopter blades withstand tremendous stresses.

In addition to supporting the weight of a helicopter, they are spun at rapid rates and experience large centripetal accelerations, especially at the tip.

- (a) Calculate the magnitude of the centripetal acceleration at the tip of a 4.00 m long helicopter blade that rotates at 300 rev/min.
 - (b) Compare the linear speed of the tip with the speed of sound (taken to be 340 m/s).
- 16.** Olympic ice skaters are able to spin at about 5 rev/s.
- (a) What is their angular velocity in radians per second?
 - (b) What is the centripetal acceleration of the skater's nose if it is 0.120 m from the axis of rotation?
 - (c) An exceptional skater named Dick Button was able to spin much faster in the 1950s than anyone since—at about 9 rev/s. What was the centripetal acceleration of the tip of his nose, assuming it is at 0.120 m radius?
 - (d) Comment on the magnitudes of the accelerations found. It is reputed that Button ruptured small blood vessels during his spins.
- 17.** What percentage of the acceleration at Earth's surface is the acceleration due to gravity at the position of a satellite located 300 km above Earth?
- 18.** Verify that the linear speed of an ultracentrifuge is about 0.50 km/s, and Earth in its orbit is about 30 km/s by calculating:
- (a) The linear speed of a point on an ultracentrifuge 0.100 m from its center, rotating at 50,000 rev/min.
 - (b) The linear speed of Earth in its orbit about the Sun (use data from the text on the radius of Earth's orbit and approximate it as being circular).
- 19.** A rotating space station is said to create “artificial gravity”—a loosely-defined term used for an acceleration that would be crudely similar to gravity. The outer wall of the rotating space station would become a floor for the astronauts, and centripetal acceleration supplied by the floor would allow astronauts to exercise and maintain muscle and bone strength more naturally than in non-rotating space environments. If the space station is 200 m in diameter, what angular velocity would produce an “artificial gravity” of 9.80 m/s^2 at the rim?
- 20.** At takeoff, a commercial jet has a 60.0 m/s speed. Its tires have a diameter of 0.850 m.
- (a) At how many rev/min are the tires rotating?

- (b) What is the centripetal acceleration at the edge of the tire?
- (c) With what force must a determined $1.00 \times 10^{-15} \text{ kg}$ bacterium cling to the rim?
- (d) Take the ratio of this force to the bacterium's weight.

21. Integrated Concepts

Riders in an amusement park ride shaped like a Viking ship hung from a large pivot are rotated back and forth like a rigid pendulum. Sometime near the middle of the ride, the ship is momentarily motionless at the top of its circular arc. The ship then swings down under the influence of gravity. The speed at the bottom of the arc is 23.4 m/s.

- (a) What is the centripetal acceleration at the bottom of the arc?
- (b) Draw a free body diagram of the forces acting on a rider at the bottom of the arc.
- (c) Find the force exerted by the ride on a 60.0 kg rider and compare it to her weight.
- (d) Discuss whether the answer seems reasonable.

22. Unreasonable Results

A mother pushes her child on a swing so that his speed is 9.00 m/s at the lowest point of his path. The swing is suspended 2.00 m above the child's center of mass.

- (a) What is the magnitude of the centripetal acceleration of the child at the low point?
- (b) What is the magnitude of the force the child exerts on the seat if his mass is 18.0 kg?
- (c) What is unreasonable about these results?
- (d) Which premises are unreasonable or inconsistent?

6.3 Centripetal Force

- 23.** (a) A 22.0 kg child is riding a playground merry-go-round that is rotating at 40.0 rev/min. What centripetal force must she exert to stay on if she is 1.25 m from its center?
- (b) What centripetal force does she need to stay on an amusement park merry-go-round that rotates at 3.00 rev/min if she is 8.00 m from its center?
 - (c) Compare each force with her weight.
- 24.** Calculate the centripetal force on the end of a 100 m (radius) wind turbine blade that is rotating at 0.5 rev/s. Assume the mass is 4 kg.
- 25.** What is the ideal banking angle for a gentle turn of 1.20 km radius on a highway with a 105 km/h

speed limit (about 65 mi/h), assuming everyone travels at the limit?

26. What is the ideal speed to take a 100 m radius curve banked at a 20.0° angle?
27. (a) What is the radius of a bobsled turn banked at 75.0° and taken at 30.0 m/s, assuming it is ideally banked?
 (b) Calculate the centripetal acceleration.
 (c) Does this acceleration seem large to you?
28. Part of riding a bicycle involves leaning at the correct angle when making a turn, as seen in [Figure 6.33](#). To be stable, the force exerted by the ground must be on a line going through the center of gravity. The force on the bicycle wheel can be resolved into two perpendicular components—friction parallel to the road (this must supply the centripetal force), and the vertical normal force (which must equal the system's weight).
 (a) Show that θ (as defined in the figure) is related to the speed v and radius of curvature r of the turn in the same way as for an ideally banked roadway—that is, $\theta = \tan^{-1} v^2 / rg$
 (b) Calculate θ for a 12.0 m/s turn of radius 30.0 m (as in a race).

Free-body diagram

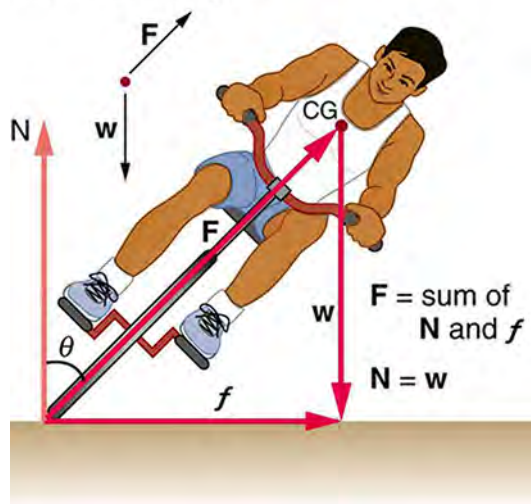
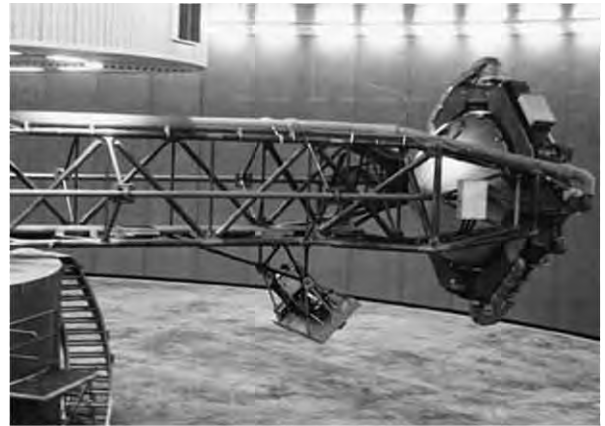


FIGURE 6.33 A bicyclist negotiating a turn on level ground must lean at the correct angle—the ability to do this becomes instinctive. The force of the ground on the wheel needs to be on a line through the center of gravity. The net external force on the system is the centripetal force. The vertical component of the force on the wheel cancels the weight of the system while its horizontal component must supply the centripetal force. This process produces a relationship among the angle θ , the speed v , and the radius of curvature r of the turn similar to that for the ideal banking of roadways.

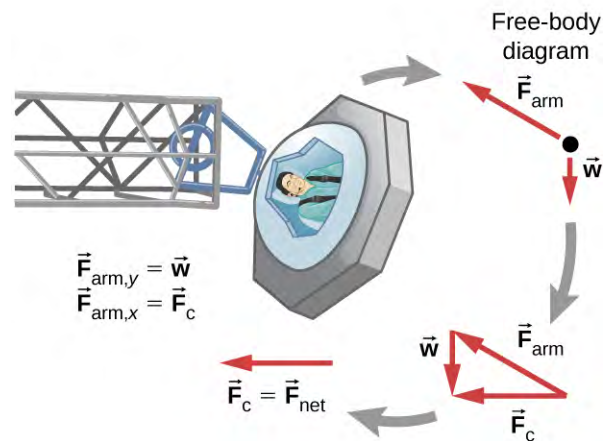
29. A large centrifuge, like the one shown in [Figure 6.34\(a\)](#),

is used to expose aspiring astronauts to accelerations similar to those experienced in rocket launches and atmospheric reentries.

- (a) At what angular velocity is the centripetal acceleration $10g$ if the rider is 15.0 m from the center of rotation?
- (b) The rider's cage hangs on a pivot at the end of the arm, allowing it to swing outward during rotation as shown in [Figure 6.34\(b\)](#). At what angle θ below the horizontal will the cage hang when the centripetal acceleration is $10g$? (Hint: The arm supplies centripetal force and supports the weight of the cage. Draw a free body diagram of the forces to see what the angle θ should be.)



(a)



(b)

FIGURE 6.34 (a) NASA centrifuge used to subject trainees to accelerations similar to those experienced in rocket launches and reentries. (credit: NASA) (b) Rider in cage showing how the cage pivots outward during rotation. This allows the total force exerted on the rider by the cage to be along its axis at all times.

30. Integrated Concepts

If a car takes a banked curve at less than the ideal speed, friction is needed to keep it from sliding

toward the inside of the curve (a real problem on icy mountain roads). (a) Calculate the ideal speed to take a 100 m radius curve banked at 15.0° . (b) What is the minimum coefficient of friction needed for a frightened driver to take the same curve at 20.0 km/h?

31. Modern roller coasters have vertical loops like the one shown in [Figure 6.35](#). The radius of curvature is smaller at the top than on the sides so that the downward centripetal acceleration at the top will be greater than the acceleration due to gravity, keeping the passengers pressed firmly into their seats. What is the speed of the roller coaster at the top of the loop if the radius of curvature there is 15.0 m and the downward acceleration of the car is $1.50 g$?

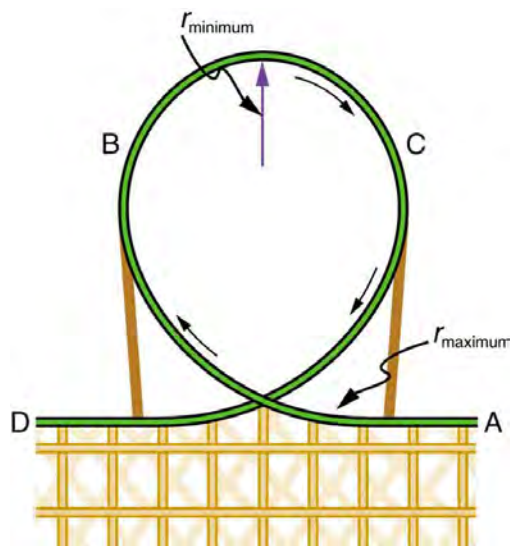


FIGURE 6.35 Teardrop-shaped loops are used in the latest roller coasters so that the radius of curvature gradually decreases to a minimum at the top. This means that the centripetal acceleration builds from zero to a maximum at the top and gradually decreases again. A circular loop would cause a jolting change in acceleration at entry, a disadvantage discovered long ago in railroad curve design. With a small radius of curvature at the top, the centripetal acceleration can more easily be kept greater than g so that the passengers do not lose contact with their seats nor do they need seat belts to keep them in place.

32. **Unreasonable Results**
 (a) Calculate the minimum coefficient of friction needed for a car to negotiate an unbanked 50.0 m radius curve at 30.0 m/s.
 (b) What is unreasonable about the result?
 (c) Which premises are unreasonable or inconsistent?

6.5 Newton's Universal Law of Gravitation

33. (a) Calculate Earth's mass given the acceleration due to gravity at the North Pole is 9.830 m/s^2 and

the radius of the Earth is 6371 km from center to pole.

(b) Compare this with the accepted value of $5.979 \times 10^{24} \text{ kg}$.

34. (a) Calculate the magnitude of the acceleration due to gravity on the surface of Earth due to the Moon.
 (b) Calculate the magnitude of the acceleration due to gravity at Earth due to the Sun.
 (c) Take the ratio of the Moon's acceleration to the Sun's and comment on why the tides are predominantly due to the Moon in spite of this number.
35. (a) What is the acceleration due to gravity on the surface of the Moon?
 (b) On the surface of Mars? The mass of Mars is $6.418 \times 10^{23} \text{ kg}$ and its radius is $3.38 \times 10^6 \text{ m}$.
36. (a) Calculate the acceleration due to gravity on the surface of the Sun.
 (b) By what factor would your weight increase if you could stand on the Sun? (Never mind that you cannot.)
37. The Moon and Earth rotate about their common center of mass, which is located about 4700 km from the center of Earth. (This is 1690 km below the surface.)
 (a) Calculate the magnitude of the acceleration due to the Moon's gravity at that point.
 (b) Calculate the magnitude of the centripetal acceleration of the center of Earth as it rotates about that point once each lunar month (about 27.3 d) and compare it with the acceleration found in part (a). Comment on whether or not they are equal and why they should or should not be.
38. Solve part (b) of [Example 6.6](#) using $a_c = v^2/r$.
39. (a) Calculate the magnitude of the gravitational force exerted on a 4.20 kg baby by a 100 kg father 0.200 m away at birth (he is assisting, so he is close to the child).
 (b) Calculate the magnitude of the force on the baby due to Jupiter if it is at its closest distance to Earth, some $6.29 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}$ away. How does the force of Jupiter on the baby compare to the force of the father on the baby? Other objects in the room and the hospital building also exert similar gravitational forces. (Of course, there could be an unknown force acting, but scientists first need to be convinced that there is even an effect, much less that an unknown force causes it.)
40. The existence of the dwarf planet Pluto was

proposed based on irregularities in Neptune's orbit. Pluto was subsequently discovered near its predicted position. But it now appears that the discovery was fortuitous, because Pluto is small and the irregularities in Neptune's orbit were not well known. To illustrate that Pluto has a minor effect on the orbit of Neptune compared with the closest planet to Neptune:

- (a) Calculate the acceleration due to gravity at Neptune due to Pluto when they are 4.50×10^{12} m apart, as they are at present. The mass of Pluto is 1.4×10^{22} kg.
 (b) Calculate the acceleration due to gravity at Neptune due to Uranus, presently about 2.50×10^{12} m apart, and compare it with that due to Pluto. The mass of Uranus is 8.62×10^{25} kg.

- 41.** (a) The Sun orbits the Milky Way galaxy once each 2.60×10^8 y, with a roughly circular orbit averaging 3.00×10^4 light years in radius. (A light year is the distance traveled by light in 1 y.) Calculate the centripetal acceleration of the Sun in its galactic orbit. Does your result support the contention that a nearly inertial frame of reference can be located at the Sun?
 (b) Calculate the average speed of the Sun in its galactic orbit. Does the answer surprise you?

42. Unreasonable Result

A mountain 10.0 km from a person exerts a gravitational force on him equal to 2.00% of his weight.
 (a) Calculate the mass of the mountain.
 (b) Compare the mountain's mass with that of Earth.
 (c) What is unreasonable about these results?
 (d) Which premises are unreasonable or inconsistent? (Note that accurate gravitational measurements can easily detect the effect of nearby mountains and variations in local geology.)

6.6 Satellites and Kepler's Laws: An Argument for Simplicity

- 43.** A geosynchronous Earth satellite is one that has an orbital period of precisely 1 day. Such orbits are useful for communication and weather observation because the satellite remains above the same point on Earth (provided it orbits in the equatorial plane in the same direction as Earth's rotation). Calculate the radius of such an orbit based on the data for the moon in [Table 6.2](#).
44. Calculate the mass of the Sun based on data for

Earth's orbit and compare the value obtained with the Sun's actual mass.

- 45.** Find the mass of Jupiter based on data for the orbit of one of its moons, and compare your result with its actual mass.
46. Find the ratio of the mass of Jupiter to that of Earth based on data in [Table 6.2](#).
47. Astronomical observations of our Milky Way galaxy indicate that it has a mass of about 8.0×10^{11} solar masses. A star orbiting on the galaxy's periphery is about 6.0×10^4 light years from its center. (a) What should the orbital period of that star be? (b) If its period is 6.0×10^7 years instead, what is the mass of the galaxy? Such calculations are used to imply the existence of "dark matter" in the universe and have indicated, for example, the existence of very massive black holes at the centers of some galaxies.
48. Integrated Concepts
 Space debris left from old satellites and their launchers is becoming a hazard to other satellites. (a) Calculate the speed of a satellite in an orbit 900 km above Earth's surface. (b) Suppose a loose rivet is in an orbit of the same radius that intersects the satellite's orbit at an angle of 90° relative to Earth. What is the velocity of the rivet relative to the satellite just before striking it? (c) Given the rivet is 3.00 mm in size, how long will its collision with the satellite last? (d) If its mass is 0.500 g, what is the average force it exerts on the satellite? (e) How much energy in joules is generated by the collision? (The satellite's velocity does not change appreciably, because its mass is much greater than the rivet's.)
49. Unreasonable Results
 (a) Based on Kepler's laws and information on the orbital characteristics of the Moon, calculate the orbital radius for an Earth satellite having a period of 1.00 h. (b) What is unreasonable about this result? (c) What is unreasonable or inconsistent about the premise of a 1.00 h orbit?
50. Construct Your Own Problem
 On February 14, 2000, the NEAR spacecraft was successfully inserted into orbit around Eros, becoming the first artificial satellite of an asteroid. Construct a problem in which you determine the orbital speed for a satellite near Eros. You will need to find the mass of the asteroid and consider such things as a safe distance for the orbit. Although Eros is not spherical, calculate the

acceleration due to gravity on its surface at a point an average distance from its center of mass. Your instructor may also wish to have you calculate the escape velocity from this point on Eros.

- 51. Critical Thinking** A car travels around a loop with negligible friction at a constant speed and never loses contact with the loop. The top of the loop is labeled A and the bottom of the loop is labeled B. (a) At what point would the normal force be greatest? Briefly explain your reasoning. (b) Based on experimental data, an equation that fits the

data is suggested for the normal force, F_N , which may not be correct: $F_N = Kr^{1/2}$, where K is a constant with appropriate units and r is the radius of the loop. Is this equation consistent with your answer from part a? Explain why or why not. Does this equation make sense? Explain why or why not. (c) Now the car travels around loops of various radii and the speed at which the car barely makes it around the loop is measured. Graph that speed vs. the radius of the loop.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

6.5 Newton's Universal Law of Gravitation

- Jupiter has a mass approximately 300 times greater than Earth's and a radius about 11 times greater. How will the gravitational acceleration at the surface of Jupiter compare to that at the surface of the Earth?
 - Greater
 - Less
 - About the same
 - Not enough information
- Given Newton's universal law of gravitation (Equation 6.40), under what circumstances is the force due to gravity maximized?
- In the formula $g = \frac{GM}{r^2}$, what does G represent?
 - The acceleration due to gravity
 - A gravitational constant that is the same everywhere in the universe
 - A gravitational constant that is inversely proportional to the radius
- The factor by which you multiply the inertial mass to obtain the gravitational mass
- Saturn's moon Titan has a radius of 2.58×10^6 m and a measured gravitational field of 1.35 m/s^2 . What is its mass?
- A recently discovered planet has a mass twice as great as Earth's and a radius twice as large as Earth's. What will be the approximate size of its gravitational field?
 - 19 m/s^2
 - 4.9 m/s^2
 - 2.5 m/s^2
 - 9.8 m/s^2
- Earth is 1.5×10^{11} m from the Sun. Mercury is 5.7×10^{10} m from the Sun. How does the gravitational field of the Sun on Mercury (g_{SM}) compare to the gravitational field of the Sun on Earth (g_{SE})?

CHAPTER 7

Work, Energy, and Energy Resources



FIGURE 7.1 How many forms of energy can you identify in this photograph of a wind farm in Iowa? (credit: Jürgen from Sandesneben, Germany, Wikimedia Commons)

CHAPTER OUTLINE

7.1 Work: The Scientific Definition

7.2 Kinetic Energy and the Work-Energy Theorem

7.3 Gravitational Potential Energy

7.4 Conservative Forces and Potential Energy

7.5 Nonconservative Forces

7.6 Conservation of Energy

7.7 Power

7.8 Work, Energy, and Power in Humans

7.9 World Energy Use

CONNECTION FOR AP® COURSES Energy plays an essential role both in everyday events and in scientific phenomena. You can no doubt name many forms of energy, from that provided by our foods to the energy we use to run our cars and the sunlight that warms us on the beach. You can also cite examples of what people call “energy” that may not be scientific, such as someone having an energetic personality. Not only does energy have many interesting forms, it is involved in almost all phenomena, and is one of the most important concepts of physics.

There is no simple and accurate scientific definition for energy. Energy is characterized by its many forms and the fact that it is conserved. We can loosely define energy as the ability to do **work**, admitting that in some circumstances not all energy is available to do work. Because of the association of energy with work, we begin the chapter with a discussion of work. Work is intimately related to energy and how energy moves from one system to another or changes form. The work-energy theorem supports Big Idea 3, that interactions between objects are described by forces. In particular, exerting a force on an object may do work on it, changing its energy (Enduring Understanding 3.E). The work-energy theorem, introduced in this chapter, establishes the relationship between work done on an object by an external force and changes in the object’s kinetic energy (Essential Knowledge 3.E.1).

Similarly, systems can do work on each other, supporting Big Idea 4, that interactions between systems can result in changes in those systems—in this case, changes in the total energy of the system (Enduring Understanding 4.C). The total energy of the system is the sum of its kinetic energy, potential energy, and microscopic internal energy (Essential Knowledge 4.C.1). In this chapter students learn how to calculate kinetic, gravitational, and elastic

potential energy in order to determine the total mechanical energy of a system. The transfer of mechanical energy into or out of a system is equal to the work done on the system by an external force with a nonzero component parallel to the displacement (Essential Knowledge 4.C.2).

An important aspect of energy is that the total amount of energy in the universe is constant. Energy can change forms, but it cannot appear from nothing or disappear without a trace. Energy is thus one of a handful of physical quantities that we say is “conserved.” **Conservation of energy** (as physicists call the principle that energy can neither be created nor destroyed) is based on experiment. Even as scientists discovered new forms of energy, conservation of energy has always been found to apply. Perhaps the most dramatic example of this was supplied by Einstein when he suggested that mass is equivalent to energy (his famous equation $E = mc^2$). This is one of the most important applications of Big Idea 5, that changes that occur as a result of interactions are constrained by conservation laws. Specifically, there are many situations where conservation of energy (Enduring Understanding 5.B) is both a useful concept and starting point for calculations related to the system. Note, however, that conservation doesn’t necessarily mean that energy in a system doesn’t change. Energy may be transferred into or out of the system, and the change must be equal to the amount transferred (Enduring Understanding 5.A). This may occur if there is an external force or a transfer between external objects and the system (Essential Knowledge 5.A.3). Energy is one of the fundamental quantities that are conserved for all systems (Essential Knowledge 5.A.2). The chapter introduces concepts of kinetic energy and potential energy. Kinetic energy is introduced as an energy of motion that can be changed by the amount of work done by an external force. Potential energy can only exist when objects interact with each other via conservative forces according to classical physics (Essential Knowledge 5.B.3). Because of this, a single object can only have kinetic energy and no potential energy (Essential Knowledge 5.B.1). The chapter also introduces the idea that the energy transfer is equal to the work done on the system by external forces and the rate of energy transfer is defined as power (Essential Knowledge 5.B.5).

From a societal viewpoint, energy is one of the major building blocks of modern civilization. Energy resources are key limiting factors to economic growth. The world use of energy resources, especially oil, continues to grow, with ominous consequences economically, socially, politically, and environmentally. We will briefly examine the world’s energy use patterns at the end of this chapter.

The concepts in this chapter support:

Big Idea 3 The interactions of an object with other objects can be described by forces.

Enduring Understanding 3.E A force exerted on an object can change the kinetic energy of the object.

Essential Knowledge 3.E.1 The change in the kinetic energy of an object depends on the force exerted on the object and on the displacement of the object during the interval that the force is exerted.

Big Idea 4 Interactions between systems can result in changes in those systems.

Enduring Understanding 4.C Interactions with other objects or systems can change the total energy of a system.

Essential Knowledge 4.C.1 The energy of a system includes its kinetic energy, potential energy, and microscopic internal energy. Examples should include gravitational potential energy, elastic potential energy, and kinetic energy.

Essential Knowledge 4.C.2 Mechanical energy (the sum of kinetic and potential energy) is transferred into or out of a system when an external force is exerted on a system such that a component of the force is parallel to its displacement. The process through which the energy is transferred is called work.

Big Idea 5 Changes that occur as a result of interactions are constrained by conservation laws.

Enduring Understanding 5.A Certain quantities are conserved, in the sense that the changes of those quantities in a given system are always equal to the transfer of that quantity to or from the system by all possible interactions with other systems.

Essential Knowledge 5.A.2 For all systems under all circumstances, energy, charge, linear momentum, and angular momentum are conserved.

Essential Knowledge 5.A.3 An interaction can be either a force exerted by objects outside the system or the transfer of some quantity with objects outside the system.

Enduring Understanding 5.B The energy of a system is conserved.

Essential Knowledge 5.B.1 Classically, an object can only have kinetic energy since potential energy requires an interaction between two or more objects.

Essential Knowledge 5.B.3 A system with internal structure can have potential energy. Potential energy exists within a system if the objects within that system interact with conservative forces.

Essential Knowledge 5.B.5 Energy can be transferred by an external force exerted on an object or system that moves the object or system through a distance; this energy transfer is called work. Energy transfer in mechanical or electrical systems may occur at different rates. Power is defined as the rate of energy transfer into, out of, or within a system.

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7.1 Work: The Scientific Definition

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain how an object must be displaced for a force on it to do work.
- Explain how relative directions of force and displacement determine whether the work done is positive, negative, or zero.

What It Means to Do Work

The scientific definition of work differs in some ways from its everyday meaning. Certain things we think of as hard work, such as writing an exam or carrying a heavy load on level ground, are not work as defined by a scientist. The scientific definition of work reveals its relationship to energy—whenever work is done, energy is transferred.

For work, in the scientific sense, to be done, a force must be exerted and there must be displacement in the direction of the force.

Formally, the **work** done on a system by a constant force is defined to be *the product of the component of the force in the direction of motion times the distance through which the force acts*. For one-way motion in one dimension, this is expressed in equation form as

$$W = |\mathbf{F}|(\cos \theta)|\mathbf{d}|, \quad 7.1$$

where W is work, $\mathbf{d}$ is the displacement of the system, and θ is the angle between the force vector $\mathbf{F}$ and the displacement vector $\mathbf{d}$, as in [Figure 7.2](#). We can also write this as

$$W = Fd \cos \theta. \quad 7.2$$

To find the work done on a system that undergoes motion that is not one-way or that is in two or three dimensions, we divide the motion into one-way one-dimensional segments and add up the work done over each segment.

WHAT IS WORK?

The work done on a system by a constant force is *the product of the component of the force in the direction of motion times the distance through which the force acts*. For one-way motion in one dimension, this is expressed in equation form as

$$W = Fd \cos \theta, \quad 7.3$$

where W is work, F is the magnitude of the force on the system, d is the magnitude of the displacement of the system, and θ is the angle between the force vector $\mathbf{F}$ and the displacement vector $\mathbf{d}$.

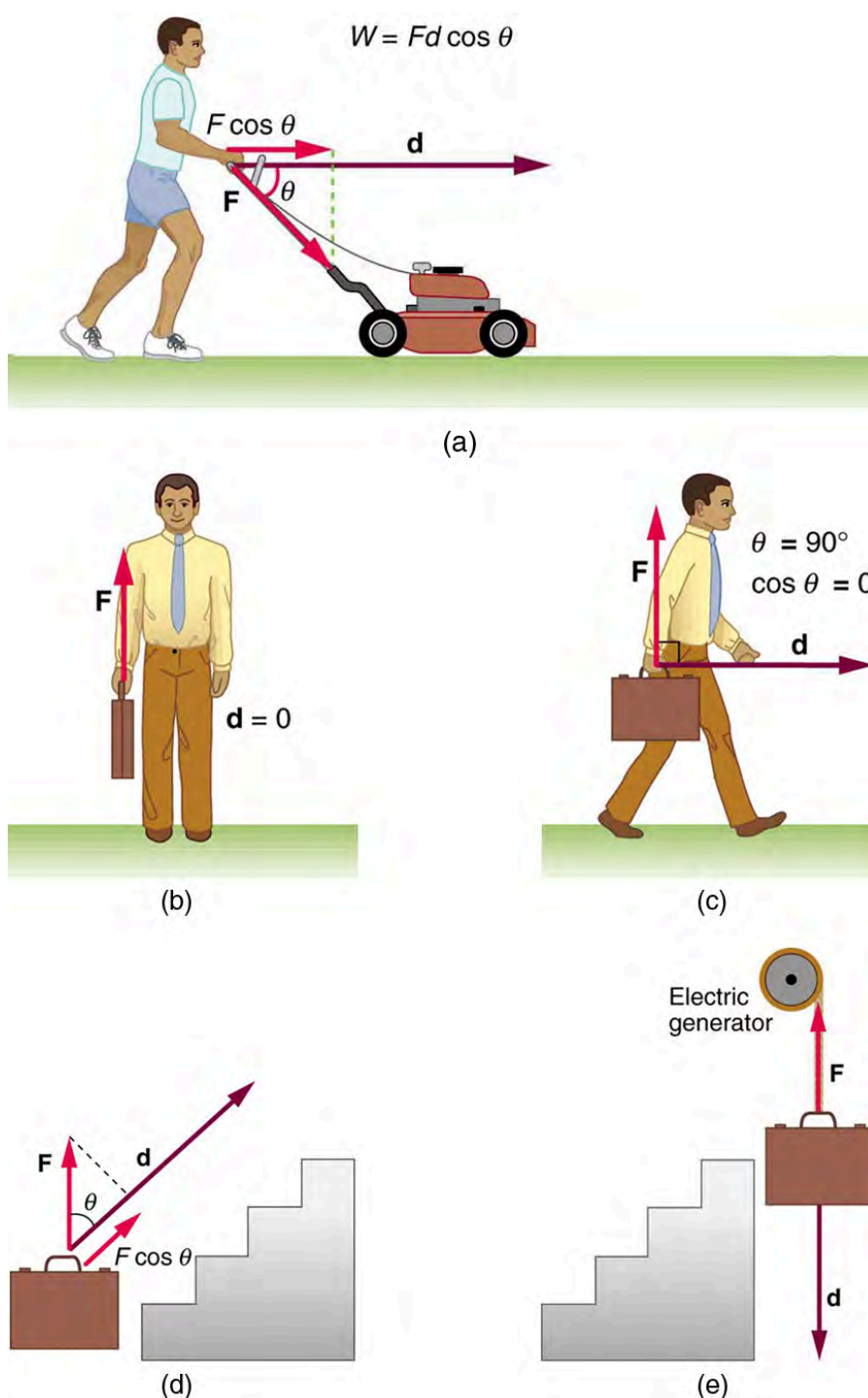


FIGURE 7.2 Examples of work. (a) The work done by the force $\mathbf{F}$ on this lawn mower is $Fd \cos \theta$. Note that $F \cos \theta$ is the component of the force in the direction of motion. (b) A person holding a briefcase does no work on it, because there is no displacement. No energy is transferred to or from the briefcase. (c) The person moving the briefcase horizontally at a constant speed does no work on it, and transfers no energy to it. (d) Work is done on the briefcase by carrying it up stairs at constant speed, because there is necessarily a component of force $\mathbf{F}$ in the direction of the motion. Energy is transferred to the briefcase and could in turn be used to do work. (e) When the briefcase is lowered, energy is transferred out of the briefcase and into an electric generator. Here the work done on the briefcase by the generator is negative, removing energy from the briefcase, because $\mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{d}$ are in opposite directions.

To examine what the definition of work means, let us consider the other situations shown in [Figure 7.2](#). The person holding the briefcase in [Figure 7.2\(b\)](#) does no work, for example. Here $d = 0$, so $W = 0$. Why is it you get tired just holding a load? The answer is that your muscles are doing work against one another, *but they are doing no work on the system of interest* (the “briefcase-Earth system”—see [Gravitational Potential Energy](#) for more details). There must be displacement for work to be done, and there must be a component of the force in the direction of the

motion. For example, the person carrying the briefcase on level ground in [Figure 7.2\(c\)](#) does no work on it, because the force is perpendicular to the motion. That is, $\cos 90^\circ = 0$, and so $W = 0$.

In contrast, when a force exerted on the system has a component in the direction of motion, such as in [Figure 7.2\(d\)](#), work *is* done—energy is transferred to the briefcase. Finally, in [Figure 7.2\(e\)](#), energy is transferred from the briefcase to a generator. There are two good ways to interpret this energy transfer. One interpretation is that the briefcase’s weight does work on the generator, giving it energy. The other interpretation is that the generator does negative work on the briefcase, thus removing energy from it. The drawing shows the latter, with the force from the generator upward on the briefcase, and the displacement downward. This makes $\theta = 180^\circ$, and $\cos 180^\circ = -1$; therefore, W is negative.

Calculating Work

Work and energy have the same units. From the definition of work, we see that those units are force times distance. Thus, in SI units, work and energy are measured in **newton-meters**. A newton-meter is given the special name **joule** (J), and $1 \text{ J} = 1 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m} = 1 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}^2$. One joule is not a large amount of energy; it would lift a small 100-gram apple a distance of about 1 meter.



EXAMPLE 7.1

Calculating the Work You Do to Push a Lawn Mower Across a Large Lawn

How much work is done on the lawn mower by the person in [Figure 7.2\(a\)](#) if he exerts a constant force of 75.0 N at an angle 35° below the horizontal and pushes the mower 25.0 m on level ground? Convert the amount of work from joules to kilocalories and compare it with this person’s average daily intake of 10,000 kJ (about 2400 kcal) of food energy. One *calorie* (1 cal) of heat is the amount required to warm 1 g of water by 1°C , and is equivalent to 4.186 J, while one *food calorie* (1 kcal) is equivalent to 4186 J.

Strategy

We can solve this problem by substituting the given values into the definition of work done on a system, stated in the equation $W = Fd \cos \theta$. The force, angle, and displacement are given, so that only the work W is unknown.

Solution

The equation for the work is

$$W = Fd \cos \theta. \quad 7.4$$

Substituting the known values gives

$$\begin{aligned} W &= (75.0 \text{ N})(25.0 \text{ m}) \cos (35.0^\circ) \\ &= 1536 \text{ J} = 1.54 \times 10^3 \text{ J}. \end{aligned} \quad 7.5$$

Converting the work in joules to kilocalories yields $W = (1536 \text{ J})(1 \text{ kcal}/4186 \text{ J}) = 0.367 \text{ kcal}$. The ratio of the work done to the daily consumption is

$$\frac{W}{2400 \text{ kcal}} = 1.53 \times 10^{-4}. \quad 7.6$$

Discussion

This ratio is a tiny fraction of what the person consumes, but it is typical. Very little of the energy released in the consumption of food is used to do work. Even when we “work” all day long, less than 10% of our food energy intake is used to do work and more than 90% is converted to thermal energy or stored as chemical energy in fat.

7.2 Kinetic Energy and the Work-Energy Theorem

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain work as a transfer of energy and net work as the work done by the net force.
- Explain and apply the work-energy theorem.

Work Transfers Energy

What happens to the work done on a system? Energy is transferred into the system, but in what form? Does it remain in the system or move on? The answers depend on the situation. For example, if the lawn mower in [Figure 7.2\(a\)](#) is pushed just hard enough to keep it going at a constant speed, then energy put into the mower by the person is removed continuously by friction, and eventually leaves the system in the form of heat transfer. In contrast, work done on the briefcase by the person carrying it up stairs in [Figure 7.2\(d\)](#) is stored in the briefcase-Earth system and can be recovered at any time, as shown in [Figure 7.2\(e\)](#). In fact, the building of the pyramids in ancient Egypt is an example of storing energy in a system by doing work on the system. Some of the energy imparted to the stone blocks in lifting them during construction of the pyramids remains in the stone-Earth system and has the potential to do work.

In this section we begin the study of various types of work and forms of energy. We will find that some types of work leave the energy of a system constant, for example, whereas others change the system in some way, such as making it move. We will also develop definitions of important forms of energy, such as the energy of motion.

Net Work and the Work-Energy Theorem

We know from the study of Newton's laws in [Dynamics: Force and Newton's Laws of Motion](#) that net force causes acceleration. We will see in this section that work done by the net force gives a system energy of motion, and in the process we will also find an expression for the energy of motion.

Let us start by considering the total, or net, work done on a system. Net work is defined to be the sum of work on an object. The net work can be written in terms of the net force on an object, $\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}}$. In equation form, this is $W_{\text{net}} = F_{\text{net}}d \cos \theta$ where θ is the angle between the force vector and the displacement vector.

[Figure 7.3\(a\)](#) shows a graph of force versus displacement for the component of the force in the direction of the displacement—that is, an $F \cos \theta$ vs. d graph. In this case, $F \cos \theta$ is constant. You can see that the area under the graph is $Fd \cos \theta$, or the work done. [Figure 7.3\(b\)](#) shows a more general process where the force varies. The area under the curve is divided into strips, each having an average force $(F \cos \theta)_{i(\text{ave})}$. The work done is $(F \cos \theta)_{i(\text{ave})} d_i$ for each strip, and the total work done is the sum of the W_i . Thus the total work done is the total area under the curve, a useful property to which we shall refer later.

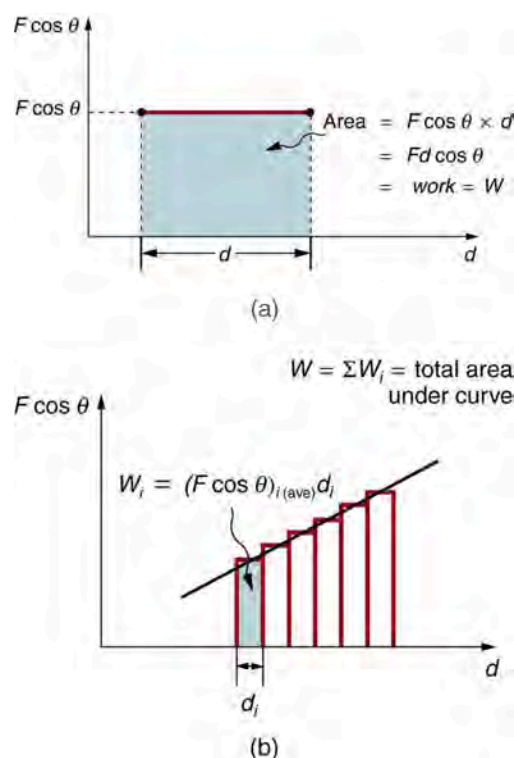


FIGURE 7.3 (a) A graph of $F \cos \theta$ vs. d , when $F \cos \theta$ is constant. The area under the curve represents the work done by the force. (b) A graph of $F \cos \theta$ vs. d in which the force varies. The work done for each interval is the area of each strip; thus, the total area under the curve equals the total work done.

Net work will be simpler to examine if we consider a one-dimensional situation where a force is used to accelerate an object in a direction parallel to its initial velocity. Such a situation occurs for the package on the roller belt conveyor system shown in [Figure 7.4](#).

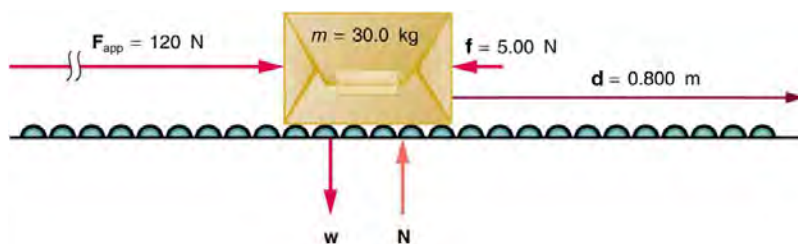


FIGURE 7.4 A package on a roller belt is pushed horizontally through a distance d .

The force of gravity and the normal force acting on the package are perpendicular to the displacement and do no work. Moreover, they are also equal in magnitude and opposite in direction so they cancel in calculating the net force. The net force arises solely from the horizontal applied force $\mathbf{F}_{\text{app}}$ and the horizontal friction force $\mathbf{f}$. Thus, as expected, the net force is parallel to the displacement, so that $\theta = 0^\circ$ and $\cos \theta = 1$, and the net work is given by

$$W_{\text{net}} = F_{\text{net}}d. \quad 7.7$$

The effect of the net force $\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}}$ is to accelerate the package from v_0 to v . The kinetic energy of the package increases, indicating that the net work done on the system is positive. (See [Example 7.2](#).) By using Newton's second law, and doing some algebra, we can reach an interesting conclusion. Substituting $F_{\text{net}} = ma$ from Newton's second law gives

$$W_{\text{net}} = mad. \quad 7.8$$

To get a relationship between net work and the speed given to a system by the net force acting on it, we take $d = x - x_0$ and use the equation studied in [Motion Equations for Constant Acceleration in One Dimension](#) for the change in speed over a distance d if the acceleration has the constant value a ; namely, $v^2 = v_0^2 + 2ad$ (note that a appears in the expression for the net work). Solving for acceleration gives $a = \frac{v^2 - v_0^2}{2d}$. When a is substituted into

the preceding expression for W_{net} , we obtain

$$W_{\text{net}} = m \left(\frac{v^2 - v_0^2}{2d} \right) d. \quad 7.9$$

The d cancels, and we rearrange this to obtain

$$W_{\text{net}} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{1}{2}mv_0^2. \quad 7.10$$

This expression is called the **work-energy theorem**, and it actually applies *in general* (even for forces that vary in direction and magnitude), although we have derived it for the special case of a constant force parallel to the displacement. The theorem implies that the net work on a system equals the change in the quantity $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$. This quantity is our first example of a form of energy.

THE WORK-ENERGY THEOREM

The net work on a system equals the change in the quantity $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$.

$$W_{\text{net}} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{1}{2}mv_0^2 \quad 7.11$$

The quantity $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ in the work-energy theorem is defined to be the translational **kinetic energy** (KE) of a mass m moving at a speed v . (*Translational* kinetic energy is distinct from *rotational* kinetic energy, which is considered later.) In equation form, the translational kinetic energy,

$$\text{KE} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2, \quad 7.12$$

is the energy associated with translational motion. Kinetic energy is a form of energy associated with the motion of a particle, single body, or system of objects moving together.

We are aware that it takes energy to get an object, like a car or the package in [Figure 7.4](#), up to speed, but it may be a bit surprising that kinetic energy is proportional to speed squared. This proportionality means, for example, that a car traveling at 100 km/h has four times the kinetic energy it has at 50 km/h, helping to explain why high-speed collisions are so devastating. We will now consider a series of examples to illustrate various aspects of work and energy.



EXAMPLE 7.2

Calculating the Kinetic Energy of a Package

Suppose a 30.0-kg package on the roller belt conveyor system in [Figure 7.4](#) is moving at 0.500 m/s. What is its kinetic energy?

Strategy

Because the mass m and speed v are given, the kinetic energy can be calculated from its definition as given in the equation $\text{KE} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$.

Solution

The kinetic energy is given by

$$\text{KE} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2. \quad 7.13$$

Entering known values gives

$$\text{KE} = 0.5(30.0 \text{ kg})(0.500 \text{ m/s})^2, \quad 7.14$$

which yields

$$KE = 3.75 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}^2 = 3.75 \text{ J.} \quad 7.15$$

Discussion

Note that the unit of kinetic energy is the joule, the same as the unit of work, as mentioned when work was first defined. It is also interesting that, although this is a fairly massive package, its kinetic energy is not large at this relatively low speed. This fact is consistent with the observation that people can move packages like this without exhausting themselves.

EXAMPLE 7.3

Determining the Work to Accelerate a Package

Suppose that you push on the 30.0-kg package in [Figure 7.4](#) with a constant force of 120 N through a distance of 0.800 m, and that the opposing friction force averages 5.00 N.

(a) Calculate the net work done on the package. (b) Solve the same problem as in part (a), this time by finding the work done by each force that contributes to the net force.

Strategy and Concept for (a)

This is a motion in one dimension problem, because the downward force (from the weight of the package) and the normal force have equal magnitude and opposite direction, so that they cancel in calculating the net force, while the applied force, friction, and the displacement are all horizontal. (See [Figure 7.4](#).) As expected, the net work is the net force times distance.

Solution for (a)

The net force is the push force minus friction, or $F_{\text{net}} = 120 \text{ N} - 5.00 \text{ N} = 115 \text{ N}$. Thus the net work is

$$\begin{aligned} W_{\text{net}} &= F_{\text{net}}d = (115 \text{ N})(0.800 \text{ m}) \\ &= 92.0 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m} = 92.0 \text{ J.} \end{aligned} \quad 7.16$$

Discussion for (a)

This value is the net work done on the package. The person actually does more work than this, because friction opposes the motion. Friction does negative work and removes some of the energy the person expends and converts it to thermal energy. The net work equals the sum of the work done by each individual force.

Strategy and Concept for (b)

The forces acting on the package are gravity, the normal force, the force of friction, and the applied force. The normal force and force of gravity are each perpendicular to the displacement, and therefore do no work.

Solution for (b)

The applied force does work.

$$\begin{aligned} W_{\text{app}} &= F_{\text{app}}d \cos(0^\circ) = F_{\text{app}}d \\ &= (120 \text{ N})(0.800 \text{ m}) \\ &= 96.0 \text{ J} \end{aligned} \quad 7.17$$

The friction force and displacement are in opposite directions, so that $\theta = 180^\circ$, and the work done by friction is

$$\begin{aligned} W_{\text{fr}} &= F_{\text{fr}}d \cos(180^\circ) = -F_{\text{fr}}d \\ &= -(5.00 \text{ N})(0.800 \text{ m}) \\ &= -4.00 \text{ J.} \end{aligned} \quad 7.18$$

So the amounts of work done by gravity, by the normal force, by the applied force, and by friction are, respectively,

$$\begin{aligned} W_{\text{gr}} &= 0, \\ W_{\text{N}} &= 0, \\ W_{\text{app}} &= 96.0 \text{ J}, \\ W_{\text{fr}} &= -4.00 \text{ J}. \end{aligned} \quad 7.19$$

The total work done as the sum of the work done by each force is then seen to be

$$W_{\text{total}} = W_{\text{gr}} + W_{\text{N}} + W_{\text{app}} + W_{\text{fr}} = 92.0 \text{ J}. \quad 7.20$$

Discussion for (b)

The calculated total work W_{total} as the sum of the work by each force agrees, as expected, with the work W_{net} done by the net force. The work done by a collection of forces acting on an object can be calculated by either approach.



EXAMPLE 7.4

Determining Speed from Work and Energy

Find the speed of the package in [Figure 7.4](#) at the end of the push, using work and energy concepts.

Strategy

Here the work-energy theorem can be used, because we have just calculated the net work, W_{net} , and the initial kinetic energy, $\frac{1}{2}mv_0^2$. These calculations allow us to find the final kinetic energy, $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$, and thus the final speed v .

Solution

The work-energy theorem in equation form is

$$W_{\text{net}} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{1}{2}mv_0^2. \quad 7.21$$

Solving for $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ gives

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = W_{\text{net}} + \frac{1}{2}mv_0^2. \quad 7.22$$

Thus,

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = 92.0 \text{ J} + 3.75 \text{ J} = 95.75 \text{ J}. \quad 7.23$$

Solving for the final speed as requested and entering known values gives

$$\begin{aligned} v &= \sqrt{\frac{2(95.75 \text{ J})}{m}} = \sqrt{\frac{191.5 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}^2}{30.0 \text{ kg}}} \\ &= 2.53 \text{ m/s}. \end{aligned} \quad 7.24$$

Discussion

Using work and energy, we not only arrive at an answer, we see that the final kinetic energy is the sum of the initial kinetic energy and the net work done on the package. This means that the work indeed adds to the energy of the package.

EXAMPLE 7.5

Work and Energy Can Reveal Distance, Too

How far does the package in [Figure 7.4](#) coast after the push, assuming friction remains constant? Use work and energy considerations.

Strategy

We know that once the person stops pushing, friction will bring the package to rest. In terms of energy, friction does negative work until it has removed all of the package's kinetic energy. The work done by friction is the force of friction times the distance traveled times the cosine of the angle between the friction force and displacement; hence, this gives us a way of finding the distance traveled after the person stops pushing.

Solution

The normal force and force of gravity cancel in calculating the net force. The horizontal friction force is then the net force, and it acts opposite to the displacement, so $\theta = 180^\circ$. To reduce the kinetic energy of the package to zero, the work W_{fr} by friction must be minus the kinetic energy that the package started with plus what the package accumulated due to the pushing. Thus $W_{\text{fr}} = -95.75 \text{ J}$. Furthermore, $W_{\text{fr}} = f d' \cos \theta = -f d'$, where d' is the distance it takes to stop. Thus,

$$d' = -\frac{W_{\text{fr}}}{f} = -\frac{-95.75 \text{ J}}{5.00 \text{ N}}, \quad 7.25$$

and so

$$d' = 19.2 \text{ m}. \quad 7.26$$

Discussion

This is a reasonable distance for a package to coast on a relatively friction-free conveyor system. Note that the work done by friction is negative (the force is in the opposite direction of motion), so it removes the kinetic energy.

Some of the examples in this section can be solved without considering energy, but at the expense of missing out on gaining insights about what work and energy are doing in this situation. On the whole, solutions involving energy are generally shorter and easier than those using kinematics and dynamics alone.

7.3 Gravitational Potential Energy

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain gravitational potential energy in terms of work done against gravity.
- Show that the gravitational potential energy of an object of mass m at height h on Earth is given by $\text{PE}_g = mgh$.
- Show how knowledge of the potential energy as a function of position can be used to simplify calculations and explain physical phenomena.

Work Done Against Gravity

Climbing stairs and lifting objects is work in both the scientific and everyday sense—it is work done against the gravitational force. When there is work, there is a transformation of energy. The work done against the gravitational force goes into an important form of stored energy that we will explore in this section.

Let us calculate the work done in lifting an object of mass m through a height h , such as in [Figure 7.5](#). If the object is lifted straight up at constant speed, then the force needed to lift it is equal to its weight mg . The work done on the mass is then $W = Fd = mgh$. We define this to be the **gravitational potential energy** (PE_g) put into (or gained by) the object-Earth system. This energy is associated with the state of separation between two objects that attract each other by the gravitational force. For convenience, we refer to this as the PE_g gained by the object, recognizing

that this is energy stored in the gravitational field of Earth. Why do we use the word “system”? Potential energy is a property of a system rather than of a single object—due to its physical position. An object’s gravitational potential is due to its position relative to the surroundings within the Earth-object system. The force applied to the object is an external force, from outside the system. When it does positive work it increases the gravitational potential energy of the system. Because gravitational potential energy depends on relative position, we need a reference level at which to set the potential energy equal to 0. We usually choose this point to be Earth’s surface, but this point is arbitrary; what is important is the *difference* in gravitational potential energy, because this difference is what relates to the work done. The difference in gravitational potential energy of an object (in the Earth-object system) between two rungs of a ladder will be the same for the first two rungs as for the last two rungs.

Converting Between Potential Energy and Kinetic Energy

Gravitational potential energy may be converted to other forms of energy, such as kinetic energy. If we release the mass, gravitational force will do an amount of work equal to mgh on it, thereby increasing its kinetic energy by that same amount (by the work-energy theorem). We will find it more useful to consider just the conversion of PE_g to KE without explicitly considering the intermediate step of work. (See [Example 7.7](#).) This shortcut makes it easier to solve problems using energy (if possible) rather than explicitly using forces.

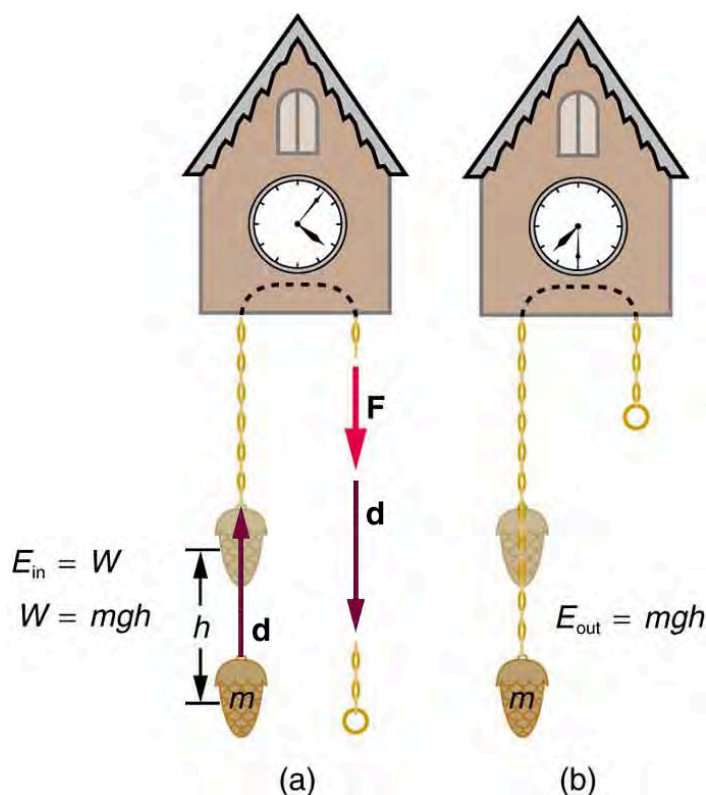


FIGURE 7.5 (a) The work done to lift the weight is stored in the mass-Earth system as gravitational potential energy. (b) As the weight moves downward, this gravitational potential energy is transferred to the cuckoo clock.

More precisely, we define the *change* in gravitational potential energy ΔPE_g to be

$$\Delta PE_g = mgh, \quad 7.27$$

where, for simplicity, we denote the change in height by h rather than the usual Δh . Note that h is positive when the final height is greater than the initial height, and vice versa. For example, if a 0.500-kg mass hung from a cuckoo clock is raised 1.00 m, then its change in gravitational potential energy is

$$\begin{aligned} mgh &= (0.500 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(1.00 \text{ m}) \\ &= 4.90 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}^2 = 4.90 \text{ J}. \end{aligned} \quad 7.28$$

Note that the units of gravitational potential energy turn out to be joules, the same as for work and other forms of energy. As the clock runs, the mass is lowered. We can think of the mass as gradually giving up its 4.90 J of

gravitational potential energy, *without directly considering the force of gravity that does the work.*

Using Potential Energy to Simplify Calculations

The equation $\Delta PE_g = mgh$ applies for any path that has a change in height of h , not just when the mass is lifted straight up. (See [Figure 7.6](#).) It is much easier to calculate mgh (a simple multiplication) than it is to calculate the work done along a complicated path. The idea of gravitational potential energy has the double advantage that it is very broadly applicable and it makes calculations easier. From now on, we will consider that any change in vertical position h of a mass m is accompanied by a change in gravitational potential energy mgh , and we will avoid the equivalent but more difficult task of calculating work done by or against the gravitational force.

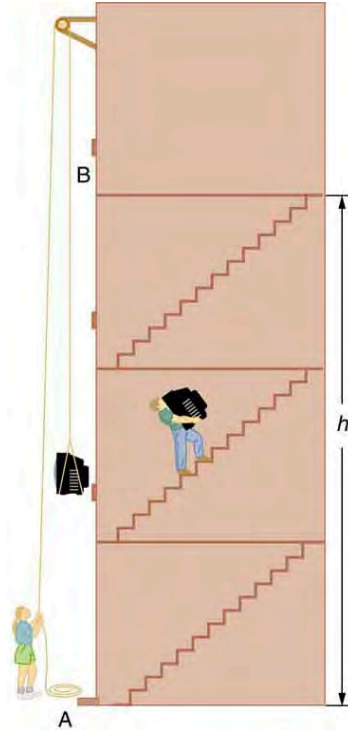


FIGURE 7.6 The change in gravitational potential energy (ΔPE_g) between points A and B is independent of the path. $\Delta PE_g = mgh$ for any path between the two points. Gravity is one of a small class of forces where the work done by or against the force depends only on the starting and ending points, not on the path between them.

EXAMPLE 7.6

The Force to Stop Falling

A 60.0-kg person jumps onto the floor from a height of 3.00 m. If he lands stiffly (with his knee joints compressing by 0.500 cm), calculate the force on the knee joints.

Strategy

This person's energy is brought to zero in this situation by the work done on him by the floor as he stops. The initial PE_g is transformed into KE as he falls. The work done by the floor reduces this kinetic energy to zero.

Solution

The work done on the person by the floor as he stops is given by

$$W = Fd \cos \theta = -Fd, \quad 7.29$$

with a minus sign because the displacement while stopping and the force from floor are in opposite directions ($\cos \theta = \cos 180^\circ = -1$). The floor removes energy from the system, so it does negative work.

The kinetic energy the person has upon reaching the floor is the amount of potential energy lost by falling through

height h :

$$KE = -\Delta PE_g = -mgh, \quad 7.30$$

The distance d that the person's knees bend is much smaller than the height h of the fall, so the additional change in gravitational potential energy during the knee bend is ignored.

The work W done by the floor on the person stops the person and brings the person's kinetic energy to zero:

$$W = -KE = mgh. \quad 7.31$$

Combining this equation with the expression for W gives

$$-Fd = mgh. \quad 7.32$$

Recalling that h is negative because the person fell *down*, the force on the knee joints is given by

$$F = -\frac{mgh}{d} = -\frac{(60.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(-3.00 \text{ m})}{5.00 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}} = 3.53 \times 10^5 \text{ N}. \quad 7.33$$

Discussion

Such a large force (500 times more than the person's weight) over the short impact time is enough to break bones. A much better way to cushion the shock is by bending the legs or rolling on the ground, increasing the time over which the force acts. A bending motion of 0.5 m this way yields a force 100 times smaller than in the example. A kangaroo's hopping shows this method in action. The kangaroo is the only large animal to use hopping for locomotion, but the shock in hopping is cushioned by the bending of its hind legs in each jump. (See [Figure 7.7](#).)



FIGURE 7.7 The work done by the ground upon the kangaroo reduces its kinetic energy to zero as it lands. However, by applying the force of the ground on the hind legs over a longer distance, the impact on the bones is reduced. (credit: Chris Samuel, Flickr)



EXAMPLE 7.7

Finding the Speed of a Roller Coaster from its Height

(a) What is the final speed of the roller coaster shown in [Figure 7.8](#) if it starts from rest at the top of the 20.0 m hill and work done by frictional forces is negligible? (b) What is its final speed (again assuming negligible friction) if its initial speed is 5.00 m/s?

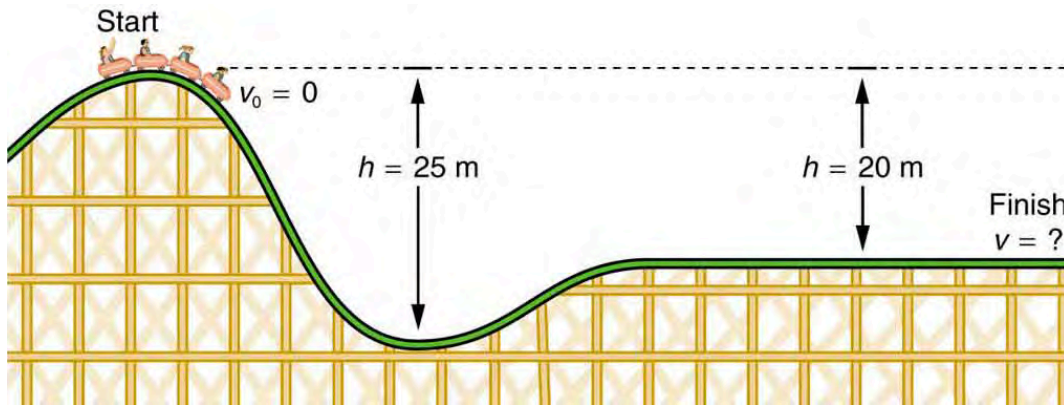


FIGURE 7.8 The speed of a roller coaster increases as gravity pulls it downhill and is greatest at its lowest point. Viewed in terms of energy, the roller-coaster-Earth system's gravitational potential energy is converted to kinetic energy. If work done by friction is negligible, all ΔPE_g is converted to KE.

Strategy

The roller coaster loses potential energy as it goes downhill. We neglect friction, so that the remaining force exerted by the track is the normal force, which is perpendicular to the direction of motion and does no work. The net work on the roller coaster is then done by gravity alone. The *loss* of gravitational potential energy from moving *downward* through a distance h equals the *gain* in kinetic energy. This can be written in equation form as $-\Delta PE_g = \Delta KE$. Using the equations for PE_g and KE, we can solve for the final speed v , which is the desired quantity.

Solution for (a)

Here the initial kinetic energy is zero, so that $\Delta KE = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$. The equation for change in potential energy states that $\Delta PE_g = mgh$. Since h is negative in this case, we will rewrite this as $\Delta PE_g = -mg|h|$ to show the minus sign clearly. Thus,

$$-\Delta PE_g = \Delta KE \quad 7.34$$

becomes

$$mg|h| = \frac{1}{2}mv^2. \quad 7.35$$

Solving for v , we find that mass cancels and that

$$v = \sqrt{2g|h|}. \quad 7.36$$

Substituting known values,

$$\begin{aligned} v &= \sqrt{2(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(20.0 \text{ m})} \\ &= 19.8 \text{ m/s.} \end{aligned} \quad 7.37$$

Solution for (b)

Again $-\Delta PE_g = \Delta KE$. In this case there is initial kinetic energy, so $\Delta KE = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{1}{2}mv_0^2$. Thus,

$$mg|h| = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{1}{2}mv_0^2. \quad 7.38$$

Rearranging gives

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = mg|h| + \frac{1}{2}mv_0^2. \quad 7.39$$

This means that the final kinetic energy is the sum of the initial kinetic energy and the gravitational potential energy. Mass again cancels, and

$$v = \sqrt{2g|h| + v_0^2}. \quad 7.40$$

This equation is very similar to the kinematics equation $v = \sqrt{v_0^2 + 2ad}$, but it is more general—the kinematics equation is valid only for constant acceleration, whereas our equation above is valid for any path regardless of whether the object moves with a constant acceleration. Now, substituting known values gives

$$\begin{aligned} v &= \sqrt{2(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(20.0 \text{ m}) + (5.00 \text{ m/s})^2} \\ &= 20.4 \text{ m/s}. \end{aligned} \quad 7.41$$

Discussion and Implications

First, note that mass cancels. This is quite consistent with observations made in [Falling Objects](#) that all objects fall at the same rate if friction is negligible. Second, only the speed of the roller coaster is considered; there is no information about its direction at any point. This reveals another general truth. When friction is negligible, the speed of a falling body depends only on its initial speed and height, and not on its mass or the path taken. For example, the roller coaster will have the same final speed whether it falls 20.0 m straight down or takes a more complicated path like the one in the figure. Third, and perhaps unexpectedly, the final speed in part (b) is greater than in part (a), but by far less than 5.00 m/s. Finally, note that speed can be found at *any* height along the way by simply using the appropriate value of h at the point of interest.

We have seen that work done by or against the gravitational force depends only on the starting and ending points, and not on the path between, allowing us to define the simplifying concept of gravitational potential energy. We can do the same thing for a few other forces, and we will see that this leads to a formal definition of the law of conservation of energy.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME INVESTIGATION—CONVERTING POTENTIAL TO KINETIC ENERGY

One can study the conversion of gravitational potential energy into kinetic energy in this experiment. On a smooth, level surface, use a ruler of the kind that has a groove running along its length and a book to make an incline (see [Figure 7.9](#)). Place a marble at the 10-cm position on the ruler and let it roll down the ruler. When it hits the level surface, measure the time it takes to roll one meter. Now place the marble at the 20-cm and the 30-cm positions and again measure the times it takes to roll 1 m on the level surface. Find the velocity of the marble on the level surface for all three positions. Plot velocity squared versus the distance traveled by the marble. What is the shape of each plot? If the shape is a straight line, the plot shows that the marble's kinetic energy at the bottom is proportional to its potential energy at the release point.

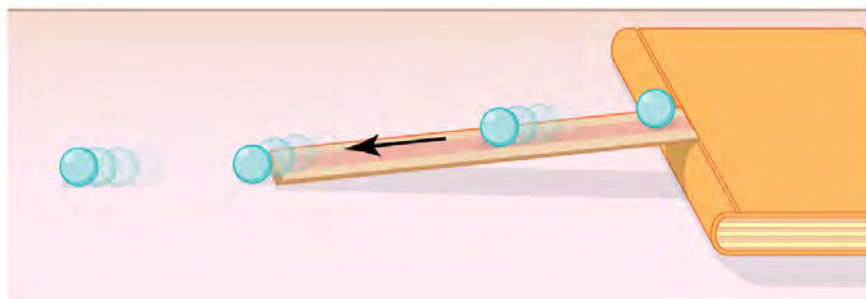


FIGURE 7.9 A marble rolls down a ruler, and its speed on the level surface is measured.

7.4 Conservative Forces and Potential Energy

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define conservative force, potential energy, and mechanical energy.
- Explain the potential energy of a spring in terms of its compression when Hooke's law applies.
- Use the work-energy theorem to show how having only conservative forces implies conservation of mechanical energy.

Potential Energy and Conservative Forces

Work is done by a force, and some forces, such as weight, have special characteristics. A **conservative force** is one, like the gravitational force, for which work done by or against it depends only on the starting and ending points of a motion and not on the path taken. We can define a **potential energy** (PE) for any conservative force, just as we did for the gravitational force. For example, when you wind up a toy, an egg timer, or an old-fashioned watch, you do work against its spring and store energy in it. (We treat these springs as ideal, in that we assume there is no friction and no production of thermal energy.) This stored energy is recoverable as work, and it is useful to think of it as potential energy contained in the spring. Indeed, the reason that the spring has this characteristic is that its force is *conservative*. That is, a conservative force results in stored or potential energy. Gravitational potential energy is one example, as is the energy stored in a spring. We will also see how conservative forces are related to the conservation of energy.

POTENTIAL ENERGY AND CONSERVATIVE FORCES

Potential energy is the energy a system has due to position, shape, or configuration. It is stored energy that is completely recoverable.

A conservative force is one for which work done by or against it depends only on the starting and ending points of a motion and not on the path taken.

We can define a potential energy (PE) for any conservative force. The work done against a conservative force to reach a final configuration depends on the configuration, not the path followed, and is the potential energy added.

Potential Energy of a Spring

First, let us obtain an expression for the potential energy stored in a spring (PE_s). We calculate the work done to stretch or compress a spring that obeys Hooke's law. (Hooke's law was examined in [Elasticity: Stress and Strain](#), and states that the magnitude of force F on the spring and the resulting deformation ΔL are proportional, $F = k\Delta L$.) (See [Figure 7.10](#).) For our spring, we will replace ΔL (the amount of deformation produced by a force F) by the distance x that the spring is stretched or compressed along its length. So the force needed to stretch the spring has magnitude $F = kx$, where k is the spring's force constant. The force increases linearly from 0 at the start to kx in the fully stretched position. The average force is $kx/2$. Thus the work done in stretching or compressing the spring is $W_s = Fd = (\frac{kx}{2})x = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$. Alternatively, we noted in [Kinetic Energy and the Work-Energy Theorem](#) that the area under a graph of F vs. x is the work done by the force. In [Figure 7.10\(c\)](#) we see that this area is also $\frac{1}{2}kx^2$. We therefore define the **potential energy of a spring**, PE_s , to be

$$PE_s = \frac{1}{2}kx^2, \quad 7.42$$

where k is the spring's force constant and x is the displacement from its undeformed position. The potential energy represents the work done *on* the spring and the energy stored in it as a result of stretching or compressing it a distance x . The potential energy of the spring PE_s does not depend on the path taken; it depends only on the stretch or squeeze x in the final configuration.

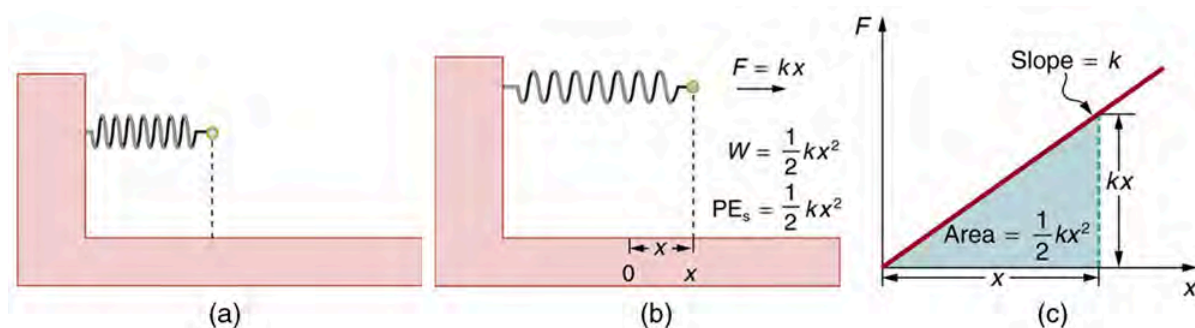


FIGURE 7.10 (a) An undeformed spring has no PE_s stored in it. (b) The force needed to stretch (or compress) the spring a distance x has a magnitude $F = kx$, and the work done to stretch (or compress) it is $\frac{1}{2}kx^2$. Because the force is conservative, this work is stored as potential energy (PE_s) in the spring, and it can be fully recovered. (c) A graph of F vs. x has a slope of k , and the area under the graph is $\frac{1}{2}kx^2$. Thus the work done or potential energy stored is $\frac{1}{2}kx^2$.

The equation $PE_s = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$ has general validity beyond the special case for which it was derived. Potential energy can be stored in any elastic medium by deforming it. Indeed, the general definition of **potential energy** is energy due to position, shape, or configuration. For shape or position deformations, stored energy is $PE_s = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$, where k is the force constant of the particular system and x is its deformation. Another example is seen in [Figure 7.11](#) for a guitar string.

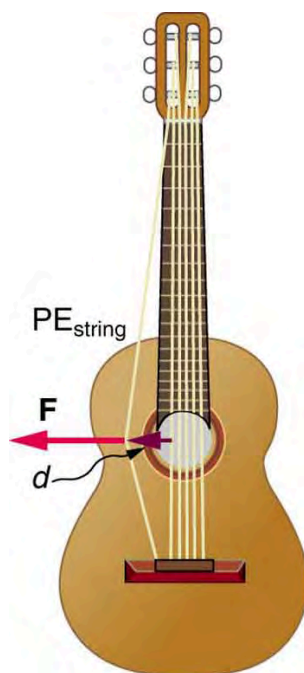


FIGURE 7.11 Work is done to deform the guitar string, giving it potential energy. When released, the potential energy is converted to kinetic energy and back to potential as the string oscillates back and forth. A very small fraction is dissipated as sound energy, slowly removing energy from the string.

Conservation of Mechanical Energy

Let us now consider what form the work-energy theorem takes when only conservative forces are involved. This will lead us to the conservation of energy principle. The work-energy theorem states that the net work done by all forces acting on a system equals its change in kinetic energy. In equation form, this is

$$W_{\text{net}} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{1}{2}mv_0^2 = \Delta KE. \quad 7.43$$

If only conservative forces act, then

$$W_{\text{net}} = W_c, \quad 7.44$$

where W_c is the total work done by all conservative forces. Thus,

$$W_c = \Delta KE. \quad 7.45$$

Now, if the conservative force, such as the gravitational force or a spring force, does work, the system loses potential energy. That is, $W_c = -\Delta PE$. Therefore,

$$-\Delta PE = \Delta KE \quad 7.46$$

or

$$\Delta KE + \Delta PE = 0. \quad 7.47$$

This equation means that the total kinetic and potential energy is constant for any process involving only conservative forces. That is,

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} KE + PE = \text{constant} \\ \text{or} \\ KE_i + PE_i = KE_f + PE_f \end{array} \right\} \text{(conservative forces only),} \quad 7.48$$

where i and f denote initial and final values. This equation is a form of the work-energy theorem for conservative forces; it is known as the **conservation of mechanical energy** principle. Remember that this applies to the extent that all the forces are conservative, so that friction is negligible. The total kinetic plus potential energy of a system is defined to be its **mechanical energy**, $(KE + PE)$. In a system that experiences only conservative forces, there is a potential energy associated with each force, and the energy only changes form between KE and the various types of PE, with the total energy remaining constant.

EXAMPLE 7.8

Using Conservation of Mechanical Energy to Calculate the Speed of a Toy Car

A 0.100-kg toy car is propelled by a compressed spring, as shown in [Figure 7.12](#). The car follows a track that rises 0.180 m above the starting point. The spring is compressed 4.00 cm and has a force constant of 250.0 N/m. Assuming work done by friction to be negligible, find (a) how fast the car is going before it starts up the slope and (b) how fast it is going at the top of the slope.

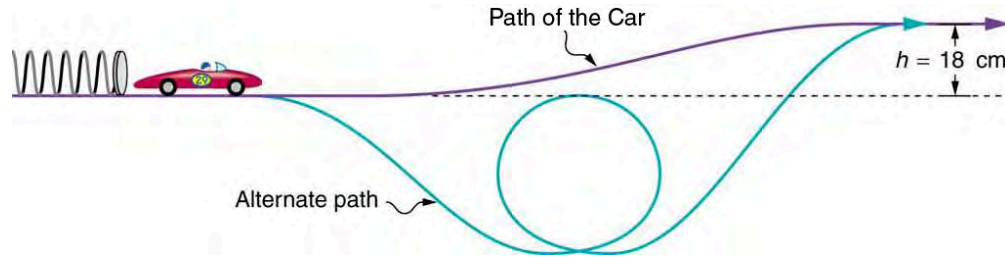


FIGURE 7.12 A toy car is pushed by a compressed spring and coasts up a slope. Assuming negligible friction, the potential energy in the spring is first completely converted to kinetic energy, and then to a combination of kinetic and gravitational potential energy as the car rises. The details of the path are unimportant because all forces are conservative—the car would have the same final speed if it took the alternate path shown.

Strategy

The spring force and the gravitational force are conservative forces, so conservation of mechanical energy can be used. Thus,

$$KE_i + PE_i = KE_f + PE_f \quad 7.49$$

or

$$\frac{1}{2}mv_i^2 + mgh_i + \frac{1}{2}kx_i^2 = \frac{1}{2}mv_f^2 + mgh_f + \frac{1}{2}kx_f^2, \quad 7.50$$

where h is the height (vertical position) and x is the compression of the spring. This general statement looks complex but becomes much simpler when we start considering specific situations. First, we must identify the initial

and final conditions in a problem; then, we enter them into the last equation to solve for an unknown.

Solution for (a)

This part of the problem is limited to conditions just before the car is released and just after it leaves the spring. Take the initial height to be zero, so that both h_i and h_f are zero. Furthermore, the initial speed v_i is zero and the final compression of the spring x_f is zero, and so several terms in the conservation of mechanical energy equation are zero and it simplifies to

$$\frac{1}{2}kx_i^2 = \frac{1}{2}mv_f^2. \quad 7.51$$

In other words, the initial potential energy in the spring is converted completely to kinetic energy in the absence of friction. Solving for the final speed and entering known values yields

$$\begin{aligned} v_f &= \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}x_i} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{250.0 \text{ N/m}}{0.100 \text{ kg}}}(0.0400 \text{ m}) \\ &= 2.00 \text{ m/s}. \end{aligned} \quad 7.52$$

Solution for (b)

One method of finding the speed at the top of the slope is to consider conditions just before the car is released and just after it reaches the top of the slope, completely ignoring everything in between. Doing the same type of analysis to find which terms are zero, the conservation of mechanical energy becomes

$$\frac{1}{2}kx_i^2 = \frac{1}{2}mv_f^2 + mgh_f. \quad 7.53$$

This form of the equation means that the spring's initial potential energy is converted partly to gravitational potential energy and partly to kinetic energy. The final speed at the top of the slope will be less than at the bottom. Solving for v_f and substituting known values gives

$$\begin{aligned} v_f &= \sqrt{\frac{kx_i^2}{m} - 2gh_f} \\ &= \sqrt{\left(\frac{250.0 \text{ N/m}}{0.100 \text{ kg}}\right)(0.0400 \text{ m})^2 - 2(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(0.180 \text{ m})} \\ &= 0.687 \text{ m/s}. \end{aligned} \quad 7.54$$

Discussion

Another way to solve this problem is to realize that the car's kinetic energy before it goes up the slope is converted partly to potential energy—that is, to take the final conditions in part (a) to be the initial conditions in part (b).

Note that, for conservative forces, we do not directly calculate the work they do; rather, we consider their effects through their corresponding potential energies, just as we did in [Example 7.8](#). Note also that we do not consider details of the path taken—only the starting and ending points are important (as long as the path is not impossible). This assumption is usually a tremendous simplification, because the path may be complicated and forces may vary along the way.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Energy Skate Park

Learn about conservation of energy with a skater dude! Build tracks, ramps and jumps for the skater and view the kinetic energy, potential energy and friction as he moves. You can also take the skater to different planets or even space!

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7.5 Nonconservative Forces

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define nonconservative forces and explain how they affect mechanical energy.
- Show how the principle of conservation of energy can be applied by treating the conservative forces in terms of their potential energies and any nonconservative forces in terms of the work they do.

Nonconservative Forces and Friction

Forces are either conservative or nonconservative. Conservative forces were discussed in [Conservative Forces and Potential Energy](#). A **nonconservative force** is one for which work depends on the path taken. Friction is a good example of a nonconservative force. As illustrated in [Figure 7.13](#), work done against friction depends on the length of the path between the starting and ending points. Because of this dependence on path, there is no potential energy associated with nonconservative forces. An important characteristic is that the work done by a nonconservative force *adds or removes mechanical energy from a system*. **Friction**, for example, creates **thermal energy** that dissipates, removing energy from the system. Furthermore, even if the thermal energy is retained or captured, it cannot be fully converted back to work, so it is lost or not recoverable in that sense as well.

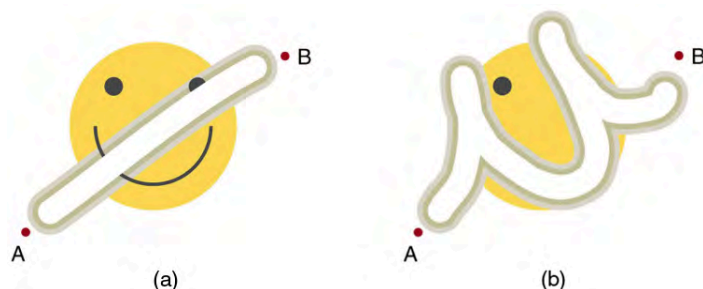


FIGURE 7.13 The amount of the happy face erased depends on the path taken by the eraser between points A and B, as does the work done against friction. Less work is done and less of the face is erased for the path in (a) than for the path in (b). The force here is friction, and most of the work goes into thermal energy that subsequently leaves the system (the happy face plus the eraser). The energy expended cannot be fully recovered.

How Nonconservative Forces Affect Mechanical Energy

Mechanical energy may not be conserved when nonconservative forces act. For example, when a car is brought to a stop by friction on level ground, it loses kinetic energy, which is dissipated as thermal energy, reducing its mechanical energy. [Figure 7.14](#) compares the effects of conservative and nonconservative forces. We often choose to understand simpler systems such as that described in [Figure 7.14\(a\)](#) first before studying more complicated systems as in [Figure 7.14\(b\)](#).

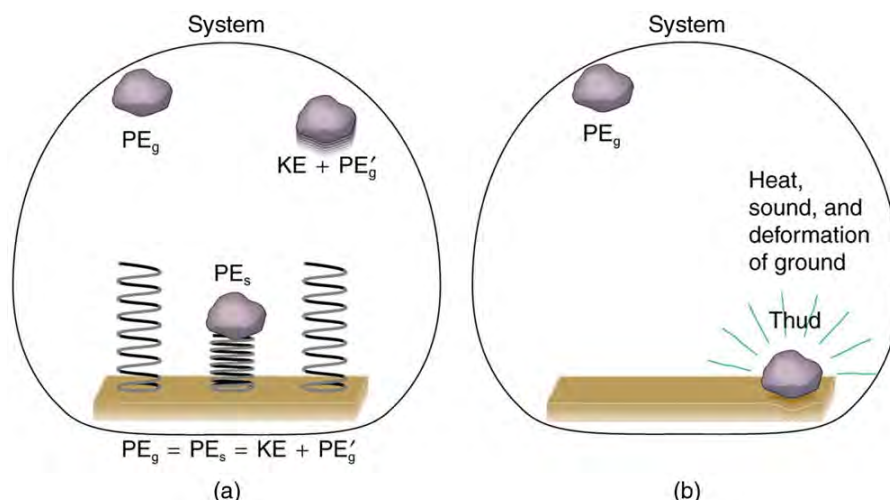


FIGURE 7.14 Comparison of the effects of conservative and nonconservative forces on the mechanical energy of a system. (a) A system with only conservative forces. When a rock is dropped onto a spring, its mechanical energy remains constant (neglecting air resistance) because the force in the spring is conservative. The spring can propel the rock back to its original height, where it once again has only potential energy due to gravity. (b) A system with nonconservative forces. When the same rock is dropped onto the ground, it is stopped by nonconservative forces that dissipate its mechanical energy as thermal energy, sound, and surface distortion. The rock has lost mechanical energy.

How the Work-Energy Theorem Applies

Now let us consider what form the work-energy theorem takes when both conservative and nonconservative forces act. We will see that the work done by nonconservative forces equals the change in the mechanical energy of a system. As noted in [Kinetic Energy and the Work-Energy Theorem](#), the work-energy theorem states that the net work on a system equals the change in its kinetic energy, or $W_{\text{net}} = \Delta KE$. The net work is the sum of the work by nonconservative forces plus the work by conservative forces. That is,

$$W_{\text{net}} = W_{\text{nc}} + W_{\text{c}}, \quad 7.55$$

so that

$$W_{\text{nc}} + W_{\text{c}} = \Delta KE, \quad 7.56$$

where W_{nc} is the total work done by all nonconservative forces and W_{c} is the total work done by all conservative forces.

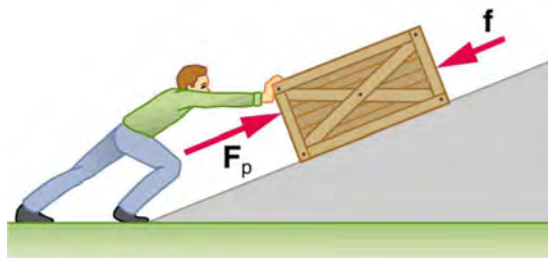


FIGURE 7.15 A person pushes a crate up a ramp, doing work on the crate. Friction and gravitational force (not shown) also do work on the crate; both forces oppose the person's push. As the crate is pushed up the ramp, it gains mechanical energy, implying that the work done by the person is greater than the work done by friction.

Consider [Figure 7.15](#), in which a person pushes a crate up a ramp and is opposed by friction. As in the previous section, we note that work done by a conservative force comes from a loss of gravitational potential energy, so that $W_{\text{c}} = -\Delta PE$. Substituting this equation into the previous one and solving for W_{nc} gives

$$W_{\text{nc}} = \Delta KE + \Delta PE. \quad 7.57$$

This equation means that the total mechanical energy ($KE + PE$) changes by exactly the amount of work done by nonconservative forces. In [Figure 7.15](#), this is the work done by the person minus the work done by friction. So even if energy is not conserved for the system of interest (such as the crate), we know that an equal amount of work was done to cause the change in total mechanical energy.

We rearrange $W_{nc} = \Delta KE + \Delta PE$ to obtain

$$KE_i + PE_i + W_{nc} = KE_f + PE_f. \quad 7.58$$

This means that the amount of work done by nonconservative forces adds to the mechanical energy of a system. If W_{nc} is positive, then mechanical energy is increased, such as when the person pushes the crate up the ramp in [Figure 7.15](#). If W_{nc} is negative, then mechanical energy is decreased, such as when the rock hits the ground in [Figure 7.14\(b\)](#). If W_{nc} is zero, then mechanical energy is conserved, and nonconservative forces are balanced. For example, when you push a lawn mower at constant speed on level ground, your work done is removed by the work of friction, and the mower has a constant energy.

Applying Energy Conservation with Nonconservative Forces

When no change in potential energy occurs, applying $KE_i + PE_i + W_{nc} = KE_f + PE_f$ amounts to applying the work-energy theorem by setting the change in kinetic energy to be equal to the net work done on the system, which in the most general case includes both conservative and nonconservative forces. But when seeking instead to find a change in total mechanical energy in situations that involve changes in both potential and kinetic energy, the previous equation $KE_i + PE_i + W_{nc} = KE_f + PE_f$ says that you can start by finding the change in mechanical energy that would have resulted from just the conservative forces, including the potential energy changes, and add to it the work done, with the proper sign, by any nonconservative forces involved.



EXAMPLE 7.9

Calculating Distance Traveled: How Far a Baseball Player Slides

Consider the situation shown in [Figure 7.16](#), where a baseball player slides to a stop on level ground. Using energy considerations, calculate the distance the 65.0-kg baseball player slides, given that his initial speed is 6.00 m/s and the force of friction against him is a constant 450 N.

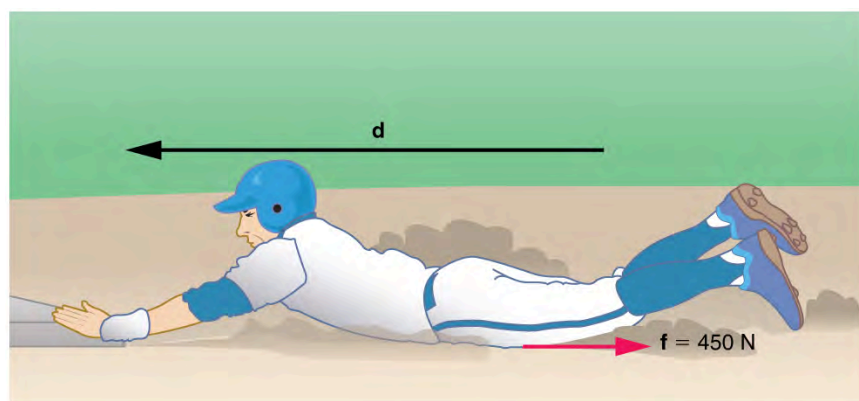


FIGURE 7.16 The baseball player slides to a stop in a distance d . In the process, friction removes the player's kinetic energy by doing an amount of work fd equal to the initial kinetic energy.

Strategy

Friction stops the player by converting his kinetic energy into other forms, including thermal energy. In terms of the work-energy theorem, the work done by friction, which is negative, is added to the initial kinetic energy to reduce it to zero. The work done by friction is negative, because $\mathbf{f}$ is in the opposite direction of the motion (that is, $\theta = 180^\circ$, and so $\cos \theta = -1$). Thus $W_{nc} = -fd$. The equation simplifies to

$$\frac{1}{2}mv_i^2 - fd = 0 \quad 7.59$$

or

$$fd = \frac{1}{2}mv_i^2. \quad 7.60$$

This equation can now be solved for the distance d .

Solution

Solving the previous equation for d and substituting known values yields

$$\begin{aligned} d &= \frac{mv_i^2}{2f} \\ &= \frac{(65.0 \text{ kg})(6.00 \text{ m/s})^2}{(2)(450 \text{ N})} \\ &= 2.60 \text{ m.} \end{aligned} \quad 7.61$$

Discussion

The most important point of this example is that the amount of nonconservative work equals the change in mechanical energy. For example, you must work harder to stop a truck, with its large mechanical energy, than to stop a mosquito.

**EXAMPLE 7.10****Calculating Distance Traveled: Sliding Up an Incline**

Suppose that the player from [Example 7.9](#) is running up a hill having a 5.00° incline upward with a surface similar to that in the baseball stadium. The player slides with the same initial speed, and the frictional force is still 450 N. Determine how far he slides.

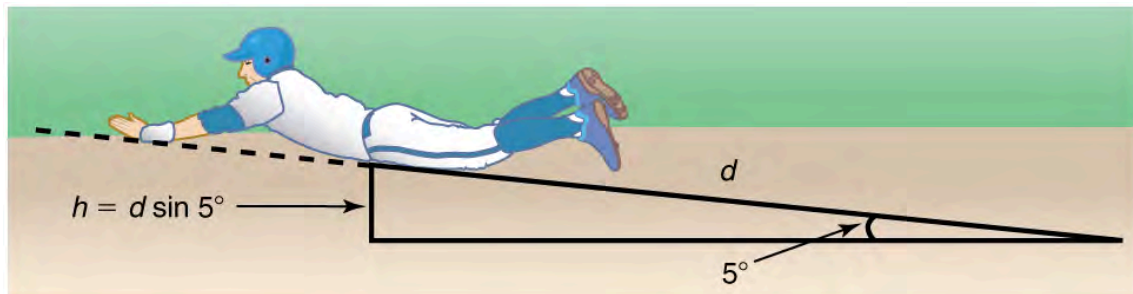


FIGURE 7.17 The same baseball player slides to a stop on a 5.00° slope.

Strategy

In this case, the work done by the nonconservative friction force on the player reduces the mechanical energy he has from his kinetic energy at zero height, to the final mechanical energy he has by moving through distance d to reach height h along the hill, with $h = d \sin 5.00^\circ$. This is expressed by the equation

$$KE_i + PE_i + W_{nc} = KE_f + PE_f. \quad 7.62$$

Solution

The work done by friction is again $W_{nc} = -fd$; initially the potential energy is $PE_i = mg \cdot 0 = 0$ and the kinetic energy is $KE_i = \frac{1}{2}mv_i^2$; the final energy contributions are $KE_f = 0$ for the kinetic energy and $PE_f = mgh = mgd \sin \theta$ for the potential energy.

Substituting these values gives

$$\frac{1}{2}mv_i^2 + 0 + (-fd) = 0 + mgd \sin \theta. \quad 7.63$$

Solve this for d to obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
 d &= \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)mv_1^2}{f+mg \sin \theta} \\
 &= \frac{(0.5)(65.0 \text{ kg})(6.00 \text{ m/s})^2}{450 \text{ N}+(65.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) \sin (5.00^\circ)} \\
 &= 2.31 \text{ m.}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{7.64}$$

Discussion

As might have been expected, the player slides a shorter distance by sliding uphill. Note that the problem could also have been solved in terms of the forces directly and the work energy theorem, instead of using the potential energy. This method would have required combining the normal force and force of gravity vectors, which no longer cancel each other because they point in different directions, and friction, to find the net force. You could then use the net force and the net work to find the distance d that reduces the kinetic energy to zero. By applying conservation of energy and using the potential energy instead, we need only consider the gravitational potential energy mgh , without combining and resolving force vectors. This simplifies the solution considerably.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME INVESTIGATION—DETERMINING FRICTION FROM THE STOPPING DISTANCE

This experiment involves the conversion of gravitational potential energy into thermal energy. Use the ruler, book, and marble from [Take-Home Investigation—Converting Potential to Kinetic Energy](#). In addition, you will need a foam cup with a small hole in the side, as shown in [Figure 7.18](#). From the 10-cm position on the ruler, let the marble roll into the cup positioned at the bottom of the ruler. Measure the distance d the cup moves before stopping. What forces caused it to stop? What happened to the kinetic energy of the marble at the bottom of the ruler? Next, place the marble at the 20-cm and the 30-cm positions and again measure the distance the cup moves after the marble enters it. Plot the distance the cup moves versus the initial marble position on the ruler. Is this relationship linear?

With some simple assumptions, you can use these data to find the coefficient of kinetic friction μ_k of the cup on the table. The force of friction f on the cup is $\mu_k N$, where the normal force N is just the weight of the cup plus the marble. The normal force and force of gravity do no work because they are perpendicular to the displacement of the cup, which moves horizontally. The work done by friction is fd . You will need the mass of the marble as well to calculate its initial kinetic energy.

It is interesting to do the above experiment also with a steel marble (or ball bearing). Releasing it from the same positions on the ruler as you did with the glass marble, is the velocity of this steel marble the same as the velocity of the marble at the bottom of the ruler? Is the distance the cup moves proportional to the mass of the steel and glass marbles?

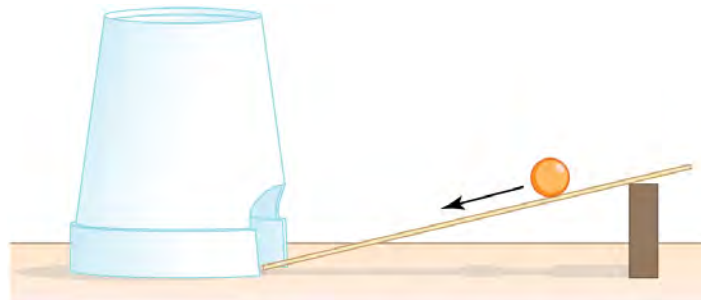


FIGURE 7.18 Rolling a marble down a ruler into a foam cup.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

The Ramp

Explore forces, energy and work as you push household objects up and down a ramp. Lower and raise the ramp to see how the angle of inclination affects the parallel forces acting on the file cabinet. Graphs show forces, energy and work.

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7.6 Conservation of Energy

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain the law of the conservation of energy.
- Describe some of the many forms of energy.
- Define efficiency of an energy conversion process as the fraction left as useful energy or work, rather than being transformed, for example, into thermal energy.

Law of Conservation of Energy

Energy, as we have noted, is conserved, making it one of the most important physical quantities in nature. The **law of conservation of energy** can be stated as follows:

Total energy is constant in any process. It may change in form or be transferred from one system to another, but the total remains the same.

We have explored some forms of energy and some ways it can be transferred from one system to another. This exploration led to the definition of two major types of energy—mechanical energy ($KE + PE$) and energy transferred via work done by nonconservative forces (W_{nc}). But energy takes *many* other forms, manifesting itself in *many* different ways, and we need to be able to deal with all of these before we can write an equation for the above general statement of the conservation of energy.

Other Forms of Energy than Mechanical Energy

At this point, we deal with all other forms of energy by lumping them into a single group called other energy (OE). Then we can state the conservation of energy in equation form as

$$KE_i + PE_i + W_{nc} + OE_i = KE_f + PE_f + OE_f. \quad 7.65$$

All types of energy and work can be included in this very general statement of conservation of energy. Kinetic energy is KE , work done by a conservative force is represented by PE , work done by nonconservative forces is W_{nc} , and all other energies are included as OE . This equation applies to all previous examples; in those situations OE was constant, and so it subtracted out and was not directly considered.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: USEFULNESS OF THE ENERGY CONSERVATION PRINCIPLE

The fact that energy is conserved and has many forms makes it very important. You will find that energy is discussed in many contexts, because it is involved in all processes. It will also become apparent that many situations are best understood in terms of energy and that problems are often most easily conceptualized and solved by considering energy.

When does OE play a role? One example occurs when a person eats. Food is oxidized with the release of carbon dioxide, water, and energy. Some of this chemical energy is converted to kinetic energy when the person moves, to potential energy when the person changes altitude, and to thermal energy (another form of OE).

Some of the Many Forms of Energy

What are some other forms of energy? You can probably name a number of forms of energy not yet discussed. Many of these will be covered in later chapters, but let us detail a few here. **Electrical energy** is a common form that is converted to many other forms and does work in a wide range of practical situations. Fuels, such as gasoline and food, carry **chemical energy** that can be transferred to a system through oxidation. Chemical fuel can also produce electrical energy, such as in batteries. Batteries can in turn produce light, which is a very pure form of energy. Most energy sources on Earth are in fact stored energy from the energy we receive from the Sun. We sometimes refer to this as **radiant energy**, or electromagnetic radiation, which includes visible light, infrared, and ultraviolet radiation. **Nuclear energy** comes from processes that convert measurable amounts of mass into energy. Nuclear energy is transformed into the energy of sunlight, into electrical energy in power plants, and into the energy of the heat transfer and blast in weapons. Atoms and molecules inside all objects are in random motion. This internal mechanical energy from the random motions is called **thermal energy**, because it is related to the temperature of the object. These and all other forms of energy can be converted into one another and can do work.

[Table 7.1](#) gives the amount of energy stored, used, or released from various objects and in various phenomena. The range of energies and the variety of types and situations is impressive.

PROBLEM-SOLVING STRATEGIES FOR ENERGY

You will find the following problem-solving strategies useful whenever you deal with energy. The strategies help in organizing and reinforcing energy concepts. In fact, they are used in the examples presented in this chapter. The familiar general problem-solving strategies presented earlier—involving identifying physical principles, knowns, and unknowns, checking units, and so on—continue to be relevant here.

Step 1. Determine the system of interest and identify what information is given and what quantity is to be calculated. A sketch will help.

Step 2. Examine all the forces involved and determine whether you know or are given the potential energy from the work done by the forces. Then use step 3 or step 4.

Step 3. If you know the potential energies for the forces that enter into the problem, then forces are all conservative, and you can apply conservation of mechanical energy simply in terms of potential and kinetic energy. The equation expressing conservation of energy is

$$KE_i + PE_i = KE_f + PE_f. \quad 7.66$$

Step 4. If you know the potential energy for only some of the forces, possibly because some of them are nonconservative and do not have a potential energy, or if there are other energies that are not easily treated in terms of force and work, then the conservation of energy law in its most general form must be used.

$$KE_i + PE_i + W_{nc} + OE_i = KE_f + PE_f + OE_f. \quad 7.67$$

In most problems, one or more of the terms is zero, simplifying its solution. Do not calculate W_c , the work done by conservative forces; it is already incorporated in the PE terms.

Step 5. You have already identified the types of work and energy involved (in step 2). Before solving for the unknown, *eliminate terms wherever possible* to simplify the algebra. For example, choose $h = 0$ at either the initial or final point, so that PE_g is zero there. Then solve for the unknown in the customary manner.

Step 6. *Check the answer to see if it is reasonable.* Once you have solved a problem, reexamine the forms of work and energy to see if you have set up the conservation of energy equation correctly. For example, work done against friction should be negative, potential energy at the bottom of a hill should be less than that at the top, and so on. Also check to see that the numerical value obtained is reasonable. For example, the final speed of a skateboarder who coasts down a 3-m-high ramp could reasonably be 20 km/h, but *not* 80 km/h.

Transformation of Energy

The transformation of energy from one form into others is happening all the time. The chemical energy in food is

converted into thermal energy through metabolism; light energy is converted into chemical energy through photosynthesis. In a larger example, the chemical energy contained in coal is converted into thermal energy as it burns to turn water into steam in a boiler. This thermal energy in the steam in turn is converted to mechanical energy as it spins a turbine, which is connected to a generator to produce electrical energy. (In all of these examples, not all of the initial energy is converted into the forms mentioned. This important point is discussed later in this section.)

Another example of energy conversion occurs in a solar cell. Sunlight impinging on a solar cell (see [Figure 7.19](#)) produces electricity, which in turn can be used to run an electric motor. Energy is converted from the primary source of solar energy into electrical energy and then into mechanical energy.



FIGURE 7.19 Solar energy is converted into electrical energy by solar cells, which is used to run a motor in this solar-power aircraft. (credit: NASA)

Object/phenomenon	Energy in joules
Big Bang	10^{68}
Energy released in a supernova	10^{44}
Fusion of all the hydrogen in Earth's oceans	10^{34}
Annual world energy use	4×10^{20}
Large fusion bomb (9 megaton)	3.8×10^{16}
1 kg hydrogen (fusion to helium)	6.4×10^{14}
1 kg uranium (nuclear fission)	8.0×10^{13}
Hiroshima-size fission bomb (10 kiloton)	4.2×10^{13}
90,000-metric ton aircraft carrier at 30 knots	1.1×10^{10}
1 barrel crude oil	5.9×10^9
1 ton TNT	4.2×10^9

TABLE 7.1 Energy of Various Objects and Phenomena

Object/phenomenon	Energy in joules
1 gallon of gasoline	1.2×10^8
Daily home electricity use (developed countries)	7×10^7
Daily adult food intake (recommended)	1.2×10^7
1000-kg car at 90 km/h	3.1×10^5
1 g fat (9.3 kcal)	3.9×10^4
ATP hydrolysis reaction	3.2×10^4
1 g carbohydrate (4.1 kcal)	1.7×10^4
1 g protein (4.1 kcal)	1.7×10^4
Tennis ball at 100 km/h	22
Mosquito (10^{-2} g at 0.5 m/s)	1.3×10^{-6}
Single electron in a TV tube beam	4.0×10^{-15}
Energy to break one DNA strand	10^{-19}

TABLE 7.1 Energy of Various Objects and Phenomena

Efficiency

Even though energy is conserved in an energy conversion process, the output of *useful energy* or work will be less than the energy input. The **efficiency** Eff of an energy conversion process is defined as

$$\text{Efficiency}(Eff) = \frac{\text{useful energy or work output}}{\text{total energy input}} = \frac{W_{\text{out}}}{E_{\text{in}}}. \quad 7.68$$

[Table 7.2](#) lists some efficiencies of mechanical devices and human activities. In a coal-fired power plant, for example, about 40% of the chemical energy in the coal becomes useful electrical energy. The other 60% transforms into other (perhaps less useful) energy forms, such as thermal energy, which is then released to the environment through combustion gases and cooling towers.

Activity/device	Efficiency (%) ¹
Cycling and climbing	20
Swimming, surface	2

TABLE 7.2 Efficiency of the Human Body and Mechanical Devices

¹ Representative values

Activity/device	Efficiency (%) ¹
Swimming, submerged	4
Shoveling	3
Weightlifting	9
Steam engine	17
Gasoline engine	30
Diesel engine	35
Nuclear power plant	35
Coal power plant	42
Electric motor	98
Compact fluorescent light	20
Gas heater (residential)	90
Solar cell	10

TABLE 7.2 Efficiency of the Human Body and Mechanical Devices



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Masses and Springs

A realistic mass and spring laboratory. Hang masses from springs and adjust the spring stiffness and damping. You can even slow time. Transport the lab to different planets. A chart shows the kinetic, potential, and thermal energies for each spring.

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7.7 Power

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Calculate power by calculating changes in energy over time.
- Examine power consumption and calculations of the cost of energy consumed.

What is Power?

Power—the word conjures up many images: a professional football player muscling aside his opponent, a dragster roaring away from the starting line, a volcano blowing its lava into the atmosphere, or a rocket blasting off, as in [Figure 7.20](#).



FIGURE 7.20 This powerful rocket on the Space Shuttle *Endeavor* did work and consumed energy at a very high rate. (credit: NASA)

These images of power have in common the rapid performance of work, consistent with the scientific definition of **power** (P) as the rate at which work is done.

POWER

Power is the rate at which work is done.

$$P = \frac{W}{t} \quad 7.69$$

The SI unit for power is the **watt** (W), where 1 watt equals 1 joule/second ($1 \text{ W} = 1 \text{ J/s}$).

Because work is energy transfer, power is also the rate at which energy is expended. A 60-W light bulb, for example, expends 60 J of energy per second. Great power means a large amount of work or energy developed in a short time. For example, when a powerful car accelerates rapidly, it does a large amount of work and consumes a large amount of fuel in a short time.

Calculating Power from Energy



EXAMPLE 7.11

Calculating the Power to Climb Stairs

What is the power output for a 60.0-kg woman who runs up a 3.00 m high flight of stairs in 3.50 s, starting from rest but having a final speed of 2.00 m/s? (See [Figure 7.21](#).)

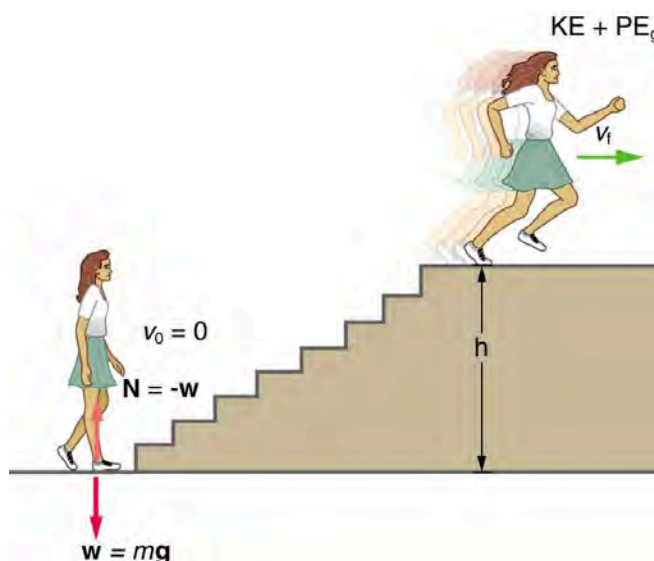


FIGURE 7.21 When this woman runs upstairs starting from rest, she converts the chemical energy originally from food into kinetic energy and gravitational potential energy. Her power output depends on how fast she does this.

Strategy and Concept

The work going into mechanical energy is $W = KE + PE$. At the bottom of the stairs, we take both KE and PE_g as initially zero; thus, $W = KE_f + PE_g = \frac{1}{2}mv_f^2 + mgh$, where h is the vertical height of the stairs. Because all terms are given, we can calculate W and then divide it by time to get power.

Solution

Substituting the expression for W into the definition of power given in the previous equation, $P = W/t$ yields

$$P = \frac{W}{t} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}mv_f^2 + mgh}{t}. \quad 7.70$$

Entering known values yields

$$\begin{aligned} P &= \frac{0.5(60.0 \text{ kg})(2.00 \text{ m/s})^2 + (60.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(3.00 \text{ m})}{3.50 \text{ s}} \\ &= \frac{120 \text{ J} + 1764 \text{ J}}{3.50 \text{ s}} \\ &= 538 \text{ W}. \end{aligned} \quad 7.71$$

Discussion

The woman does 1764 J of work to move up the stairs compared with only 120 J to increase her kinetic energy; thus, most of her power output is required for climbing rather than accelerating.

It is impressive that this woman's useful power output is slightly less than 1 **horsepower** (1 hp = 746 W)! People can generate more than a horsepower with their leg muscles for short periods of time by rapidly converting available blood sugar and oxygen into work output. (A horse can put out 1 hp for hours on end.) Once oxygen is depleted, power output decreases and the person begins to breathe rapidly to obtain oxygen to metabolize more food—this is known as the *aerobic* stage of exercise. If the woman climbed the stairs slowly, then her power output would be much less, although the amount of work done would be the same.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME INVESTIGATION—MEASURE YOUR POWER RATING

Determine your own power rating by measuring the time it takes you to climb a flight of stairs. We will ignore the

gain in kinetic energy, as the above example showed that it was a small portion of the energy gain. Don't expect that your output will be more than about 0.5 hp.

Examples of Power

Examples of power are limited only by the imagination, because there are as many types as there are forms of work and energy. (See [Table 7.3](#) for some examples.) Sunlight reaching Earth's surface carries a maximum power of about 1.3 kilowatts per square meter (kW/m^2). A tiny fraction of this is retained by Earth over the long term. Our consumption rate of fossil fuels is far greater than the rate at which they are stored, so it is inevitable that they will be depleted. Power implies that energy is transferred, perhaps changing form. It is never possible to change one form completely into another without losing some of it as thermal energy. For example, a 60-W incandescent bulb converts only 5 W of electrical power to light, with 55 W dissipating into thermal energy. Furthermore, the typical electric power plant converts only 35 to 40% of its fuel into electricity. The remainder becomes a huge amount of thermal energy that must be dispersed as heat transfer, as rapidly as it is created. A coal-fired power plant may produce 1000 megawatts; 1 megawatt (MW) is 10^6 W of electric power. But the power plant consumes chemical energy at a rate of about 2500 MW, creating heat transfer to the surroundings at a rate of 1500 MW. (See [Figure 7.22](#).)



FIGURE 7.22 Tremendous amounts of electric power are generated by coal-fired power plants such as this one in China, but an even larger amount of power goes into heat transfer to the surroundings. The large cooling towers here are needed to transfer heat as rapidly as it is produced. The transfer of heat is not unique to coal plants but is an unavoidable consequence of generating electric power from any fuel—nuclear, coal, oil, natural gas, or the like. (credit: Kleinolive, Wikimedia Commons)

Object or Phenomenon	Power in Watts
Supernova (at peak)	5×10^{37}
Milky Way galaxy	10^{37}
Crab Nebula pulsar	10^{28}
The Sun	4×10^{26}
Volcanic eruption (maximum)	4×10^{15}
Lightning bolt	2×10^{12}

TABLE 7.3 Power Output or Consumption

Object or Phenomenon	Power in Watts
Nuclear power plant (total electric and heat transfer)	3×10^9
Aircraft carrier (total useful and heat transfer)	10^8
Dragster (total useful and heat transfer)	2×10^6
Car (total useful and heat transfer)	8×10^4
Football player (total useful and heat transfer)	5×10^3
Clothes dryer	4×10^3
Person at rest (all heat transfer)	100
Typical incandescent light bulb (total useful and heat transfer)	60
Heart, person at rest (total useful and heat transfer)	8
Electric clock	3
Pocket calculator	10^{-3}

TABLE 7.3 Power Output or Consumption

Power and Energy Consumption

We usually have to pay for the energy we use. It is interesting and easy to estimate the cost of energy for an electrical appliance if its power consumption rate and time used are known. The higher the power consumption rate and the longer the appliance is used, the greater the cost of that appliance. The power consumption rate is $P = W/t = E/t$, where E is the energy supplied by the electricity company. So the energy consumed over a time t is

$$E = Pt. \quad 7.72$$

Electricity bills state the energy used in units of **kilowatt-hours** ($\text{kW} \cdot \text{h}$), which is the product of power in kilowatts and time in hours. This unit is convenient because electrical power consumption at the kilowatt level for hours at a time is typical.



EXAMPLE 7.12

Calculating Energy Costs

What is the cost of running a 0.200-kW computer 6.00 h per day for 30.0 d if the cost of electricity is \$0.120 per $\text{kW} \cdot \text{h}$?

Strategy

Cost is based on energy consumed; thus, we must find E from $E = Pt$ and then calculate the cost. Because electrical energy is expressed in $\text{kW} \cdot \text{h}$, at the start of a problem such as this it is convenient to convert the units into kW and hours.

Solution

The energy consumed in $\text{kW} \cdot \text{h}$ is

$$\begin{aligned} E &= Pt = (0.200 \text{ kW})(6.00 \text{ h/d})(30.0 \text{ d}) \\ &= 36.0 \text{ kW} \cdot \text{h}, \end{aligned} \quad 7.73$$

and the cost is simply given by

$$\text{cost} = (36.0 \text{ kW} \cdot \text{h})(\$0.120 \text{ per kW} \cdot \text{h}) = \$4.32 \text{ per month.} \quad 7.74$$

Discussion

The cost of using the computer in this example is neither exorbitant nor negligible. It is clear that the cost is a combination of power and time. When both are high, such as for an air conditioner in the summer, the cost is high.

The motivation to save energy has become more compelling with its ever-increasing price. Armed with the knowledge that energy consumed is the product of power and time, you can estimate costs for yourself and make the necessary value judgments about where to save energy. Either power or time must be reduced. It is most cost-effective to limit the use of high-power devices that normally operate for long periods of time, such as water heaters and air conditioners. This would not include relatively high power devices like toasters, because they are on only a few minutes per day. It would also not include electric clocks, in spite of their 24-hour-per-day usage, because they are very low power devices. It is sometimes possible to use devices that have greater efficiencies—that is, devices that consume less power to accomplish the same task. One example is the compact fluorescent light bulb, which produces over four times more light per watt of power consumed than its incandescent cousin.

Modern civilization depends on energy, but current levels of energy consumption and production are not sustainable. The likelihood of a link between global warming and fossil fuel use (with its concomitant production of carbon dioxide), has made reduction in energy use as well as a shift to non-fossil fuels of the utmost importance. Even though energy in an isolated system is a conserved quantity, the final result of most energy transformations is waste heat transfer to the environment, which is no longer useful for doing work. As we will discuss in more detail in [Thermodynamics](#), the potential for energy to produce useful work has been “degraded” in the energy transformation.

7.8 Work, Energy, and Power in Humans

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain the human body’s consumption of energy when at rest vs. when engaged in activities that do useful work.
- Calculate the conversion of chemical energy in food into useful work.

Energy Conversion in Humans

Our own bodies, like all living organisms, are energy conversion machines. Conservation of energy implies that the chemical energy stored in food is converted into work, thermal energy, and/or stored as chemical energy in fatty tissue. (See [Figure 7.23](#).) The fraction going into each form depends both on how much we eat and on our level of physical activity. If we eat more than is needed to do work and stay warm, the remainder goes into body fat.

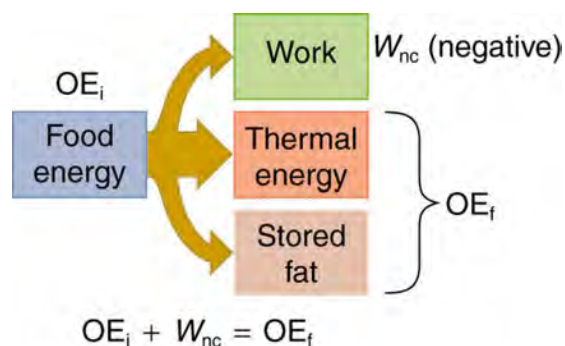


FIGURE 7.23 Energy consumed by humans is converted to work, thermal energy, and stored fat. By far the largest fraction goes to thermal energy, although the fraction varies depending on the type of physical activity.

Power Consumed at Rest

The *rate* at which the body uses food energy to sustain life and to do different activities is called the **metabolic rate**. The total energy conversion rate of a person *at rest* is called the **basal metabolic rate** (BMR) and is divided among various systems in the body, as shown in [Table 7.4](#). The largest fraction goes to the liver and spleen, with the brain coming next. Of course, during vigorous exercise, the energy consumption of the skeletal muscles and heart increase markedly. About 75% of the calories burned in a day go into these basic functions. The BMR is a function of age, gender, total body weight, and amount of muscle mass (which burns more calories than body fat). Athletes have a greater BMR due to this last factor.

Organ	Power consumed at rest (W)	Oxygen consumption (mL/min)	Percent of BMR
Liver & spleen	23	67	27
Brain	16	47	19
Skeletal muscle	15	45	18
Kidney	9	26	10
Heart	6	17	7
Other	16	48	19
Totals	85 W	250 mL/min	100%

TABLE 7.4 Basal Metabolic Rates (BMR)

Energy consumption is directly proportional to oxygen consumption because the digestive process is basically one of oxidizing food. We can measure the energy people use during various activities by measuring their oxygen use. (See [Figure 7.24](#).) Approximately 20 kJ of energy are produced for each liter of oxygen consumed, independent of the type of food. [Table 7.5](#) shows energy and oxygen consumption rates (power expended) for a variety of activities.

Power of Doing Useful Work

Work done by a person is sometimes called **useful work**, which is *work done on the outside world*, such as lifting weights. Useful work requires a force exerted through a distance on the outside world, and so it excludes internal work, such as that done by the heart when pumping blood. Useful work does include that done in climbing stairs or accelerating to a full run, because these are accomplished by exerting forces on the outside world. Forces exerted by the body are nonconservative, so that they can change the mechanical energy ($KE + PE$) of the system worked upon, and this is often the goal. A baseball player throwing a ball, for example, increases both the ball's kinetic and potential energy.

If a person needs more energy than they consume, such as when doing vigorous work, the body must draw upon the chemical energy stored in fat. So exercise can be helpful in losing fat. However, the amount of exercise needed to produce a loss in fat, or to burn off extra calories consumed that day, can be large, as [Example 7.13](#) illustrates.

EXAMPLE 7.13

Calculating Weight Loss from Exercising

If a person who normally requires an average of 12,000 kJ (3000 kcal) of food energy per day consumes 13,000 kJ per day, they will steadily add body fat. How much bicycling per day is required to work off this extra 1000 kJ?

Solution

[Table 7.5](#) states that 400 W are used when cycling at a moderate speed. The time required to work off 1000 kJ at this rate is then

$$\text{Time} = \frac{\text{energy}}{\left(\frac{\text{energy}}{\text{time}}\right)} = \frac{1000 \text{ kJ}}{400 \text{ W}} = 2500 \text{ s} = 42 \text{ min.} \quad 7.75$$

Discussion

If this person uses more energy than they consume, the person's body will obtain the needed energy by metabolizing body fat. If the person uses 13,000 kJ but consumes only 12,000 kJ, then the amount of fat loss will be

$$\text{Fat loss} = (1000 \text{ kJ}) \left(\frac{1.0 \text{ g fat}}{39 \text{ kJ}} \right) = 26 \text{ g,} \quad 7.76$$

assuming the energy content of fat to be 39 kJ/g.



FIGURE 7.24 A pulse oximeter is an apparatus that measures the amount of oxygen in blood. A knowledge of oxygen and carbon dioxide levels indicates a person's metabolic rate, which is the rate at which food energy is converted to another form. Such measurements can indicate the level of athletic conditioning as well as certain medical problems. (credit: UusiAjaja, Wikimedia Commons)

Activity	Energy consumption in watts	Oxygen consumption in liters O ₂ /min
Sleeping	83	0.24
Sitting at rest	120	0.34
Standing relaxed	125	0.36
Sitting in class	210	0.60

TABLE 7.5 Energy and Oxygen Consumption Rates² (Power)

2 for a 76-kg male with typical metabolic functions

Activity	Energy consumption in watts	Oxygen consumption in liters O ₂ /min
Walking (5 km/h)	280	0.80
Cycling (13–18 km/h)	400	1.14
Shivering	425	1.21
Playing tennis	440	1.26
Swimming breaststroke	475	1.36
Ice skating (14.5 km/h)	545	1.56
Climbing stairs (116/min)	685	1.96
Cycling (21 km/h)	700	2.00
Running cross-country	740	2.12
Playing basketball	800	2.28
Cycling, professional racer	1855	5.30
Sprinting	2415	6.90

TABLE 7.5 Energy and Oxygen Consumption Rates² (Power)

All bodily functions, from thinking to lifting weights, require energy. (See [Figure 7.25](#).) The many small muscle actions accompanying all quiet activity, from sleeping to head scratching, ultimately become thermal energy, as do less visible muscle actions by the heart, lungs, and digestive tract. Shivering, in fact, is an involuntary response to low body temperature that pits muscles against one another to produce thermal energy in the body (and do no work). The kidneys and liver consume a surprising amount of energy, but the biggest surprise of all is that a full 25% of all energy consumed by the body is used to maintain electrical potentials in all living cells. (Nerve cells use this electrical potential in nerve impulses.) This bioelectrical energy ultimately becomes mostly thermal energy, but some is utilized to power chemical processes such as in the kidneys and liver, and in fat production.

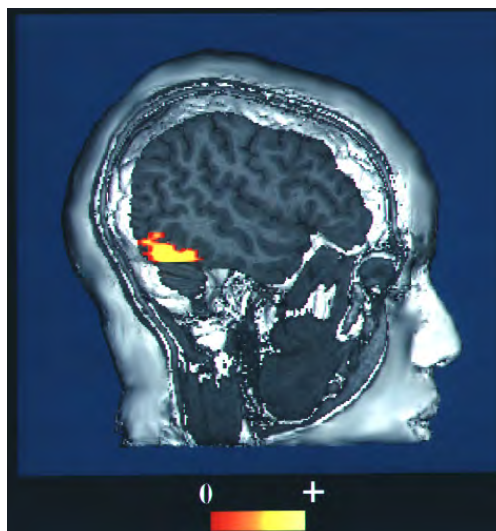


FIGURE 7.25 This fMRI scan shows an increased level of energy consumption in the vision center of the brain. Here, the patient was being

asked to recognize faces. (credit: NIH via Wikimedia Commons)

7.9 World Energy Use

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the distinction between renewable and nonrenewable energy sources.
- Explain why the inevitable conversion of energy to less useful forms makes it necessary to conserve energy resources.

Energy is an important ingredient in all phases of society. We live in a very interdependent world, and access to adequate and reliable energy resources is crucial for economic growth and for maintaining the quality of our lives. But current levels of energy consumption and production are not sustainable. Depending on the data source, estimates indicate that about 31–35% of the world's energy comes from oil, and much of that goes to transportation uses. This is a reduction by a few percentage points from ten years ago. Oil prices are dependent as much upon new (or foreseen) discoveries as they are upon political events and situations around the world. The U.S., with 4.25% of the world's population, consumes 21% of the world's oil production per year.

Renewable and Nonrenewable Energy Sources

The principal energy resources used in the world are shown in [Figure 7.26](#). The fuel mix has changed over the years but now is dominated by oil, although natural gas and solar contributions are increasing. **Renewable forms of energy** are those sources that cannot be used up, such as water, wind, solar, and biomass. About 85% of our energy comes from nonrenewable **fossil fuels**—oil, natural gas, coal. The likelihood of a link between global warming and fossil fuel use, with its production of carbon dioxide through combustion, has made, in the eyes of many scientists, a shift to non-fossil fuels of utmost importance—but it will not be easy.

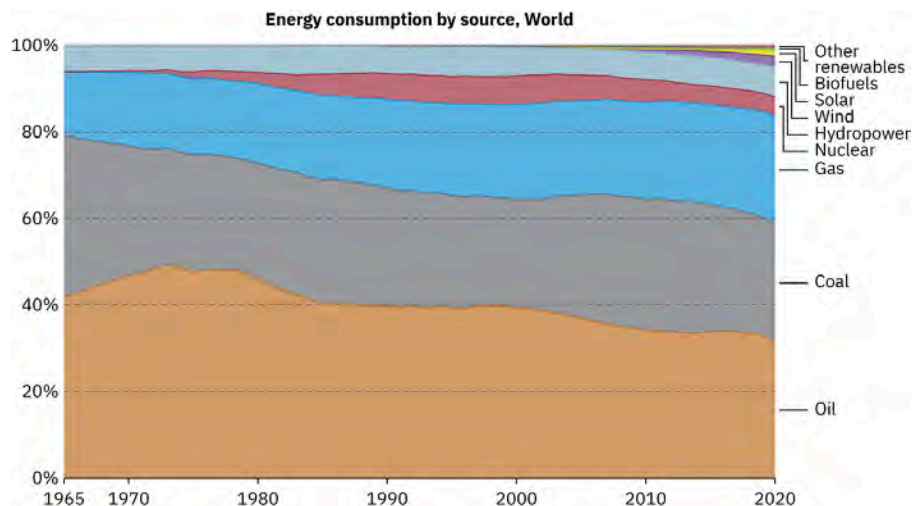


FIGURE 7.26 World energy consumption by source, in billions of kilowatt-hours: 2006. (credit: KVDP)

The World's Growing Energy Needs

World energy consumption continues to rise, especially in the developing countries. (See [Figure 7.27](#).) Global demand for energy has tripled in the past 50 years and might triple again in the next 30 years. While much of this growth will come from the rapidly booming economies of China and India, many of the developed countries, especially those in Europe, are hoping to meet their energy needs by expanding the use of renewable sources. Although presently only a small percentage, renewable energy is growing very fast, especially wind energy. For example, Germany plans to meet 65% of its power and 30% of its overall energy needs with renewable resources by the year 2030. (See [Figure 7.28](#).) Energy is a key constraint in the rapid economic growth of China and India. In 2003, China surpassed Japan as the world's second largest consumer of oil. However, over 1/3 of this is imported. Unlike most Western countries, coal dominates the commercial energy resources of China, accounting for 2/3 of its energy consumption. In 2009 China surpassed the United States as the largest generator of CO₂. In India, the main energy resources are biomass (wood and dung) and coal. Half of India's oil is imported. About 70% of India's

electricity is generated by highly polluting coal. Yet there are sizeable strides being made in renewable energy. India has a rapidly growing wind energy base, and it has the largest solar cooking program in the world. China has invested substantially in building solar collection farms as well as hydroelectric plants.

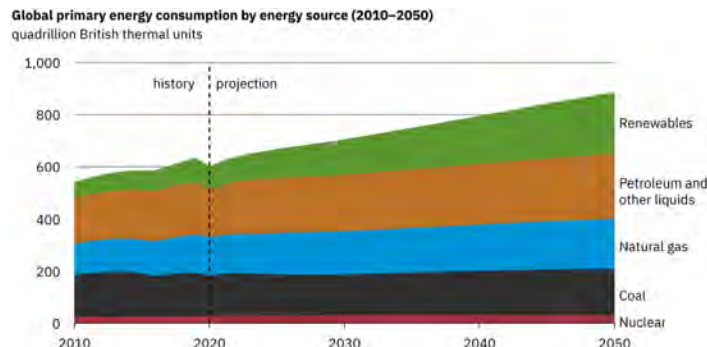


FIGURE 7.27 Past and projected world energy use (source: Based on data from U.S. Energy Information Administration, 2021)



FIGURE 7.28 Solar cell arrays at a power plant in California (credit: Bureau of Land Management, Flickr)

[Table 7.6](#) displays the 2020 commercial energy mix by country for some of the prime energy users in the world. While non-renewable sources dominate, some countries get a sizeable percentage of their electricity from renewable resources. For example, about two-thirds of New Zealand's electricity demand is met by hydroelectric. Only 10% of the U.S. electricity is generated by renewable resources, primarily hydroelectric. It is difficult to determine total sources and consumers of energy in many countries, and estimates vary somewhat by data source and type of measurement.

Country	Consumption, in EJ (10^{18} J)	Oil	Natural Gas	Coal	Nuclear	Hydro	Other Renewables
Australia	5.6	1.8%	1.5%	1.7%	0%	0.1%	0.5%
Brazil	12	4.6%	1.2%	0.6%	0.1%	3.5%	2%
China	145.5	28.5%	11.9%	82.3%	3.3%	11.7%	7.8%
Egypt	3.7	1.3%	2.1%	0.03%	0%	0.1%	0.1%
Germany	12.1	4.2%	3.1%	1.9%	0.6%	0.2%	2.2%
India	31.99	9%	2.2%	17.5%	0.4%	1.5%	1.4%
Indonesia	8.1	2.8%	1.5%	3.3%	0%	0.2%	0.4%

TABLE 7.6 Energy Consumption—Selected Countries (2020)

Country	Consumption, in EJ (10^{18} J)	Oil	Natural Gas	Coal	Nuclear	Hydro	Other Renewables
Japan	17	6.5%	3.8%	4.6%	0.4%	0.7%	1.1%
United Kingdom	6.9	2.4%	2.6%	0.2%	0.5%	0.1%	1.2%
Russia	28.3	6.4%	14.8%	3.2%	1.9%	1.9%	0.5%
U.S.	87.8	32.5%	30%	9.2%	7.4%	2.6%	6.2%
World	557.1	174.2%	137.6%	151.4%	24%	38.2%	31.7%

TABLE 7.6 Energy Consumption—Selected Countries (2020)

Energy and Economic Well-being

Economic well-being is dependent upon energy use, and in most countries higher standards of living, as measured by GDP (gross domestic product) per capita, are matched by higher levels of energy consumption per capita. This is borne out in [Figure 7.29](#). Increased efficiency of energy use will change this dependency. A global problem is balancing energy resource development against the harmful effects upon the environment in its extraction and use.

New and diversified energy sources do, however, greatly increase economic opportunity and stability. First, the extensive employment opportunities in renewable energy make it one of the most sustainable and secure fields to enter. Second, renewable energy provides countries and localities with increased levels of resiliency in the face of natural disasters, conflict, or other disruptions. The 21st century has already seen major economic impacts from energy disruptions: Hurricane Katrina, Superstorm Sandy, various wildfires, Hurricane Maria, and the 2021 Texas Winter Storm demonstrate the vulnerability of United States power systems. Diversifying energy sources through renewables and other fossil-fuel alternatives brings power grids and transportation systems back online much more quickly, saving lives and enabling a more swift return to economic operations. And as critical emerging information infrastructure, such as data centers, requires more of the world's energy, supplying those growing systems during normal operations and crises will be increasingly important.

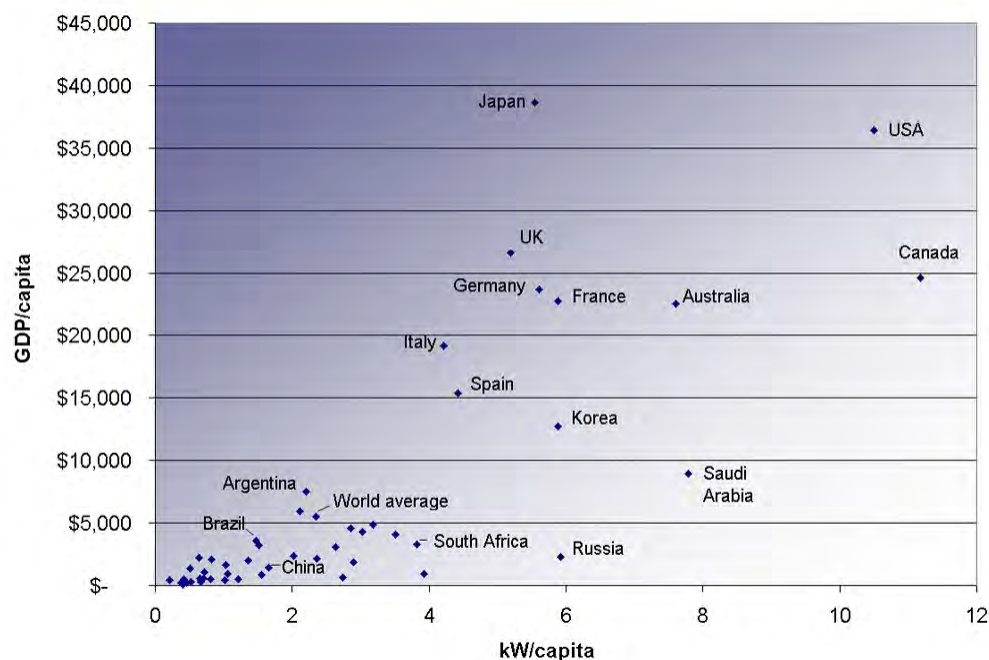


FIGURE 7.29 Power consumption per capita versus GDP per capita for various countries. Note the increase in energy usage with increasing GDP. (2007, credit: Frank van Mierlo, Wikimedia Commons)

Conserving Energy

As we finish this chapter on energy and work, it is relevant to draw some distinctions between two sometimes misunderstood terms in the area of energy use. As has been mentioned elsewhere, the “law of the conservation of energy” is a very useful principle in analyzing physical processes. It is a statement that cannot be proven from basic principles, but is a very good bookkeeping device, and no exceptions have ever been found. It states that the total amount of energy in an isolated system will always remain constant. Related to this principle, but remarkably different from it, is the important philosophy of energy conservation. This concept has to do with seeking to decrease the amount of energy used by an individual or group through (1) reduced activities (e.g., turning down thermostats, driving fewer kilometers) and/or (2) increasing conversion efficiencies in the performance of a particular task—such as developing and using more efficient room heaters, cars that have greater miles-per-gallon ratings, energy-efficient compact fluorescent lights, etc.

Since energy in an isolated system is not destroyed or created or generated, one might wonder why we need to be concerned about our energy resources, since energy is a conserved quantity. The problem is that the final result of most energy transformations is waste heat transfer to the environment and conversion to energy forms no longer useful for doing work. To state it in another way, the potential for energy to produce useful work has been “degraded” in the energy transformation. (This will be discussed in more detail in [Thermodynamics](#).)

Glossary

basal metabolic rate the total energy conversion rate of a person at rest

chemical energy the energy in a substance stored in the bonds between atoms and molecules that can be released in a chemical reaction

conservation of mechanical energy the rule that the sum of the kinetic energies and potential energies remains constant if only conservative forces act on and within a system

conservative force a force that does the same work for any given initial and final configuration, regardless of the path followed

efficiency a measure of the effectiveness of the input of energy to do work; useful energy or work divided by the total input of energy

electrical energy the energy carried by a flow of charge

energy the ability to do work

fossil fuels oil, natural gas, and coal

friction the force between surfaces that opposes one sliding on the other; friction changes mechanical energy into thermal energy

gravitational potential energy the energy an object has due to its position in a gravitational field

horsepower an older non-SI unit of power, with $1 \text{ hp} = 746 \text{ W}$

joule SI unit of work and energy, equal to one newton-meter

kilowatt-hour ($\text{kW} \cdot \text{h}$) unit used primarily for electrical energy provided by electric utility companies

kinetic energy the energy an object has by reason of its motion, equal to $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ for the translational (i.e., non-rotational) motion of an object of mass m moving at speed v

law of conservation of energy the general law that total energy is constant in any process; energy may change in form or be transferred from one system to another, but the total remains the same

mechanical energy the sum of kinetic energy and potential energy

metabolic rate the rate at which the body uses food energy to sustain life and to do different activities

net work work done by the net force, or vector sum of all the forces, acting on an object

nonconservative force a force whose work depends on the path followed between the given initial and final configurations

nuclear energy energy released by changes within atomic nuclei, such as the fusion of two light nuclei or the fission of a heavy nucleus

potential energy energy due to position, shape, or configuration

potential energy of a spring the stored energy of a spring as a function of its displacement; when Hooke's law applies, it is given by the expression $\frac{1}{2}kx^2$ where x is the distance the spring is compressed or extended and k is the spring constant

power the rate at which work is done

radiant energy the energy carried by electromagnetic waves

renewable forms of energy those sources that cannot be used up, such as water, wind, solar, and biomass

thermal energy the energy within an object due to the random motion of its atoms and molecules that accounts for the object's temperature

useful work work done on an external system

watt (W) SI unit of power, with $1 \text{ W} = 1 \text{ J/s}$

work the transfer of energy by a force that causes an object to be displaced; the product of the component of the force in the direction of the displacement and the magnitude of the displacement

work-energy theorem the result, based on Newton's laws, that the net work done on an object is equal to its change in kinetic energy

Section Summary

7.1 Work: The Scientific Definition

- Work is the transfer of energy by a force acting on an object as it is displaced.
- The work W that a force $\mathbf{F}$ does on an object is the product of the magnitude F of the force, times the magnitude d of the displacement, times the cosine of the angle θ between them. In symbols, $W = Fd \cos \theta$.
- The SI unit for work and energy is the joule (J), where $1 \text{ J} = 1 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m} = 1 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}^2$.

- The work done by a force is zero if the displacement is either zero or perpendicular to the force.
- The work done is positive if the force and displacement have the same direction, and negative if they have opposite direction.

7.2 Kinetic Energy and the Work-Energy Theorem

- The net work W_{net} is the work done by the net

force acting on an object.

- Work done on an object transfers energy to the object.
- The translational kinetic energy of an object of mass m moving at speed v is $KE = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$.
- The work-energy theorem states that the net work W_{net} on a system changes its kinetic energy, $W_{\text{net}} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{1}{2}mv_0^2$.

7.3 Gravitational Potential Energy

- Work done against gravity in lifting an object becomes potential energy of the object-Earth system.
- The change in gravitational potential energy, ΔPE_g , is $\Delta PE_g = mgh$, with h being the increase in height and g the acceleration due to gravity.
- The gravitational potential energy of an object near Earth's surface is due to its position in the mass-Earth system. Only differences in gravitational potential energy, ΔPE_g , have physical significance.
- As an object descends without friction, its gravitational potential energy changes into kinetic energy corresponding to increasing speed, so that $\Delta KE = -\Delta PE_g$.

7.4 Conservative Forces and Potential Energy

- A conservative force is one for which work depends only on the starting and ending points of a motion, not on the path taken.
- We can define potential energy (PE) for any conservative force, just as we defined PE_g for the gravitational force.
- The potential energy of a spring is $PE_s = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$, where k is the spring's force constant and x is the displacement from its undeformed position.
- Mechanical energy is defined to be $KE + PE$ for a conservative force.
- When only conservative forces act on and within a system, the total mechanical energy is constant. In equation form,

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} KE + PE = \text{constant} \\ \text{or} \\ KE_i + PE_i = KE_f + PE_f \end{array} \right\} \text{(conservative forces only),}$$

where i and f denote initial and final values. This is known as the conservation of mechanical energy.

7.5 Nonconservative Forces

- A nonconservative force is one for which work depends on the path.

- Friction is an example of a nonconservative force that changes mechanical energy into thermal energy.
- Work W_{nc} done by a nonconservative force changes the mechanical energy of a system. In equation form, $W_{\text{nc}} = \Delta KE + \Delta PE$ or, equivalently, $KE_i + PE_i + W_{\text{nc}} = KE_f + PE_f$.
- When both conservative and nonconservative forces act, energy conservation can be applied and used to calculate motion in terms of the known potential energies of the conservative forces and the work done by nonconservative forces, instead of finding the net work from the net force, or having to directly apply Newton's laws.

7.6 Conservation of Energy

- The law of conservation of energy states that the total energy is constant in any process. Energy may change in form or be transferred from one system to another, but the total remains the same.
- When all forms of energy are considered, conservation of energy is written in equation form as $KE_i + PE_i + W_{\text{nc}} + OE_i = KE_f + PE_f + OE_f$, where OE is all **other forms of energy** besides mechanical energy.
- Commonly encountered forms of energy include electric energy, chemical energy, radiant energy, nuclear energy, and thermal energy.
- Energy is often utilized to do work, but it is not possible to convert all the energy of a system to work.
- The efficiency Eff of a machine or human is defined to be $Eff = \frac{W_{\text{out}}}{E_{\text{in}}}$, where W_{out} is useful work output and E_{in} is the energy consumed.

7.7 Power

- Power is the rate at which work is done, or in equation form, for the average power P for work W done over a time t , $P = W/t$.
- The SI unit for power is the watt (W), where $1 \text{ W} = 1 \text{ J/s}$.
- The power of many devices such as electric motors is also often expressed in horsepower (hp), where $1 \text{ hp} = 746 \text{ W}$.

7.8 Work, Energy, and Power in Humans

- The human body converts energy stored in food into work, thermal energy, and/or chemical energy that is stored in fatty tissue.
- The *rate* at which the body uses food energy to sustain life and to do different activities is called the metabolic rate, and the corresponding rate

when at rest is called the basal metabolic rate (BMR)

- The energy included in the basal metabolic rate is divided among various systems in the body, with the largest fraction going to the liver and spleen, and the brain coming next.
- About 75% of food calories are used to sustain basic body functions included in the basal metabolic rate.
- The energy consumption of people during various activities can be determined by measuring their oxygen use, because the digestive process is basically one of oxidizing food.

7.9 World Energy Use

- The relative use of different fuels to provide energy has changed over the years, but fuel use is currently dominated by oil, although natural gas

and solar contributions are increasing.

- Although non-renewable sources dominate, some countries meet a sizeable percentage of their electricity needs from renewable resources.
- The United States obtains only about 10% of its energy from renewable sources, mostly hydroelectric power.
- Economic well-being is dependent upon energy use, and in most countries higher standards of living, as measured by GDP (Gross Domestic Product) per capita, are matched by higher levels of energy consumption per capita.
- Even though, in accordance with the law of conservation of energy, energy can never be created or destroyed, energy that can be used to do work is always partly converted to less useful forms, such as waste heat to the environment, in all of our uses of energy for practical purposes.

Conceptual Questions

7.1 Work: The Scientific Definition

1. Give an example of something we think of as work in everyday circumstances that is not work in the scientific sense. Is energy transferred or changed in form in your example? If so, explain how this is accomplished without doing work.
2. Give an example of a situation in which there is a force and a displacement, but the force does no work. Explain why it does no work.
3. Describe a situation in which a force is exerted for a long time but does no work. Explain.

7.2 Kinetic Energy and the Work-Energy Theorem

4. The person in [Figure 7.30](#) does work on the lawn mower. Under what conditions would the mower gain energy? Under what conditions would it lose energy?

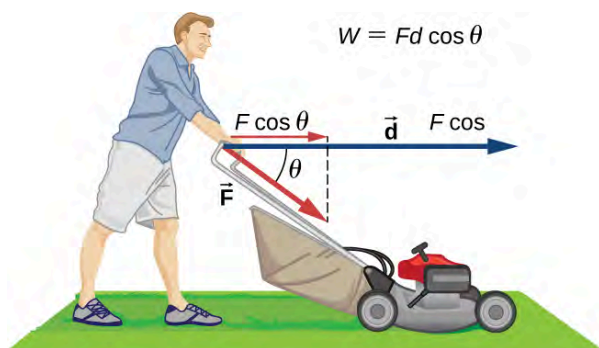


FIGURE 7.30

5. Work done on a system puts energy into it. Work done by a system removes energy from it. Give an

example for each statement.

6. When solving for speed in [Example 7.4](#), we kept only the positive root. Why?

7.3 Gravitational Potential Energy

7. In [Example 7.7](#), we calculated the final speed of a roller coaster that descended 20 m in height and had an initial speed of 5 m/s downhill. Suppose the roller coaster had had an initial speed of 5 m/s *uphill* instead, and it coasted uphill, stopped, and then rolled back down to a final point 20 m below the start. We would find in that case that its final speed is the same as its initial speed. Explain in terms of conservation of energy.
8. Does the work you do on a book when you lift it onto a shelf depend on the path taken? On the time taken? On the height of the shelf? On the mass of the book?

7.4 Conservative Forces and Potential Energy

9. What is a conservative force?
10. The force exerted by a diving board is conservative, provided the internal friction is negligible. Assuming friction is negligible, describe changes in the potential energy of a diving board as a swimmer dives from it, starting just before the swimmer steps on the board until just after his feet leave it.
11. Define mechanical energy. What is the relationship of mechanical energy to nonconservative forces?

What happens to mechanical energy if only conservative forces act?

12. What is the relationship of potential energy to conservative force?

7.6 Conservation of Energy

13. Consider the following scenario. A car for which friction is *not* negligible accelerates from rest down a hill, running out of gasoline after a short distance. The driver lets the car coast farther down the hill, then up and over a small crest. He then coasts down that hill into a gas station, where he brakes to a stop and fills the tank with gasoline. Identify the forms of energy the car has, and how they are changed and transferred in this series of events. (See [Figure 7.31](#).)



FIGURE 7.31 A car experiencing non-negligible friction coasts down a hill, over a small crest, then downhill again, and comes to a stop at a gas station.

14. Describe the energy transfers and transformations for a javelin, starting from the point at which an athlete picks up the javelin and ending when the javelin is stuck into the ground after being thrown.
15. Do devices with efficiencies of less than one violate the law of conservation of energy? Explain.
16. List four different forms or types of energy. Give one example of a conversion from each of these forms to another form.
17. List the energy conversions that occur when riding a bicycle.

Problems & Exercises

7.1 Work: The Scientific Definition

1. How much work does a supermarket checkout attendant do on a can of soup he pushes 0.600 m horizontally with a force of 5.00 N? Express your answer in joules and kilocalories.
2. A 75.0-kg person climbs stairs, gaining 2.50 meters in height. Find the work done to accomplish this task. (Neglect friction in your calculations.)

7.7 Power

18. Most electrical appliances are rated in watts. Does this rating depend on how long the appliance is on? (When off, it is a zero-watt device.) Explain in terms of the definition of power.
19. Explain, in terms of the definition of power, why energy consumption is sometimes listed in kilowatt-hours rather than joules. What is the relationship between these two energy units?
20. A spark of static electricity, such as that you might receive from a doorknob on a cold dry day, may carry a few hundred watts of power. Explain why you are not injured by such a spark.

7.8 Work, Energy, and Power in Humans

21. Explain why it is easier to climb a mountain on a zigzag path rather than one straight up the side. Is your increase in gravitational potential energy the same in both cases? Is your energy consumption the same in both?
22. Do you do work on the outside world when you rub your hands together to warm them? What is the efficiency of this activity?
23. Shivering is an involuntary response to lowered body temperature. What is the efficiency of the body when shivering, and is this a desirable value?
24. Discuss the relative impact of dieting and exercise, noting that most athletic activities consume food energy at a rate of 400 to 500 W, while a single cup of yogurt can contain 1360 kJ (325 kcal).

7.9 World Energy Use

25. What is the difference between energy conservation and the law of conservation of energy? Give some examples of each.
26. If the efficiency of a coal-fired electrical generating plant is 35%, then what do we mean when we say that energy is a conserved quantity?
3. (a) Calculate the work done on a 1500-kg elevator car by its cable to lift it 40.0 m at constant speed, assuming friction averages 100 N. (b) What is the work done on the elevator car by the gravitational force in this process? (c) What is the total work done on the elevator car?
4. Suppose a car travels 108 km at a speed of 30.0 m/s, and uses 2.0 gal of gasoline. Only 30% of the gasoline goes into useful work by the force that

keeps the car moving at constant speed despite friction. (See [Table 7.1](#) for the energy content of gasoline.) (a) What is the magnitude of the force exerted to keep the car moving at constant speed? (b) If the required force is directly proportional to speed, how many gallons will be used to drive 108 km at a speed of 28.0 m/s?

5. Calculate the work done by an 85.0-kg man who pushes a crate 4.00 m up along a ramp that makes an angle of 20.0° with the horizontal. (See [Figure 7.32](#).) He exerts a force of 500 N on the crate parallel to the ramp and moves at a constant speed. Be certain to include the work he does on the crate *and* on his body to get up the ramp.

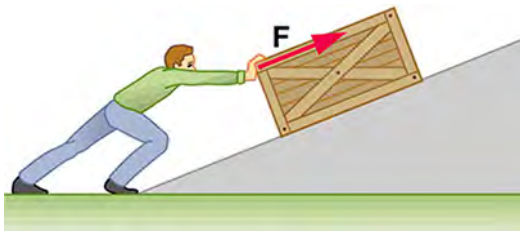


FIGURE 7.32 A man pushes a crate up a ramp.

6. How much work is done by the boy pulling his sister 30.0 m in a wagon as shown in [Figure 7.33](#)? Assume no friction acts on the wagon.

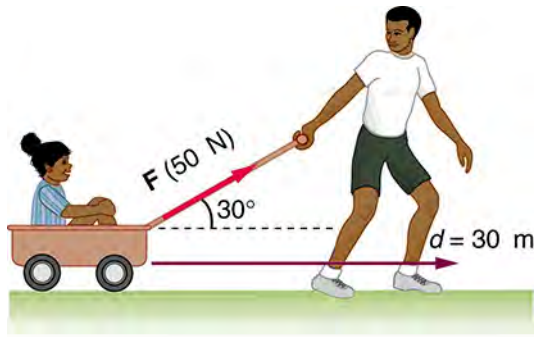


FIGURE 7.33 The boy does work on the system of the wagon and the child when he pulls them as shown.

7. A shopper pushes a grocery cart 20.0 m at constant speed on level ground, against a 35.0 N frictional force. He pushes in a direction 25.0° below the horizontal. (a) What is the work done on the cart by friction? (b) What is the work done on the cart by the gravitational force? (c) What is the work done on the cart by the shopper? (d) Find the force the shopper exerts, using energy considerations. (e) What is the total work done on the cart?
8. Suppose the ski patrol lowers a rescue sled and victim, having a total mass of 90.0 kg, down a 60.0° slope at constant speed, as shown in [Figure 7.34](#). The coefficient of friction between the sled and the

snow is 0.100. (a) How much work is done by friction as the sled moves 30.0 m along the hill? (b) How much work is done by the rope on the sled in this distance? (c) What is the work done by the gravitational force on the sled? (d) What is the total work done?

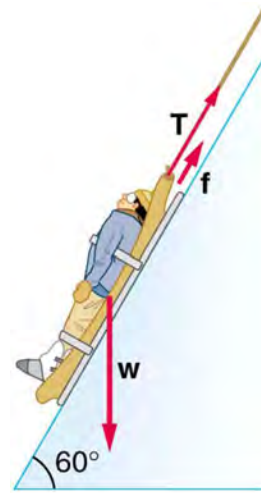


FIGURE 7.34 A rescue sled and victim are lowered down a steep slope.

7.2 Kinetic Energy and the Work-Energy Theorem

9. Compare the kinetic energy of a 20,000-kg truck moving at 110 km/h with that of an 80.0-kg astronaut in orbit moving at 27,500 km/h.
10. (a) How fast must a 3000-kg elephant move to have the same kinetic energy as a 65.0-kg sprinter running at 10.0 m/s? (b) Discuss how the larger energies needed for the movement of larger animals would relate to metabolic rates.
11. Confirm the value given for the kinetic energy of an aircraft carrier in [Table 7.1](#). You will need to look up the definition of a nautical mile (1 knot = 1 nautical mile/h).
12. (a) Calculate the force needed to bring a 950-kg car to rest from a speed of 90.0 km/h in a distance of 120 m (a fairly typical distance for a non-panic stop). (b) Suppose instead the car hits a concrete abutment at full speed and is brought to a stop in 2.00 m. Calculate the force exerted on the car and compare it with the force found in part (a).
13. A car's bumper is designed to withstand a 4.0-km/h (1.12-m/s) collision with an immovable object without damage to the body of the car. The bumper cushions the shock by absorbing the force over a distance. Calculate the magnitude of the average force on a bumper that collapses 0.200 m

while bringing a 900-kg car to rest from an initial speed of 1.12 m/s.

14. Boxing gloves are padded to lessen the force of a blow. (a) Calculate the force exerted by a boxing glove on an opponent's face, if the glove and face compress 7.50 cm during a blow in which the 7.00-kg arm and glove are brought to rest from an initial speed of 10.0 m/s. (b) Calculate the force exerted by an identical blow in the days when no gloves were used and the knuckles and face would compress only 2.00 cm. (c) Discuss the magnitude of the force with glove on. Does it seem high enough to cause damage even though it is lower than the force with no glove?
15. Using energy considerations, calculate the average force a 60.0-kg sprinter exerts backward on the track to accelerate from 2.00 to 8.00 m/s in a distance of 25.0 m, if he encounters a headwind that exerts an average force of 30.0 N against him.

7.3 Gravitational Potential Energy

16. A hydroelectric power facility (see [Figure 7.35](#)) converts the gravitational potential energy of water behind a dam to electric energy. (a) What is the gravitational potential energy relative to the generators of a lake of volume 50.0 km^3 (mass = $5.00 \times 10^{13} \text{ kg}$), given that the lake has an average height of 40.0 m above the generators? (b) Compare this with the energy stored in a 9-megaton fusion bomb.



FIGURE 7.35 Hydroelectric facility (credit: Denis Belevich, Wikimedia Commons)

17. (a) How much gravitational potential energy (relative to the ground on which it is built) is stored in the Great Pyramid of Cheops, given that its mass is about $7 \times 10^9 \text{ kg}$ and its center of mass is 36.5 m above the surrounding ground? (b) How does this energy compare with the daily food intake of a person?

18. Suppose a 350-g kookaburra (a large kingfisher bird) picks up a 75-g snake and raises it 2.5 m from the ground to a branch. (a) How much work did the bird do on the snake? (b) How much work did it do to raise its own center of mass to the branch?
19. In [Example 7.7](#), we found that the speed of a roller coaster that had descended 20.0 m was only slightly greater when it had an initial speed of 5.00 m/s than when it started from rest. This implies that $\Delta PE \gg KE_i$. Confirm this statement by taking the ratio of ΔPE to KE_i . (Note that mass cancels.)
20. A 100-g toy car is propelled by a compressed spring that starts it moving. The car follows the curved track in [Figure 7.36](#). Show that the final speed of the toy car is 0.687 m/s if its initial speed is 2.00 m/s and it coasts up the frictionless slope, gaining 0.180 m in altitude.



FIGURE 7.36 A toy car moves up a sloped track. (credit: Leszek Leszczynski, Flickr)

21. In a downhill ski race, surprisingly, little advantage is gained by getting a running start. (This is because the initial kinetic energy is small compared with the gain in gravitational potential energy on even small hills.) To demonstrate this, find the final speed and the time taken for a skier who skies 70.0 m along a 30° slope neglecting friction: (a) Starting from rest. (b) Starting with an initial speed of 2.50 m/s. (c) Does the answer surprise you? Discuss why it is still advantageous to get a running start in very competitive events.

7.4 Conservative Forces and Potential Energy

22. A 5.00×10^5 -kg subway train is brought to a stop from a speed of 0.500 m/s in 0.400 m by a large spring bumper at the end of its track. What is the force constant k of the spring?
23. A pogo stick has a spring with a force constant of $2.50 \times 10^4 \text{ N/m}$, which can be compressed 12.0

cm. To what maximum height can a child jump on the stick using only the energy in the spring, if the child and stick have a total mass of 40.0 kg? Explicitly show how you follow the steps in the [Problem-Solving Strategies for Energy](#).

7.5 Nonconservative Forces

24. A 60.0-kg skier with an initial speed of 12.0 m/s coasts up a 2.50-m-high rise as shown in [Figure 7.37](#). Find her final speed at the top, given that the coefficient of friction between her skis and the snow is 0.0800. (Hint: Find the distance traveled up the incline assuming a straight-line path as shown in the figure.)

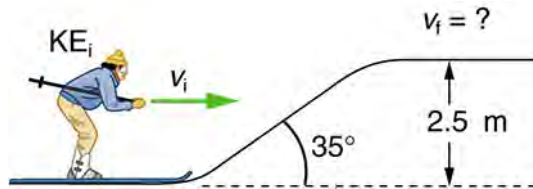


FIGURE 7.37 The skier's initial kinetic energy is partially used in coasting to the top of a rise.

25. (a) How high a hill can a car coast up (engine disengaged) if work done by friction is negligible and its initial speed is 110 km/h? (b) If, in actuality, a 750-kg car with an initial speed of 110 km/h is observed to coast up a hill to a height 22.0 m above its starting point, how much thermal energy was generated by friction? (c) What is the average force of friction if the hill has a slope 2.5° above the horizontal?

7.6 Conservation of Energy

26. Using values from [Table 7.1](#), how many DNA molecules could be broken by the energy carried by a single electron in the beam of an old-fashioned TV tube? (These electrons were not dangerous in themselves, but they did create dangerous x rays. Later model tube TVs had shielding that absorbed x rays before they escaped and exposed viewers.)
27. Using energy considerations and assuming negligible air resistance, show that a rock thrown from a bridge 20.0 m above water with an initial speed of 15.0 m/s strikes the water with a speed of 24.8 m/s independent of the direction thrown.
28. If the energy in fusion bombs were used to supply the energy needs of the world, how many of the 9-megaton variety would be needed for a year's supply of energy (using data from [Table 7.1](#))? This is not as far-fetched as it may sound—there are

thousands of nuclear bombs, and their energy can be trapped in underground explosions and converted to electricity, as natural geothermal energy is.

29. (a) Use of hydrogen fusion to supply energy is a dream that may be realized in the next century. Fusion would be a relatively clean and almost limitless supply of energy, as can be seen from [Table 7.1](#). To illustrate this, calculate how many years the present energy needs of the world could be supplied by one millionth of the oceans' hydrogen fusion energy. (b) How does this time compare with historically significant events, such as the duration of stable economic systems?

7.7 Power

30. The Crab Nebula (see [Figure 7.38](#)) pulsar is the remnant of a supernova that occurred in A.D. 1054. Using data from [Table 7.3](#), calculate the approximate factor by which the power output of this astronomical object has declined since its explosion.



FIGURE 7.38 Crab Nebula (credit: ESO, via Wikimedia Commons)

31. Suppose a star 1000 times brighter than our Sun (that is, emitting 1000 times the power) suddenly goes supernova. Using data from [Table 7.3](#): (a) By what factor does its power output increase? (b) How many times brighter than our entire Milky Way galaxy is the supernova? (c) Based on your answers, discuss whether it should be possible to observe supernovas in distant galaxies. Note that there are on the order of 10^{11} observable galaxies, the average brightness of which is somewhat less than our own galaxy.

- 32.** A person in good physical condition can put out 100 W of useful power for several hours at a stretch, perhaps by pedaling a mechanism that drives an electric generator. Neglecting any problems of generator efficiency and practical considerations such as resting time: (a) How many people would it take to run a 4.00-kW electric clothes dryer? (b) How many people would it take to replace a large electric power plant that generates 800 MW?
- 33.** What is the cost of operating a 3.00-W electric clock for a year if the cost of electricity is \$0.0900 per kW · h?
- 34.** A large household air conditioner may consume 15.0 kW of power. What is the cost of operating this air conditioner 3.00 h per day for 30.0 d if the cost of electricity is \$0.110 per kW · h?
- 35.** (a) What is the average power consumption in watts of an appliance that uses 5.00 kW · h of energy per day? (b) How many joules of energy does this appliance consume in a year?
- 36.** (a) What is the average useful power output of a person who does 6.00×10^6 J of useful work in 8.00 h? (b) Working at this rate, how long will it take this person to lift 2000 kg of bricks 1.50 m to a platform? (Work done to lift his body can be omitted because it is not considered useful output here.)
- 37.** A 500-kg dragster accelerates from rest to a final speed of 110 m/s in 400 m (about a quarter of a mile) and encounters an average frictional force of 1200 N. What is its average power output in watts and horsepower if this takes 7.30 s?
- 38.** (a) How long will it take an 850-kg car with a useful power output of 40.0 hp (1 hp = 746 W) to reach a speed of 15.0 m/s, neglecting friction? (b) How long will this acceleration take if the car also climbs a 3.00-m-high hill in the process?
- 39.** (a) Find the useful power output of an elevator motor that lifts a 2500-kg load a height of 35.0 m in 12.0 s, if it also increases the speed from rest to 4.00 m/s. Note that the total mass of the counterbalanced system is 10,000 kg—so that only 2500 kg is raised in height, but the full 10,000 kg is accelerated. (b) What does it cost, if electricity is \$0.0900 per kW · h?
- 40.** (a) What is the available energy content, in joules, of a battery that operates a 2.00-W electric clock for 18 months? (b) How long can a battery that can supply 8.00×10^4 J run a pocket calculator that consumes energy at the rate of 1.00×10^{-3} W?
- 41.** (a) How long would it take a 1.50×10^5 -kg airplane with engines that produce 100 MW of power to reach a speed of 250 m/s and an altitude of 12.0 km if air resistance were negligible? (b) If it actually takes 900 s, what is the power? (c) Given this power, what is the average force of air resistance if the airplane takes 1200 s? (Hint: You must find the distance the plane travels in 1200 s assuming constant acceleration.)
- 42.** Calculate the power output needed for a 950-kg car to climb a 2.00° slope at a constant 30.0 m/s while encountering wind resistance and friction totaling 600 N. Explicitly show how you follow the steps in the [Problem-Solving Strategies for Energy](#).
- 43.** (a) Calculate the power per square meter reaching Earth's upper atmosphere from the Sun. (Take the power output of the Sun to be 4.00×10^{26} W.) (b) Part of this is absorbed and reflected by the atmosphere, so that a maximum of 1.30 kW/m^2 reaches Earth's surface. Calculate the area in km^2 of solar energy collectors needed to replace an electric power plant that generates 750 MW if the collectors convert an average of 2.00% of the maximum power into electricity. (This small conversion efficiency is due to the devices themselves, and the fact that the sun is directly overhead only briefly.) With the same assumptions, what area would be needed to meet the United States' energy needs (1.05×10^{20} J)? Australia's energy needs (5.4×10^{18} J)? China's energy needs (6.3×10^{19} J)? (These energy consumption values are from 2006.)

7.8 Work, Energy, and Power in Humans

- 44.** (a) How long can you rapidly climb stairs (116/min) on the 93.0 kcal of energy in a 10.0-g pat of butter? (b) How many flights is this if each flight has 16 stairs?
- 45.** (a) What is the power output in watts and horsepower of a 70.0-kg sprinter who accelerates from rest to 10.0 m/s in 3.00 s? (b) Considering the amount of power generated, do you think a well-trained athlete could do this repetitively for long periods of time?
- 46.** Calculate the power output in watts and

horsepower of a shot-putter who takes 1.20 s to accelerate the 7.27-kg shot from rest to 14.0 m/s, while raising it 0.800 m. (Do not include the power produced to accelerate his body.)



FIGURE 7.39 Shot putter at the Dornoch Highland Gathering in 2007. (credit: John Haslam, Flickr)

47. (a) What is the efficiency of an out-of-condition person who does 2.10×10^5 J of useful work while metabolizing 500 kcal of food energy? (b) How many food calories would a well-conditioned athlete metabolize in doing the same work with an efficiency of 20%?
48. Energy that is not utilized for work or heat transfer is converted to the chemical energy of body fat containing about 39 kJ/g. How many grams of fat will you gain if you eat 10,000 kJ (about 2500 kcal) one day and do nothing but sit relaxed for 16.0 h and sleep for the other 8.00 h? Use data from [Table 7.5](#) for the energy consumption rates of these activities.
49. Using data from [Table 7.5](#), calculate the daily energy needs of a person who sleeps for 7.00 h, walks for 2.00 h, attends classes for 4.00 h, cycles for 2.00 h, sits relaxed for 3.00 h, and studies for 6.00 h. (Studying consumes energy at the same rate as sitting in class.)
50. What is the efficiency of a subject on a treadmill who puts out work at the rate of 100 W while consuming oxygen at the rate of 2.00 L/min? (Hint: See [Table 7.5](#).)
51. Shoveling snow can be extremely taxing because the arms have such a low efficiency in this activity. Suppose a person shoveling a footpath metabolizes food at the rate of 800 W. (a) What is her useful power output? (b) How long will it take her to lift 3000 kg of snow 1.20 m? (This could be the amount of heavy snow on 20 m of footpath.)
- (c) How much waste heat transfer in kilojoules will she generate in the process?
52. Very large forces are produced in joints when a person jumps from some height to the ground. (a) Calculate the magnitude of the force produced if an 80.0-kg person jumps from a 0.600-m-high ledge and lands stiffly, compressing joint material 1.50 cm as a result. (Be certain to include the weight of the person.) (b) In practice the knees bend almost involuntarily to help extend the distance over which you stop. Calculate the magnitude of the force produced if the stopping distance is 0.300 m. (c) Compare both forces with the weight of the person.
53. Jogging on hard surfaces with insufficiently padded shoes produces large forces in the feet and legs. (a) Calculate the magnitude of the force needed to stop the downward motion of a jogger's leg, if his leg has a mass of 13.0 kg, a speed of 6.00 m/s, and stops in a distance of 1.50 cm. (Be certain to include the weight of the 75.0-kg jogger's body.) (b) Compare this force with the weight of the jogger.
54. (a) Calculate the energy in kJ used by a 55.0-kg person who does 50 deep knee bends in which their center of mass is lowered and raised 0.400 m. (They do work in both directions.) You may assume their efficiency is 20%. (b) What is the average power consumption rate in watts if they do this in 3.00 min?
55. Kanellos Kanellopoulos flew 119 km from Crete to Santorini, Greece, on April 23, 1988, in the *Daedalus 88*, an aircraft powered by a bicycle-type drive mechanism (see [Figure 7.40](#)). His useful power output for the 234-min trip was about 350 W. Using the efficiency for cycling from [Table 7.2](#), calculate the food energy in kilojoules he metabolized during the flight.



FIGURE 7.40 The Daedalus 88 in flight. (credit: NASA photo by Beasley)

- 56.** The swimmer shown in [Figure 7.41](#) exerts an average horizontal backward force of 80.0 N with his arm during each 1.80 m long stroke. (a) What is his work output in each stroke? (b) Calculate the power output of his arms if he does 120 strokes per minute.

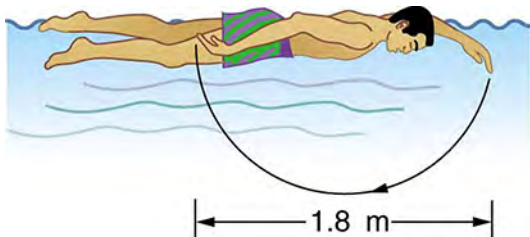


FIGURE 7.41

- 57.** Mountain climbers carry bottled oxygen when at very high altitudes. (a) Assuming that a mountain climber uses oxygen at twice the rate for climbing 116 stairs per minute (because of low air temperature and winds), calculate how many liters of oxygen a climber would need for 10.0 h of climbing. (These are liters at sea level.) Note that only 40% of the inhaled oxygen is utilized; the rest is exhaled. (b) How much useful work does the climber do if he and his equipment have a mass of 90.0 kg and he gains 1000 m of altitude? (c) What is his efficiency for the 10.0-h climb?
- 58.** The awe-inspiring Great Pyramid of Cheops was built more than 4500 years ago. Its square base, originally 230 m on a side, covered 13.1 acres, and it was 146 m high, with a mass of about 7×10^9 kg. (The pyramid's dimensions are slightly different today due to quarrying and some sagging.) Historians estimate that 20,000 workers spent 20 years to construct it, working 12-hour days, 330 days per year. (a) Calculate the

gravitational potential energy stored in the pyramid, given its center of mass is at one-fourth its height. (b) Only a fraction of the workers lifted blocks; most were involved in support services such as building ramps (see [Figure 7.42](#)), bringing food and water, and hauling blocks to the site. Calculate the efficiency of the workers who did the lifting, assuming there were 1000 of them and they consumed food energy at the rate of 300 kcal/h. What does your answer imply about how much of their work went into block-lifting, versus how much work went into friction and lifting and lowering their own bodies? (c) Calculate the mass of food that had to be supplied each day, assuming that the average worker required 3600 kcal per day and that their diet was 5% protein, 60% carbohydrate, and 35% fat. (These proportions neglect the mass of bulk and nondigestible materials consumed.)

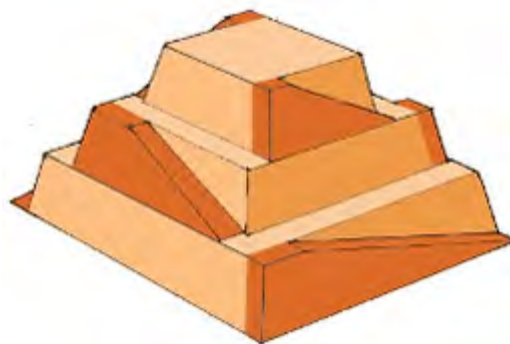


FIGURE 7.42 Ancient pyramids were probably constructed using ramps as simple machines. (credit: Franck Monnier, Wikimedia Commons)

- 59.** (a) How long can you play tennis on the 800 kJ (about 200 kcal) of energy in a candy bar? (b) Does this seem like a long time? Discuss why exercise is necessary but may not be sufficient to cause a person to lose weight.

7.9 World Energy Use

- 60.** Integrated Concepts
(a) Calculate the force the woman in [Figure 7.43](#) exerts to do a push-up at constant speed, taking all data to be known to three digits. (b) How much work does she do if her center of mass rises 0.240 m? (c) What is her useful power output if she does 25 push-ups in 1 min? (Should work done lowering her body be included? See the discussion of useful work in [Work, Energy, and Power in Humans](#).)

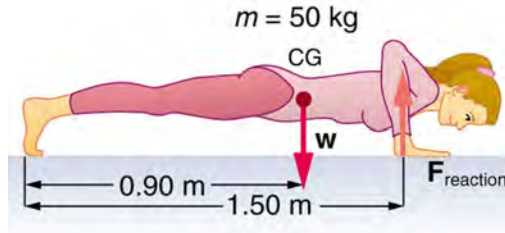


FIGURE 7.43 Forces involved in doing push-ups. The woman's weight acts as a force exerted downward on her center of gravity (CG).

61. Integrated Concepts

A 75.0-kg cross-country skier is climbing a 3.0° slope at a constant speed of 2.00 m/s and encounters air resistance of 25.0 N. Find his power output for work done against the gravitational force and air resistance. (b) What average force does he exert backward on the snow to accomplish this? (c) If he continues to exert this force and to experience the same air resistance when he reaches a level area, how long will it take him to reach a velocity of 10.0 m/s?

62. Integrated Concepts

The 70.0-kg swimmer in [Figure 7.41](#) starts a race with an initial velocity of 1.25 m/s and exerts an average force of 80.0 N backward with his arms during each 1.80 m long stroke. (a) What is his initial acceleration if water resistance is 45.0 N? (b) What is the subsequent average resistance force from the water during the 5.00 s it takes him to reach his top velocity of 2.50 m/s? (c) Discuss whether water resistance seems to increase linearly with velocity.

63. Integrated Concepts

A toy gun uses a spring with a force constant of 300 N/m to propel a 10.0-g steel ball. If the spring is compressed 7.00 cm and friction is negligible: (a) How much force is needed to compress the spring? (b) To what maximum height can the ball be shot? (c) At what angles above the horizontal may a child aim to hit a target 3.00 m away at the same height as the gun? (d) What is the gun's maximum range on level ground?

64. Integrated Concepts

(a) What force must be supplied by an elevator cable to produce an acceleration of 0.800 m/s^2 against a 200-N frictional force, if the mass of the loaded elevator is 1500 kg? (b) How much work is done by the cable in lifting the elevator 20.0 m? (c) What is the final speed of the elevator if it starts from rest? (d) How much work went into

thermal energy?

65. Unreasonable Results

A car advertisement claims that its 900-kg car accelerated from rest to 30.0 m/s and drove 100 km, gaining 3.00 km in altitude, on 1.0 gal of gasoline. The average force of friction including air resistance was 700 N. Assume all values are known to three significant figures. (a) Calculate the car's efficiency. (b) What is unreasonable about the result? (c) Which premise is unreasonable, or which premises are inconsistent?

66. Unreasonable Results

Body fat is metabolized, supplying 9.30 kcal/g, when dietary intake is less than needed to fuel metabolism. The manufacturers of an exercise bicycle claim that you can metabolize 0.500 kg of fat per day by vigorously exercising for 2.00 h per day on their machine. (a) How many kcal are supplied by the metabolization of 0.500 kg of fat? (b) Calculate the kcal/min that you would have to utilize to metabolize fat at the rate of 0.500 kg in 2.00 h. (c) What is unreasonable about the results? (d) Which premise is unreasonable, or which premises are inconsistent?

67. Construct Your Own Problem

Consider a person climbing and descending stairs. Construct a problem in which you calculate the long-term rate at which stairs can be climbed considering the mass of the person, his ability to generate power with his legs, and the height of a single stair step. Also consider why the same person can descend stairs at a faster rate for a nearly unlimited time in spite of the fact that very similar forces are exerted going down as going up. (This points to a fundamentally different process for descending versus climbing stairs.)

68. Construct Your Own Problem

Consider humans generating electricity by pedaling a device similar to a stationary bicycle. Construct a problem in which you determine the number of people it would take to replace a large electrical generation facility. Among the things to consider are the power output that is reasonable using the legs, rest time, and the need for electricity 24 hours per day. Discuss the practical implications of your results.

69. Integrated Concepts

A 105-kg basketball player crouches down 0.400 m while waiting to jump. After exerting a force on the floor through this 0.400 m, their feet leave the

floor and their center of gravity rises 0.950 m above its normal standing erect position. (a) Using energy considerations, calculate the player's velocity when they leave the floor. (b) What average force did the player exert on the floor? (Do not neglect the force to support their weight as well as that to accelerate them.) (c) What was the player's power output during the acceleration phase?

70. Critical Thinking Two boxes of the same mass are pressed against pistons that compress and release the boxes on frictionless surfaces. Box A's piston has a constant force F over a distance x before the box is released while box B starts at zero force and increases linearly to a force of $2F$ before releasing the box at a distance of $1/2d$. (a)

Which of these boxes has the greatest speed after releasing from the piston? (b) Based on experimental data for trials similar to box A, an equation that fits the data is suggested for the change in kinetic energy, ΔKE , which may not be correct: $\Delta KE = KF^{1/2}x^{1/2}$, where K is a constant with appropriate units, F is the applied force, and x is the distance the piston moves in contact with the box. Is this equation consistent with your answer from part a? Explain why or why not. Does this equation make sense? Explain why or why not. (c) If the applied force of the piston is proportional to the distance in contact with the box, graph the work done on the box vs. the distance in contact with the piston and box.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

7.1 Work: The Scientific Definition

1. Given Table 7.7 about how much force does the rocket engine exert on the 3.0-kg payload?

Distance traveled with rocket engine firing (m)	Payload final velocity (m/s)
500	310
490	300
1020	450
505	312

TABLE 7.7

- a. 150 N
b. 300 N
c. 450 N
d. 600 N
2. You have a cart track, a cart, several masses, and a position-sensing pulley. Design an experiment to examine how the force exerted on the cart does work as it moves through a distance.
3. Look at Figure 7.10(c). You compress a spring by x , and then release it. Next you compress the spring by $2x$. How much more work did you do the second time than the first?
- a. Half as much
b. The same

- c. Twice as much
d. Four times as much

4. You have a cart track, two carts, several masses, a position-sensing pulley, and a piece of carpet (a rough surface) that will fit over the track. Design an experiment to examine how the force exerted on the cart does work as the cart moves through a distance.
5. A crane is lifting construction materials from the ground to an elevation of 60 m. Over the first 10 m, the motor linearly increases the force it exerts from 0 to 10 kN. It exerts that constant force for the next 40 m, and then winds down to 0 N again over the last 10 m, as shown in the figure. What is the total work done on the construction materials?

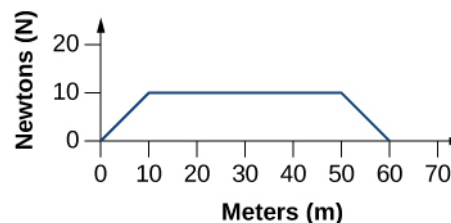


FIGURE 7.45

- a. 500 kJ
b. 600 kJ
c. 300 kJ
d. 18 MJ

7.2 Kinetic Energy and the Work-Energy Theorem

6. A toy car is going around a loop-the-loop. Gravity _____ the kinetic energy on the upward side of the

- loop, ____ the kinetic energy at the top, and ____ the kinetic energy on the downward side of the loop.
- increases, decreases, has no effect on
 - decreases, has no effect on, increases
 - increases, has no effect on, decreases
 - decreases, increases, has no effect on
7. A roller coaster is set up with a track in the form of a perfect cosine. Describe and graph what happens to the kinetic energy of a cart as it goes through the first full period of the track.
8. If wind is blowing horizontally toward a car with an angle of 30 degrees from the direction of travel, the kinetic energy will _____. If the wind is blowing at a car at 135 degrees from the direction of travel, the kinetic energy will _____.
 a. increase, increase
 b. increase, decrease
 c. decrease, increase
 d. decrease, decrease
9. In what direction relative to the direction of travel can a force act on a car (traveling on level ground), and not change the kinetic energy? Can you give examples of such forces?
10. A 2000-kg airplane is coming in for a landing, with a velocity 5 degrees below the horizontal and a drag force of 40 kN acting directly rearward. Ignoring thrust and lift on the plane, kinetic energy will ____ due to the net force of ____.
 a. increase, 20 kN
 b. decrease, 40 kN
 c. increase, 45 kN
 d. decrease, 45 kN
11. You are participating in the Iditarod, and your sled dogs are pulling you across a frozen lake with a force of 1200 N while a 300 N wind is blowing at you at 135 degrees from your direction of travel. What is the net force, and will your kinetic energy increase or decrease?
12. A model drag car is being accelerated along its track from rest by a motor with a force of 75 N, but there is a drag force of 30 N due to the track. What is the kinetic energy after 2 m of travel?
 a. 90 J
 b. 150 J
 c. 210 J
 d. 60 J
13. You are launching a 0.315-kg potato out of a potato cannon. The cannon is 1.5 m long and is aimed 30.0 degrees above the horizontal. It exerts an average 45 N force on the potato. Ignoring friction, what is the kinetic energy of the potato as it leaves the muzzle of the potato cannon?
14. When the force acting on an object is parallel to the direction of the motion of the center of mass, the mechanical energy _____. When the force acting on an object is antiparallel to the direction of the center of mass, the mechanical energy _____.
 a. increases, increases
 b. increases, decreases
 c. decreases, increases
 d. decreases, decreases
15. Describe a system in which the main forces acting are parallel or antiparallel to the center of mass, and justify your answer.
16. A child is pulling two red wagons, with the second one tied to the first by a (non-stretching) rope. Each wagon has a mass of 10 kg. If the child exerts a force of 30 N for 5.0 m, how much has the kinetic energy of the two-wagon system changed?
 a. 300 J
 b. 150 J
 c. 75 J
 d. 60 J
17. A child has two red wagons, with the rear one tied to the front by a (non-stretching) rope. If the child pushes on the rear wagon, what happens to the kinetic energy of each of the wagons, and the two-wagon system?
18. Draw a graph of the force parallel to displacement exerted on a stunt motorcycle going through a loop-the-loop versus the distance traveled around the loop. Explain the net change in energy.

7.3 Gravitational Potential Energy

19. A 1.0 kg baseball is flying at 10 m/s. How much kinetic energy does it have? Potential energy?
 a. 10 J, 20 J
 b. 50 J, 20 J
 c. unknown, 50 J
 d. 50 J, unknown
20. A 0.305-kg potato has been launched out of a potato cannon at 15.8 m/s. What is the kinetic energy? If you then learn that it is 4.00 m above the ground, what is the total mechanical energy relative to the ground?

- a. 12.0 J, 50.1 J
- b. 2.41 J, 14.4 J
- c. 38.1 J, 50.1 J
- d. 12.0 J, 14.4 J

- 21.** You have a 120-g yo-yo that you are swinging at 0.9 m/s. How much energy does it have? How high can it get above the lowest point of the swing without your doing any additional work, on Earth? How high could it get on the Moon, where gravity is $1/6$ Earth's?

7.4 Conservative Forces and Potential Energy

- 22.** Two 4.0 kg masses are connected to each other by a spring with a force constant of 25 N/m and a rest length of 1.0 m. If the spring has been compressed to 0.80 m in length and the masses are traveling toward each other at 0.50 m/s (each), what is the total energy in the system?
- a. 1.0 J
 - b. 1.5 J
 - c. 9.0 J
 - d. 8.0 J
- 23.** A spring with a force constant of 5000 N/m and a rest length of 3.0 m is used in a catapult. When compressed to 1.0 m, it is used to launch a 50 kg rock. However, there is an error in the release mechanism, so the rock gets launched almost straight up. How high does it go, and how fast is it going when it hits the ground?
- 24.** What information do you need to calculate the kinetic energy and potential energy of a spring? Potential energy due to gravity? How many objects do you need information about for each of these cases?
- 25.** You are loading a toy dart gun, which has two settings, the more powerful with the spring compressed twice as far as the lower setting. If it takes 5.0 J of work to compress the dart gun to the lower setting, how much work does it take for the higher setting?
- a. 20 J
 - b. 10 J
 - c. 2.5 J
 - d. 40 J
- 26.** Describe a system you use daily with internal potential energy.
- 27.** Old-fashioned pendulum clocks are powered by masses that need to be wound back to the top of

the clock about once a week to counteract energy lost due to friction and to the chimes. One particular clock has three masses: 4.0 kg, 4.0 kg, and 6.0 kg. They can drop 1.3 meters. How much energy does the clock use in a week?

- a. 51 J
- b. 76 J
- c. 127 J
- d. 178 J

- 28.** A water tower stores not only water, but (at least part of) the energy to move the water. How much? Make reasonable estimates for how much water is in the tower, and other quantities you need.
- 29.** Old-fashioned pocket watches needed to be wound daily so they wouldn't run down and lose time, due to the friction in the internal components. This required a large number of turns of the winding key, but not much force per turn, and it was possible to overwind and break the watch. How was the energy stored?
- a. A small mass raised a long distance
 - b. A large mass raised a short distance
 - c. A weak spring deformed a long way
 - d. A strong spring deformed a short way
- 30.** Some of the very first clocks invented in China were powered by water. Describe how you think this was done.

7.5 Nonconservative Forces

- 31.** You are in a room in a basement with a smooth concrete floor (friction force equals 40 N) and a nice rug (friction force equals 55 N) that is 3 m by 4 m. However, you have to push a very heavy box from one corner of the rug to the opposite corner of the rug. Will you do more work against friction going around the floor or across the rug, and how much extra?
- a. Across the rug is 275 J extra
 - b. Around the floor is 5 J extra
 - c. Across the rug is 5 J extra
 - d. Around the floor is 280 J extra
- 32.** In the Appalachians, along the interstate, there are ramps of loose gravel for semis that have had their brakes fail to drive into to stop. Design an experiment to measure how effective this would be.

7.6 Conservation of Energy

- 33.** You do 30 J of work to load a toy dart gun. However, the dart is 10 cm long and feels a

- frictional force of 10 N while going through the dart gun's barrel. What is the kinetic energy of the fired dart?
- 30 J
 - 29 J
 - 28 J
 - 27 J
- 34.** When an object is lifted by a crane, it begins and ends its motion at rest. The same is true of an object pushed across a rough surface. Explain why this happens. What are the differences between these systems?
- 35.** A child has two red wagons, with the rear one tied to the front by a stretchy rope (a spring). If the child pulls on the front wagon, the ____ increases.
- kinetic energy of the wagons
 - potential energy stored in the spring
 - both A and B
 - not enough information
- 36.** A child has two red wagons, with the rear one tied to the front by a stretchy rope (a spring). If the child pulls on the front wagon, the energy stored in the system increases. How do the relative amounts of potential and kinetic energy in this system change over time?
- 37.** Which of the following are closed systems?
- Earth
 - a car
 - a frictionless pendulum
 - a mass on a spring in a vacuum
- 38.** Describe a real-world example of a closed system.
- 39.** A 5.0-kg rock falls off of a 10 m cliff. If air resistance exerts an average force of 10 N, what is the kinetic energy when the rock hits the ground?
- 400 J
 - 12.6 m/s
 - 100 J
 - 500 J
- 40.** Hydroelectricity is generated by storing water behind a dam, and then letting some of it run through generators in the dam to turn them. If the system is the water, what is the environment that is doing work on it? If a dam has water 100 m deep behind it, how much energy was generated if 10,000 kg of water exited the dam at 2.0 m/s?
- 41.** Before railroads were invented, goods often traveled along canals, with mules pulling barges from the bank. If a mule is exerting a 1200 N force for 10 km, and the rope connecting the mule to the barge is at a 20 degree angle from the direction of travel, how much work did the mule do on the barge?
- 12 MJ
 - 11 MJ
 - 4.1 MJ
 - 6 MJ
- 42.** Describe an instance today in which you did work, by the scientific definition. Then calculate how much work you did in that instance, showing your work.

CHAPTER 8

Linear Momentum and Collisions



FIGURE 8.1 "Each rugby player has great momentum, which will affect the outcome of their collisions with each other and the ground. (credit: vjpaul, Flickr)"

CHAPTER OUTLINE

8.1 Linear Momentum and Force

8.2 Impulse

8.3 Conservation of Momentum

8.4 Elastic Collisions in One Dimension

8.5 Inelastic Collisions in One Dimension

8.6 Collisions of Point Masses in Two Dimensions

8.7 Introduction to Rocket Propulsion

CONNECTION FOR AP® COURSES In this chapter, you will learn about the concept of momentum and the relationship between momentum and force (both vector quantities) applied over a time interval. Have you ever considered why a glass dropped on a tile floor will often break, but a glass dropped on carpet will often remain intact? Both involve changes in momentum, but the actual collision with the floor is different in each case, just as an automobile collision without the benefit of an airbag can have a significantly different outcome than one with an airbag.

You will learn that the interaction of objects (like a glass and the floor or two automobiles) results in forces, which in

turn result in changes in the momentum of each object. At the same time, you will see how the law of momentum conservation can be applied to a system to help determine the outcome of a collision.

The content in this chapter supports:

Big Idea 3 The interactions of an object with other objects can be described by forces.

Enduring Understanding 3.D A force exerted on an object can change the momentum of the object.

Essential Knowledge 3.D.2 The change in momentum of an object occurs over a time interval.

Big Idea 4: Interactions between systems can result in changes in those systems.

Enduring Understanding 4.B Interactions with other objects or systems can change the total linear momentum of a system.

Essential Knowledge 4.B.1 The change in linear momentum for a constant-mass system is the product of the mass of the system and the change in velocity of the center of mass.

Big Idea 5 Changes that occur as a result of interactions are constrained by conservation laws.

Enduring Understanding 5.A Certain quantities are conserved, in the sense that the changes of those quantities in a given system are always equal to the transfer of that quantity to or from the system by all possible interactions with other systems.

Essential Knowledge 5.A.2 For all systems under all circumstances, energy, charge, linear momentum, and angular momentum are conserved.

Essential Knowledge 5.D.1 In a collision between objects, linear momentum is conserved. In an elastic collision, kinetic energy is the same before and after.

Essential Knowledge 5.D.2 In a collision between objects, linear momentum is conserved. In an inelastic collision, kinetic energy is not the same before and after the collision.

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8.1 Linear Momentum and Force

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define linear momentum.
- Explain the relationship between momentum and force.
- State Newton's second law of motion in terms of momentum.
- Calculate momentum given mass and velocity.

Linear Momentum

The scientific definition of linear momentum is consistent with most people's intuitive understanding of momentum: a large, fast-moving object has greater momentum than a smaller, slower object. **Linear momentum** is defined as the product of a system's mass multiplied by its velocity. In symbols, linear momentum is expressed as

$$\mathbf{p} = m\mathbf{v}. \quad 8.1$$

Momentum is directly proportional to the object's mass and also its velocity. Thus the greater an object's mass or the greater its velocity, the greater its momentum. Momentum $\mathbf{p}$ is a vector having the same direction as the velocity $\mathbf{v}$. The SI unit for momentum is $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$.

LINEAR MOMENTUM

Linear momentum is defined as the product of a system's mass multiplied by its velocity:

$$\mathbf{p} = m\mathbf{v}. \quad 8.2$$



EXAMPLE 8.1

Calculating Momentum: A Football Player and a Football

(a) Calculate the momentum of a 110-kg football player running at 8.00 m/s. (b) Compare the player's momentum with the momentum of a hard-thrown 0.410-kg football that has a speed of 25.0 m/s.

Strategy

No information is given regarding direction, and so we can calculate only the magnitude of the momentum, p . (As usual, a symbol that is in italics is a magnitude, whereas one that is italicized, boldfaced, and has an arrow is a vector.) In both parts of this example, the magnitude of momentum can be calculated directly from the definition of momentum given in the equation, which becomes

$$p = mv \quad 8.3$$

when only magnitudes are considered.

Solution for (a)

To determine the momentum of the player, substitute the known values for the player's mass and speed into the equation.

$$p_{\text{player}} = (110 \text{ kg})(8.00 \text{ m/s}) = 880 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s} \quad 8.4$$

Solution for (b)

To determine the momentum of the ball, substitute the known values for the ball's mass and speed into the equation.

$$p_{\text{ball}} = (0.410 \text{ kg})(25.0 \text{ m/s}) = 10.3 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s} \quad 8.5$$

The ratio of the player's momentum to that of the ball is

$$\frac{p_{\text{player}}}{p_{\text{ball}}} = \frac{880}{10.3} = 85.9. \quad 8.6$$

Discussion

Although the ball has greater velocity, the player has a much greater mass. Thus the momentum of the player is much greater than the momentum of the football, as you might guess. As a result, the player's motion is only slightly affected if he catches the ball. We shall quantify what happens in such collisions in terms of momentum in later sections.

Momentum and Newton's Second Law

The importance of momentum, unlike the importance of energy, was recognized early in the development of classical physics. Momentum was deemed so important that it was called the "quantity of motion." Newton actually stated his **second law of motion** in terms of momentum: The net external force equals the change in momentum of a system divided by the time over which it changes. Using symbols, this law is

$$\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = \frac{\Delta \mathbf{p}}{\Delta t}, \quad 8.7$$

where $\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}}$ is the net external force, $\Delta \mathbf{p}$ is the change in momentum, and Δt is the change in time.

NEWTON'S SECOND LAW OF MOTION IN TERMS OF MOMENTUM

The net external force equals the change in momentum of a system divided by the time over which it changes.

$$\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = \frac{\Delta \mathbf{p}}{\Delta t} \quad 8.8$$

MAKING CONNECTIONS: FORCE AND MOMENTUM

Force and momentum are intimately related. Force acting over time can change momentum, and Newton's second law of motion, can be stated in its most broadly applicable form in terms of momentum. Momentum continues to be a key concept in the study of atomic and subatomic particles in quantum mechanics.

This statement of Newton's second law of motion includes the more familiar $\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = m\mathbf{a}$ as a special case. We can derive this form as follows. First, note that the change in momentum $\Delta\mathbf{p}$ is given by

$$\Delta\mathbf{p} = \Delta(m\mathbf{v}). \quad 8.9$$

If the mass of the system is constant, then

$$\Delta(m\mathbf{v}) = m\Delta\mathbf{v}. \quad 8.10$$

So that for constant mass, Newton's second law of motion becomes

$$\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = \frac{\Delta\mathbf{p}}{\Delta t} = \frac{m\Delta\mathbf{v}}{\Delta t}. \quad 8.11$$

Because $\frac{\Delta\mathbf{v}}{\Delta t} = \mathbf{a}$, we get the familiar equation

$$\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = m\mathbf{a} \quad 8.12$$

when the mass of the system is constant.

Newton's second law of motion stated in terms of momentum is more generally applicable because it can be applied to systems where the mass is changing, such as rockets, as well as to systems of constant mass. We will consider systems with varying mass in some detail; however, the relationship between momentum and force remains useful when mass is constant, such as in the following example.



EXAMPLE 8.2

Calculating Force: Venus Williams' Racquet

During the 2007 French Open, Venus Williams hit the fastest recorded serve in a premier women's match, reaching a speed of 58 m/s (209 km/h). What is the average force exerted on the 0.057-kg tennis ball by Venus Williams' racquet, assuming that the ball's speed just after impact is 58 m/s, that the initial horizontal component of the velocity before impact is negligible, and that the ball remained in contact with the racquet for 5.0 ms (milliseconds)?

Strategy

This problem involves only one dimension because the ball starts from having no horizontal velocity component before impact. Newton's second law stated in terms of momentum is then written as

$$\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = \frac{\Delta\mathbf{p}}{\Delta t}. \quad 8.13$$

As noted above, when mass is constant, the change in momentum is given by

$$\Delta p = m\Delta v = m(v_f - v_i). \quad 8.14$$

In this example, the velocity just after impact and the change in time are given; thus, once Δp is calculated, $F_{\text{net}} = \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t}$ can be used to find the force.

Solution

To determine the change in momentum, substitute the values for the initial and final velocities into the equation above.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta p &= m(v_f - v_i) \\
 &= (0.057 \text{ kg})(58 \text{ m/s} - 0 \text{ m/s}) \\
 &= 3.306 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s} \approx 3.3 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{8.15}$$

Now the magnitude of the net external force can be determined by using $F_{\text{net}} = \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t}$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_{\text{net}} &= \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t} = \frac{3.306 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}}{5.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}} \\
 &= 661 \text{ N} \approx 660 \text{ N},
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{8.16}$$

where we have retained only two significant figures in the final step.

Discussion

This quantity was the average force exerted by Venus Williams' racquet on the tennis ball during its brief impact (note that the ball also experienced the 0.56-N force of gravity, but that force was not due to the racquet). This problem could also be solved by first finding the acceleration and then using $F_{\text{net}} = ma$, but one additional step would be required compared with the strategy used in this example.

8.2 Impulse

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define impulse.
- Describe effects of impulses in everyday life.
- Determine the average effective force using graphical representation.
- Calculate average force and impulse given mass, velocity, and time.

The effect of a force on an object depends on how long it acts, as well as how great the force is. In [Example 8.1](#), a very large force acting for a short time had a great effect on the momentum of the tennis ball. A small force could cause the same **change in momentum**, but it would have to act for a much longer time. For example, if the ball were thrown upward, the gravitational force (which is much smaller than the tennis racquet's force) would eventually reverse the momentum of the ball. Quantitatively, the effect we are talking about is the change in momentum Δp .

By rearranging the equation $F_{\text{net}} = \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t}$ to be

$$\Delta p = F_{\text{net}} \Delta t, \tag{8.17}$$

we can see how the change in momentum equals the average net external force multiplied by the time this force acts. The quantity $F_{\text{net}} \Delta t$ is given the name **impulse**. Impulse is the same as the change in momentum.

IMPULSE: CHANGE IN MOMENTUM

Change in momentum equals the average net external force multiplied by the time this force acts.

$$\Delta p = F_{\text{net}} \Delta t \tag{8.18}$$

The quantity $F_{\text{net}} \Delta t$ is given the name impulse.

There are many ways in which an understanding of impulse can save lives, or at least limbs. The dashboard padding in a car, and certainly the airbags, allow the net force on the occupants in the car to act over a much longer time when there is a sudden stop. The momentum change is the same for an occupant, whether an air bag is deployed or not, but the force (to bring the occupant to a stop) will be much less if it acts over a larger time. Cars today have many plastic components. One advantage of plastics is their lighter weight, which results in better gas mileage. Another advantage is that a car will crumple in a collision, especially in the event of a head-on collision. A longer collision time means the force on the car will be less. Deaths during car races decreased dramatically when the rigid frames of racing cars were replaced with parts that could crumple or collapse in the event of an accident.

Bones in a body will fracture if the force on them is too large. If you jump onto the floor from a table, the force on your legs can be immense if you land stiff-legged on a hard surface. Rolling on the ground after jumping from the table, or landing with a parachute, extends the time over which the force (on you from the ground) acts.



EXAMPLE 8.3

Calculating Magnitudes of Impulses: Two Billiard Balls Striking a Rigid Wall

Two identical billiard balls strike a rigid wall with the same speed, and are reflected without any change of speed. The first ball strikes perpendicular to the wall. The second ball strikes the wall at an angle of 30° from the perpendicular, and bounces off at an angle of 30° from perpendicular to the wall.

- (a) Determine the direction of the force on the wall due to each ball.
- (b) Calculate the ratio of the magnitudes of impulses on the two balls by the wall.

Strategy for (a)

In order to determine the force on the wall, consider the force on the ball due to the wall using Newton's second law and then apply Newton's third law to determine the direction. Assume the x -axis to be normal to the wall and to be positive in the initial direction of motion. Choose the y -axis to be along the wall in the plane of the second ball's motion. The momentum direction and the velocity direction are the same.

Solution for (a)

The first ball bounces directly into the wall and exerts a force on it in the $+x$ direction. Therefore the wall exerts a force on the ball in the $-x$ direction. The second ball continues with the same momentum component in the y direction, but reverses its x -component of momentum, as seen by sketching a diagram of the angles involved and keeping in mind the proportionality between velocity and momentum.

These changes mean the change in momentum for both balls is in the $-x$ direction, so the force of the wall on each ball is along the $-x$ direction.

Strategy for (b)

Calculate the change in momentum for each ball, which is equal to the impulse imparted to the ball.

Solution for (b)

Let u be the speed of each ball before and after collision with the wall, and m the mass of each ball. Choose the x -axis and y -axis as previously described, and consider the change in momentum of the first ball which strikes perpendicular to the wall.

$$p_{xi} = mu; p_{yi} = 0 \quad 8.19$$

$$p_{xf} = -mu; p_{yf} = 0 \quad 8.20$$

Impulse is the change in momentum vector. Therefore the x -component of impulse is equal to $-2mu$ and the y -component of impulse is equal to zero.

Now consider the change in momentum of the second ball.

$$p_{xi} = mu \cos 30^\circ; p_{yi} = -mu \sin 30^\circ \quad 8.21$$

$$p_{xf} = -mu \cos 30^\circ; p_{yf} = -mu \sin 30^\circ \quad 8.22$$

It should be noted here that while p_x changes sign after the collision, p_y does not. Therefore the x -component of impulse is equal to $-2mu \cos 30^\circ$ and the y -component of impulse is equal to zero.

The ratio of the magnitudes of the impulse imparted to the balls is

$$\frac{2mu}{2mu \cos 30^\circ} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} = 1.155.$$

8.23

Discussion

The direction of impulse and force is the same as in the case of (a); it is normal to the wall and along the negative x -direction. Making use of Newton's third law, the force on the wall due to each ball is normal to the wall along the positive x -direction.

Our definition of impulse includes an assumption that the force is constant over the time interval Δt . *Forces are usually not constant.* Forces vary considerably even during the brief time intervals considered. It is, however, possible to find an average effective force F_{eff} that produces the same result as the corresponding time-varying force. [Figure 8.2](#) shows a graph of what an actual force looks like as a function of time for a ball bouncing off the floor. The area under the curve has units of momentum and is equal to the impulse or change in momentum between times t_1 and t_2 . That area is equal to the area inside the rectangle bounded by F_{eff} , t_1 , and t_2 . Thus the impulses and their effects are the same for both the actual and effective forces.

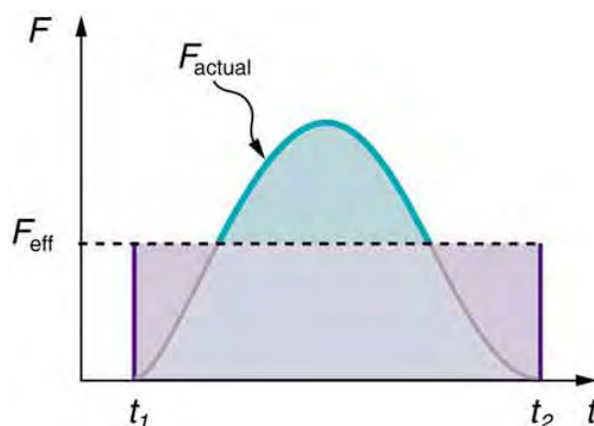


FIGURE 8.2 A graph of force versus time with time along the x -axis and force along the y -axis for an actual force and an equivalent effective force. The areas under the two curves are equal.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME INVESTIGATION—HAND MOVEMENT AND IMPULSE

Try catching a ball while “giving” with the ball, pulling your hands toward your body. Then, try catching a ball while keeping your hands still. Hit water in a tub with your full palm. After the water has settled, hit the water again by diving your hand with your fingers first into the water. (Your full palm represents a swimmer doing a belly flop and your diving hand represents a swimmer doing a dive.) Explain what happens in each case and why. Which orientations would you advise people to avoid and why?

MAKING CONNECTIONS: CONSTANT FORCE AND CONSTANT ACCELERATION

The assumption of a constant force in the definition of impulse is analogous to the assumption of a constant acceleration in kinematics. In both cases, nature is adequately described without the use of calculus.

8.3 Conservation of Momentum

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the principle of conservation of momentum.
- Derive an expression for the conservation of momentum.
- Explain conservation of momentum with examples.
- Explain the principle of conservation of momentum as it relates to atomic and subatomic particles.

Momentum is an important quantity because it is conserved. Yet it was not conserved in the examples in [Impulse](#) and [Linear Momentum and Force](#), where large changes in momentum were produced by forces acting on the system of interest. Under what circumstances is momentum conserved?

The answer to this question entails considering a sufficiently large system. It is always possible to find a larger system in which total momentum is constant, even if momentum changes for components of the system. If a football player runs into the goalpost in the end zone, there will be a force on him that causes him to bounce backward. However, the Earth also recoils—conserving momentum—because of the force applied to it through the goalpost. Because Earth is many orders of magnitude more massive than the player, its recoil is immeasurably small and can be neglected in any practical sense, but it is real nevertheless.

Consider what happens if the masses of two colliding objects are more similar than the masses of a football player and Earth—for example, one car bumping into another, as shown in [Figure 8.3](#). Both cars are coasting in the same direction when the lead car (labeled m_2) is bumped by the trailing car (labeled m_1). The only unbalanced force on each car is the force of the collision. (Assume that the effects due to friction are negligible.) Car 1 slows down as a result of the collision, losing some momentum, while car 2 speeds up and gains some momentum. We shall now show that the total momentum of the two-car system remains constant.

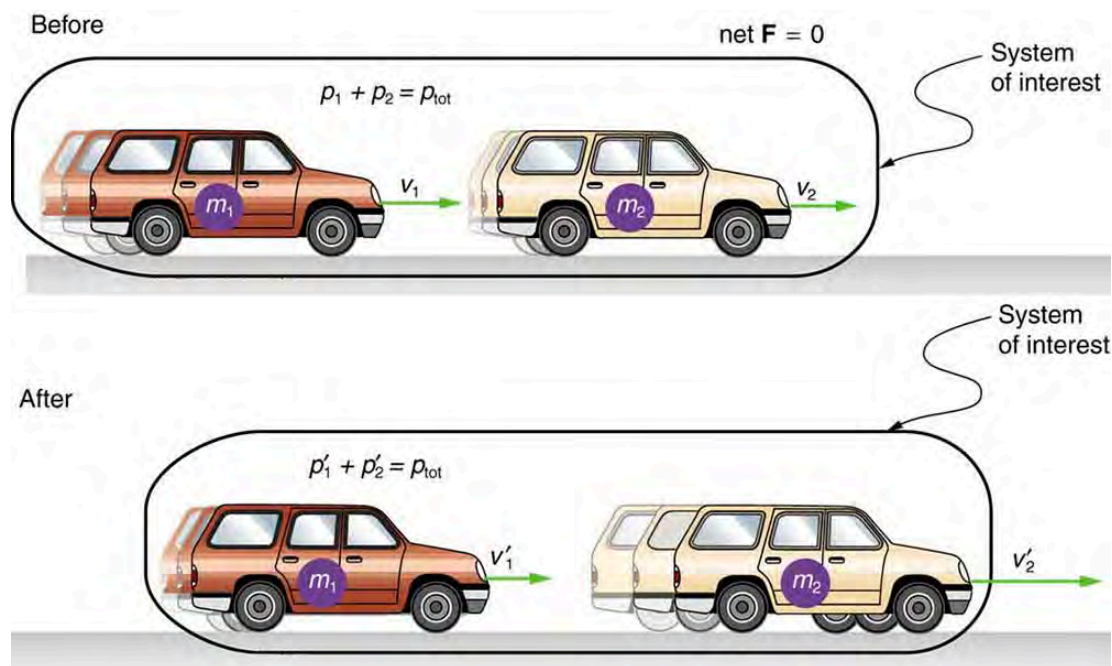


FIGURE 8.3 A car of mass m_1 moving with a velocity of v_1 bumps into another car of mass m_2 and velocity v_2 that it is following. As a result, the first car slows down to a velocity of v'_1 and the second speeds up to a velocity of v'_2 . The momentum of each car is changed, but the total momentum p_{tot} of the two cars is the same before and after the collision (if you assume friction is negligible).

Using the definition of impulse, the change in momentum of car 1 is given by

$$\Delta p_1 = F_1 \Delta t, \quad 8.24$$

where F_1 is the force on car 1 due to car 2, and Δt is the time the force acts (the duration of the collision).

Intuitively, it seems obvious that the collision time is the same for both cars, but it is only true for objects traveling at ordinary speeds. This assumption must be modified for objects travelling near the speed of light, without affecting

the result that momentum is conserved.

Similarly, the change in momentum of car 2 is

$$\Delta p_2 = F_2 \Delta t, \quad 8.25$$

where F_2 is the force on car 2 due to car 1, and we assume the duration of the collision Δt is the same for both cars. We know from Newton's third law that $F_2 = -F_1$, and so

$$\Delta p_2 = -F_1 \Delta t = -\Delta p_1. \quad 8.26$$

Thus, the changes in momentum are equal and opposite, and

$$\Delta p_1 + \Delta p_2 = 0. \quad 8.27$$

Because the changes in momentum add to zero, the total momentum of the two-car system is constant. That is,

$$p_1 + p_2 = \text{constant}, \quad 8.28$$

$$p_1 + p_2 = p'_1 + p'_2, \quad 8.29$$

where p'_1 and p'_2 are the momenta of cars 1 and 2 after the collision. (We often use primes to denote the final state.)

This result—that momentum is conserved—has validity far beyond the preceding one-dimensional case. It can be similarly shown that total momentum is conserved for any isolated system, with any number of objects in it. In equation form, the **conservation of momentum principle** for an isolated system is written

$$\mathbf{p}_{\text{tot}} = \text{constant}, \quad 8.30$$

or

$$\mathbf{p}_{\text{tot}} = \mathbf{p}'_{\text{tot}}, \quad 8.31$$

where $\mathbf{p}_{\text{tot}}$ is the total momentum (the sum of the momenta of the individual objects in the system) and $\mathbf{p}'_{\text{tot}}$ is the total momentum some time later. (The total momentum can be shown to be the momentum of the center of mass of the system.) An **isolated system** is defined to be one for which the net external force is zero ($\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = 0$).

CONSERVATION OF MOMENTUM PRINCIPLE

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{p}_{\text{tot}} &= \text{constant} \\ \mathbf{p}_{\text{tot}} &= \mathbf{p}'_{\text{tot}} \text{ (isolated system)} \end{aligned} \quad 8.32$$

ISOLATED SYSTEM

An isolated system is defined to be one for which the net external force is zero ($\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = 0$).

Perhaps an easier way to see that momentum is conserved for an isolated system is to consider Newton's second law in terms of momentum, $\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = \frac{\Delta \mathbf{p}_{\text{tot}}}{\Delta t}$. For an isolated system, ($\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = 0$); thus, $\Delta \mathbf{p}_{\text{tot}} = 0$, and $\mathbf{p}_{\text{tot}}$ is constant.

We have noted that the three length dimensions in nature— x , y , and z —are independent, and it is interesting to note that momentum can be conserved in different ways along each dimension. For example, during projectile motion and where air resistance is negligible, momentum is conserved in the horizontal direction because horizontal forces are zero and momentum is unchanged. But along the vertical direction, the net vertical force is not zero and the momentum of the projectile is not conserved. (See [Figure 8.4](#).) However, if the momentum of the projectile-Earth system is considered in the vertical direction, we find that the total momentum is conserved.

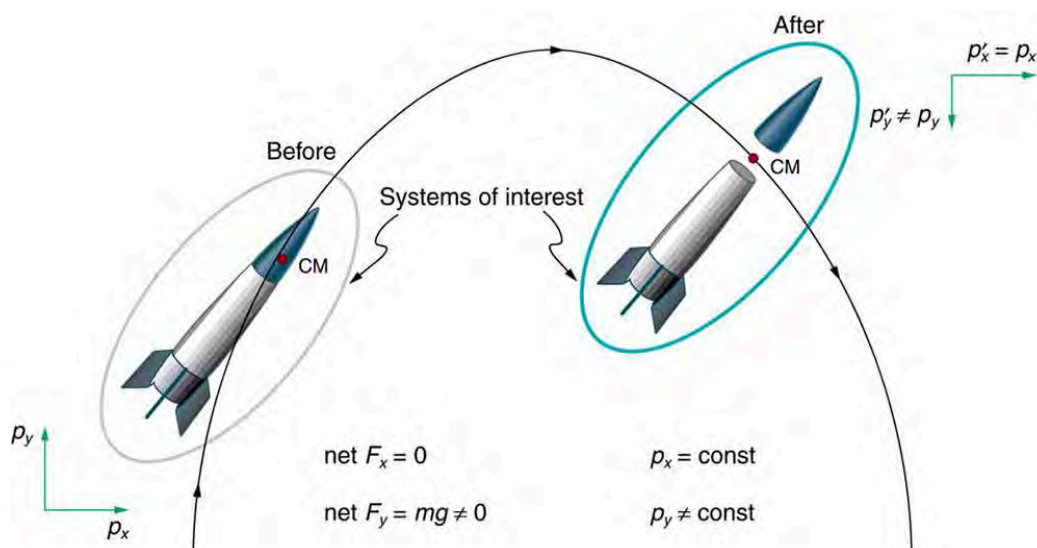


FIGURE 8.4 The horizontal component of a projectile's momentum is conserved if air resistance is negligible, even in this case where a space probe separates. The forces causing the separation are internal to the system, so that the net external horizontal force $F_{x-\text{net}}$ is still zero. The vertical component of the momentum is not conserved, because the net vertical force $F_{y-\text{net}}$ is not zero. In the vertical direction, the space probe-Earth system needs to be considered and we find that the total momentum is conserved. The center of mass of the space probe takes the same path it would if the separation did not occur.

The conservation of momentum principle can be applied to systems as different as a comet striking Earth and a gas containing huge numbers of atoms and molecules. Conservation of momentum is violated only when the net external force is not zero. But another larger system can always be considered in which momentum is conserved by simply including the source of the external force. For example, in the collision of two cars considered above, the two-car system conserves momentum while each one-car system does not.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME INVESTIGATION—DROP OF TENNIS BALL AND A BASKETBALL

Hold a tennis ball side by side and in contact with a basketball. Drop the balls together. (Be careful!) What happens? Explain your observations. Now hold the tennis ball above and in contact with the basketball. What happened? Explain your observations. What do you think will happen if the basketball ball is held above and in contact with the tennis ball?

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME INVESTIGATION—TWO TENNIS BALLS IN A BALLISTIC TRAJECTORY

Tie two tennis balls together with a string about a foot long. Hold one ball and let the other hang down and throw it in a ballistic trajectory. Explain your observations. Now mark the center of the string with bright ink or attach a brightly colored sticker to it and throw again. What happened? Explain your observations.

Some aquatic animals such as jellyfish move around based on the principles of conservation of momentum. A jellyfish fills its umbrella section with water and then pushes the water out resulting in motion in the opposite direction to that of the jet of water. Squids propel themselves in a similar manner but, in contrast with jellyfish, are able to control the direction in which they move by aiming their nozzle forward or backward. Typical squids can move at speeds of 8 to 12 km/h.

The ballistocardiograph (BCG) was a diagnostic tool used in the second half of the 20th century to study the strength of the heart. About once a second, your heart beats, forcing blood into the aorta. A force in the opposite direction is exerted on the rest of your body (recall Newton's third law). A ballistocardiograph is a device that can measure this reaction force. This measurement is done by using a sensor (resting on the person) or by using a moving table suspended from the ceiling. This technique can gather information on the strength of the heart

beat and the volume of blood passing from the heart. However, the electrocardiogram (ECG or EKG) and the echocardiogram (cardiac ECHO or ECHO; a technique that uses ultrasound to see an image of the heart) are more widely used in the practice of cardiology.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: CONSERVATION OF MOMENTUM AND COLLISION

Conservation of momentum is quite useful in describing collisions. Momentum is crucial to our understanding of atomic and subatomic particles because much of what we know about these particles comes from collision experiments.

Subatomic Collisions and Momentum

The conservation of momentum principle not only applies to the macroscopic objects, it is also essential to our explorations of atomic and subatomic particles. Giant machines hurl subatomic particles at one another, and researchers evaluate the results by assuming conservation of momentum (among other things).

On the small scale, we find that particles and their properties are invisible to the naked eye but can be measured with our instruments, and models of these subatomic particles can be constructed to describe the results. Momentum is found to be a property of all subatomic particles including massless particles such as photons that compose light. Momentum being a property of particles hints that momentum may have an identity beyond the description of an object's mass multiplied by the object's velocity. Indeed, momentum relates to wave properties and plays a fundamental role in what measurements are taken and how we take these measurements. Furthermore, we find that the conservation of momentum principle is valid when considering systems of particles. We use this principle to analyze the masses and other properties of previously undetected particles, such as the nucleus of an atom and the existence of quarks that make up particles of nuclei. [Figure 8.5](#) below illustrates how a particle scattering backward from another implies that its target is massive and dense. Experiments seeking evidence that **quarks** make up protons (one type of particle that makes up nuclei) scattered high-energy electrons off of protons (nuclei of hydrogen atoms). Electrons occasionally scattered straight backward in a manner that implied a very small and very dense particle makes up the proton—this observation is considered nearly direct evidence of quarks. The analysis was based partly on the same conservation of momentum principle that works so well on the large scale.

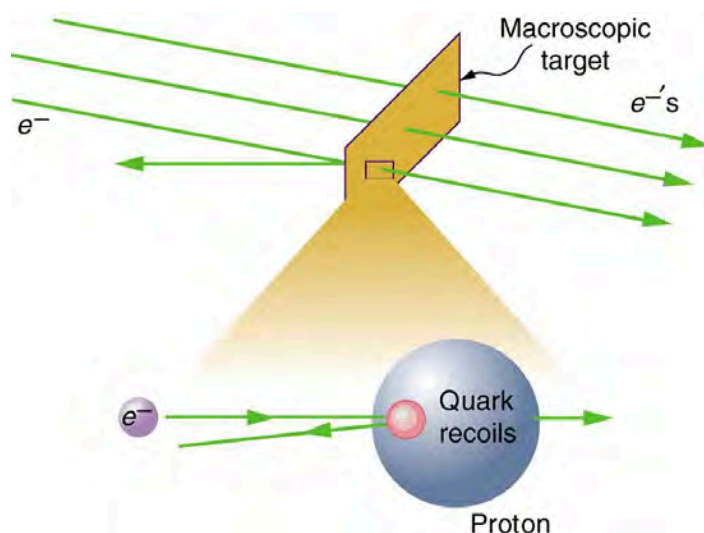


FIGURE 8.5 A subatomic particle scatters straight backward from a target particle. In experiments seeking evidence for quarks, electrons were observed to occasionally scatter straight backward from a proton.

8.4 Elastic Collisions in One Dimension

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe an elastic collision of two objects in one dimension.
- Define internal kinetic energy.
- Derive an expression for conservation of internal kinetic energy in a one dimensional collision.
- Determine the final velocities in an elastic collision given masses and initial velocities.

Let us consider various types of two-object collisions. These collisions are the easiest to analyze, and they illustrate many of the physical principles involved in collisions. The conservation of momentum principle is very useful here, and it can be used whenever the net external force on a system is zero.

We start with the elastic collision of two objects moving along the same line—a one-dimensional problem. An **elastic collision** is one that also conserves internal kinetic energy. **Internal kinetic energy** is the sum of the kinetic energies of the objects in the system. [Figure 8.6](#) illustrates an elastic collision in which internal kinetic energy and momentum are conserved.

Truly elastic collisions can only be achieved with subatomic particles, such as electrons striking nuclei. Macroscopic collisions can be very nearly, but not quite, elastic—some kinetic energy is always converted into other forms of energy such as heat transfer due to friction and sound. One macroscopic collision that is nearly elastic is that of two steel blocks on ice. Another nearly elastic collision is that between two carts with spring bumpers on an air track. Icy surfaces and air tracks are nearly frictionless, more readily allowing nearly elastic collisions on them.

ELASTIC COLLISION

An **elastic collision** is one that conserves internal kinetic energy.

INTERNAL KINETIC ENERGY

Internal kinetic energy is the sum of the kinetic energies of the objects in the system.

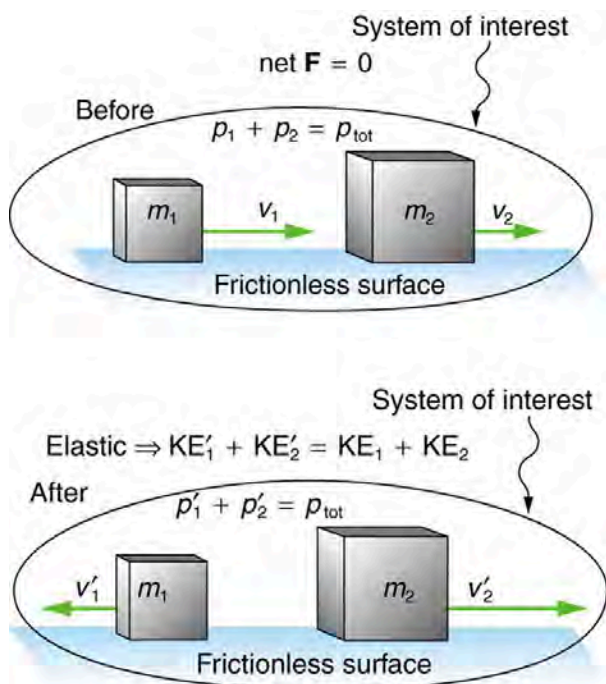


FIGURE 8.6 An elastic one-dimensional two-object collision. Momentum and internal kinetic energy are conserved.

Now, to solve problems involving one-dimensional elastic collisions between two objects we can use the equations for conservation of momentum and conservation of internal kinetic energy. First, the equation for conservation of momentum for two objects in a one-dimensional collision is

$$p_1 + p_2 = p'_1 + p'_2 \quad (F_{\text{net}} = 0) \quad 8.33$$

or

$$m_1 v_1 + m_2 v_2 = m_1 v'_1 + m_2 v'_2 \quad (F_{\text{net}} = 0), \quad 8.34$$

where the primes (') indicate values after the collision. By definition, an elastic collision conserves internal kinetic energy, and so the sum of kinetic energies before the collision equals the sum after the collision. Thus,

$$\frac{1}{2} m_1 v_1^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_2 v_2^2 = \frac{1}{2} m_1 v'_1{}^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_2 v'_2{}^2 \quad (\text{two-object elastic collision}) \quad 8.35$$

expresses the equation for conservation of internal kinetic energy in a one-dimensional collision.



EXAMPLE 8.4

Calculating Velocities Following an Elastic Collision

Calculate the velocities of two objects following an elastic collision, given that

$$m_1 = 0.500 \text{ kg}, \quad m_2 = 3.50 \text{ kg}, \quad v_1 = 4.00 \text{ m/s}, \quad \text{and} \quad v_2 = 0. \quad 8.36$$

Strategy and Concept

First, visualize what the initial conditions mean—a small object strikes a larger object that is initially at rest. This situation is slightly simpler than the situation shown in [Figure 8.6](#) where both objects are initially moving. We are asked to find two unknowns (the final velocities v'_1 and v'_2). To find two unknowns, we must use two independent equations. Because this collision is elastic, we can use the above two equations. Both can be simplified by the fact that object 2 is initially at rest, and thus $v_2 = 0$. Once we simplify these equations, we combine them algebraically to solve for the unknowns.

Solution

For this problem, note that $v_2 = 0$ and use conservation of momentum. Thus,

$$p_1 = p'_1 + p'_2 \quad 8.37$$

or

$$m_1 v_1 = m_1 v'_1 + m_2 v'_2. \quad 8.38$$

Using conservation of internal kinetic energy and that $v_2 = 0$,

$$\frac{1}{2} m_1 v_1^2 = \frac{1}{2} m_1 v'_1{}^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_2 v'_2{}^2. \quad 8.39$$

Solving the first equation (momentum equation) for v'_2 , we obtain

$$v'_2 = \frac{m_1}{m_2} (v_1 - v'_1). \quad 8.40$$

Substituting this expression into the second equation (internal kinetic energy equation) eliminates the variable v'_2 , leaving only v'_1 as an unknown (the algebra is left as an exercise for the reader). There are two solutions to any quadratic equation; in this example, they are

$$v'_1 = 4.00 \text{ m/s} \quad 8.41$$

and

$$v'_1 = -3.00 \text{ m/s}. \quad 8.42$$

As noted when quadratic equations were encountered in earlier chapters, both solutions may or may not be

meaningful. In this case, the first solution is the same as the initial condition. The first solution thus represents the situation before the collision and is discarded. The second solution ($v'_1 = -3.00$ m/s) is negative, meaning that the first object bounces backward. When this negative value of v'_1 is used to find the velocity of the second object after the collision, we get

$$v'_2 = \frac{m_1}{m_2}(v_1 - v'_1) = \frac{0.500 \text{ kg}}{3.50 \text{ kg}}[4.00 - (-3.00)] \text{ m/s} \quad 8.43$$

or

$$v'_2 = 1.00 \text{ m/s}. \quad 8.44$$

Discussion

The result of this example is intuitively reasonable. A small object strikes a larger one at rest and bounces backward. The larger one is knocked forward, but with a low speed. (This is like a compact car bouncing backward off a full-size SUV that is initially at rest.) As a check, try calculating the internal kinetic energy before and after the collision. You will see that the internal kinetic energy is unchanged at 4.00 J. Also check the total momentum before and after the collision; you will find it, too, is unchanged.

The equations for conservation of momentum and internal kinetic energy as written above can be used to describe any one-dimensional elastic collision of two objects. These equations can be extended to more objects if needed.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME INVESTIGATION—ICE CUBES AND ELASTIC COLLISION

Find a few ice cubes which are about the same size and a smooth kitchen tabletop or a table with a glass top. Place the ice cubes on the surface several centimeters away from each other. Flick one ice cube toward a stationary ice cube and observe the path and velocities of the ice cubes after the collision. Try to avoid edge-on collisions and collisions with rotating ice cubes. Have you created approximately elastic collisions? Explain the speeds and directions of the ice cubes using momentum.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Collision Lab

Investigate collisions on an air hockey table. Set up your own experiments: vary the number of discs, masses and initial conditions. Is momentum conserved? Is kinetic energy conserved? Vary the elasticity and see what happens.

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/8-4-elastic-collisions-in-one-dimension\)](https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/8-4-elastic-collisions-in-one-dimension)



8.5 Inelastic Collisions in One Dimension

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define inelastic collision.
- Explain perfectly inelastic collision.
- Apply an understanding of collisions to sports.
- Determine recoil velocity and loss in kinetic energy given mass and initial velocity.

We have seen that in an elastic collision, internal kinetic energy is conserved. An **inelastic collision** is one in which the internal kinetic energy changes (it is not conserved). This lack of conservation means that the forces between colliding objects may remove or add internal kinetic energy. Work done by internal forces may change the forms of energy within a system. For inelastic collisions, such as when colliding objects stick together, this internal work may

transform some internal kinetic energy into heat transfer. Or it may convert stored energy into internal kinetic energy, such as when exploding bolts separate a satellite from its launch vehicle.

INELASTIC COLLISION

An inelastic collision is one in which the internal kinetic energy changes (it is not conserved).

Figure 8.7 shows an example of an inelastic collision. Two objects that have equal masses head toward one another at equal speeds and then stick together. Their total internal kinetic energy is initially $\frac{1}{2}mv^2 + \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = mv^2$. The two objects come to rest after sticking together, conserving momentum. But the internal kinetic energy is zero after the collision. A collision in which the objects stick together is sometimes called a **perfectly inelastic collision** because it reduces internal kinetic energy more than does any other type of inelastic collision. In fact, such a collision reduces internal kinetic energy to the minimum it can have while still conserving momentum.

PERFECTLY INELASTIC COLLISION

A collision in which the objects stick together is sometimes called “perfectly inelastic.”

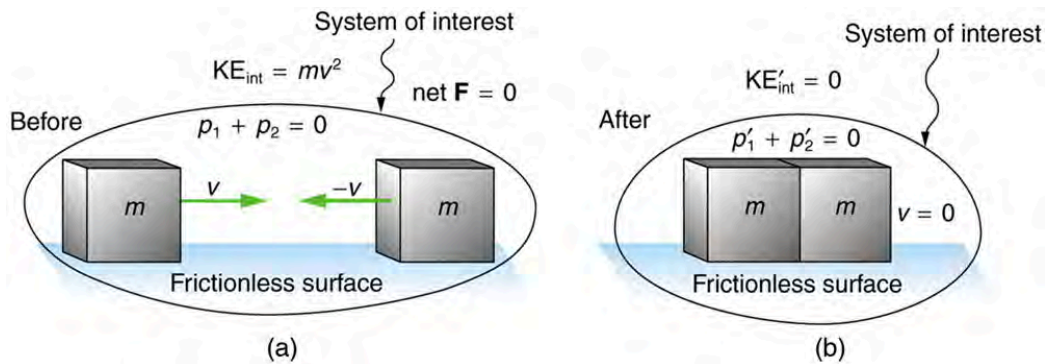


FIGURE 8.7 An inelastic one-dimensional two-object collision. Momentum is conserved, but internal kinetic energy is not conserved. (a) Two objects of equal mass initially head directly toward one another at the same speed. (b) The objects stick together (a perfectly inelastic collision), and so their final velocity is zero. The internal kinetic energy of the system changes in any inelastic collision and is reduced to zero in this example.



EXAMPLE 8.5

Calculating Velocity and Change in Kinetic Energy: Inelastic Collision of a Puck and a Goalie

(a) Find the recoil velocity of a 70.0-kg ice hockey goalie, originally at rest, who catches a 0.150-kg hockey puck slapped at him at a velocity of 35.0 m/s. (b) How much kinetic energy is lost during the collision? Assume friction between the ice and the puck-goalie system is negligible. (See Figure 8.8)

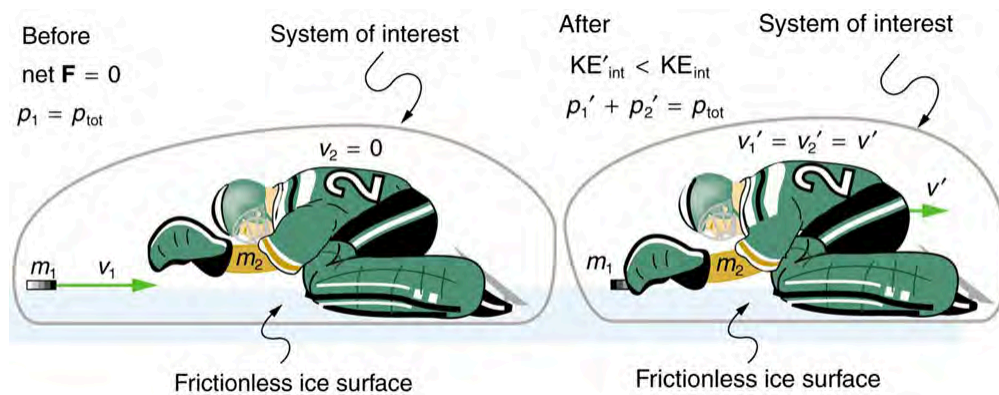


FIGURE 8.8 An ice hockey goalie catches a hockey puck and recoils backward. The initial kinetic energy of the puck is almost entirely converted to thermal energy and sound in this inelastic collision.

Strategy

Momentum is conserved because the net external force on the puck-goalie system is zero. We can thus use conservation of momentum to find the final velocity of the puck and goalie system. Note that the initial velocity of the goalie is zero and that the final velocity of the puck and goalie are the same. Once the final velocity is found, the kinetic energies can be calculated before and after the collision and compared as requested.

Solution for (a)

Momentum is conserved because the net external force on the puck-goalie system is zero.

Conservation of momentum is

$$p_1 + p_2 = p'_1 + p'_2 \quad 8.45$$

or

$$m_1 v_1 + m_2 v_2 = m_1 v'_1 + m_2 v'_2. \quad 8.46$$

Because the goalie is initially at rest, we know $v_2 = 0$. Because the goalie catches the puck, the final velocities are equal, or $v'_1 = v'_2 = v'$. Thus, the conservation of momentum equation simplifies to

$$m_1 v_1 = (m_1 + m_2) v'. \quad 8.47$$

Solving for v' yields

$$v' = \frac{m_1}{m_1 + m_2} v_1. \quad 8.48$$

Entering known values in this equation, we get

$$v' = \left(\frac{0.150 \text{ kg}}{0.150 \text{ kg} + 70.0 \text{ kg}} \right) (35.0 \text{ m/s}) = 7.48 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m/s}. \quad 8.49$$

Discussion for (a)

This recoil velocity is small and in the same direction as the puck's original velocity, as we might expect.

Solution for (b)

Before the collision, the internal kinetic energy KE_{int} of the system is that of the hockey puck, because the goalie is initially at rest. Therefore, KE_{int} is initially

$$\begin{aligned} KE_{\text{int}} &= \frac{1}{2} m v^2 = \frac{1}{2} (0.150 \text{ kg}) (35.0 \text{ m/s})^2 \\ &= 91.9 \text{ J}. \end{aligned} \quad 8.50$$

After the collision, the internal kinetic energy is

$$\begin{aligned} KE'_{\text{int}} &= \frac{1}{2}(m + M)v^2 = \frac{1}{2}(70.15 \text{ kg})(7.48 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m/s})^2 \\ &= 0.196 \text{ J.} \end{aligned} \quad 8.51$$

The change in internal kinetic energy is thus

$$\begin{aligned} KE'_{\text{int}} - KE_{\text{int}} &= 0.196 \text{ J} - 91.9 \text{ J} \\ &= -91.7 \text{ J} \end{aligned} \quad 8.52$$

where the minus sign indicates that the energy was lost.

Discussion for (b)

Nearly all of the initial internal kinetic energy is lost in this perfectly inelastic collision. KE_{int} is mostly converted to thermal energy and sound.

During some collisions, the objects do not stick together and less of the internal kinetic energy is removed—such as happens in most automobile accidents. Alternatively, stored energy may be converted into internal kinetic energy during a collision. [Figure 8.9](#) shows a one-dimensional example in which two carts on an air track collide, releasing potential energy from a compressed spring. [Example 8.6](#) deals with data from such a collision.

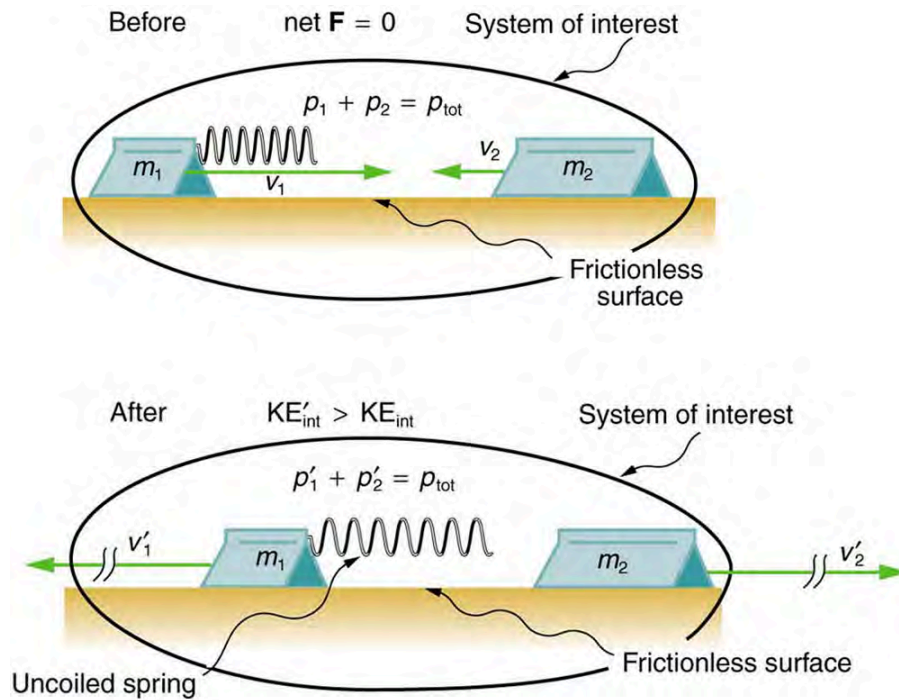


FIGURE 8.9 An air track is nearly frictionless, so that momentum is conserved. Motion is one-dimensional. In this collision, examined in [Example 8.6](#), the potential energy of a compressed spring is released during the collision and is converted to internal kinetic energy.

Collisions are particularly important in sports and the sporting and leisure industry utilizes elastic and inelastic collisions. Let us look briefly at tennis. Recall that in a collision, it is momentum and not force that is important. So, a heavier tennis racquet will have the advantage over a lighter one. This conclusion also holds true for other sports—a lightweight bat (such as a softball bat) cannot hit a hardball very far.

The location of the impact of the tennis ball on the racquet is also important, as is the part of the stroke during which the impact occurs. A smooth motion results in the maximizing of the velocity of the ball after impact and reduces sports injuries such as tennis elbow. A tennis player tries to hit the ball on the “sweet spot” on the racquet, where the vibration and impact are minimized and the ball is able to be given more velocity. Sports science and technologies also use physics concepts such as momentum and rotational motion and vibrations.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT—BOUNCING OF TENNIS BALL

1. Find a racquet (a tennis, badminton, or other racquet will do). Place the racquet on the floor and stand on the handle. Drop a tennis ball on the strings from a measured height. Measure how high the ball bounces. Now ask a friend to hold the racquet firmly by the handle and drop a tennis ball from the same measured height above the racquet. Measure how high the ball bounces and observe what happens to your friend's hand during the collision. Explain your observations and measurements.
2. The coefficient of restitution (c) is a measure of the elasticity of a collision between a ball and an object, and is defined as the ratio of the speeds after and before the collision. A perfectly elastic collision has a c of 1. For a ball bouncing off the floor (or a racquet on the floor), c can be shown to be $c = (h/H)^{1/2}$ where h is the height to which the ball bounces and H is the height from which the ball is dropped. Determine c for the cases in Part 1 and for the case of a tennis ball bouncing off a concrete or wooden floor ($c = 0.85$ for new tennis balls used on a tennis court).



EXAMPLE 8.6

Calculating Final Velocity and Energy Release: Two Carts Collide

In the collision pictured in [Figure 8.9](#), two carts collide inelastically. Cart 1 (denoted m_1) carries a spring which is initially compressed. During the collision, the spring releases its potential energy and converts it to internal kinetic energy. The mass of cart 1 and the spring is 0.350 kg, and the cart and the spring together have an initial velocity of 2.00 m/s. Cart 2 (denoted m_2 in [Figure 8.9](#)) has a mass of 0.500 kg and an initial velocity of -0.500 m/s. After the collision, cart 1 is observed to recoil with a velocity of -4.00 m/s. (a) What is the final velocity of cart 2? (b) How much energy was released by the spring (assuming all of it was converted into internal kinetic energy)?

Strategy

We can use conservation of momentum to find the final velocity of cart 2, because $F_{\text{net}} = 0$ (the track is frictionless and the force of the spring is internal). Once this velocity is determined, we can compare the internal kinetic energy before and after the collision to see how much energy was released by the spring.

Solution for (a)

As before, the equation for conservation of momentum in a two-object system is

$$m_1 v_1 + m_2 v_2 = m_1 v'_1 + m_2 v'_2. \quad 8.53$$

The only unknown in this equation is v'_2 . Solving for v'_2 and substituting known values into the previous equation yields

$$\begin{aligned} v'_2 &= \frac{m_1 v_1 + m_2 v_2 - m_1 v'_1}{m_2} \\ &= \frac{(0.350 \text{ kg})(2.00 \text{ m/s}) + (0.500 \text{ kg})(-0.500 \text{ m/s})}{0.500 \text{ kg}} - \frac{(0.350 \text{ kg})(-4.00 \text{ m/s})}{0.500 \text{ kg}} \\ &= 3.70 \text{ m/s}. \end{aligned} \quad 8.54$$

Solution for (b)

The internal kinetic energy before the collision is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{KE}_{\text{int}} &= \frac{1}{2} m_1 v_1^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_2 v_2^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (0.350 \text{ kg})(2.00 \text{ m/s})^2 + \frac{1}{2} (0.500 \text{ kg})(-0.500 \text{ m/s})^2 \\ &= 0.763 \text{ J}. \end{aligned} \quad 8.55$$

After the collision, the internal kinetic energy is

$$\begin{aligned}
 KE'_{\text{int}} &= \frac{1}{2}m_1 v_1'^2 + \frac{1}{2}m_2 v_2'^2 \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}(0.350 \text{ kg})(-4.00 \text{ m/s})^2 + \frac{1}{2}(0.500 \text{ kg})(3.70 \text{ m/s})^2 \\
 &= 6.22 \text{ J}.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{8.56}$$

The change in internal kinetic energy is thus

$$\begin{aligned}
 KE'_{\text{int}} - KE_{\text{int}} &= 6.22 \text{ J} - 0.763 \text{ J} \\
 &= 5.46 \text{ J}.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{8.57}$$

Discussion

The final velocity of cart 2 is large and positive, meaning that it is moving to the right after the collision. The internal kinetic energy in this collision increases by 5.46 J. That energy was released by the spring.

8.6 Collisions of Point Masses in Two Dimensions

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Discuss two dimensional collisions as an extension of one dimensional analysis.
- Define point masses.
- Derive an expression for conservation of momentum along x-axis and y-axis.
- Describe elastic collisions of two objects with equal mass.
- Determine the magnitude and direction of the final velocity given initial velocity, and scattering angle.

In the previous two sections, we considered only one-dimensional collisions; during such collisions, the incoming and outgoing velocities are all along the same line. But what about collisions, such as those between billiard balls, in which objects scatter to the side? These are two-dimensional collisions, and we shall see that their study is an extension of the one-dimensional analysis already presented. The approach taken (similar to the approach in discussing two-dimensional kinematics and dynamics) is to choose a convenient coordinate system and resolve the motion into components along perpendicular axes. Resolving the motion yields a pair of one-dimensional problems to be solved simultaneously.

One complication arising in two-dimensional collisions is that the objects might rotate before or after their collision. For example, if two ice skaters hook arms as they pass by one another, they will spin in circles. We will not consider such rotation until later, and so for now we arrange things so that no rotation is possible. To avoid rotation, we consider only the scattering of **point masses**—that is, structureless particles that cannot rotate or spin.

We start by assuming that $\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = 0$, so that momentum $\mathbf{p}$ is conserved. The simplest collision is one in which one of the particles is initially at rest. (See [Figure 8.10](#).) The best choice for a coordinate system is one with an axis parallel to the velocity of the incoming particle, as shown in [Figure 8.10](#). Because momentum is conserved, the components of momentum along the x- and y-axes (p_x and p_y) will also be conserved, but with the chosen coordinate system, p_y is initially zero and p_x is the momentum of the incoming particle. Both facts simplify the analysis. (Even with the simplifying assumptions of point masses, one particle initially at rest, and a convenient coordinate system, we still gain new insights into nature from the analysis of two-dimensional collisions.)

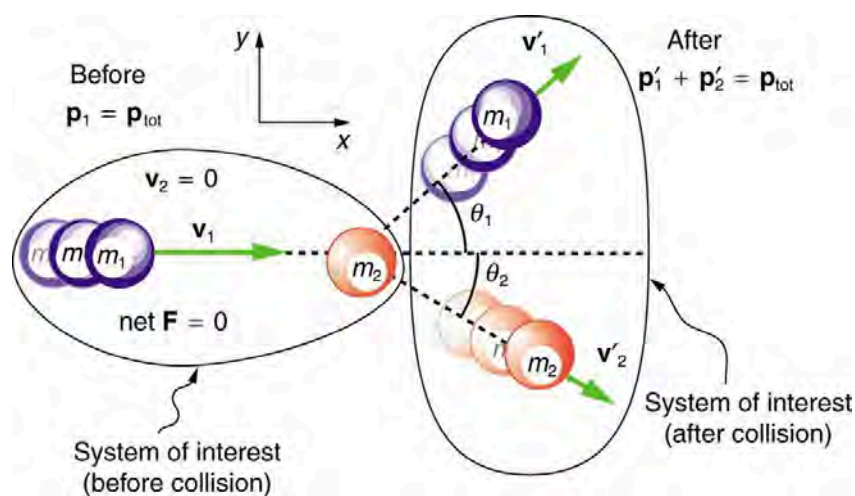


FIGURE 8.10 A two-dimensional collision with the coordinate system chosen so that m_2 is initially at rest and v_1 is parallel to the x -axis. This coordinate system is sometimes called the laboratory coordinate system, because many scattering experiments have a target that is stationary in the laboratory, while particles are scattered from it to determine the particles that make-up the target and how they are bound together. The particles may not be observed directly, but their initial and final velocities are.

Along the x -axis, the equation for conservation of momentum is

$$p_{1x} + p_{2x} = p'_{1x} + p'_{2x}. \quad 8.58$$

Where the subscripts denote the particles and axes and the primes denote the situation after the collision. In terms of masses and velocities, this equation is

$$m_1 v_{1x} + m_2 v_{2x} = m_1 v'_{1x} + m_2 v'_{2x}. \quad 8.59$$

But because particle 2 is initially at rest, this equation becomes

$$m_1 v_{1x} = m_1 v'_{1x} + m_2 v'_{2x}. \quad 8.60$$

The components of the velocities along the x -axis have the form $v \cos \theta$. Because particle 1 initially moves along the x -axis, we find $v_{1x} = v_1$.

Conservation of momentum along the x -axis gives the following equation:

$$m_1 v_1 = m_1 v'_1 \cos \theta_1 + m_2 v'_2 \cos \theta_2, \quad 8.61$$

where θ_1 and θ_2 are as shown in [Figure 8.10](#).

CONSERVATION OF MOMENTUM ALONG THE x -AXIS

$$m_1 v_1 = m_1 v'_1 \cos \theta_1 + m_2 v'_2 \cos \theta_2 \quad 8.62$$

Along the y -axis, the equation for conservation of momentum is

$$p_{1y} + p_{2y} = p'_{1y} + p'_{2y} \quad 8.63$$

or

$$m_1 v_{1y} + m_2 v_{2y} = m_1 v'_{1y} + m_2 v'_{2y}. \quad 8.64$$

But v_{1y} is zero, because particle 1 initially moves along the x -axis. Because particle 2 is initially at rest, v_{2y} is also zero. The equation for conservation of momentum along the y -axis becomes

$$0 = m_1 v'_{1y} + m_2 v'_{2y}. \quad 8.65$$

The components of the velocities along the y -axis have the form $v \sin \theta$.

Thus, conservation of momentum along the y -axis gives the following equation:

$$0 = m_1 v'_1 \sin \theta_1 + m_2 v'_2 \sin \theta_2. \quad 8.66$$

CONSERVATION OF MOMENTUM ALONG THE y -AXIS

$$0 = m_1 v'_1 \sin \theta_1 + m_2 v'_2 \sin \theta_2 \quad 8.67$$

The equations of conservation of momentum along the x -axis and y -axis are very useful in analyzing two-dimensional collisions of particles, where one is originally stationary (a common laboratory situation). But two equations can only be used to find two unknowns, and so other data may be necessary when collision experiments are used to explore nature at the subatomic level.



EXAMPLE 8.7

Determining the Final Velocity of an Unseen Object from the Scattering of Another Object

Suppose the following experiment is performed. A 0.250-kg object (m_1) is slid on a frictionless surface into a dark room, where it strikes an initially stationary object with mass of 0.400 kg (m_2). The 0.250-kg object emerges from the room at an angle of 45.0° with its incoming direction.

The speed of the 0.250-kg object is originally 2.00 m/s and is 1.50 m/s after the collision. Calculate the magnitude and direction of the velocity (v'_2 and θ_2) of the 0.400-kg object after the collision.

Strategy

Momentum is conserved because the surface is frictionless. The coordinate system shown in [Figure 8.11](#) is one in which m_2 is originally at rest and the initial velocity is parallel to the x -axis, so that conservation of momentum along the x - and y -axes is applicable.

Everything is known in these equations except v'_2 and θ_2 , which are precisely the quantities we wish to find. We can find two unknowns because we have two independent equations: the equations describing the conservation of momentum in the x - and y -directions.

Solution

Solving $m_1 v_1 = m_1 v'_1 \cos \theta_1 + m_2 v'_2 \cos \theta_2$ for $v'_2 \cos \theta_2$ and $0 = m_1 v'_1 \sin \theta_1 + m_2 v'_2 \sin \theta_2$ for $v'_2 \sin \theta_2$ and taking the ratio yields an equation (in which θ_2 is the only unknown quantity. Applying the identity ($\tan \theta = \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta}$), we obtain:

$$\tan \theta_2 = \frac{v'_1 \sin \theta_1}{v'_1 \cos \theta_1 - v_1}. \quad 8.68$$

Entering known values into the previous equation gives

$$\tan \theta_2 = \frac{(1.50 \text{ m/s})(0.7071)}{(1.50 \text{ m/s})(0.7071) - 2.00 \text{ m/s}} = -1.129. \quad 8.69$$

Thus,

$$\theta_2 = \tan^{-1}(-1.129) = 311.5^\circ \approx 312^\circ. \quad 8.70$$

Angles are defined as positive in the counter clockwise direction, so this angle indicates that m_2 is scattered to the right in [Figure 8.11](#), as expected (this angle is in the fourth quadrant). Either equation for the x - or y -axis can now be used to solve for v'_2 , but the latter equation is easiest because it has fewer terms.

$$v'_2 = -\frac{m_1}{m_2} v'_1 \frac{\sin \theta_1}{\sin \theta_2} \quad 8.71$$

Entering known values into this equation gives

$$v'_2 = -\left(\frac{0.250 \text{ kg}}{0.400 \text{ kg}}\right)(1.50 \text{ m/s})\left(\frac{0.7071}{-0.7485}\right). \quad 8.72$$

Thus,

$$v'_2 = 0.886 \text{ m/s}. \quad 8.73$$

Discussion

It is instructive to calculate the internal kinetic energy of this two-object system before and after the collision. (This calculation is left as an end-of-chapter problem.) If you do this calculation, you will find that the internal kinetic energy is less after the collision, and so the collision is inelastic. This type of result makes a physicist want to explore the system further.

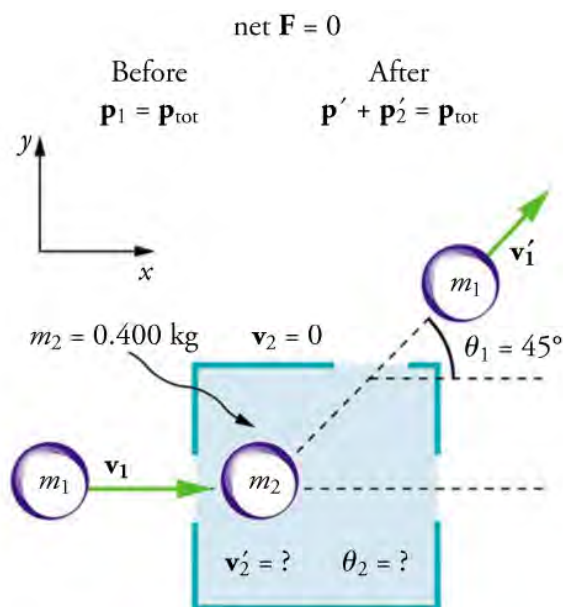


FIGURE 8.11 A collision taking place in a dark room is explored in [Example 8.7](#). The incoming object m_1 is scattered by an initially stationary object. Only the stationary object's mass m_2 is known. By measuring the angle and speed at which m_1 emerges from the room, it is possible to calculate the magnitude and direction of the initially stationary object's velocity after the collision.

Elastic Collisions of Two Objects with Equal Mass

Some interesting situations arise when the two colliding objects have equal mass and the collision is elastic. This situation is nearly the case with colliding billiard balls, and precisely the case with some subatomic particle collisions. We can thus get a mental image of a collision of subatomic particles by thinking about billiards (or pool). (Refer to [Figure 8.10](#) for masses and angles.) First, an elastic collision conserves internal kinetic energy. Again, let us assume object 2 (m_2) is initially at rest. Then, the internal kinetic energy before and after the collision of two objects that have equal masses is

$$\frac{1}{2}mv_1^2 = \frac{1}{2}mv_1'^2 + \frac{1}{2}mv_2'^2. \quad 8.74$$

Because the masses are equal, $m_1 = m_2 = m$. Algebraic manipulation (left to the reader) of conservation of momentum in the x - and y -directions can show that

$$\frac{1}{2}mv_1^2 = \frac{1}{2}mv_1'^2 + \frac{1}{2}mv_2'^2 + mv_1'v_2' \cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2). \quad 8.75$$

(Remember that θ_2 is negative here.) The two preceding equations can both be true only if

$$mv_1'v_2' \cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) = 0. \quad 8.76$$

There are three ways that this term can be zero. They are

- $v'_1 = 0$: head-on collision; incoming ball stops
- $v'_2 = 0$: no collision; incoming ball continues unaffected
- $\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) = 0$: angle of separation ($\theta_1 - \theta_2$) is 90° after the collision

All three of these ways are familiar occurrences in billiards and pool, although most of us try to avoid the second. If you play enough pool, you will notice that the angle between the balls is very close to 90° after the collision, although it will vary from this value if a great deal of spin is placed on the ball. (Large spin carries in extra energy and a quantity called *angular momentum*, which must also be conserved.) The assumption that the scattering of billiard balls is elastic is reasonable based on the correctness of the three results it produces. This assumption also implies that, to a good approximation, momentum is conserved for the two-ball system in billiards and pool. The problems below explore these and other characteristics of two-dimensional collisions.

CONNECTIONS TO NUCLEAR AND PARTICLE PHYSICS

Two-dimensional collision experiments have revealed much of what we know about subatomic particles, as we shall see in [Medical Applications of Nuclear Physics](#) and [Particle Physics](#). Ernest Rutherford, for example, discovered the nature of the atomic nucleus from such experiments.

8.7 Introduction to Rocket Propulsion

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- State Newton's third law of motion.
- Explain the principle involved in propulsion of rockets and jet engines.
- Derive an expression for the acceleration of the rocket and discuss the factors that affect the acceleration.
- Describe the function of a space shuttle.

Rockets range in size from fireworks so small that ordinary people use them to immense Saturn Vs that once propelled massive payloads toward the Moon. The propulsion of all rockets, jet engines, deflating balloons, and even squids and octopuses is explained by the same physical principle—Newton's third law of motion. Matter is forcefully ejected from a system, producing an equal and opposite reaction on what remains. Another common example is the recoil of a gun. The gun exerts a force on a bullet to accelerate it and consequently experiences an equal and opposite force, causing the gun's recoil or kick.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT—PROPULSION OF A BALLOON

Hold a balloon and fill it with air. Then, let the balloon go. In which direction does the air come out of the balloon and in which direction does the balloon get propelled? If you fill the balloon with water and then let the balloon go, does the balloon's direction change? Explain your answer.

[Figure 8.12](#) shows a rocket accelerating straight up. In part (a), the rocket has a mass m and a velocity v relative to Earth, and hence a momentum mv . In part (b), a time Δt has elapsed in which the rocket has ejected a mass Δm of hot gas at a velocity v_e relative to the rocket. The remainder of the mass ($m - \Delta m$) now has a greater velocity ($v + \Delta v$). The momentum of the entire system (rocket plus expelled gas) has actually decreased because the force of gravity has acted for a time Δt , producing a negative impulse $\Delta p = -mg\Delta t$. (Remember that impulse is the net external force on a system multiplied by the time it acts, and it equals the change in momentum of the system.) So, the center of mass of the system is in free fall but, by rapidly expelling mass, part of the system can accelerate upward. It is a commonly held misconception that the rocket exhaust pushes on the ground. If we consider thrust; that is, the force exerted on the rocket by the exhaust gases, then a rocket's thrust is greater in outer space than in the atmosphere or on the launch pad. In fact, gases are easier to expel into a vacuum.

By calculating the change in momentum for the entire system over Δt , and equating this change to the impulse, the

following expression can be shown to be a good approximation for the acceleration of the rocket.

$$a = \frac{v_e}{m} \frac{\Delta m}{\Delta t} - g \quad 8.77$$

“The rocket” is that part of the system remaining after the gas is ejected, and g is the acceleration due to gravity.

ACCELERATION OF A ROCKET

Acceleration of a rocket is

$$a = \frac{v_e}{m} \frac{\Delta m}{\Delta t} - g, \quad 8.78$$

where a is the acceleration of the rocket, v_e is the exhaust velocity, m is the mass of the rocket, Δm is the mass of the ejected gas, and Δt is the time in which the gas is ejected.

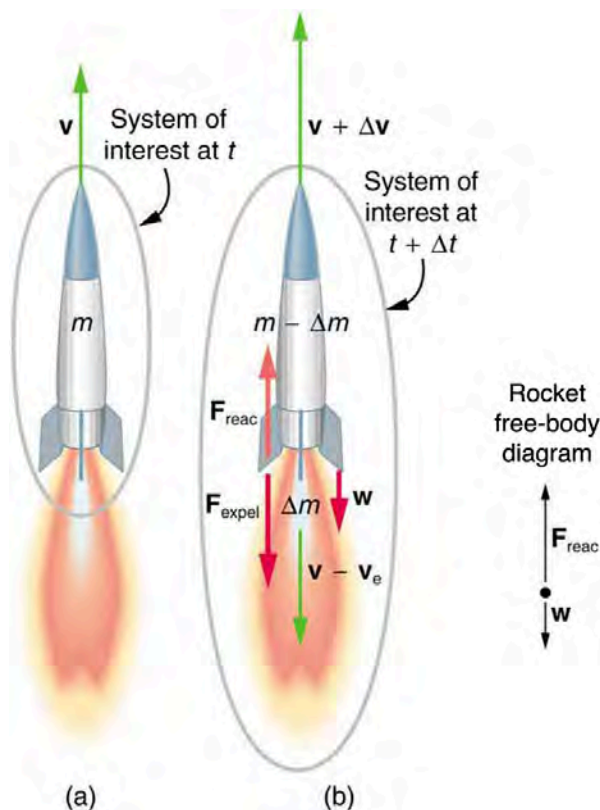


FIGURE 8.12 (a) This rocket has a mass m and an upward velocity v . The net external force on the system is $-mg$, if air resistance is neglected. (b) A time Δt later the system has two main parts, the ejected gas and the remainder of the rocket. The reaction force on the rocket is what overcomes the gravitational force and accelerates it upward.

A rocket's acceleration depends on three major factors, consistent with the equation for acceleration of a rocket. First, the greater the exhaust velocity of the gases relative to the rocket, v_e , the greater the acceleration is. The practical limit for v_e is about 2.5×10^3 m/s for conventional (non-nuclear) hot-gas propulsion systems. The second factor is the rate at which mass is ejected from the rocket. This is the factor $\Delta m/\Delta t$ in the equation. The quantity $(\Delta m/\Delta t)v_e$, with units of newtons, is called "thrust." The faster the rocket burns its fuel, the greater its thrust, and the greater its acceleration. The third factor is the mass m of the rocket. The smaller the mass is (all other factors being the same), the greater the acceleration. The rocket mass m decreases dramatically during flight because most of the rocket is fuel to begin with, so that acceleration increases continuously, reaching a maximum just before the fuel is exhausted.

FACTORS AFFECTING A ROCKET'S ACCELERATION

- The greater the exhaust velocity v_e of the gases relative to the rocket, the greater the acceleration.
- The faster the rocket burns its fuel, the greater its acceleration.
- The smaller the rocket's mass (all other factors being the same), the greater the acceleration.



EXAMPLE 8.8

Calculating Acceleration: Initial Acceleration of a Moon Launch

A Saturn V's mass at liftoff was 2.80×10^6 kg, its fuel-burn rate was 1.40×10^4 kg/s, and the exhaust velocity was 2.40×10^3 m/s. Calculate its initial acceleration.

Strategy

This problem is a straightforward application of the expression for acceleration because a is the unknown and all of the terms on the right side of the equation are given.

Solution

Substituting the given values into the equation for acceleration yields

$$\begin{aligned}
 a &= \frac{v_e}{m} \frac{\Delta m}{\Delta t} - g \\
 &= \frac{2.40 \times 10^3 \text{ m/s}}{2.80 \times 10^6 \text{ kg}} (1.40 \times 10^4 \text{ kg/s}) - 9.80 \text{ m/s}^2 \\
 &= 2.20 \text{ m/s}^2.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{8.79}$$

Discussion

This value is fairly small, even for an initial acceleration. The acceleration does increase steadily as the rocket burns fuel, because m decreases while v_e and $\frac{\Delta m}{\Delta t}$ remain constant. Knowing this acceleration and the mass of the rocket, you can show that the thrust of the engines was 3.36×10^7 N.

To achieve the high speeds needed to hop continents, obtain orbit, or escape Earth's gravity altogether, the mass of the rocket other than fuel must be as small as possible. It can be shown that, in the absence of air resistance and neglecting gravity, the final velocity of a one-stage rocket initially at rest is

$$v = v_e \ln \frac{m_0}{m_r}, \tag{8.80}$$

where $\ln(m_0/m_r)$ is the natural logarithm of the ratio of the initial mass of the rocket (m_0) to what is left (m_r) after all of the fuel is exhausted. (Note that v is actually the change in velocity, so the equation can be used for any segment of the flight. If we start from rest, the change in velocity equals the final velocity.) For example, let us calculate the mass ratio needed to escape Earth's gravity starting from rest, given that the escape velocity from Earth is about 11.2×10^3 m/s, and assuming an exhaust velocity $v_e = 2.5 \times 10^3$ m/s.

$$\ln \frac{m_0}{m_r} = \frac{v}{v_e} = \frac{11.2 \times 10^3 \text{ m/s}}{2.5 \times 10^3 \text{ m/s}} = 4.48 \tag{8.81}$$

Solving for m_0/m_r gives

$$\frac{m_0}{m_r} = e^{4.48} = 88. \tag{8.82}$$

Thus, the mass of the rocket is

$$m_r = \frac{m_0}{88}. \tag{8.83}$$

This result means that only $1/88$ of the mass is left when the fuel is burnt, and $87/88$ of the initial mass was fuel. Expressed as percentages, 98.9% of the rocket is fuel, while payload, engines, fuel tanks, and other components make up only 1.10%. Taking air resistance and gravitational force into account, the mass m_f remaining can only be about $m_0/180$. It is difficult to build a rocket in which the fuel has a mass 180 times everything else. The solution is multistage rockets. Each stage only needs to achieve part of the final velocity and is discarded after it burns its fuel. The result is that each successive stage can have smaller engines and more payload relative to its fuel. Once out of the atmosphere, the ratio of payload to fuel becomes more favorable, too.

The space shuttle was an attempt at an economical vehicle with some reusable parts, such as the solid fuel boosters and the craft itself. (See [Figure 8.13](#)) The shuttle's need to be operated by humans, however, made it at least as costly for launching satellites as expendable, unpiloted rockets. Ideally, the shuttle would only have been used when human activities were required for the success of a mission, such as the repair of the Hubble space telescope. Rockets with satellites can also be launched from airplanes. Using airplanes has the double advantage that the initial velocity is significantly above zero and a rocket can avoid most of the atmosphere's resistance.



FIGURE 8.13 The space shuttle had a number of reusable parts. Solid fuel boosters on either side were recovered and refueled after each flight, and the entire orbiter returned to Earth for use in subsequent flights. The large liquid fuel tank was expended. The space shuttle was a complex assemblage of technologies, employing both solid and liquid fuel and pioneering ceramic tiles as reentry heat shields. As a result, it permitted multiple launches as opposed to single-use rockets. (credit: NASA)

Glossary

change in momentum the difference between the final and initial momentum; the mass times the change in velocity

conservation of momentum principle when the net external force is zero, the total momentum of the system is conserved or constant

elastic collision a collision that also conserves internal kinetic energy

impulse the average net external force times the time it acts; equal to the change in momentum

inelastic collision a collision in which internal kinetic energy is not conserved

internal kinetic energy the sum of the kinetic energies of the objects in a system

isolated system a system in which the net external force is zero

linear momentum the product of mass and velocity

perfectly inelastic collision a collision in which the colliding objects stick together

point masses structureless particles with no rotation or spin

quark fundamental constituent of matter and an elementary particle

second law of motion physical law that states that the net external force equals the change in momentum of a system divided by the time over which it changes

Section Summary

8.1 Linear Momentum and Force

- Linear momentum (*momentum* for brevity) is defined as the product of a system's mass multiplied by its velocity.
- In symbols, linear momentum $\mathbf{p}$ is defined to be $\mathbf{p} = m\mathbf{v}$, where m is the mass of the system and $\mathbf{v}$ is its velocity.
- The SI unit for momentum is $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$.
- Newton's second law of motion in terms of momentum states that the net external force equals the change in momentum of a system divided by the time over which it changes.
- In symbols, Newton's second law of motion is defined to be $\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = \frac{\Delta \mathbf{p}}{\Delta t}$, $\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}}$ is the net external force, $\Delta \mathbf{p}$ is the change in momentum, and Δt is the change time.

8.2 Impulse

- Impulse, or change in momentum, equals the average net external force multiplied by the time this force acts: $\Delta \mathbf{p} = \mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} \Delta t$.
- Forces are usually not constant over a period of time.

8.3 Conservation of Momentum

- The conservation of momentum principle is written $\mathbf{p}_{\text{tot}} = \text{constant}$ or $\mathbf{p}_{\text{tot}} = \mathbf{p}'_{\text{tot}}$ (isolated system), $\mathbf{p}_{\text{tot}}$ is the initial total momentum and $\mathbf{p}'_{\text{tot}}$ is the

total momentum some time later.

- An isolated system is defined to be one for which the net external force is zero ($\mathbf{F}_{\text{net}} = 0$).
- During projectile motion and where air resistance is negligible, momentum is conserved in the horizontal direction because horizontal forces are zero.
- Conservation of momentum applies only when the net external force is zero.
- The conservation of momentum principle is valid when considering systems of particles.

8.4 Elastic Collisions in One Dimension

- An elastic collision is one that conserves internal kinetic energy.
- Conservation of kinetic energy and momentum together allow the final velocities to be calculated in terms of initial velocities and masses in one dimensional two-body collisions.

8.5 Inelastic Collisions in One Dimension

- An inelastic collision is one in which the internal kinetic energy changes (it is not conserved).
- A collision in which the objects stick together is sometimes called perfectly inelastic because it reduces internal kinetic energy more than does any other type of inelastic collision.
- Sports science and technologies also use physics concepts such as momentum and rotational motion and vibrations.

8.6 Collisions of Point Masses in Two Dimensions

- The approach to two-dimensional collisions is to choose a convenient coordinate system and break

the motion into components along perpendicular axes. Choose a coordinate system with the x -axis parallel to the velocity of the incoming particle.

- Two-dimensional collisions of point masses where mass 2 is initially at rest conserve momentum along the initial direction of mass 1 (the x -axis), stated by $m_1 v_1 = m_1 v'_1 \cos \theta_1 + m_2 v'_2 \cos \theta_2$ and along the direction perpendicular to the initial direction (the y -axis) stated by $0 = m_1 v'_1 \sin \theta_1 + m_2 v'_2 \sin \theta_2$.
- The internal kinetic before and after the collision of two objects that have equal masses is $\frac{1}{2} m v_1^2 = \frac{1}{2} m v_1'^2 + \frac{1}{2} m v_2'^2 + m v'_1 v'_2 \cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2)$.
- Point masses are structureless particles that

cannot spin.

8.7 Introduction to Rocket Propulsion

- Newton's third law of motion states that to every action, there is an equal and opposite reaction.
- Acceleration of a rocket is $a = \frac{v_e}{m} \frac{\Delta m}{\Delta t} - g$.
- A rocket's acceleration depends on three main factors. They are
 - The greater the exhaust velocity of the gases, the greater the acceleration.
 - The faster the rocket burns its fuel, the greater its acceleration.
 - The smaller the rocket's mass, the greater the acceleration.

Conceptual Questions

8.1 Linear Momentum and Force

- An object that has a small mass and an object that has a large mass have the same momentum. Which object has the largest kinetic energy?
- An object that has a small mass and an object that has a large mass have the same kinetic energy. Which mass has the largest momentum?
- Professional Application**
Football coaches advise players to block, hit, and tackle with their feet on the ground rather than by leaping through the air. Using the concepts of momentum, work, and energy, explain how a football player can be more effective with his feet on the ground.
- How can a small force impart the same momentum to an object as a large force?

8.2 Impulse

- Professional Application**
Explain in terms of impulse how padding reduces forces in a collision. State this in terms of a real example, such as the advantages of a carpeted vs. tile floor for a day care center.
- While jumping on a trampoline, sometimes you land on your back and other times on your feet. In which case can you reach a greater height and why?
- Professional Application**
Tennis racquets have "sweet spots." If the ball hits a sweet spot then the player's arm is not jarred as much as it would be otherwise. Explain why this is the case.

8.3 Conservation of Momentum

- Professional Application**
If you dive into water, you reach greater depths than if you do a belly flop. Explain this difference in depth using the concept of conservation of energy. Explain this difference in depth using what you have learned in this chapter.
- Under what circumstances is momentum conserved?
- Can momentum be conserved for a system if there are external forces acting on the system? If so, under what conditions? If not, why not?
- Momentum for a system can be conserved in one direction while not being conserved in another. What is the angle between the directions? Give an example.
- Professional Application**
Explain in terms of momentum and Newton's laws how a car's air resistance is due in part to the fact that it pushes air in its direction of motion.
- Can objects in a system have momentum while the momentum of the system is zero? Explain your answer.
- Must the total energy of a system be conserved whenever its momentum is conserved? Explain why or why not.

8.4 Elastic Collisions in One Dimension

- What is an elastic collision?

8.5 Inelastic Collisions in One Dimension

- What is an inelastic collision? What is a perfectly inelastic collision?

17. Mixed-pair ice skaters performing in a show are standing motionless at arms length just before starting a routine. They reach out, clasp hands, and pull themselves together by only using their arms. Assuming there is no friction between the blades of their skates and the ice, what is their velocity after their bodies meet?
18. A small pickup truck that has a camper shell slowly coasts toward a red light with negligible friction. Two dogs in the back of the truck are moving and making various inelastic collisions with each other and the walls. What is the effect of the dogs on the motion of the center of mass of the system (truck plus entire load)? What is their effect on the motion of the truck?

8.6 Collisions of Point Masses in Two Dimensions

19. Figure 8.14 shows a cube at rest and a small object heading toward it. (a) Describe the directions (angle θ_1) at which the small object can emerge after colliding elastically with the cube. How does θ_1 depend on b , the so-called impact parameter? Ignore any effects that might be due to rotation after the collision, and assume that the cube is much more massive than the small object. (b) Answer the same questions if the small object instead collides with a massive sphere.

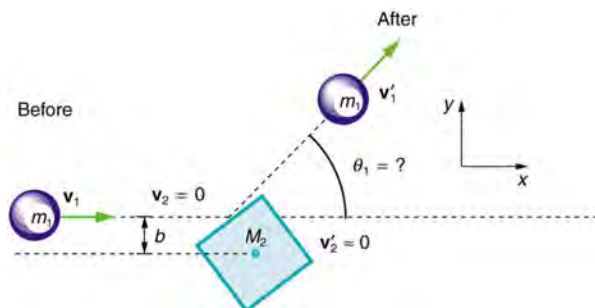


FIGURE 8.14 A small object approaches a collision with a much

more massive cube, after which its velocity has the direction θ_1 . The angles at which the small object can be scattered are determined by the shape of the object it strikes and the impact parameter b .

8.7 Introduction to Rocket Propulsion

20. Professional Application
Suppose a fireworks shell explodes, breaking into three large pieces for which air resistance is negligible. How is the motion of the center of mass affected by the explosion? How would it be affected if the pieces experienced significantly more air resistance than the intact shell?
21. Professional Application
During a visit to the International Space Station, an astronaut was positioned motionless in the center of the station, out of reach of any solid object on which he could exert a force. Suggest a method by which he could move himself away from this position, and explain the physics involved.
22. Professional Application
It is possible for the velocity of a rocket to be greater than the exhaust velocity of the gases it ejects. When that is the case, the gas velocity and gas momentum are in the same direction as that of the rocket. How is the rocket still able to obtain thrust by ejecting the gases?

Problems & Exercises

8.1 Linear Momentum and Force

1. (a) Calculate the momentum of a 2000-kg elephant charging a hunter at a speed of 7.50 m/s. (b) Compare the elephant's momentum with the momentum of a 0.0400-kg tranquilizer dart fired at a speed of 600 m/s. (c) What is the momentum of the 90.0-kg hunter running at 7.40 m/s after missing the elephant?
2. (a) What is the mass of a large ship that has a momentum of $1.60 \times 10^9 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$, when the ship is moving at a speed of 48.0 km/h? (b) Compare the

ship's momentum to the momentum of a 1100-kg artillery shell fired at a speed of 1200 m/s.

3. (a) At what speed would a 2.00×10^4 -kg airplane have to fly to have a momentum of $1.60 \times 10^9 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$ (the same as the ship's momentum in the problem above)? (b) What is the plane's momentum when it is taking off at a speed of 60.0 m/s? (c) If the ship is an aircraft carrier that launches these airplanes with a catapult, discuss the implications of your answer to (b) as it relates to recoil effects of the catapult on the ship.

4. (a) What is the momentum of a garbage truck that is 1.20×10^4 kg and is moving at 30.0 m/s? (b) At what speed would an 8.00-kg trash can have the same momentum as the truck?
5. A runaway train car that has a mass of 15,000 kg travels at a speed of 5.4 m/s down a track. Compute the time required for a force of 1500 N to bring the car to rest.
6. The mass of Earth is 5.972×10^{24} kg and its orbital radius is an average of 1.496×10^{11} m. Calculate its linear momentum.

8.2 Impulse

7. A bullet is accelerated down the barrel of a gun by hot gases produced in the combustion of gun powder. What is the average force exerted on a 0.0300-kg bullet to accelerate it to a speed of 600.0 m/s in a time of 2.00 ms (milliseconds)?
8. Professional Application
A car moving at 10.0 m/s crashes into a tree and stops in 0.26 s. Calculate the force the seat belt exerts on a passenger in the car to bring him to a halt. The mass of the passenger is 70.0 kg.
9. A person slaps her leg with her hand, bringing her hand to rest in 2.50 milliseconds from an initial speed of 4.00 m/s. (a) What is the average force exerted on the leg, taking the effective mass of the hand and forearm to be 1.50 kg? (b) Would the force be any different if the woman clapped her hands together at the same speed and brought them to rest in the same time? Explain why or why not.
10. Professional Application
A professional boxer hits his opponent with a 1000-N horizontal blow that lasts for 0.150 s. (a) Calculate the impulse imparted by this blow. (b) What is the opponent's final velocity, if his mass is 105 kg and he is motionless in midair when struck near his center of mass? (c) Calculate the recoil velocity of the opponent's 10.0-kg head if hit in this manner, assuming the head does not initially transfer significant momentum to the boxer's body. (d) Discuss the implications of your answers for parts (b) and (c).
11. Professional Application
Suppose a child drives a bumper car head on into the side rail, which exerts a force of 4000 N on the car for 0.200 s. (a) What impulse is imparted by this force? (b) Find the final velocity of the bumper car if its initial velocity was 2.80 m/s and the car plus driver have a mass of 200 kg. You may neglect friction between the car and floor.
12. Professional Application
One hazard of space travel is debris left by previous missions. There are several thousand objects orbiting Earth that are large enough to be detected by radar, but there are far greater numbers of very small objects, such as flakes of paint. Calculate the force exerted by a 0.100-mg chip of paint that strikes a spacecraft window at a relative speed of 4.00×10^3 m/s, given the collision lasts 6.00×10^{-8} s.
13. Professional Application
A 75.0-kg person is riding in a car moving at 20.0 m/s when the car runs into a bridge abutment. (a) Calculate the average force on the person if he is stopped by a padded dashboard that compresses an average of 1.00 cm. (b) Calculate the average force on the person if he is stopped by an air bag that compresses an average of 15.0 cm.
14. Professional Application
Military rifles have a mechanism for reducing the recoil forces of the gun on the person firing it. An internal part recoils over a relatively large distance and is stopped by damping mechanisms in the gun. The larger distance reduces the average force needed to stop the internal part. (a) Calculate the recoil velocity of a 1.00-kg plunger that directly interacts with a 0.0200-kg bullet fired at 600 m/s from the gun. (b) If this part is stopped over a distance of 20.0 cm, what average force is exerted upon it by the gun? (c) Compare this to the force exerted on the gun if the bullet is accelerated to its velocity in 10.0 ms (milliseconds).
15. A cruise ship with a mass of 1.00×10^7 kg strikes a pier at a speed of 0.750 m/s. It comes to rest 6.00 m later, damaging the ship, the pier, and the tugboat captain's finances. Calculate the average force exerted on the pier using the concept of impulse. (Hint: First calculate the time it took to bring the ship to rest.)
16. Calculate the final speed of a 110-kg rugby player who is initially running at 8.00 m/s but collides head-on with a padded goalpost and experiences a backward force of 1.76×10^4 N for 5.50×10^{-2} s.
17. Water from a fire hose is directed horizontally against a wall at a rate of 50.0 kg/s and a speed of 42.0 m/s. Calculate the magnitude of the force exerted on the wall, assuming the water's

horizontal momentum is reduced to zero.

- 18.** A 0.450-kg hammer is moving horizontally at 7.00 m/s when it strikes a nail and comes to rest after driving the nail 1.00 cm into a board. (a) Calculate the duration of the impact. (b) What was the average force exerted on the nail?
- 19.** Starting with the definitions of momentum and kinetic energy, derive an equation for the kinetic energy of a particle expressed as a function of its momentum.
- 20.** A ball with an initial velocity of 10 m/s moves at an angle 60° above the $+x$ -direction. The ball hits a vertical wall and bounces off so that it is moving 60° above the $-x$ -direction with the same speed. In terms of m , the mass of the ball, what is the impulse delivered by the wall?
- 21.** When serving a tennis ball, a player hits the ball when its velocity is zero (at the highest point of a vertical toss). The racquet exerts a force of 540 N on the ball for 5.00 ms, giving it a final velocity of 45.0 m/s. Using these data, find the mass of the ball.
- 22.** A punter drops a ball from rest vertically 1 meter down onto his foot. The ball leaves the foot with a speed of 18 m/s at an angle 55° above the horizontal. In terms of m , the mass of the ball, what is the impulse delivered by the foot (magnitude and direction)?

8.3 Conservation of Momentum

- 23.** Professional Application
Train cars are coupled together by being bumped into one another. Suppose two loaded train cars are moving toward one another, the first having a mass of 150,000 kg and a velocity of 0.300 m/s, and the second having a mass of 110,000 kg and a velocity of -0.120 m/s. (The minus indicates direction of motion.) What is their final velocity?
- 24.** Suppose a clay model of a koala bear has a mass of 0.200 kg and slides on ice at a speed of 0.750 m/s. It runs into another clay model, which is initially motionless and has a mass of 0.350 kg. Both being soft clay, they naturally stick together. What is their final velocity?
- 25.** Professional Application
Consider the following question: *A car moving at 10 m/s crashes into a tree and stops in 0.26 s. Calculate the force the seatbelt exerts on a passenger in the car to bring him to a halt. The mass of the passenger is 70 kg.* Would the answer

to this question be different if the car with the 70-kg passenger had collided with a car that has a mass equal to and is traveling in the opposite direction and at the same speed? Explain your answer.

- 26.** What is the velocity of a 900-kg car initially moving at 30.0 m/s, just after it hits a 150-kg deer initially running at 12.0 m/s in the same direction? Assume the deer remains on the car.
- 27.** A 1.80-kg falcon catches a 0.650-kg dove from behind in midair. What is their velocity after impact if the falcon's velocity is initially 28.0 m/s and the dove's velocity is 7.00 m/s in the same direction?

8.4 Elastic Collisions in One Dimension

- 28.** Two identical objects (such as billiard balls) have a one-dimensional collision in which one is initially motionless. After the collision, the moving object is stationary and the other moves with the same speed as the other originally had. Show that both momentum and kinetic energy are conserved.
- 29.** Professional Application
Two piloted satellites approach one another at a relative speed of 0.250 m/s, intending to dock. The first has a mass of 4.00×10^3 kg, and the second a mass of 7.50×10^3 kg. If the two satellites collide elastically rather than dock, what is their final relative velocity?
- 30.** A 70.0-kg ice hockey goalie, originally at rest, catches a 0.150-kg hockey puck slapped at him at a velocity of 35.0 m/s. Suppose the goalie and the ice puck have an elastic collision and the puck is reflected back in the direction from which it came. What would their final velocities be in this case?

8.5 Inelastic Collisions in One Dimension

- 31.** A 0.240-kg billiard ball that is moving at 3.00 m/s strikes the bumper of a pool table and bounces straight back at 2.40 m/s (80% of its original speed). The collision lasts 0.0150 s. (a) Calculate the average force exerted on the ball by the bumper. (b) How much kinetic energy in joules is lost during the collision? (c) What percent of the original energy is left?
- 32.** During an ice show, a 60.0-kg skater leaps into the air and is caught by an initially stationary 75.0-kg skater. (a) What is their final velocity assuming negligible friction and that the 60.0-kg skater's original horizontal velocity is 4.00 m/s? (b) How

much kinetic energy is lost?

33. Professional Application

Using mass and speed data from [Example 8.1](#) and assuming that the football player catches the ball with his feet off the ground with both of them moving horizontally, calculate: (a) the final velocity if the ball and player are going in the same direction and (b) the loss of kinetic energy in this case. (c) Repeat parts (a) and (b) for the situation in which the ball and the player are going in opposite directions. Might the loss of kinetic energy be related to how much it hurts to catch the pass?

- 34.** A battleship that is 6.00×10^7 kg and is originally at rest fires a 1100-kg artillery shell horizontally with a velocity of 575 m/s. (a) If the shell is fired straight aft (toward the rear of the ship), there will be negligible friction opposing the ship's recoil. Calculate its recoil velocity. (b) Calculate the increase in internal kinetic energy (that is, for the ship and the shell). This energy is less than the energy released by the gun powder—significant heat transfer occurs.

35. Professional Application

Two piloted satellites approaching one another, at a relative speed of 0.250 m/s, intending to dock. The first has a mass of 4.00×10^3 kg, and the second a mass of 7.50×10^3 kg. (a) Calculate the final velocity (after docking) by using the frame of reference in which the first satellite was originally at rest. (b) What is the loss of kinetic energy in this inelastic collision? (c) Repeat both parts by using the frame of reference in which the second satellite was originally at rest. Explain why the change in velocity is different in the two frames, whereas the change in kinetic energy is the same in both.

36. Professional Application

A 30,000-kg freight car is coasting at 0.850 m/s with negligible friction under a hopper that dumps 110,000 kg of scrap metal into it. (a) What is the final velocity of the loaded freight car? (b) How much kinetic energy is lost?

37. Professional Application

Space probes may be separated from their launchers by exploding bolts. (They bolt away from one another.) Suppose a 4800-kg satellite uses this method to separate from the 1500-kg remains of its launcher, and that 5000 J of kinetic energy is supplied to the two parts. What are their subsequent velocities using the frame of reference

in which they were at rest before separation?

- 38.** A 0.0250-kg bullet is accelerated from rest to a speed of 550 m/s in a 3.00-kg rifle. The pain of the rifle's kick is much worse if you hold the gun loosely a few centimeters from your shoulder rather than holding it tightly against your shoulder. (a) Calculate the recoil velocity of the rifle if it is held loosely away from the shoulder. (b) How much kinetic energy does the rifle gain? (c) What is the recoil velocity if the rifle is held tightly against the shoulder, making the effective mass 28.0 kg? (d) How much kinetic energy is transferred to the rifle-shoulder combination? The pain is related to the amount of kinetic energy, which is significantly less in this latter situation. (e) Calculate the momentum of a 110-kg football player running at 8.00 m/s. Compare the player's momentum with the momentum of a hard-thrown 0.410-kg football that has a speed of 25.0 m/s. Discuss its relationship to this problem.

39. Professional Application

One of the waste products of a nuclear reactor is plutonium-239 (^{239}Pu). This nucleus is radioactive and decays by splitting into a helium-4 nucleus and a uranium-235 nucleus ($^4\text{He} + ^{235}\text{U}$), the latter of which is also radioactive and will itself decay some time later. The energy emitted in the plutonium decay is 8.40×10^{-13} J and is entirely converted to kinetic energy of the helium and uranium nuclei. The mass of the helium nucleus is 6.68×10^{-27} kg, while that of the uranium is 3.92×10^{-25} kg (note that the ratio of the masses is 4 to 235). (a) Calculate the velocities of the two nuclei, assuming the plutonium nucleus is originally at rest. (b) How much kinetic energy does each nucleus carry away? Note that the data given here are accurate to three digits only.

40. Professional Application

The Moon's craters are remnants of meteorite collisions. Suppose a fairly large asteroid that has a mass of 5.00×10^{12} kg (about a kilometer across) strikes the Moon at a speed of 15.0 km/s. (a) At what speed does the Moon recoil after the perfectly inelastic collision (the mass of the Moon is 7.36×10^{22} kg)? (b) How much kinetic energy is lost in the collision? Such an event may have been observed by medieval English monks who reported observing a red glow and subsequent haze about the Moon. (c) In October 2009, NASA crashed a rocket into the Moon, and analyzed the

plume produced by the impact. (Significant amounts of water were detected.) Answer part (a) and (b) for this real-life experiment. The mass of the rocket was 2000 kg and its speed upon impact was 9000 km/h. How does the plume produced alter these results?

41. Professional Application

Two football players collide head-on in midair while trying to catch a thrown football. The first player is 95.0 kg and has an initial velocity of 6.00 m/s, while the second player is 115 kg and has an initial velocity of -3.50 m/s. What is their velocity just after impact if they cling together?

42. What is the speed of a garbage truck that is 1.20×10^4 kg and is initially moving at 25.0 m/s just after it hits and adheres to a trash can that is 80.0 kg and is initially at rest?

43. During a circus act, an elderly performer thrills the crowd by catching a cannon ball shot at him. The cannon ball has a mass of 10.0 kg and the horizontal component of its velocity is 8.00 m/s when the 65.0-kg performer catches it. If the performer is on nearly frictionless roller skates, what is his recoil velocity?

44. (a) During an ice skating performance, an initially motionless 80.0-kg clown throws a fake barbell away. The clown's ice skates allow her to recoil frictionlessly. If the clown recoils with a velocity of 0.500 m/s and the barbell is thrown with a velocity of 10.0 m/s, what is the mass of the barbell? (b) How much kinetic energy is gained by this maneuver? (c) Where does the kinetic energy come from?

8.6 Collisions of Point Masses in Two Dimensions

45. Two identical pucks collide on an air hockey table. One puck was originally at rest. (a) If the incoming puck has a speed of 6.00 m/s and scatters to an angle of 30.0° , what is the velocity (magnitude and direction) of the second puck? (You may use the result that $\theta_1 - \theta_2 = 90^\circ$ for elastic collisions of objects that have identical masses.) (b) Confirm that the collision is elastic.

46. Confirm that the results of the example [Example 8.7](#) do conserve momentum in both the x - and y -directions.

47. A 3000-kg cannon is mounted so that it can recoil only in the horizontal direction. (a) Calculate its recoil velocity when it fires a 15.0-kg shell at 480

m/s at an angle of 20.0° above the horizontal. (b) What is the kinetic energy of the cannon? This energy is dissipated as heat transfer in shock absorbers that stop its recoil. (c) What happens to the vertical component of momentum that is imparted to the cannon when it is fired?

48. Professional Application

A 5.50-kg bowling ball moving at 9.00 m/s collides with a 0.850-kg bowling pin, which is scattered at an angle of 85.0° to the initial direction of the bowling ball and with a speed of 15.0 m/s. (a) Calculate the final velocity (magnitude and direction) of the bowling ball. (b) Is the collision elastic? (c) Linear kinetic energy is greater after the collision. Discuss how spin on the ball might be converted to linear kinetic energy in the collision.

49. Professional Application

Ernest Rutherford (the first New Zealander to be awarded the Nobel Prize in Chemistry) demonstrated that nuclei were very small and dense by scattering helium-4 nuclei (${}^4\text{He}$) from gold-197 nuclei (${}^{197}\text{Au}$). The energy of the incoming helium nucleus was 8.00×10^{-13} J, and the masses of the helium and gold nuclei were 6.68×10^{-27} kg and 3.29×10^{-25} kg, respectively (note that their mass ratio is 4 to 197). (a) If a helium nucleus scatters to an angle of 120° during an elastic collision with a gold nucleus, calculate the helium nucleus's final speed and the final velocity (magnitude and direction) of the gold nucleus. (b) What is the final kinetic energy of the helium nucleus?

50. Professional Application

Two cars collide at an icy intersection and stick together afterward. The first car has a mass of 1200 kg and is approaching at 8.00 m/s due south. The second car has a mass of 850 kg and is approaching at 17.0 m/s due west. (a) Calculate the final velocity (magnitude and direction) of the cars. (b) How much kinetic energy is lost in the collision? (This energy goes into deformation of the cars.) Note that because both cars have an initial velocity, you cannot use the equations for conservation of momentum along the x -axis and y -axis; instead, you must look for other simplifying aspects.

51. Starting with equations

$m_1 v_1 = m_1 v'_1 \cos \theta_1 + m_2 v'_2 \cos \theta_2$ and $0 = m_1 v'_1 \sin \theta_1 + m_2 v'_2 \sin \theta_2$ for conservation of momentum in the x - and y -directions and

assuming that one object is originally stationary, prove that for an elastic collision of two objects of equal masses,

$$\frac{1}{2}mv_1^2 = \frac{1}{2}mv_1'^2 + \frac{1}{2}mv_2'^2 + mv_1'v_2' \cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2)$$

as discussed in the text.

52. Integrated Concepts

A 90.0-kg ice hockey player hits a 0.150-kg puck, giving the puck a velocity of 45.0 m/s. If both are initially at rest and if the ice is frictionless, how far does the player recoil in the time it takes the puck to reach the goal 15.0 m away?

8.7 Introduction to Rocket Propulsion

53. Professional Application

Antiballistic missiles (ABMs) are designed to have very large accelerations so that they may intercept fast-moving incoming missiles in the short time available. What is the takeoff acceleration of a 10,000-kg ABM that expels 196 kg of gas per second at an exhaust velocity of 2.50×10^3 m/s?

54. Professional Application

What is the acceleration of a 5000-kg rocket taking off from the Moon, where the acceleration due to gravity is only 1.6 m/s^2 , if the rocket expels 8.00 kg of gas per second at an exhaust velocity of 2.20×10^3 m/s?

55. Professional Application

Calculate the increase in velocity of a 4000-kg space probe that expels 3500 kg of its mass at an exhaust velocity of 2.00×10^3 m/s. You may assume the gravitational force is negligible at the probe's location.

56. Professional Application

Ion-propulsion rockets have been proposed for use in space. They employ atomic ionization techniques and nuclear energy sources to produce extremely high exhaust velocities, perhaps as great as 8.00×10^6 m/s. These techniques allow a much more favorable payload-to-fuel ratio. To illustrate this fact: (a) Calculate the increase in velocity of a 20,000-kg space probe that expels only 40.0-kg of its mass at the given exhaust velocity. (b) These engines are usually designed to produce a very small thrust for a very long time—the type of engine that might be useful on a trip to the outer planets, for example. Calculate the acceleration of such an engine if it expels 4.50×10^{-6} kg/s at the given velocity, assuming

the acceleration due to gravity is negligible.

57. Derive the equation for the vertical acceleration of a rocket.

58. Professional Application

(a) Calculate the maximum rate at which a rocket can expel gases if its acceleration cannot exceed seven times that of gravity. The mass of the rocket just as it runs out of fuel is 75,000-kg, and its exhaust velocity is 2.40×10^3 m/s. Assume that the acceleration of gravity is the same as on Earth's surface (9.80 m/s^2). (b) Why might it be necessary to limit the acceleration of a rocket?

59. Given the following data for a fire extinguisher-toy wagon rocket experiment, calculate the average exhaust velocity of the gases expelled from the extinguisher. Starting from rest, the final velocity is 10.0 m/s. The total mass is initially 75.0 kg and is 70.0 kg after the extinguisher is fired.

60. How much of a single-stage rocket that is 100,000 kg can be anything but fuel if the rocket is to have a final speed of 8.00 km/s, given that it expels gases at an exhaust velocity of 2.20×10^3 m/s?

61. Professional Application

(a) A 5.00-kg squid initially at rest ejects 0.250-kg of fluid with a velocity of 10.0 m/s. What is the recoil velocity of the squid if the ejection is done in 0.100 s and there is a 5.00-N frictional force opposing the squid's movement. (b) How much energy is lost to work done against friction?

62. Unreasonable Results

Squids have been reported to jump from the ocean and travel 30.0 m (measured horizontally) before re-entering the water. (a) Calculate the initial speed of the squid if it leaves the water at an angle of 20.0° , assuming negligible lift from the air and negligible air resistance. (b) The squid propels itself by squirting water. What fraction of its mass would it have to eject in order to achieve the speed found in the previous part? The water is ejected at 12.0 m/s; gravitational force and friction are neglected. (c) What is unreasonable about the results? (d) Which premise is unreasonable, or which premises are inconsistent?

63. Construct Your Own Problem

Consider an astronaut in deep space cut free from her space ship and needing to get back to it. The astronaut has a few packages that she can throw away to move herself toward the ship. Construct a problem in which you calculate the time it takes

her to get back by throwing all the packages at one time compared to throwing them one at a time. Among the things to be considered are the masses involved, the force she can exert on the packages through some distance, and the distance to the ship.

64. Construct Your Own Problem

Consider an artillery projectile striking armor

plating. Construct a problem in which you find the force exerted by the projectile on the plate.

Among the things to be considered are the mass and speed of the projectile and the distance over which its speed is reduced. Your instructor may also wish for you to consider the relative merits of depleted uranium versus lead projectiles based on the greater density of uranium.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

8.1 Linear Momentum and Force

1. A boy standing on a frictionless ice rink is initially at rest. He throws a snowball in the $+x$ -direction, and it travels on a ballistic trajectory, hitting the ground some distance away. Which of the following is true about the boy while he is in the act of throwing the snowball?
 - a. He feels an upward force to compensate for the downward trajectory of the snowball.
 - b. He feels a backward force exerted by the snowball he is throwing.
 - c. He feels no net force.
 - d. He feels a forward force, the same force that propels the snowball.
2. A 150-g baseball is initially moving 80 mi/h in the $-x$ -direction. After colliding with a baseball bat for 20 ms, the baseball moves 80 mi/h in the $+x$ -direction. What is the magnitude and direction of the average force exerted by the bat on the baseball?

8.2 Impulse

3. A 1.0-kg ball of putty is released from rest and falls vertically 1.5 m until it strikes a hard floor, where it comes to rest in a 0.045-s time interval. What is the magnitude and direction of the average force exerted on the ball by the floor during the collision?
 - a. 33 N, up
 - b. 120 N, up
 - c. 120 N, down
 - d. 240 N, down
4. A 75-g ball is dropped from rest from a height of 2.2 m. It bounces off the floor and rebounds to a maximum height of 1.7 m. If the ball is in contact with the floor for 0.024 s, what is the magnitude and direction of the average force exerted on the ball by the floor during the collision?
5. A 2.4-kg ceramic bowl falls to the floor. During the 0.018-s impact, the bowl experiences an average force of 750 N from the floor. The bowl is at rest

after the impact. From what initial height did the bowl fall?

- a. 1.6 m
 - b. 2.8 m
 - c. 3.2 m
 - d. 5.6 m
6. Whether or not an object (such as a plate, glass, or bone) breaks upon impact depends on the average force exerted on that object by the surface. When a 1.2-kg glass figure hits the floor, it will break if it experiences an average force of 330 N. When it hits a tile floor, the glass comes to a stop in 0.015 s. From what minimum height must the glass fall to experience sufficient force to break? How would your answer change if the figure were falling to a padded or carpeted surface? Explain.
 7. A 2.5-kg block slides across a frictionless table toward a horizontal spring. As the block bounces off the spring, a probe measures the velocity of the block (initially negative, moving away from the probe) over time as follows:

Velocity (m/s)	Time (s)
-12.0	0
-10.0	0.10
-6.0	0.20
0	0.30
6.0	0.40
10.0	0.50
12.0	0.60

TABLE 8.1

What is the average force exerted on the block by the

spring over the entire 0.60-s time interval of the collision?

- 50 N
 - 60 N
 - 100 N
 - 120 N
8. During an automobile crash test, the average force exerted by a solid wall on a 2500-kg car that hits the wall is measured to be 740,000 N over a 0.22-s time interval. What was the initial speed of the car prior to the collision, assuming the car is at rest at the end of the time interval?
9. A test car is driving toward a solid crash-test barrier with a speed of 45 mi/h. Two seconds prior to impact, the car begins to brake, but it is still moving when it hits the wall. After the collision with the wall, the car crumples somewhat and comes to a complete stop. In order to estimate the average force exerted by the wall on the car, what information would you need to collect?
- The (negative) acceleration of the car before it hits the wall and the distance the car travels while braking.
 - The (negative) acceleration of the car before it hits the wall and the velocity of the car just before impact.
 - The velocity of the car just before impact and the duration of the collision with the wall.
 - The duration of the collision with the wall and the distance the car travels while braking.
10. Design an experiment to verify the relationship between the average force exerted on an object and the change in momentum of that object. As part of your explanation, list the equipment you would use and describe your experimental setup. What would you measure and how? How exactly would you verify the relationship? Explain.
11. A 22-g puck hits the wall of an air hockey table perpendicular to the wall with an initial speed of 14 m/s. The puck is in contact with the wall for 0.0055 s, and it rebounds from the wall with a speed of 14 m/s in the opposite direction. What is the magnitude of the average force exerted by the wall on the puck?
- 0.308 N
 - 0.616 N
 - 56 N
 - 112 N
12. A 22-g puck hits the wall of an air hockey table

perpendicular to the wall with an initial speed of 7 m/s. The puck is in contact with the wall for 0.011 s, and the wall exerts an average force of 28 N on the puck during that time. Calculate the magnitude and direction of the change in momentum of the puck.

13.

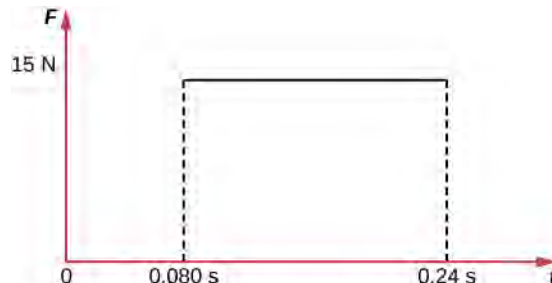


FIGURE 8.15 This is a graph showing the force exerted by a rigid wall versus time.

The graph in [Figure 8.15](#) represents the force exerted on a particle during a collision. What is the magnitude of the change in momentum of the particle as a result of the collision?

- 1.2 kg • m/s
- 2.4 kg • m/s
- 3.6 kg • m/s
- 4.8 kg • m/s

14.

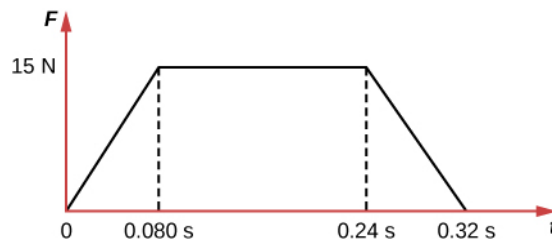


FIGURE 8.16 This is a graph showing the force exerted by a rigid wall versus time.

The graph in [Figure 8.16](#) represents the force exerted on a particle during a collision. What is the magnitude of the change in momentum of the particle as a result of the collision?

8.3 Conservation of Momentum

15. Which of the following is an example of an open system?
- Two air cars colliding on a track elastically.
 - Two air cars colliding on a track and sticking together.
 - A bullet being fired into a hanging wooden block and becoming embedded in the block, with the system then acting as a ballistic pendulum.
 - A bullet being fired into a hillside and

becoming buried in the earth.

- 16.** A 40-kg girl runs across a mat with a speed of 5.0 m/s and jumps onto a 120-kg hanging platform initially at rest, causing the girl and platform to swing back and forth like a pendulum together after her jump. What is the combined velocity of the girl and platform after the jump? What is the combined momentum of the girl and platform both before and after the collision? A 50-kg boy runs across a mat with a speed of 6.0 m/s and collides with a soft barrier on the wall, rebounding off the wall and falling to the ground. The boy is at rest after the collision. What is the momentum of the boy before and after the collision? Is momentum conserved in this collision? Explain. Which of these is an example of an open system and which is an example of a closed system? Explain your answer.
- 17.** A student sets up an experiment to measure the momentum of a system of two air cars, A and B, of equal mass, moving on a linear, frictionless track. Before the collision, car A has a certain speed, and car B is at rest. Which of the following will be true about the total momentum of the two cars?
- It will be greater before the collision.
 - It will be equal before and after the collision.
 - It will be greater after the collision.
 - The answer depends on whether the collision is elastic or inelastic.
- 18.** A group of students has two carts, A and B, with wheels that turn with negligible friction. The carts can travel along a straight horizontal track. Cart A has known mass m_A . The students are asked to use a one-dimensional collision between the carts to determine the mass of cart B. Before the collision, cart A travels to the right and cart B is initially at rest. After the collision, the carts stick together.
- Describe an experimental procedure to determine the velocities of the carts before and after a collision, including all the additional equipment you would need. You may include a labeled diagram of your setup to help in your description. Indicate what measurements you would take and how you would take them. Include enough detail so that another student could carry out your procedure.
 - There will be sources of error in the measurements taken in the experiment, both before and after the collision. For your experimental procedure, will the uncertainty in the

calculated value of the mass of cart B be affected more by the error in the measurements taken before the collision or by those taken after the collision, or will it be equally affected by both sets of measurements? Justify your answer.

A group of students took measurements for one collision. A graph of the students' data is shown below.

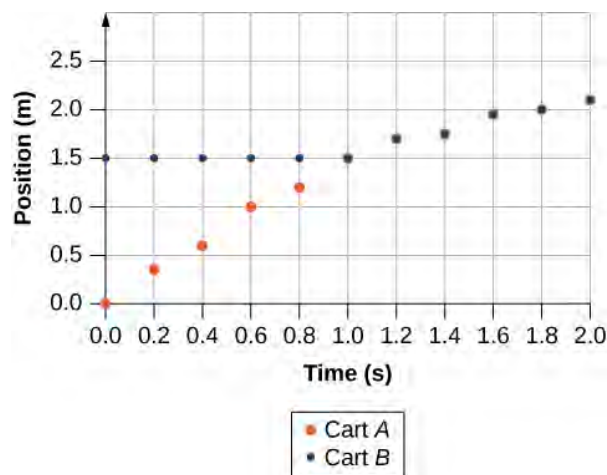


FIGURE 8.17 The image shows a graph with position in meters on the vertical axis and time in seconds on the horizontal axis.

- Given $m_A = 0.50$ kg, use the graph to calculate the mass of cart B. Explicitly indicate the principles used in your calculations.
 - The students are now asked to Consider the kinetic energy changes in an inelastic collision, specifically whether the initial values of one of the physical quantities affect the fraction of mechanical energy dissipated in the collision. How could you modify the experiment to investigate this question? Be sure to explicitly describe the calculations you would make, specifying all equations you would use (but do not actually do any algebra or arithmetic).
- 19.** Cart A is moving with an initial velocity $+v$ (in the positive direction) toward cart B, initially at rest. Both carts have equal mass and are on a frictionless surface. Which of the following statements correctly characterizes the velocity of the center of mass of the system before and after the collision?
- $\frac{+v}{2}$ before, $\frac{-v}{2}$ after
 - $\frac{+v}{2}$ before, 0 after
 - $\frac{+v}{2}$ before, $\frac{+v}{2}$ after
 - 0 before, 0 after
- 20.** Cart A is moving with a velocity of +10 m/s toward cart B, which is moving with a velocity of +4 m/s. Both carts have equal mass and are moving on a

frictionless surface. The two carts have an inelastic collision and stick together after the collision. Calculate the velocity of the center of mass of the system before and after the collision. If there were friction present in this problem, how would this external force affect the center-of-mass velocity both before and after the collision?

8.4 Elastic Collisions in One Dimension

- 21.** Two cars (A and B) of mass 1.5 kg collide. Car A is initially moving at 12 m/s, and car B is initially moving in the same direction with a speed of 6 m/s. The two cars are moving along a straight line before and after the collision. What will be the change in momentum of this system after the collision?

a. $-27 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$
 b. zero
 c. $+27 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$
 d. It depends on whether the collision is elastic or inelastic.

- 22.** Two cars (A and B) of mass 1.5 kg collide. Car A is initially moving at 24 m/s, and car B is initially moving in the opposite direction with a speed of 12 m/s. The two cars are moving along a straight line before and after the collision. (a) If the two cars have an elastic collision, calculate the change in momentum of the two-car system. (b) If the two cars have a completely inelastic collision, calculate the change in momentum of the two-car system.

- 23.** Puck A (200 g) slides across a frictionless surface to collide with puck B (800 g), initially at rest. The velocity of each puck is measured during the experiment as follows:

Time	Velocity A	Velocity B
0	+8.0 m/s	0
1.0 s	+8.0 m/s	0
2.0 s	-2.0 m/s	+2.5 m/s
3.0 s	-2.0 m/s	+2.5 m/s

TABLE 8.2

What is the change in momentum of the center of mass of the system as a result of the collision?

a. $+1.6 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$

b. $+0.8 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$
 c. 0
 d. $-1.6 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$

- 24.** For the table above, calculate the center-of-mass velocity of the system both before and after the collision, then calculate the center-of-mass momentum of the system both before and after the collision. From this, determine the change in the momentum of the system as a result of the collision.

- 25.** Two cars (A and B) of equal mass have an elastic collision. Prior to the collision, car A is moving at 15 m/s in the $+x$ -direction, and car B is moving at 10 m/s in the $-x$ -direction. Assuming that both cars continue moving along the x -axis after the collision, what will be the velocity of car A after the collision?

a. same as the original 15 m/s speed, opposite direction
 b. equal to car B's velocity prior to the collision
 c. equal to the average of the two velocities, in its original direction
 d. equal to the average of the two velocities, in the opposite direction

- 26.** Two cars (A and B) of equal mass have an elastic collision. Prior to the collision, car A is moving at 20 m/s in the $+x$ -direction, and car B is moving at 10 m/s in the $-x$ -direction. Assuming that both cars continue moving along the x -axis after the collision, what will be the velocities of each car after the collision?

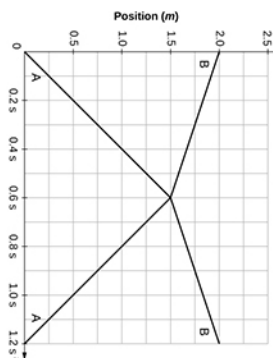
- 27.** A rubber ball is dropped from rest at a fixed height. It bounces off a hard floor and rebounds upward, but it only reaches 90% of its original fixed height. What is the best way to explain the loss of kinetic energy of the ball during the collision?

a. Energy was required to deform the ball's shape during the collision with the floor.
 b. Energy was lost due to work done by the ball pushing on the floor during the collision.
 c. Energy was lost due to friction between the ball and the floor.
 d. Energy was lost due to the work done by gravity during the motion.

- 28.** A tennis ball strikes a wall with an initial speed of 15 m/s. The ball bounces off the wall but rebounds with slightly less speed (14 m/s) after the collision. Explain (a) what else changed its

momentum in response to the ball's change in momentum so that overall momentum is conserved, and (b) how some of the ball's kinetic energy was lost.

- 29.** Two objects, A and B, have equal mass. Prior to the collision, mass A is moving 10 m/s in the +x-direction, and mass B is moving 4 m/s in the +x-direction. Which of the following results represents an inelastic collision between A and B?
- After the collision, mass A is at rest, and mass B moves 14 m/s in the +x-direction.
 - After the collision, mass A moves 4 m/s in the -x-direction, and mass B moves 18 m/s in the +x-direction.
 - After the collision, the two masses stick together and move 7 m/s in the +x-direction.
 - After the collision, mass A moves 4 m/s in the +x-direction, and mass B moves 10 m/s in the +x-direction.
- 30.** Mass A is three times more massive than mass B. Mass A is initially moving 12 m/s in the +x-direction. Mass B is initially moving 12 m/s in the -x-direction. Assuming that the collision is elastic, calculate the final velocity of both masses after the collision. Show that your results are consistent with conservation of momentum and conservation of kinetic energy.
- 31.** Two objects (A and B) of equal mass collide elastically. Mass A is initially moving 5.0 m/s in the +x-direction prior to the collision. Mass B is initially moving 3.0 m/s in the -x-direction prior to the collision. After the collision, mass A will be moving with a velocity of 3.0 m/s in the -x-direction. What will be the velocity of mass B after the collision?
- 3.0 m/s in the +x-direction
 - 5.0 m/s in the +x-direction
 - 3.0 m/s in the -x-direction
 - 5.0 m/s in the -x-direction
- 32.** Two objects (A and B) of equal mass collide elastically. Mass A is initially moving 4.0 m/s in the +x-direction prior to the collision. Mass B is initially moving 8.0 m/s in the -x-direction prior to the collision. After the collision, mass A will be moving with a velocity of 8.0 m/s in the -x-direction. (a) Use the principle of conservation of momentum to predict the velocity of mass B after the collision. (b) Use the fact that kinetic energy is conserved in elastic collisions to predict the velocity of mass B after the collision.
- 33.** Two objects of equal mass collide. Object A is initially moving in the +x-direction with a speed of 12 m/s, and object B is initially at rest. After the collision, object A is at rest, and object B is moving away with some unknown velocity. There are no external forces acting on the system of two masses. What statement can we make about this collision?
- Both momentum and kinetic energy are conserved.
 - Momentum is conserved, but kinetic energy is not conserved.
 - Neither momentum nor kinetic energy is conserved.
 - More information is needed in order to determine which is conserved.
- 34.** Two objects of equal mass collide. Object A is initially moving with a velocity of 15 m/s in the +x-direction, and object B is initially at rest. After the collision, object A is at rest. There are no external forces acting on the system of two masses. (a) Use momentum conservation to deduce the velocity of object B after the collision. (b) Is this collision elastic? Justify your answer.
- 35.** Which of the following statements is true about an inelastic collision?
- Momentum is conserved, and kinetic energy is conserved.
 - Momentum is conserved, and kinetic energy is not conserved.
 - Momentum is not conserved, and kinetic energy is conserved.
 - Momentum is not conserved, and kinetic energy is not conserved.
- 36.** Explain how the momentum and kinetic energy of a system of two colliding objects changes as a result of (a) an elastic collision and (b) an inelastic collision.
- 37.**



This figure shows the positions of two colliding objects measured before, during, and after a collision. Mass A is 1.0 kg. Mass B is 3.0 kg. Which of the following statements is true?

- This is an elastic collision, with a total momentum of 0 kg • m/s.
 - This is an elastic collision, with a total momentum of 1.67 kg • m/s.
 - This is an inelastic collision, with a total momentum of 0 kg • m/s.
 - This is an inelastic collision, with a total momentum of 1.67 kg • m/s.
- 38.** For the above graph, determine the initial and final momentum for both objects, assuming mass A is 1.0 kg and mass B is 3.0 kg. Also, determine the initial and final kinetic energies for both objects. Based on your results, explain whether momentum is conserved in this collision, and state whether the collision is elastic or inelastic.
- 39.** Mass A (1.0 kg) slides across a frictionless surface with a velocity of 8 m/s in the positive direction. Mass B (3.0 kg) is initially at rest. The two objects collide and stick together. What will be the change in the center-of-mass velocity of the system as a result of the collision?
- There will be no change in the center-of-mass velocity.
 - The center-of-mass velocity will decrease by 2 m/s.
 - The center-of-mass velocity will decrease by 6 m/s.
 - The center-of-mass velocity will decrease by 8 m/s.
- 40.** Mass A (1.0 kg) slides across a frictionless surface with a velocity of 4 m/s in the positive direction. Mass B (1.0 kg) slides across the same surface in the opposite direction with a velocity of -8 m/s. The two objects collide and stick together after the collision. Predict how the center-of-mass velocity will change as a result of the collision, and explain your prediction. Calculate the center-of-mass velocity of the system both before and after the collision and explain why it remains the same or why it has changed.

8.5 Inelastic Collisions in One Dimension

- 41.** Mass A (2.0 kg) has an initial velocity of 4 m/s in the $+x$ -direction. Mass B (2.0 kg) has an initial velocity of 5 m/s in the $-x$ -direction. If the two masses have an elastic collision, what will be the

final velocities of the masses after the collision?

- Both will move 0.5 m/s in the $-x$ -direction.
 - Mass A will stop; mass B will move 9 m/s in the $+x$ -direction.
 - Mass B will stop; mass A will move 9 m/s in the $-x$ -direction.
 - Mass A will move 5 m/s in the $-x$ -direction; mass B will move 4 m/s in the $+x$ -direction.
- 42.** Mass A has an initial velocity of 22 m/s in the $+x$ -direction. Mass B is three times more massive than mass A and has an initial velocity of 22 m/s in the $-x$ -direction. If the two masses have an elastic collision, what will be the final velocities of the masses after the collision?
- 43.** Mass A (2.0 kg) is moving with an initial velocity of 15 m/s in the $+x$ -direction, and it collides with mass B (5.0 kg), initially at rest. After the collision, the two objects stick together and move as one. What is the change in kinetic energy of the system as a result of the collision?
- no change
 - decrease by 225 J
 - decrease by 161 J
 - decrease by 64 J
- 44.** Mass A (2.0 kg) is moving with an initial velocity of 15 m/s in the $+x$ -direction, and it collides with mass B (4.0 kg), initially moving 7.0 m/s in the $+x$ -direction. After the collision, the two objects stick together and move as one. What is the change in kinetic energy of the system as a result of the collision?
- 45.** Mass A slides across a rough table with an initial velocity of 12 m/s in the $+x$ -direction. By the time mass A collides with mass B (a stationary object with equal mass), mass A has slowed to 10 m/s. After the collision, the two objects stick together and move as one. Immediately after the collision, the velocity of the system is measured to be 5 m/s in the $+x$ -direction, and the system eventually slides to a stop. Which of the following statements is true about this motion?
- Momentum is conserved during the collision, but it is not conserved during the motion before and after the collision.
 - Momentum is not conserved at any time during this analysis.
 - Momentum is conserved at all times during this analysis.
 - Momentum is not conserved during the collision, but it is conserved during the motion

before and after the collision.

- 46.** Mass A is initially moving with a velocity of 12 m/s in the $+x$ -direction. Mass B is twice as massive as mass A and is initially at rest. After the two objects collide, the two masses move together as one with a velocity of 4 m/s in the $+x$ -direction. Is momentum conserved in this collision?
- 47.** Mass A is initially moving with a velocity of 24 m/s in the $+x$ -direction. Mass B is twice as massive as mass A and is initially at rest. The two objects experience a totally inelastic collision. What is the final speed of both objects after the collision?
- A is not moving; B is moving 24 m/s in the $+x$ -direction.
 - Neither A nor B is moving.
 - A is moving 24 m/s in the $-x$ -direction. B is not moving.
 - Both A and B are moving together 8 m/s in the $+x$ -direction.
- 48.** Mass A is initially moving with some unknown velocity in the $+x$ -direction. Mass B is twice as massive as mass A and initially at rest. The two objects collide, and after the collision, they move together with a speed of 6 m/s in the $+x$ -direction. (a) Is this collision elastic or inelastic? Explain. (b) Determine the initial velocity of mass A.
- 49.** Mass A is initially moving with a velocity of 2 m/s in the $+x$ -direction. Mass B is initially moving with a velocity of 6 m/s in the $-x$ -direction. The two objects have equal masses. After they collide, mass A moves with a speed of 4 m/s in the $-x$ -direction. What is the final velocity of mass B after the collision?
- 6 m/s in the $+x$ -direction
 - 4 m/s in the $+x$ -direction
 - zero
 - 4 m/s in the $-x$ -direction

- 50.** Mass A is initially moving with a velocity of 15 m/s

in the $+x$ -direction. Mass B is twice as massive and is initially moving with a velocity of 10 m/s in the $-x$ -direction. The two objects collide, and after the collision, mass A moves with a speed of 15 m/s in the $-x$ -direction. (a) What is the final velocity of mass B after the collision? (b) Calculate the change in kinetic energy as a result of the collision, assuming mass A is 5.0 kg.

8.6 Collisions of Point Masses in Two Dimensions

- 51.** Two cars of equal mass approach an intersection. Car A is moving east at a speed of 45 m/s. Car B is moving south at a speed of 35 m/s. They collide inelastically and stick together after the collision, moving as one object. Which of the following statements is true about the center-of-mass velocity of this system?
- The center-of-mass velocity will decrease after the collision as a result of lost energy (but not drop to zero).
 - The center-of-mass velocity will remain the same after the collision since momentum is conserved.
 - The center-of-mass velocity will drop to zero since the two objects stick together.
 - The magnitude of the center-of-mass velocity will remain the same, but the direction of the velocity will change.
- 52.** Car A has a mass of 2000 kg and approaches an intersection with a velocity of 38 m/s directed to the east. Car B has a mass of 3500 kg and approaches the intersection with a velocity of 53 m/s directed 63° north of east. The two cars collide and stick together after the collision. Will the center-of-mass velocity change as a result of the collision? Explain why or why not. Calculate the center-of-mass velocity before and after the collision.

CHAPTER 9

Statics and Torque



FIGURE 9.1 On a short time scale, rocks like these in Australia's Kalbarri National Park are static, or motionless relative to the Earth. (credit: Richard Liblanc/Flickr)

CHAPTER OUTLINE

9.1 The First Condition for Equilibrium

9.2 The Second Condition for Equilibrium

9.3 Stability

9.4 Applications of Statics, Including Problem-Solving Strategies

9.5 Simple Machines

9.6 Forces and Torques in Muscles and Joints

CONNECTION FOR AP® COURSES What might desks, bridges, buildings, trees, and mountains have in common? What do these objects have in common with a car moving at a constant velocity? While it may be apparent that the objects in the first group are all motionless relative to Earth, they also share something with the moving car and all objects moving at a constant velocity. All of these objects, stationary and moving, share an acceleration of zero. How can this be? Consider Newton's second law, $F = ma$. When acceleration is zero, as is the case for both stationary objects and objects moving at a constant velocity, the net external force must also be zero (Big Idea 3). Forces are acting on both stationary objects and on objects moving at a constant velocity, but the forces are balanced. That is, they are in *equilibrium*. In equilibrium, the net force is zero.

The first two sections of this chapter will focus on the two conditions necessary for equilibrium. They will not only help you to distinguish between stationary bridges and cars moving at constant velocity, but will introduce a second equilibrium condition, this time involving rotation. As you explore the second equilibrium condition, you will learn about torque, in support of both Enduring Understanding 3.F and Essential Knowledge 3.F.1. Much like a force, torque provides the capability for acceleration; however, with careful attention, torques may also be balanced and equilibrium can be reached.

The remainder of this chapter will discuss a variety of interesting equilibrium applications. From the art of balancing, to simple machines, to the muscles in your body, the world around you relies upon the principles of equilibrium to remain stable. This chapter will help you to see just how closely related these events truly are.

The content in this chapter supports:

Big Idea 3 The interactions of an object with other objects can be described by forces.

Enduring Understanding 3.F A force exerted on an object can cause a torque on that object.

Essential Knowledge 3.F.1 Only the force component perpendicular to the line connecting the axis of rotation and the point of application of the force results in a torque about that axis.

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9.1 The First Condition for Equilibrium

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- State the first condition of equilibrium.
- Explain static equilibrium.
- Explain dynamic equilibrium.

The first condition necessary to achieve equilibrium is the one already mentioned: the net external force on the system must be zero. Expressed as an equation, this is simply

$$\text{net } \mathbf{F} = 0 \quad 9.1$$

Note that if net $\mathbf{F}$ is zero, then the net external force in *any* direction is zero. For example, the net external forces along the typical x - and y -axes are zero. This is written as

$$\text{net } F_x = 0 \text{ and } \text{net } F_y = 0 \quad 9.2$$

[Figure 9.2](#) and [Figure 9.3](#) illustrate situations where net $\mathbf{F} = 0$ for both **static equilibrium** (motionless), and **dynamic equilibrium** (constant velocity).

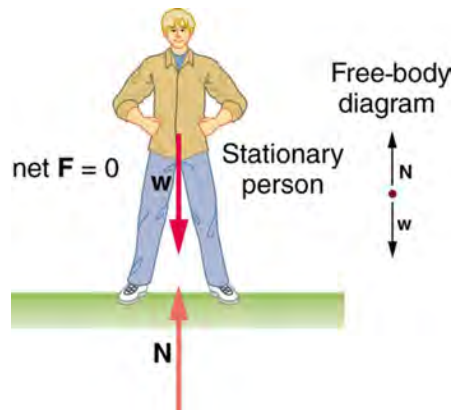


FIGURE 9.2 This motionless person is in static equilibrium. The forces acting on him add up to zero. Both forces are vertical in this case.

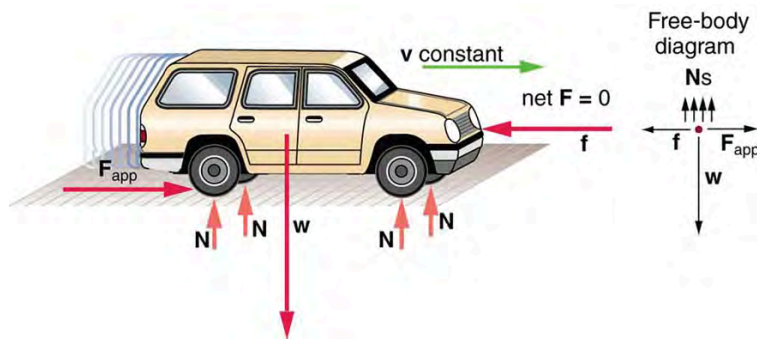


FIGURE 9.3 This car is in dynamic equilibrium because it is moving at constant velocity. There are horizontal and vertical forces, but the net external force in any direction is zero. The applied force F_{app} between the tires and the road is balanced by air friction, and the weight of the car is supported by the normal forces, here shown to be equal for all four tires.

However, it is not sufficient for the net external force of a system to be zero for a system to be in equilibrium. Consider the two situations illustrated in [Figure 9.4](#) and [Figure 9.5](#) where forces are applied to an ice hockey stick lying flat on ice. The net external force is zero in both situations shown in the figure; but in one case, equilibrium is achieved, whereas in the other, it is not. In [Figure 9.4](#), the ice hockey stick remains motionless. But in [Figure 9.5](#), with the same forces applied in different places, the stick experiences accelerated rotation. Therefore, we know that the point at which a force is applied is another factor in determining whether or not equilibrium is achieved. This will be explored further in the next section.

Equilibrium: remains stationary

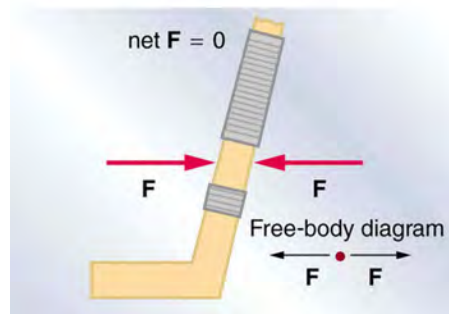


FIGURE 9.4 An ice hockey stick lying flat on ice with two equal and opposite horizontal forces applied to it. Friction is negligible, and the gravitational force is balanced by the support of the ice (a normal force). Thus, $\text{net } \mathbf{F} = 0$. Equilibrium is achieved, which is static equilibrium in this case.

Nonequilibrium: rotation accelerates

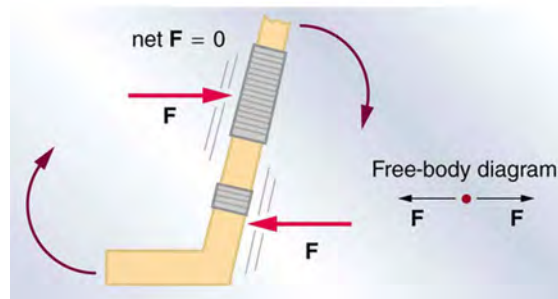


FIGURE 9.5 The same forces are applied at other points and the stick rotates—in fact, it experiences an accelerated rotation. Here $\text{net } \mathbf{F} = 0$ but the system is *not* at equilibrium. Hence, the $\text{net } \mathbf{F} = 0$ is a necessary—but not sufficient—condition for achieving equilibrium.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Torque

Investigate how torque causes an object to rotate. Discover the relationships between angular acceleration, moment of inertia, angular momentum and torque.

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9.2 The Second Condition for Equilibrium

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- State the second condition that is necessary to achieve equilibrium.
- Explain torque and the factors on which it depends.
- Describe the role of torque in rotational mechanics.

TORQUE

The second condition necessary to achieve equilibrium involves avoiding accelerated rotation (maintaining a constant angular velocity). A rotating body or system can be in equilibrium if its rate of rotation is constant and remains unchanged by the forces acting on it. To understand what factors affect rotation, let us think about what happens when you open an ordinary door by rotating it on its hinges.

Several familiar factors determine how effective you are in opening the door. See [Figure 9.6](#). First of all, the larger the force, the more effective it is in opening the door—obviously, the harder you push, the more rapidly the door opens. Also, the point at which you push is crucial. If you apply your force too close to the hinges, the door will open slowly, if at all. Most people have been embarrassed by making this mistake and bumping up against a door when it did not open as quickly as expected. Finally, the direction in which you push is also important. The most effective direction is perpendicular to the door—we push in this direction almost instinctively.

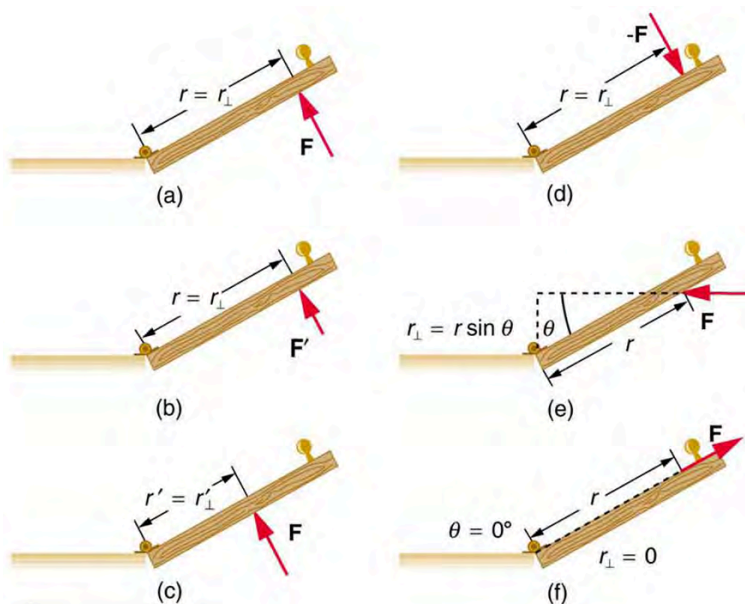


FIGURE 9.6 Torque is the turning or twisting effectiveness of a force, illustrated here for door rotation on its hinges (as viewed from overhead). Torque has both magnitude and direction. (a) Counterclockwise torque is produced by this force, which means that the door will rotate in a counterclockwise due to $\mathbf{F}$. Note that $r_{\perp}$ is the perpendicular distance of the pivot from the line of action of the force. (b) A smaller counterclockwise torque is produced by a smaller force $\mathbf{F}'$ acting at the same distance from the hinges (the pivot point). (c) The same force as in (a) produces a smaller counterclockwise torque when applied at a smaller distance from the hinges. (d) The same force as in (a), but acting in the opposite direction, produces a clockwise torque. (e) A smaller counterclockwise torque is produced by the same magnitude force acting at the same point but in a different direction. Here, θ is less than 90° . (f) Torque is zero here since the force just pulls on the hinges, producing no rotation. In this case, $\theta = 0^\circ$.

The magnitude, direction, and point of application of the force are incorporated into the definition of the physical quantity called torque. **Torque** is the rotational equivalent of a force. It is a measure of the effectiveness of a force in changing or accelerating a rotation (changing the angular velocity over a period of time). In equation form, the

magnitude of torque is defined to be

$$\tau = rF \sin \theta \quad 9.3$$

where τ (the Greek letter tau) is the symbol for torque, r is the distance from the pivot point to the point where the force is applied, F is the magnitude of the force, and θ is the angle between the force and the vector directed from the point of application to the pivot point, as seen in [Figure 9.6](#) and [Figure 9.7](#). An alternative expression for torque is given in terms of the **perpendicular lever arm** $r_{\perp}$ as shown in [Figure 9.6](#) and [Figure 9.7](#), which is defined as

$$r_{\perp} = r \sin \theta \quad 9.4$$

so that

$$\tau = r_{\perp} F. \quad 9.5$$

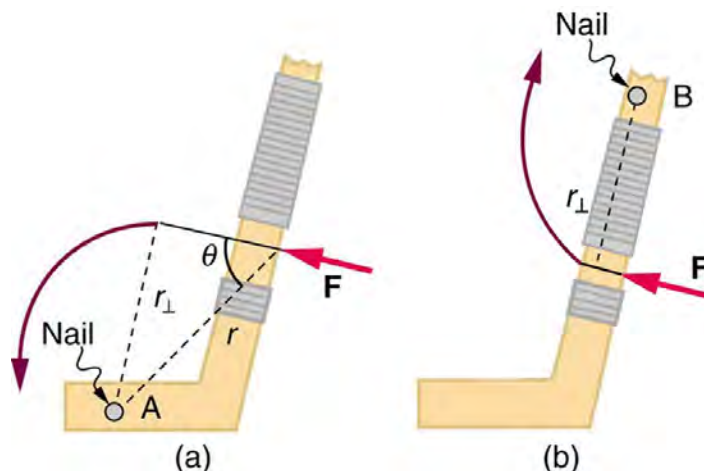


FIGURE 9.7 A force applied to an object can produce a torque, which depends on the location of the pivot point. (a) The three factors r , F , and θ for pivot point A on a body are shown here— r is the distance from the chosen pivot point to the point where the force F is applied, and θ is the angle between F and the vector directed from the point of application to the pivot point. If the object can rotate around point A, it will rotate counterclockwise. This means that torque is counterclockwise relative to pivot A. (b) In this case, point B is the pivot point. The torque from the applied force will cause a clockwise rotation around point B, and so it is a clockwise torque relative to B.

The perpendicular lever arm $r_{\perp}$ is the shortest distance from the pivot point to the line along which F acts; it is shown as a dashed line in [Figure 9.6](#) and [Figure 9.7](#). Note that the line segment that defines the distance $r_{\perp}$ is perpendicular to F , as its name implies. It is sometimes easier to find or visualize $r_{\perp}$ than to find both r and θ . In such cases, it may be more convenient to use $\tau = r_{\perp} F$ rather than $\tau = rF \sin \theta$ for torque, but both are equally valid.

The **SI unit of torque** is newtons times meters, usually written as $\text{N} \cdot \text{m}$. For example, if you push perpendicular to the door with a force of 40 N at a distance of 0.800 m from the hinges, you exert a torque of $32 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}$ ($0.800 \text{ m} \times 40 \text{ N} \times \sin 90^\circ$) relative to the hinges. If you reduce the force to 20 N, the torque is reduced to $16 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}$, and so on.

The torque is always calculated with reference to some chosen pivot point. For the same applied force, a different choice for the location of the pivot will give you a different value for the torque, since both r and θ depend on the location of the pivot. Any point in any object can be chosen to calculate the torque about that point. The object may not actually pivot about the chosen “pivot point.”

Note that for rotation in a plane, torque has two possible directions. Torque is either clockwise or counterclockwise relative to the chosen pivot point, as illustrated for points B and A, respectively, in [Figure 9.7](#). If the object can rotate about point A, it will rotate counterclockwise, which means that the torque for the force is shown as counterclockwise relative to A. But if the object can rotate about point B, it will rotate clockwise, which means the torque for the force shown is clockwise relative to B. Also, the magnitude of the torque is greater when the lever arm is longer.

Now, *the second condition necessary to achieve equilibrium* is that *the net external torque on a system must be zero*. An external torque is one that is created by an external force. You can choose the point around which the torque is calculated. The point can be the physical pivot point of a system or any other point in space—but it must be the same point for all torques. If the second condition (net external torque on a system is zero) is satisfied for one

choice of pivot point, it will also hold true for any other choice of pivot point in or out of the system of interest. (This is true only in an inertial frame of reference.) The second condition necessary to achieve equilibrium is stated in equation form as

$$\text{net } \tau = 0 \quad 9.6$$

where net means total. Torques, which are in opposite directions are assigned opposite signs. A common convention is to call counterclockwise (ccw) torques positive and clockwise (cw) torques negative.

When two children balance a seesaw as shown in [Figure 9.8](#), they satisfy the two conditions for equilibrium. Most people have perfect intuition about seesaws, knowing that the lighter child must sit farther from the pivot and that a heavier child can keep a lighter one off the ground indefinitely.

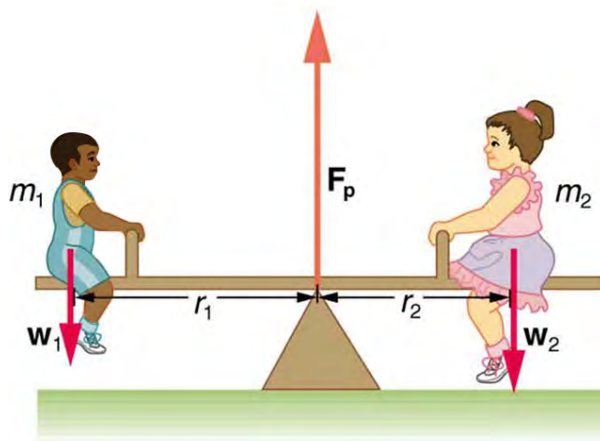


FIGURE 9.8 Two children balancing a seesaw satisfy both conditions for equilibrium. The lighter child sits farther from the pivot to create a torque equal in magnitude to that of the heavier child.

EXAMPLE 9.1

She Saw Torques On A Seesaw

The two children shown in [Figure 9.8](#) are balanced on a seesaw of negligible mass. (This assumption is made to keep the example simple—more involved examples will follow.) The first child has a mass of 26.0 kg and sits 1.60 m from the pivot. (a) If the second child has a mass of 32.0 kg, how far is she from the pivot? (b) What is F_p , the supporting force exerted by the pivot?

Strategy

Both conditions for equilibrium must be satisfied. In part (a), we are asked for a distance; thus, the second condition (regarding torques) must be used, since the first (regarding only forces) has no distances in it. To apply the second condition for equilibrium, we first identify the system of interest to be the seesaw plus the two children. We take the supporting pivot to be the point about which the torques are calculated. We then identify all external forces acting on the system.

Solution (a)

The three external forces acting on the system are the weights of the two children and the supporting force of the pivot. Let us examine the torque produced by each. Torque is defined to be

$$\tau = rF \sin \theta. \quad 9.7$$

Here $\theta = 90^\circ$, so that $\sin \theta = 1$ for all three forces. That means $r_\perp = r$ for all three. The torques exerted by the three forces are first,

$$\tau_1 = r_1 w_1 \quad 9.8$$

second,

$$\tau_2 = -r_2 w_2 \quad 9.9$$

and third,

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_p &= r_p F_p \\ &= 0 \cdot F_p \\ &= 0. \end{aligned} \quad 9.10$$

Note that a minus sign has been inserted into the second equation because this torque is clockwise and is therefore negative by convention. Since F_p acts directly on the pivot point, the distance r_p is zero. A force acting on the pivot cannot cause a rotation, just as pushing directly on the hinges of a door will not cause it to rotate. Now, the second condition for equilibrium is that the sum of the torques on both children is zero. Therefore

$$\tau_2 = -\tau_1, \quad 9.11$$

or

$$r_2 w_2 = r_1 w_1. \quad 9.12$$

Weight is mass times the acceleration due to gravity. Entering mg for w , we get

$$r_2 m_2 g = r_1 m_1 g. \quad 9.13$$

Solve this for the unknown r_2 :

$$r_2 = r_1 \frac{m_1}{m_2}. \quad 9.14$$

The quantities on the right side of the equation are known; thus, r_2 is

$$r_2 = (1.60 \text{ m}) \frac{26.0 \text{ kg}}{32.0 \text{ kg}} = 1.30 \text{ m}. \quad 9.15$$

As expected, the heavier child must sit closer to the pivot (1.30 m versus 1.60 m) to balance the seesaw.

Solution (b)

This part asks for a force F_p . The easiest way to find it is to use the first condition for equilibrium, which is

$$\text{net } \mathbf{F} = 0. \quad 9.16$$

The forces are all vertical, so that we are dealing with a one-dimensional problem along the vertical axis; hence, the condition can be written as

$$\text{net } F_y = 0 \quad 9.17$$

where we again call the vertical axis the y -axis. Choosing upward to be the positive direction, and using plus and minus signs to indicate the directions of the forces, we see that

$$F_p - w_1 - w_2 = 0. \quad 9.18$$

This equation yields what might have been guessed at the beginning:

$$F_p = w_1 + w_2. \quad 9.19$$

So, the pivot supplies a supporting force equal to the total weight of the system:

$$F_p = m_1 g + m_2 g. \quad 9.20$$

Entering known values gives

$$\begin{aligned} F_p &= (26.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) + (32.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) \\ &= 568 \text{ N}. \end{aligned} \quad 9.21$$

Discussion

The two results make intuitive sense. The heavier child sits closer to the pivot. The pivot supports the weight of the two children. Part (b) can also be solved using the second condition for equilibrium, since both distances are known,

but only if the pivot point is chosen to be somewhere other than the location of the seesaw's actual pivot!

Several aspects of the preceding example have broad implications. First, the choice of the pivot as the point around which torques are calculated simplified the problem. Since F_p is exerted on the pivot point, its lever arm is zero. Hence, the torque exerted by the supporting force F_p is zero relative to that pivot point. The second condition for equilibrium holds for any choice of pivot point, and so we choose the pivot point to simplify the solution of the problem.

Second, the acceleration due to gravity canceled in this problem, and we were left with a ratio of masses. *This will not always be the case.* Always enter the correct forces—do not jump ahead to enter some ratio of masses.

Third, the weight of each child is distributed over an area of the seesaw, yet we treated the weights as if each force were exerted at a single point. This is not an approximation—the distances r_1 and r_2 are the distances to points directly below the **center of gravity** of each child. As we shall see in the next section, the mass and weight of a system can act as if they are located at a single point.

Finally, note that the concept of torque has an importance beyond static equilibrium. *Torque plays the same role in rotational motion that force plays in linear motion.* We will examine this in the next chapter.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT

Take a piece of modeling clay and put it on a table, then mash a cylinder down into it so that a ruler can balance on the round side of the cylinder while everything remains still. Put a penny 8 cm away from the pivot. Where would you need to put two pennies to balance? Three pennies?

9.3 Stability

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- State the types of equilibrium.
- Describe stable and unstable equilibriums.
- Describe neutral equilibrium.

It is one thing to have a system in equilibrium; it is quite another for it to be stable. The toy doll perched on the man's hand in [Figure 9.9](#), for example, is not in stable equilibrium. There are *three types of equilibrium: stable, unstable, and neutral*. Figures throughout this module illustrate various examples.

[Figure 9.9](#) presents a balanced system, such as the toy doll on the man's hand, which has its center of gravity (cg) directly over the pivot, so that the torque of the total weight is zero. This is equivalent to having the torques of the individual parts balanced about the pivot point, in this case the hand. The cgs of the arms, legs, head, and torso are labeled with smaller type.

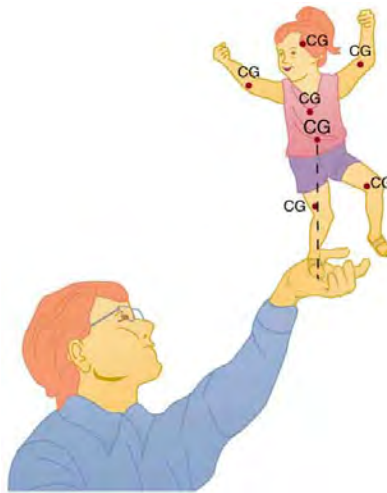


FIGURE 9.9 A man balances a toy doll on one hand.

A system is said to be in **stable equilibrium** if, when displaced from equilibrium, it experiences a net force or torque in a direction opposite to the direction of the displacement. For example, a marble at the bottom of a bowl will experience a *restoring* force when displaced from its equilibrium position. This force moves it back toward the equilibrium position. Most systems are in stable equilibrium, especially for small displacements. For another example of stable equilibrium, see the pencil in [Figure 9.10](#).

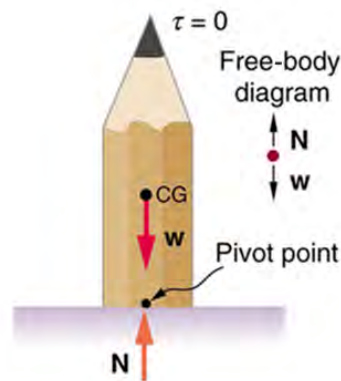


FIGURE 9.10 This pencil is in the condition of equilibrium. The net force on the pencil is zero and the total torque about any pivot is zero.

A system is in **unstable equilibrium** if, when displaced, it experiences a net force or torque in the *same* direction as the displacement from equilibrium. A system in unstable equilibrium accelerates away from its equilibrium position if displaced even slightly. An obvious example is a ball resting on top of a hill. Once displaced, it accelerates away from the crest. See the next several figures for examples of unstable equilibrium.

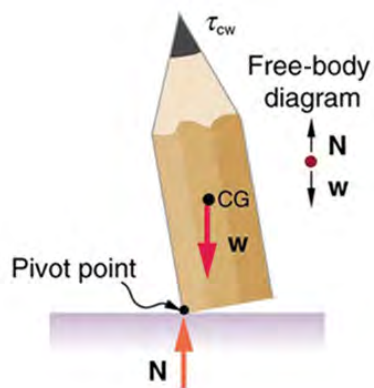


FIGURE 9.11 If the pencil is displaced slightly to the side (counterclockwise), it is no longer in equilibrium. Its weight produces a clockwise torque that returns the pencil to its equilibrium position.

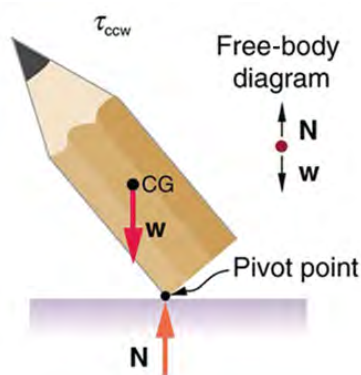


FIGURE 9.12 If the pencil is displaced too far, the torque caused by its weight changes direction to counterclockwise and causes the displacement to increase.

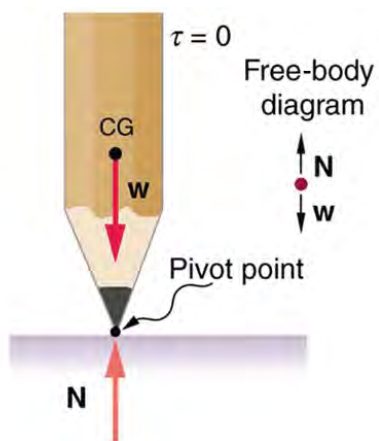


FIGURE 9.13 This figure shows unstable equilibrium, although both conditions for equilibrium are satisfied.

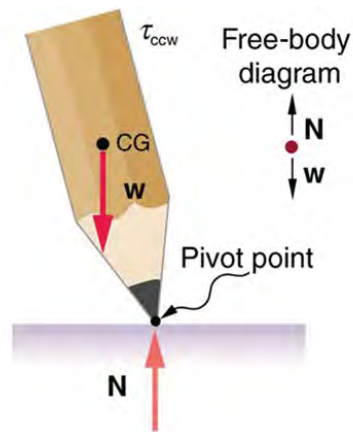


FIGURE 9.14 If the pencil is displaced even slightly, a torque is created by its weight that is in the same direction as the displacement, causing the displacement to increase.

A system is in **neutral equilibrium** if its equilibrium is independent of displacements from its original position. A marble on a flat horizontal surface is an example. Combinations of these situations are possible. For example, a marble on a saddle is stable for displacements toward the front or back of the saddle and unstable for displacements to the side. [Figure 9.15](#) shows another example of neutral equilibrium.

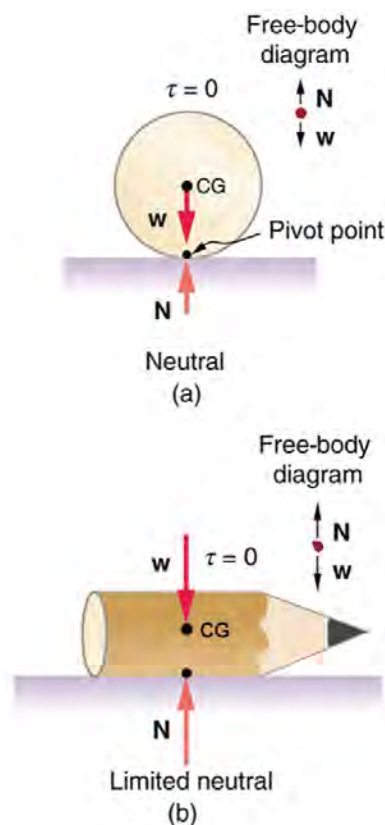


FIGURE 9.15 (a) Here we see neutral equilibrium. The cg of a sphere on a flat surface lies directly above the point of support, independent of the position on the surface. The sphere is therefore in equilibrium in any location, and if displaced, it will remain put. (b) Because it has a circular cross section, the pencil is in neutral equilibrium for displacements perpendicular to its length.

When we consider how far a system in stable equilibrium can be displaced before it becomes unstable, we find that some systems in stable equilibrium are more stable than others. The pencil in [Figure 9.10](#) and the person in [Figure 9.16\(a\)](#) are in stable equilibrium, but become unstable for relatively small displacements to the side. The critical point is reached when the cg is no longer *above* the base of support. Additionally, since the cg of a person's body is above the pivots in the hips, displacements must be quickly controlled. This control is a central nervous system

function that is developed when we learn to hold our bodies erect as infants. For increased stability while standing, the feet should be spread apart, giving a larger base of support. Stability is also increased by lowering one's center of gravity by bending the knees, as when a football player prepares to receive a ball or braces themselves for a tackle. A cane, a crutch, or a walker increases the stability of the user, even more as the base of support widens. Usually, the cg of a female is lower (closer to the ground) than a male. Young children have their center of gravity between their shoulders, which increases the challenge of learning to walk.

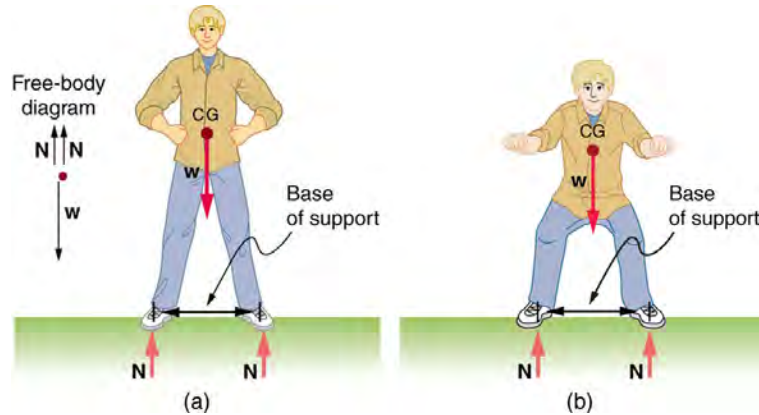


FIGURE 9.16 (a) The center of gravity of an adult is above the hip joints (one of the main pivots in the body) and lies between two narrowly-separated feet. Like a pencil standing on its eraser, this person is in stable equilibrium in relation to sideways displacements, but relatively small displacements take his cg outside the base of support and make him unstable. Humans are less stable relative to forward and backward displacements because the feet are not very long. Muscles are used extensively to balance the body in the front-to-back direction. (b) While bending in the manner shown, stability is increased by lowering the center of gravity. Stability is also increased if the base is expanded by placing the feet farther apart.

Animals such as chickens have easier systems to control. [Figure 9.17](#) shows that the cg of a chicken lies below its hip joints and between its widely separated and broad feet. Even relatively large displacements of the chicken's cg are stable and result in restoring forces and torques that return the cg to its equilibrium position with little effort on the chicken's part. Not all birds are like chickens, of course. Some birds, such as the flamingo, have balance systems that are almost as sophisticated as that of humans.

[Figure 9.17](#) shows that the cg of a chicken is below the hip joints and lies above a broad base of support formed by widely-separated and large feet. Hence, the chicken is in very stable equilibrium, since a relatively large displacement is needed to render it unstable. The body of the chicken is supported from above by the hips and acts as a pendulum between the hips. Therefore, the chicken is stable for front-to-back displacements as well as for side-to-side displacements.

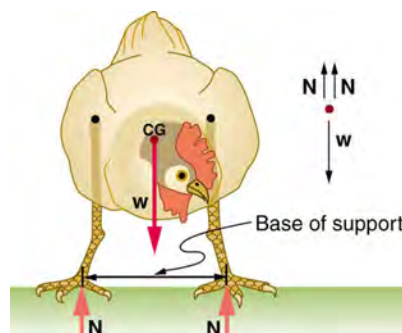


FIGURE 9.17 The center of gravity of a chicken is below the hip joints. The chicken is in stable equilibrium. The body of the chicken is supported from above by the hips and acts as a pendulum between them.

Engineers and architects strive to achieve extremely stable equilibriums for buildings and other systems that must withstand wind, earthquakes, and other forces that displace them from equilibrium. Although the examples in this section emphasize gravitational forces, the basic conditions for equilibrium are the same for all types of forces. The net external force must be zero, and the net torque must also be zero.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT

Stand straight with your heels, back, and head against a wall. Bend forward from your waist, keeping your heels and bottom against the wall, to touch your toes. Can you do this without toppling over? Explain why and what you need to do to be able to touch your toes without losing your balance. Is it easier for a woman to do this?

9.4 Applications of Statics, Including Problem-Solving Strategies**LEARNING OBJECTIVES**

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Discuss the applications of Statics in real life.
- State and discuss various problem-solving strategies in Statics.

Statics can be applied to a variety of situations, ranging from raising a drawbridge to bad posture and back strain. We begin with a discussion of problem-solving strategies specifically used for statics. Since statics is a special case of Newton's laws, both the general problem-solving strategies and the special strategies for Newton's laws, discussed in [Problem-Solving Strategies](#), still apply.

PROBLEM-SOLVING STRATEGY: STATIC EQUILIBRIUM SITUATIONS

1. The first step is to determine whether or not the system is in **static equilibrium**. This condition is always the case when the *acceleration of the system is zero and accelerated rotation does not occur*.
2. It is particularly important to *draw a free body diagram for the system of interest*. Carefully label all forces, and note their relative magnitudes, directions, and points of application whenever these are known.
3. Solve the problem by applying either or both of the conditions for equilibrium (represented by the equations $\text{net } \mathbf{F} = 0$ and $\text{net } \boldsymbol{\tau} = 0$, depending on the list of known and unknown factors. If the second condition is involved, *choose the pivot point to simplify the solution*. Any pivot point can be chosen, but the most useful ones cause torques by unknown forces to be zero. (Torque is zero if the force is applied at the pivot (then $r = 0$), or along a line through the pivot point (then $\theta = 0$)). Always choose a convenient coordinate system for projecting forces.
4. *Check the solution to see if it is reasonable* by examining the magnitude, direction, and units of the answer. The importance of this last step never diminishes, although in unfamiliar applications, it is usually more difficult to judge reasonableness. These judgments become progressively easier with experience.

Now let us apply this problem-solving strategy for the pole vaulter shown in the three figures below. The pole is uniform and has a mass of 5.00 kg. In [Figure 9.18](#), the pole's cg lies halfway between the vaulter's hands. It seems reasonable that the force exerted by each hand is equal to half the weight of the pole, or 24.5 N. This obviously satisfies the first condition for equilibrium ($\text{net } \mathbf{F} = 0$). The second condition ($\text{net } \boldsymbol{\tau} = 0$) is also satisfied, as we can see by choosing the cg to be the pivot point. The weight exerts no torque about a pivot point located at the cg, since it is applied at that point and its lever arm is zero. The equal forces exerted by the hands are equidistant from the chosen pivot, and so they exert equal and opposite torques. Similar arguments hold for other systems where supporting forces are exerted symmetrically about the cg. For example, the four legs of a uniform table each support one-fourth of its weight.

In [Figure 9.18](#), a pole vaulter holding a pole with its cg halfway between his hands is shown. Each hand exerts a force equal to half the weight of the pole, $F_R = F_L = w/2$. (b) The pole vaulter moves the pole to his left, and the forces that the hands exert are no longer equal. See [Figure 9.18](#). If the pole is held with its cg to the left of the person, then he must push down with his right hand and up with his left. The forces he exerts are larger here because they are in opposite directions and the cg is at a long distance from either hand.

Similar observations can be made using a meter stick held at different locations along its length.

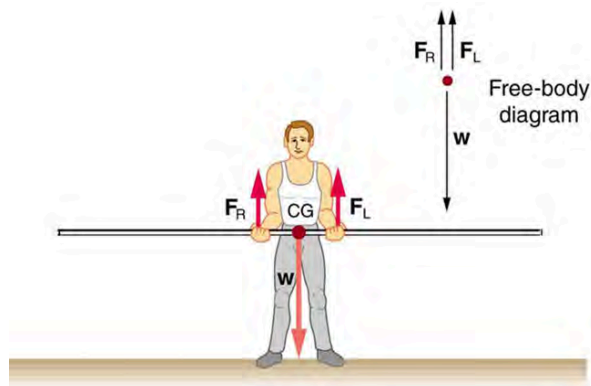


FIGURE 9.18 A pole vaulter holds a pole horizontally with both hands.

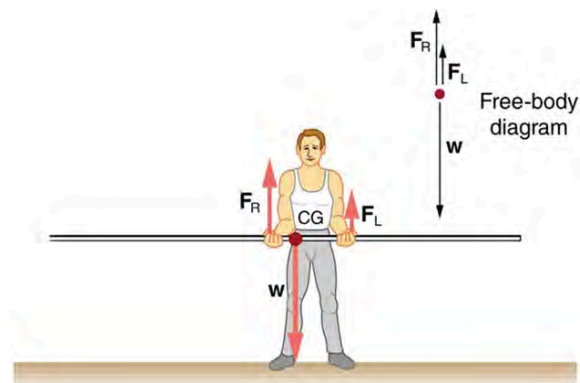


FIGURE 9.19 A pole vaulter is holding a pole horizontally with both hands. The center of gravity is near his right hand.

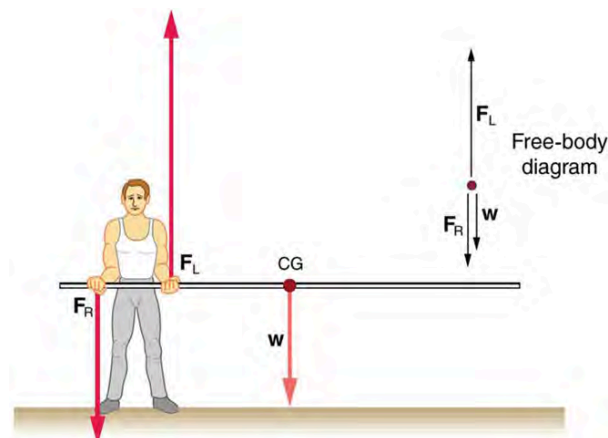


FIGURE 9.20 A pole vaulter is holding a pole horizontally with both hands. The center of gravity is to the left side of the vaulter.

If the pole vaulter holds the pole as shown in [Figure 9.19](#), the situation is not as simple. The total force he exerts is still equal to the weight of the pole, but it is not evenly divided between his hands. (If $F_L = F_R$, then the torques about the cg would not be equal since the lever arms are different.) Logically, the right hand should support more weight, since it is closer to the cg. In fact, if the right hand is moved directly under the cg, it will support all the weight. This situation is exactly analogous to two people carrying a load; the one closer to the cg carries more of its weight. Finding the forces F_L and F_R is straightforward, as the next example shows.

If the pole vaulter holds the pole from near the end of the pole ([Figure 9.20](#)), the direction of the force applied by the right hand of the vaulter reverses its direction.



EXAMPLE 9.2

What Force Is Needed to Support a Weight Held Near Its CG?

For the situation shown in [Figure 9.19](#), calculate: (a) F_R , the force exerted by the right hand, and (b) F_L , the force exerted by the left hand. The hands are 0.900 m apart, and the cg of the pole is 0.600 m from the left hand.

Strategy

[Figure 9.19](#) includes a free body diagram for the pole, the system of interest. There is not enough information to use the first condition for equilibrium (net $\mathbf{F} = 0$), since two of the three forces are unknown and the hand forces cannot be assumed to be equal in this case. There is enough information to use the second condition for equilibrium (net $\tau = 0$) if the pivot point is chosen to be at either hand, thereby making the torque from that hand zero. We choose to locate the pivot at the left hand in this part of the problem, to eliminate the torque from the left hand.

Solution for (a)

There are now only two nonzero torques, those from the gravitational force (τ_w) and from the push or pull of the right hand (τ_R). Stating the second condition in terms of clockwise and counterclockwise torques,

$$\text{net } \tau_{cw} = -\text{net } \tau_{ccw}. \quad 9.22$$

or the algebraic sum of the torques is zero.

Here this is

$$\tau_R = -\tau_w \quad 9.23$$

since the weight of the pole creates a counterclockwise torque and the right hand counters with a clockwise torque. Using the definition of torque, $\tau = rF \sin \theta$, noting that $\theta = 90^\circ$, and substituting known values, we obtain

$$(0.900 \text{ m})(F_R) = (0.600 \text{ m})(mg). \quad 9.24$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} F_R &= (0.667)(5.00 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) \\ &= 32.7 \text{ N}. \end{aligned} \quad 9.25$$

Solution for (b)

The first condition for equilibrium is based on the free body diagram in the figure. This implies that by Newton's second law:

$$F_L + F_R - mg = 0 \quad 9.26$$

From this we can conclude:

$$F_L + F_R = w = mg \quad 9.27$$

Solving for F_L , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} F_L &= mg - F_R \\ &= mg - 32.7 \text{ N} \\ &= (5.00 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) - 32.7 \text{ N} \\ &= 16.3 \text{ N} \end{aligned} \quad 9.28$$

Discussion

F_L is seen to be exactly half of F_R , as we might have guessed, since F_L is applied twice as far from the cg as F_R .

If the pole vaulter holds the pole as he might at the start of a run, shown in [Figure 9.20](#), the forces change again. Both are considerably greater, and one force reverses direction.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT

This is an experiment to perform while standing in a bus or a train. Stand facing sideways. How do you move your body to readjust the distribution of your mass as the bus accelerates and decelerates? Now stand facing forward. How do you move your body to readjust the distribution of your mass as the bus accelerates and decelerates? Why is it easier and safer to stand facing sideways rather than forward? Note: For your safety (and those around you), make sure you are holding onto something while you carry out this activity!



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Balancing Act

Play with objects on a teeter totter to learn about balance. Test what you've learned by trying the Balance Challenge game.

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9.5 Simple Machines

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe different simple machines.
- Calculate the mechanical advantage.

Simple machines are devices that can be used to multiply or augment a force that we apply – often at the expense of a distance through which we apply the force. The word for “machine” comes from the Greek word meaning “to help make things easier.” Levers, gears, pulleys, wedges, and screws are some examples of machines. Energy is still conserved for these devices because a machine cannot do more work than the energy put into it. However, machines can reduce the input force that is needed to perform the job. The ratio of output to input force magnitudes for any simple machine is called its **mechanical advantage** (MA).

$$MA = \frac{F_o}{F_i} \quad 9.29$$

One of the simplest machines is the lever, which is a rigid bar pivoted at a fixed place called the fulcrum. Torques are involved in levers, since there is rotation about a pivot point. Distances from the physical pivot of the lever are crucial, and we can obtain a useful expression for the MA in terms of these distances.

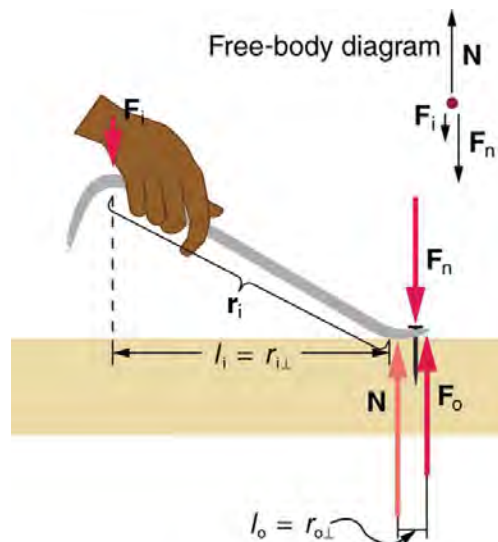


FIGURE 9.21 A nail puller is a lever with a large mechanical advantage. The external forces on the nail puller are represented by solid arrows. The force that the nail puller applies to the nail ($\mathbf{F}_o$) is not a force on the nail puller. The reaction force the nail exerts back on the puller ($\mathbf{F}_n$) is an external force and is equal and opposite to $\mathbf{F}_o$. The perpendicular lever arms of the input and output forces are l_i and l_o .

Figure 9.21 shows a lever type that is used as a nail puller. Crowbars, seesaws, and other such levers are all analogous to this one. $\mathbf{F}_i$ is the input force and $\mathbf{F}_o$ is the output force. There are three vertical forces acting on the nail puller (the system of interest) – these are $\mathbf{F}_i$, $\mathbf{F}_n$, and $\mathbf{N}$. $\mathbf{F}_n$ is the reaction force back on the system, equal and opposite to $\mathbf{F}_o$. (Note that $\mathbf{F}_o$ is not a force on the system.) $\mathbf{N}$ is the normal force upon the lever, and its torque is zero since it is exerted at the pivot. The torques due to $\mathbf{F}_i$ and $\mathbf{F}_n$ must be equal to each other if the nail is not moving, to satisfy the second condition for equilibrium (net $\tau = 0$). (In order for the nail to actually move, the torque due to $\mathbf{F}_i$ must be ever-so-slightly greater than torque due to $\mathbf{F}_n$.) Hence,

$$l_i F_i = l_o F_o \quad 9.30$$

Notice that $\mathbf{r}_i$ is the distance from the pivot point to the point where the input force $\mathbf{F}_i$ is applied, and $\mathbf{r}_o$ (not labeled on the diagram) is the distance from the pivot point to the point where the output force $\mathbf{F}_o$ is applied. The distances l_i and l_o are the perpendicular components of the distances from where the input and output forces are applied to the pivot, as shown in the figure. Rearranging the last equation gives

$$\frac{F_o}{F_i} = \frac{l_i}{l_o}. \quad 9.31$$

What interests us most here is that the magnitude of the force exerted by the nail puller, F_o , is much greater than the magnitude of the input force applied to the puller at the other end, F_i . For the nail puller,

$$\text{MA} = \frac{F_o}{F_i} = \frac{l_i}{l_o}. \quad 9.32$$

This equation is true for levers in general. For the nail puller, the MA is certainly greater than one. The longer the handle on the nail puller, the greater the force you can exert with it.

Two other types of levers that differ slightly from the nail puller are a wheelbarrow and a shovel, shown in Figure 9.22. All these lever types are similar in that only three forces are involved – the input force, the output force, and the force on the pivot – and thus their MAs are given by $\text{MA} = \frac{F_o}{F_i}$ and $\text{MA} = \frac{d_1}{d_2}$, with distances being measured relative to the physical pivot. The wheelbarrow and shovel differ from the nail puller because both the input and output forces are on the same side of the pivot.

In the case of the wheelbarrow, the output force or load is between the pivot (the wheel's axle) and the input or applied force. In the case of the shovel, the input force is between the pivot (at the end of the handle) and the load, but the input lever arm is shorter than the output lever arm. In this case, the MA is less than one.

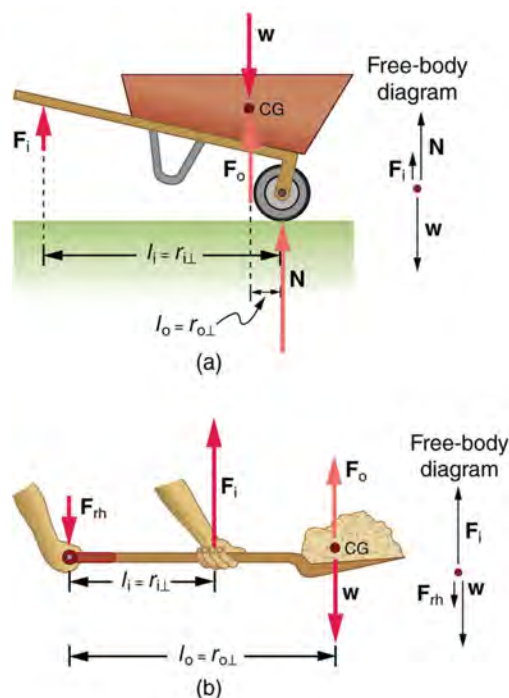


FIGURE 9.22 (a) In the case of the wheelbarrow, the output force or load is between the pivot and the input force. The pivot is the wheel's axle. Here, the output force is greater than the input force. Thus, a wheelbarrow enables you to lift much heavier loads than you could with your body alone. (b) In the case of the shovel, the input force is between the pivot and the load, but the input lever arm is shorter than the output lever arm. The pivot is at the handle held by the right hand. Here, the output force (supporting the shovel's load) is less than the input force (from the hand nearest the load), because the input is exerted closer to the pivot than is the output.

EXAMPLE 9.3

What is the Advantage for the Wheelbarrow?

In the wheelbarrow of [Figure 9.22](#), the load has a perpendicular lever arm of 7.50 cm, while the hands have a perpendicular lever arm of 1.02 m. (a) What upward force must you exert to support the wheelbarrow and its load if their combined mass is 45.0 kg? (b) What force does the wheelbarrow exert on the ground?

Strategy

Here, we use the concept of mechanical advantage.

Solution

(a) In this case, $\frac{F_o}{F_i} = \frac{l_i}{l_o}$ becomes

$$F_i = F_o \frac{l_o}{l_i}. \quad 9.33$$

Adding values into this equation yields

$$F_i = (45.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) \frac{0.075 \text{ m}}{1.02 \text{ m}} = 32.4 \text{ N}. \quad 9.34$$

The free-body diagram (see [Figure 9.22](#)) gives the following normal force: $F_i + N = W$. Therefore, $N = (45.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) - 32.4 \text{ N} = 409 \text{ N}$. N is the normal force acting on the wheel; by Newton's third law, the force the wheel exerts on the ground is 409 N.

Discussion

An even longer handle would reduce the force needed to lift the load. The MA here is $MA = 1.02/0.0750 = 13.6$.

Another very simple machine is the inclined plane. Pushing a cart up a plane is easier than lifting the same cart straight up to the top using a ladder, because the applied force is less. However, the work done in both cases (assuming the work done by friction is negligible) is the same. Inclined lanes or ramps were probably used during the construction of the Egyptian pyramids to move large blocks of stone to the top.

A crank is a lever that can be rotated 360° about its pivot, as shown in [Figure 9.23](#). Such a machine may not look like a lever, but the physics of its actions remain the same. The MA for a crank is simply the ratio of the radii r_i/r_o . Wheels and gears have this simple expression for their MAs too. The MA can be greater than 1, as it is for the crank, or less than 1, as it is for the simplified car axle driving the wheels, as shown. If the axle's radius is 2.0 cm and the wheel's radius is 24.0 cm, then $MA = 2.0/24.0 = 0.083$ and the axle would have to exert a force of 12,000 N on the wheel to enable it to exert a force of 1000 N on the ground.

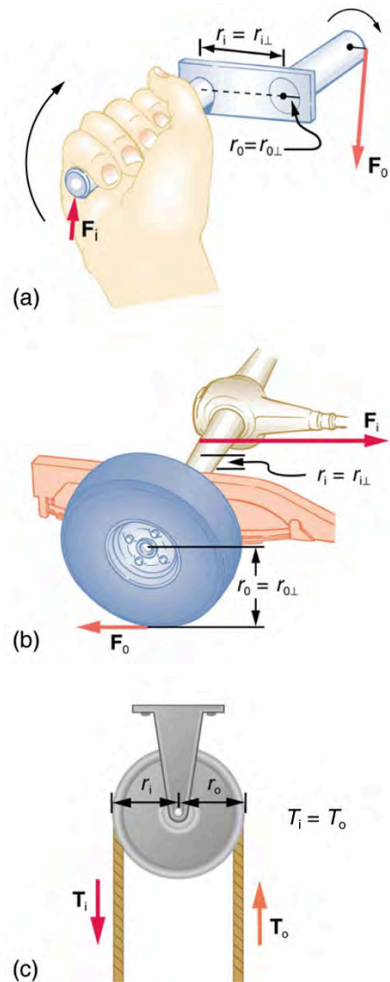


FIGURE 9.23 (a) A crank is a type of lever that can be rotated 360° about its pivot. Cranks are usually designed to have a large MA. (b) A simplified automobile axle drives a wheel, which has a much larger diameter than the axle. The MA is less than 1. (c) An ordinary pulley is used to lift a heavy load. The pulley changes the direction of the force T exerted by the cord without changing its magnitude. Hence, this machine has an MA of 1.

An ordinary pulley has an MA of 1; it only changes the direction of the force and not its magnitude. Combinations of pulleys, such as those illustrated in [Figure 9.24](#), are used to multiply force. If the pulleys are friction-free, then the force output is approximately an integral multiple of the tension in the cable. The number of cables pulling directly upward on the system of interest, as illustrated in the figures given below, is approximately the MA of the pulley system. Since each attachment applies an external force in approximately the same direction as the others, they add, producing a total force that is nearly an integral multiple of the input force T .

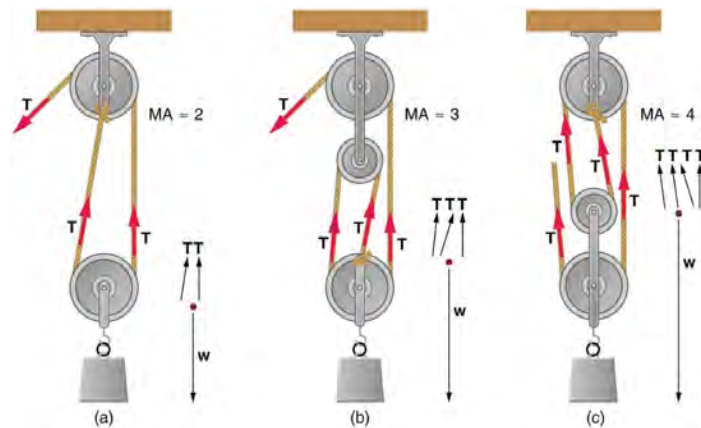


FIGURE 9.24 (a) The combination of pulleys is used to multiply force. The force is an integral multiple of tension if the pulleys are frictionless. This pulley system has two cables attached to its load, thus applying a force of approximately $2T$. This machine has $MA \approx 2$. (b) Three pulleys are used to lift a load in such a way that the mechanical advantage is about 3. Effectively, there are three cables attached to the load. (c) This pulley system applies a force of $4T$, so that it has $MA \approx 4$. Effectively, four cables are pulling on the system of interest.

9.6 Forces and Torques in Muscles and Joints

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain the forces exerted by muscles.
- State how a bad posture causes back strain.
- Discuss the benefits of skeletal muscles attached close to joints.
- Discuss various complexities in the real system of muscles, bones, and joints.

Muscles, bones, and joints are some of the most interesting applications of statics. There are some surprises.

Muscles, for example, exert far greater forces than we might think. [Figure 9.25](#) shows a forearm holding a book and a schematic diagram of an analogous lever system. The schematic is a good approximation for the forearm, which looks more complicated than it is, and we can get some insight into the way typical muscle systems function by analyzing it.

Muscles can only contract, so they occur in pairs. In the arm, the biceps muscle is a flexor—that is, it closes the limb. The triceps muscle is an extensor that opens the limb. This configuration is typical of skeletal muscles, bones, and joints in humans and other vertebrates. Most skeletal muscles exert much larger forces within the body than the limbs apply to the outside world. The reason is clear once we realize that most muscles are attached to bones via tendons close to joints, causing these systems to have mechanical advantages much less than one. Viewing them as simple machines, the input force is much greater than the output force, as seen in [Figure 9.25](#).

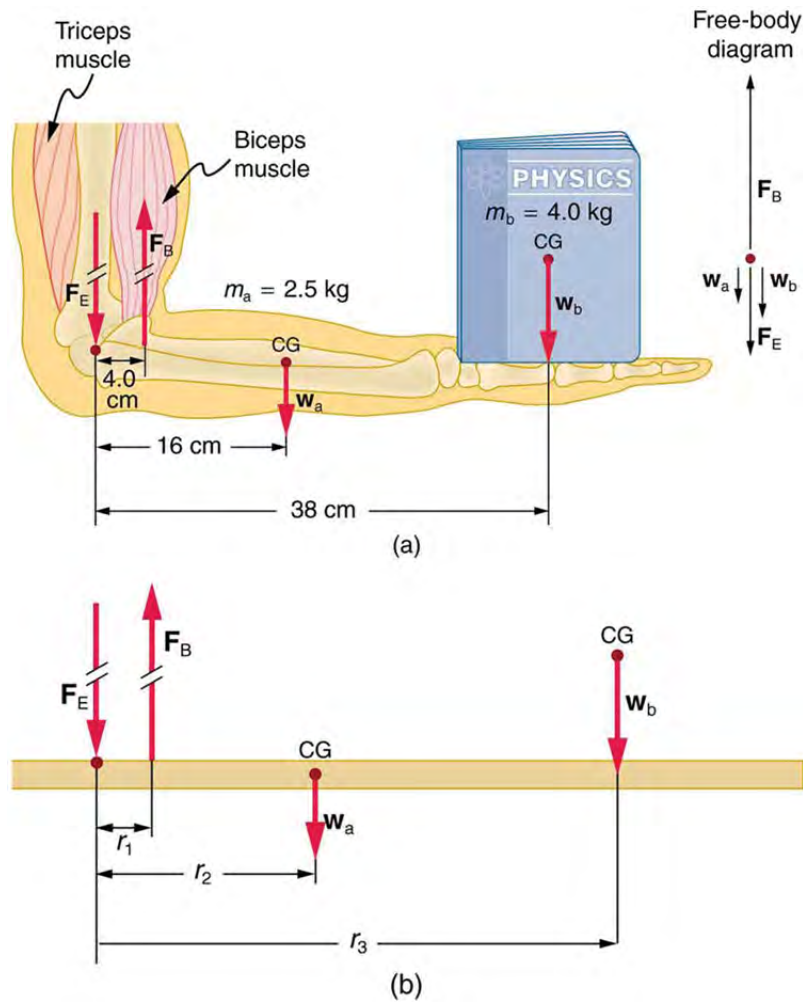


FIGURE 9.25 (a) The figure shows the forearm of a person holding a book. The biceps exert a force F_B to support the weight of the forearm and the book. The triceps are assumed to be relaxed. (b) Here, you can view an approximately equivalent mechanical system with the pivot at the elbow joint as seen in [Example 9.4](#).



EXAMPLE 9.4

Muscles Exert Bigger Forces Than You Might Think

Calculate the force the biceps muscle must exert to hold the forearm and its load as shown in [Figure 9.25](#), and compare this force with the weight of the forearm plus its load. You may take the data in the figure to be accurate to three significant figures.

Strategy

There are four forces acting on the forearm and its load (the system of interest). The magnitude of the force of the biceps is F_B ; that of the elbow joint is F_E ; that of the weights of the forearm is w_a , and its load is w_b . Two of these are unknown (F_B and F_E), so that the first condition for equilibrium cannot by itself yield F_B . But if we use the second condition and choose the pivot to be at the elbow, then the torque due to F_E is zero, and the only unknown becomes F_B .

Solution

The torques created by the weights are clockwise relative to the pivot, while the torque created by the biceps is counterclockwise; thus, the second condition for equilibrium (net $\tau = 0$) becomes

$$r_2 w_a + r_3 w_b = r_1 F_B.$$

9.35

Note that $\sin \theta = 1$ for all forces, since $\theta = 90^\circ$ for all forces. This equation can easily be solved for F_B in terms of known quantities, yielding

$$F_B = \frac{r_2 w_a + r_3 w_b}{r_1}. \quad 9.36$$

Entering the known values gives

$$F_B = \frac{(0.160 \text{ m})(2.50 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) + (0.380 \text{ m})(4.00 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)}{0.0400 \text{ m}} \quad 9.37$$

which yields

$$F_B = 470 \text{ N}. \quad 9.38$$

Now, the combined weight of the arm and its load is $(6.50 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) = 63.7 \text{ N}$, so that the ratio of the force exerted by the biceps to the total weight is

$$\frac{F_B}{w_a + w_b} = \frac{470}{63.7} = 7.38. \quad 9.39$$

Discussion

This means that the biceps muscle is exerting a force 7.38 times the weight supported.

In the above example of the biceps muscle, the angle between the forearm and upper arm is 90° . If this angle changes, the force exerted by the biceps muscle also changes. In addition, the length of the biceps muscle changes. The force the biceps muscle can exert depends upon its length; it is smaller when it is shorter than when it is stretched.

Very large forces are also created in the joints. In the previous example, the downward force F_E exerted by the humerus at the elbow joint equals 407 N, or 6.38 times the total weight supported. (The calculation of F_E is straightforward and is left as an end-of-chapter problem.) Because muscles can contract, but not expand beyond their resting length, joints and muscles often exert forces that act in opposite directions and thus subtract. (In the above example, the upward force of the muscle minus the downward force of the joint equals the weight supported—that is, $470 \text{ N} - 407 \text{ N} = 63 \text{ N}$, approximately equal to the weight supported.) Forces in muscles and joints are largest when their load is a long distance from the joint, as the book is in the previous example.

In racquet sports such as tennis the constant extension of the arm during game play creates large forces in this way. The mass times the lever arm of a tennis racquet is an important factor, and many players use the heaviest racquet they can handle. It is no wonder that joint deterioration and damage to the tendons in the elbow, such as “tennis elbow,” can result from repetitive motion, undue torques, and possibly poor racquet selection in such sports. Various tried techniques for holding and using a racquet or bat or stick not only increases sporting prowess but can minimize fatigue and long-term damage to the body. For example, tennis balls correctly hit at the “sweet spot” on the racquet will result in little vibration or impact force being felt in the racquet and the body—less torque as explained in [Collisions of Extended Bodies in Two Dimensions](#). Twisting the hand to provide top spin on the ball or using an extended rigid elbow in a backhand stroke can also aggravate the tendons in the elbow.

Training coaches and physical therapists use the knowledge of relationships between forces and torques in the treatment of muscles and joints. In physical therapy, an exercise routine can apply a particular force and torque which can, over a period of time, revive muscles and joints. Some exercises are designed to be carried out under water, because this requires greater forces to be exerted, further strengthening muscles. However, connecting tissues in the limbs, such as tendons and cartilage as well as joints are sometimes damaged by the large forces they carry. Often, this is due to accidents, but heavily muscled athletes, such as weightlifters, can tear muscles and connecting tissue through effort alone.

The back is considerably more complicated than the arm or leg, with various muscles and joints between vertebrae, all having mechanical advantages less than 1. Back muscles must, therefore, exert very large forces, which are borne by the spinal column. Discs crushed by mere exertion are very common. The jaw is somewhat

exceptional—the masseter muscles that close the jaw have a mechanical advantage greater than 1 for the back teeth, allowing us to exert very large forces with them. A cause of stress headaches is persistent clenching of teeth where the sustained large force translates into fatigue in muscles around the skull.

Figure 9.26 shows how bad posture causes back strain. In part (a), we see a person with good posture. Note that her upper body's cg is directly above the pivot point in the hips, which in turn is directly above the base of support at her feet. Because of this, her upper body's weight exerts no torque about the hips. The only force needed is a vertical force at the hips equal to the weight supported. No muscle action is required, since the bones are rigid and transmit this force from the floor. This is a position of unstable equilibrium, but only small forces are needed to bring the upper body back to vertical if it is slightly displaced. Bad posture is shown in part (b); we see that the upper body's cg is in front of the pivot in the hips. This creates a clockwise torque around the hips that is counteracted by muscles in the lower back. These muscles must exert large forces, since they have typically small mechanical advantages. (In other words, the perpendicular lever arm for the muscles is much smaller than for the cg.) Poor posture can also cause muscle strain for people sitting at their desks using computers. Special chairs are available that allow the body's CG to be more easily situated above the seat, to reduce back pain. Prolonged muscle action produces muscle strain. Note that the cg of the entire body is still directly above the base of support in part (b) of Figure 9.26. This is compulsory; otherwise the person would not be in equilibrium. We lean forward for the same reason when carrying a load on our backs, to the side when carrying a load in one arm, and backward when carrying a load in front of us, as seen in Figure 9.27.

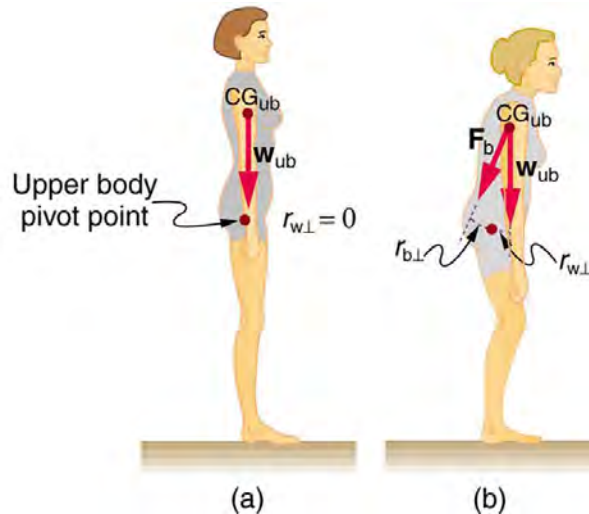


FIGURE 9.26 (a) Good posture places the upper body's cg over the pivots in the hips, eliminating the need for muscle action to balance the body. (b) Poor posture requires exertion by the back muscles to counteract the clockwise torque produced around the pivot by the upper body's weight. The back muscles have a small effective perpendicular lever arm, $r_{b\perp}$, and must therefore exert a large force F_b . Note that the legs lean backward to keep the cg of the entire body above the base of support in the feet.

You have probably been warned against lifting objects with your back. This action, even more than bad posture, can cause muscle strain and damage discs and vertebrae, since abnormally large forces are created in the back muscles and spine.

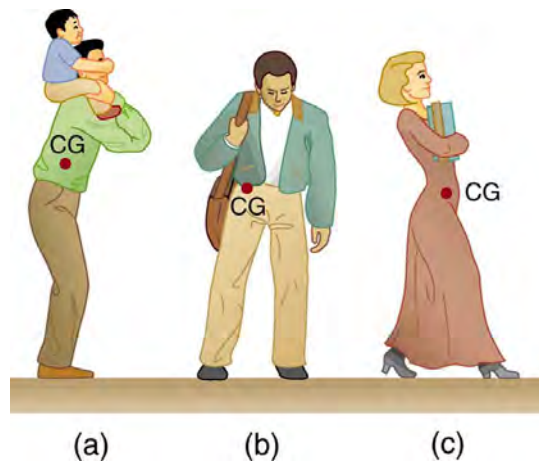


FIGURE 9.27 People adjust their stance to maintain balance. (a) A father carrying his son piggyback leans forward to position their overall cg above the base of support at his feet. (b) A student carrying a shoulder bag leans to the side to keep the overall cg over their feet. (c) Another student carrying a load of books in her arms leans backward for the same reason.

EXAMPLE 9.5

Do Not Lift with Your Back

Consider the person lifting a heavy box with his back, shown in [Figure 9.28](#). (a) Calculate the magnitude of the force F_B —in the back muscles that is needed to support the upper body plus the box and compare this with his weight. The mass of the upper body is 55.0 kg and the mass of the box is 30.0 kg. (b) Calculate the magnitude and direction of the force F_V —exerted by the vertebrae on the spine at the indicated pivot point. Again, data in the figure may be taken to be accurate to three significant figures.

Strategy

By now, we sense that the second condition for equilibrium is a good place to start, and inspection of the known values confirms that it can be used to solve for F_B —if the pivot is chosen to be at the hips. The torques created by w_{ub} and w_{box} —are clockwise, while that created by F_B —is counterclockwise.

Solution for (a)

Using the perpendicular lever arms given in the figure, the second condition for equilibrium ($\text{net } \tau = 0$) becomes

$$(0.350 \text{ m})(55.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) + (0.500 \text{ m})(30.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) = (0.0800 \text{ m})F_B. \quad 9.40$$

Solving for F_B yields

$$F_B = 4.20 \times 10^3 \text{ N}. \quad 9.41$$

The ratio of the force the back muscles exert to the weight of the upper body plus its load is

$$\frac{F_B}{w_{ub} + w_{box}} = \frac{4200 \text{ N}}{833 \text{ N}} = 5.04. \quad 9.42$$

This force is considerably larger than it would be if the load were not present.

Solution for (b)

More important in terms of its damage potential is the force on the vertebrae F_V . The first condition for equilibrium ($\text{net } \mathbf{F} = 0$) can be used to find its magnitude and direction. Using y for vertical and x for horizontal, the condition for the net external forces along those axes to be zero

$$\text{net } F_y = 0 \text{ and } \text{net } F_x = 0. \quad 9.43$$

Starting with the vertical (y) components, this yields

$$F_{Vy} - w_{ub} - w_{box} - F_B \sin 29.0^\circ = 0. \quad 9.44$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} F_{Vy} &= w_{ub} + w_{box} + F_B \sin 29.0^\circ \\ &= 833 \text{ N} + (4200 \text{ N}) \sin 29.0^\circ \end{aligned} \quad 9.45$$

yielding

$$F_{Vy} = 2.87 \times 10^3 \text{ N}. \quad 9.46$$

Similarly, for the horizontal (x) components,

$$F_{Vx} - F_B \cos 29.0^\circ = 0 \quad 9.47$$

yielding

$$F_{Vx} = 3.67 \times 10^3 \text{ N}. \quad 9.48$$

The magnitude of $\mathbf{F}_V$ is given by the Pythagorean theorem:

$$F_V = \sqrt{F_{Vx}^2 + F_{Vy}^2} = 4.66 \times 10^3 \text{ N}. \quad 9.49$$

The direction of $\mathbf{F}_V$ is

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{F_{Vy}}{F_{Vx}} \right) = 38.0^\circ. \quad 9.50$$

Note that the ratio of F_V to the weight supported is

$$\frac{F_V}{w_{ub} + w_{box}} = \frac{4660 \text{ N}}{833 \text{ N}} = 5.59. \quad 9.51$$

Discussion

This force is about 5.6 times greater than it would be if the person were standing erect. The trouble with the back is not so much that the forces are large—because similar forces are created in our hips, knees, and ankles—but that our spines are relatively weak. Proper lifting, performed with the back erect and using the legs to raise the body and load, creates much smaller forces in the back—in this case, about 5.6 times smaller.

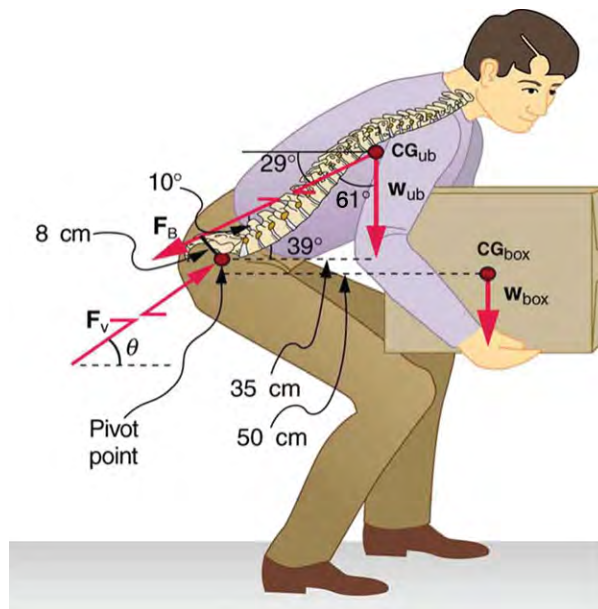


FIGURE 9.28 This figure shows that large forces are exerted by the back muscles and experienced in the vertebrae when a person lifts with their back, since these muscles have small effective perpendicular lever arms. The data shown here are analyzed in the preceding example, [Example 9.5](#).

What are the benefits of having most skeletal muscles attached so close to joints? One advantage is speed because small muscle contractions can produce large movements of limbs in a short period of time. Other advantages are flexibility and agility, made possible by the large numbers of joints and the ranges over which they function. For example, it is difficult to imagine a system with biceps muscles attached at the wrist that would be capable of the broad range of movement we vertebrates possess.

There are some interesting complexities in real systems of muscles, bones, and joints. For instance, the pivot point in many joints changes location as the joint is flexed, so that the perpendicular lever arms and the mechanical advantage of the system change, too. Thus the force the biceps muscle must exert to hold up a book varies as the forearm is flexed. Similar mechanisms operate in the legs, which explain, for example, why there is less leg strain when a bicycle seat is set at the proper height. The methods employed in this section give a reasonable description of real systems provided enough is known about the dimensions of the system. There are many other interesting examples of force and torque in the body—a few of these are the subject of end-of-chapter problems.

Glossary

center of gravity the point where the total weight of the body is assumed to be concentrated

dynamic equilibrium a state of equilibrium in which the net external force and torque on a system moving with constant velocity are zero

mechanical advantage the ratio of output to input forces for any simple machine

neutral equilibrium a state of equilibrium that is independent of a system's displacements from its original position

perpendicular lever arm the shortest distance from the pivot point to the line along which $\mathbf{F}$ lies

SI units of torque newton times meters, usually written as N·m

stable equilibrium a system, when displaced, experiences a net force or torque in a direction opposite to the direction of the displacement

static equilibrium a state of equilibrium in which the net external force and torque acting on a system is zero

static equilibrium equilibrium in which the acceleration of the system is zero and accelerated rotation does not occur

torque turning or twisting effectiveness of a force

unstable equilibrium a system, when displaced, experiences a net force or torque in the same direction as the displacement from equilibrium

Section Summary

9.1 The First Condition for Equilibrium

- Statics is the study of forces in equilibrium.
- Two conditions must be met to achieve equilibrium, which is defined to be motion without linear or rotational acceleration.
- The first condition necessary to achieve equilibrium is that the net external force on the system must be zero, so that $\text{net } \mathbf{F} = 0$.

9.2 The Second Condition for Equilibrium

- The second condition assures those torques are also balanced. Torque is the rotational equivalent of a force in producing a rotation and is defined to be

$$\tau = rF \sin \theta$$

where τ is torque, r is the distance from the pivot point to the point where the force is applied, F is the magnitude of the force, and θ is the angle between $\mathbf{F}$ and the vector directed from the point where the force acts to the pivot point. The perpendicular lever arm $r_{\perp}$ is defined to be

$$r_{\perp} = r \sin \theta$$

so that

$$\tau = r_{\perp} F.$$

- The perpendicular lever arm $r_{\perp}$ is the shortest distance from the pivot point to the line along which F acts. The SI unit for torque is newton-meter (N·m). The second condition necessary to achieve equilibrium is that the net external torque on a system must be zero:
 $\text{net } \tau = 0$
 By convention, counterclockwise torques are positive, and clockwise torques are negative.

9.3 Stability

- A system is said to be in stable equilibrium if, when displaced from equilibrium, it experiences a net force or torque in a direction opposite the direction of the displacement.
- A system is in unstable equilibrium if, when displaced from equilibrium, it experiences a net force or torque in the same direction as the displacement from equilibrium.
- A system is in neutral equilibrium if its equilibrium is independent of displacements from its original position.

9.4 Applications of Statics, Including Problem-Solving Strategies

- Statics can be applied to a variety of situations, ranging from raising a drawbridge to bad posture and back strain. We have discussed the problem-solving strategies specifically useful for statics. Statics is a special case of Newton's laws, both the general problem-solving strategies and the special strategies for Newton's laws, discussed in [Problem-Solving Strategies](#), still apply.

9.5 Simple Machines

- Simple machines are devices that can be used to multiply or augment a force that we apply – often at the expense of a distance through which we have to apply the force.
- The ratio of output to input forces for any simple machine is called its mechanical advantage
- A few simple machines are the lever, nail puller, wheelbarrow, crank, etc.

9.6 Forces and Torques in Muscles and Joints

- Statics plays an important part in understanding everyday strains in our muscles and bones.
- Many lever systems in the body have a mechanical advantage of significantly less than one, as many

of our muscles are attached close to joints.

- Someone with good posture stands or sits in such a way that the person's center of gravity lies directly above the pivot point in the hips, thereby avoiding back strain and damage to disks.

Conceptual Questions

9.1 The First Condition for Equilibrium

1. What can you say about the velocity of a moving body that is in dynamic equilibrium? Draw a sketch of such a body using clearly labeled arrows to represent all external forces on the body.
2. Under what conditions can a rotating body be in equilibrium? Give an example.

9.2 The Second Condition for Equilibrium

3. What three factors affect the torque created by a force relative to a specific pivot point?
4. A wrecking ball is being used to knock down a building. One tall unsupported concrete wall remains standing. If the wrecking ball hits the wall near the top, is the wall more likely to fall over by rotating at its base or by falling straight down? Explain your answer. How is it most likely to fall if it is struck with the same force at its base? Note that this depends on how firmly the wall is attached at its base.
5. Mechanics sometimes put a length of pipe over the handle of a wrench when trying to remove a very tight bolt. How does this help? (It is also hazardous since it can break the bolt.)

9.3 Stability

6. A round pencil lying on its side as in [Figure 9.12](#) is in neutral equilibrium relative to displacements perpendicular to its length. What is its stability relative to displacements parallel to its length?
7. Explain the need for tall towers on a suspension bridge to ensure stable equilibrium.

9.4 Applications of Statics, Including Problem-Solving Strategies

8. When visiting some countries, you may see a person balancing a load on the head. Explain why the center of mass of the load needs to be directly above the person's neck vertebrae.

9.5 Simple Machines

9. Scissors are like a double-lever system. Which of

the simple machines in [Figure 9.21](#) and [Figure 9.22](#) is most analogous to scissors?

10. Suppose you pull a nail at a constant rate using a nail puller as shown in [Figure 9.21](#). Is the nail puller in equilibrium? What if you pull the nail with some acceleration – is the nail puller in equilibrium then? In which case is the force applied to the nail puller larger and why?
11. Explain the mechanical advantage of a wheelbarrow and how it explains why moving a heavy load is easier with a wheelbarrow.
12. How does a pulley enable a person to lift a load as heavy as a piano with little effort?

9.6 Forces and Torques in Muscles and Joints

13. Why are the forces exerted on the outside world by the limbs of our bodies usually much smaller than the forces exerted by muscles inside the body?
14. Explain why the forces in our joints are several times larger than the forces we exert on the outside world with our limbs. Can these forces be even greater than muscle forces?
15. Certain types of dinosaurs were bipedal (walked on two legs). What is a good reason that these creatures invariably had long tails if they had long necks?
16. Swimmers and athletes during competition need to go through certain postures at the beginning of the race. Consider the balance of the person and why start-offs are so important for races.
17. If the maximum force the biceps muscle can exert is 1000 N, can we pick up an object that weighs 1000 N? Explain your answer.
18. Suppose the biceps muscle was attached through tendons to the upper arm close to the elbow and the forearm near the wrist. What would be the advantages and disadvantages of this type of construction for the motion of the arm?

19. Explain one of the reasons why pregnant women often suffer from back strain late in their

pregnancy.

Problems & Exercises

9.2 The Second Condition for Equilibrium

- (a) When opening a door, you push on it perpendicularly with a force of 55.0 N at a distance of 0.850 m from the hinges. What torque are you exerting relative to the hinges? (b) Does it matter if you push at the same height as the hinges?
- When tightening a bolt, you push perpendicularly on a wrench with a force of 165 N at a distance of 0.140 m from the center of the bolt. (a) How much torque are you exerting in newton $\times$ meters (relative to the center of the bolt)? (b) Convert this torque to footpounds.
- Two children push on opposite sides of a door during play. Both push horizontally and perpendicular to the door. One child pushes with a force of 17.5 N at a distance of 0.600 m from the hinges, and the second child pushes at a distance of 0.450 m. What force must the second child exert to keep the door from moving? Assume friction is negligible.
- Use the second condition for equilibrium (net $\tau = 0$) to calculate F_p in [Example 9.1](#), employing any data given or solved for in part (a) of the example.
- Repeat the seesaw problem in [Example 9.1](#) with the center of mass of the seesaw 0.160 m to the left of the pivot (on the side of the lighter child) and assuming a mass of 12.0 kg for the seesaw. The other data given in the example remain unchanged. Explicitly show how you follow the steps in the Problem-Solving Strategy for static equilibrium.

9.3 Stability

- Suppose a horse leans against a wall as in [Figure 9.29](#), emulating a scene in the comedy movie *Cat Ballou*. Calculate the force exerted on the wall assuming that force is horizontal while using the data in the schematic representation of the situation. Note that the force exerted on the wall is equal in magnitude and opposite in direction to the force exerted on the horse, keeping it in equilibrium. The total mass of the horse and rider is 500 kg. Take the data to be accurate to three digits.

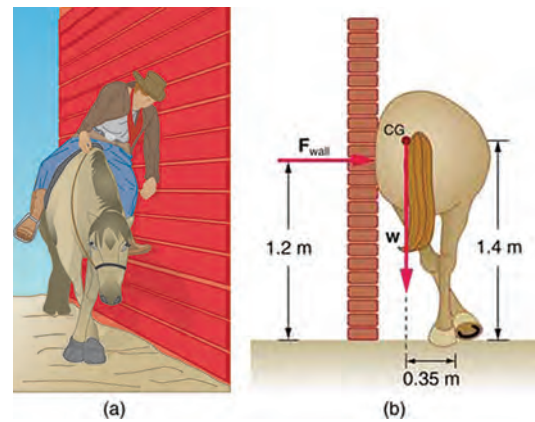


FIGURE 9.29

- Two children of mass 20.0 kg and 30.0 kg sit balanced on a seesaw with the pivot point located at the center of the seesaw. If the children are separated by a distance of 3.00 m, at what distance from the pivot point is the small child sitting in order to maintain the balance?
- (a) Calculate the magnitude and direction of the force on each foot of the horse in [Figure 9.29](#) (two are on the ground), assuming the center of mass of the horse is midway between the feet. The total mass of the horse and rider is 500 kg. (b) What is the minimum coefficient of friction between the hooves and ground? Note that the force exerted by the wall is horizontal.
- A person carries a plank of wood 2.00 m long with one hand pushing down on it at one end with a force F_1 and the other hand holding it up at .500 m from the end of the plank with force F_2 . If the plank has a mass of 20.0 kg and its center of gravity is at the middle of the plank, what are the magnitudes of the forces F_1 and F_2 ?
- A 17.0-m-high and 11.0-m-long wall under construction and its bracing are shown in [Figure 9.30](#). The wall is in stable equilibrium without the bracing but can pivot at its base. Calculate the force exerted by each of the 10 braces if a strong wind exerts a horizontal force of 650 N on each square meter of the wall. Assume that the net force from the wind acts at a height halfway up the wall and that all braces exert equal forces parallel to their lengths. Neglect the thickness of the wall.

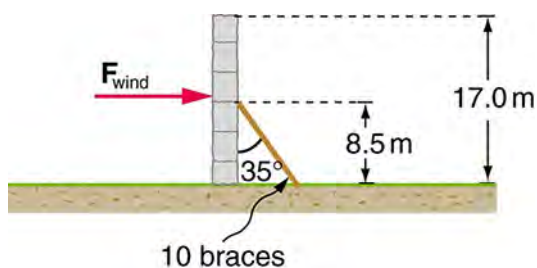


FIGURE 9.30

11. (a) What force must be exerted by the wind to support a 2.50-kg chicken in the position shown in Figure 9.31? (b) What is the ratio of this force to the chicken's weight? (c) Does this support the contention that the chicken has a relatively stable construction?

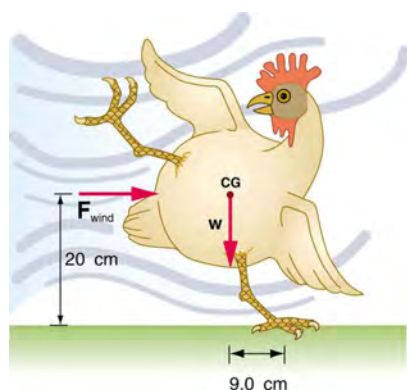


FIGURE 9.31

12. Suppose the weight of the drawbridge in Figure 9.32 is supported entirely by its hinges and the opposite shore, so that its cables are slack. The mass of the bridge is 2500 kg. (a) What fraction of the weight is supported by the opposite shore if the point of support is directly beneath the cable attachments? (b) What is the direction and magnitude of the force the hinges exert on the bridge under these circumstances?

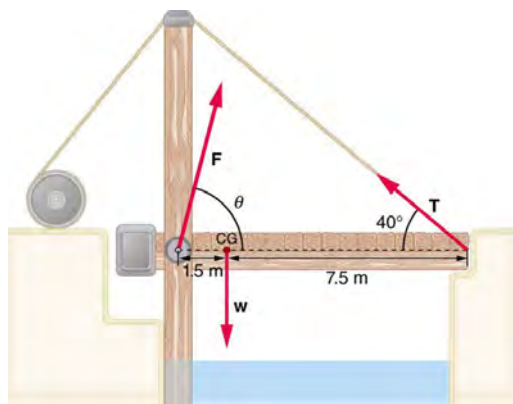


FIGURE 9.32 A small drawbridge, showing the forces on the

hinges (F), its weight (w), and the tension in its wires (T).

13. Suppose a 900-kg car is on the bridge in Figure 9.32 with its center of mass halfway between the hinges and the cable attachments. (The bridge is supported by the cables and hinges only.) (a) Find the force in the cables. (b) Find the direction and magnitude of the force exerted by the hinges on the bridge.
14. A sandwich board advertising sign is constructed as shown in Figure 9.33. The sign's mass is 8.00 kg. (a) Calculate the tension in the chain assuming no friction between the legs and the sidewalk. (b) What force is exerted by each side on the hinge?

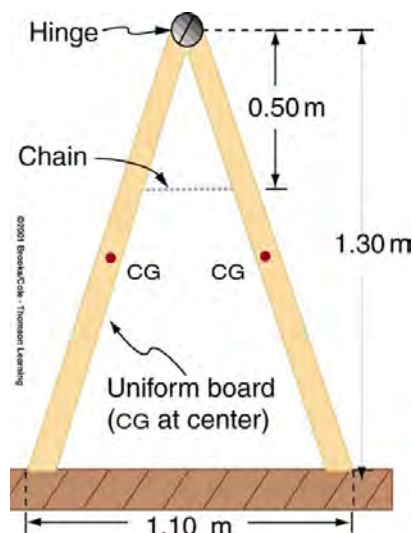


FIGURE 9.33 A sandwich board advertising sign demonstrates tension.

15. (a) What minimum coefficient of friction is needed between the legs and the ground to keep the sign in Figure 9.33 in the position shown if the chain breaks? (b) What force is exerted by each side on the hinge?
16. An athlete is attempting to perform splits. From the information given in Figure 9.34, calculate the magnitude and direction of the force exerted on each foot by the floor.

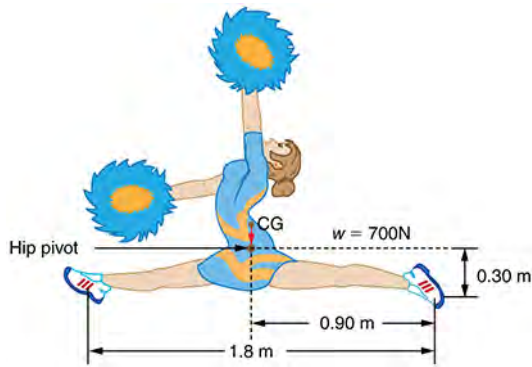


FIGURE 9.34 An athlete performs full split. The center of gravity and the various distances from it are shown.

9.4 Applications of Statics, Including Problem-Solving Strategies

17. To get up on the roof, a person (mass 70.0 kg) places a 6.00-m aluminum ladder (mass 10.0 kg) against the house on a concrete pad with the base of the ladder 2.00 m from the house. The ladder rests against a plastic rain gutter, which we can assume to be frictionless. The center of mass of the ladder is 2 m from the bottom. The person is standing 3 m from the bottom. What are the magnitudes of the forces on the ladder at the top and bottom?
18. In [Figure 9.20](#), the cg of the pole held by the pole vaulter is 2.00 m from the left hand, and the hands are 0.700 m apart. Calculate the force exerted by (a) his right hand and (b) his left hand. (c) If each hand supports half the weight of the pole in [Figure 9.18](#), show that the second condition for equilibrium (net $\tau = 0$) is satisfied for a pivot other than the one located at the center of gravity of the pole. Explicitly show how you follow the steps in the Problem-Solving Strategy for static equilibrium described above.

9.5 Simple Machines

19. What is the mechanical advantage of a nail puller—similar to the one shown in [Figure 9.21](#)—where you exert a force 45 cm from the pivot and the nail is 1.8 cm on the other side? What minimum force must you exert to apply a force of 1250 N to the nail?
20. Suppose you needed to raise a 250-kg mower a distance of 6.0 cm above the ground to change a tire. If you had a 2.0-m long lever, where would you place the fulcrum if your force was limited to 300 N?
21. a) What is the mechanical advantage of a

wheelbarrow, such as the one in [Figure 9.22](#), if the center of gravity of the wheelbarrow and its load has a perpendicular lever arm of 5.50 cm, while the hands have a perpendicular lever arm of 1.02 m? (b) What upward force should you exert to support the wheelbarrow and its load if their combined mass is 55.0 kg? (c) What force does the wheel exert on the ground?

22. A typical car has an axle with 1.10 cm radius driving a tire with a radius of 27.5 cm. What is its mechanical advantage assuming the very simplified model in [Figure 9.23\(b\)](#)?
23. What force does the nail puller in [Exercise 9.19](#) exert on the supporting surface? The nail puller has a mass of 2.10 kg.
24. If you used an ideal pulley of the type shown in [Figure 9.24\(a\)](#) to support a car engine of mass 115 kg, (a) What would be the tension in the rope? (b) What force must the ceiling supply, assuming you pull straight down on the rope? Neglect the pulley system's mass.
25. Repeat [Exercise 9.24](#) for the pulley shown in [Figure 9.24\(c\)](#), assuming you pull straight up on the rope. The pulley system's mass is 7.00 kg.

9.6 Forces and Torques in Muscles and Joints

26. Verify that the force in the elbow joint in [Example 9.4](#) is 407 N, as stated in the text.
27. Two muscles in the back of the leg pull on the Achilles tendon as shown in [Figure 9.35](#). What total force do they exert?



FIGURE 9.35 The Achilles tendon of the posterior leg serves to attach plantaris, gastrocnemius, and soleus muscles to calcaneus bone.

28. The upper leg muscle (quadriceps) exerts a force of 1250 N, which is carried by a tendon over the kneecap (the patella) at the angles shown in [Figure 9.36](#). Find the direction and magnitude of the force exerted by the kneecap on the upper leg

bone (the femur).

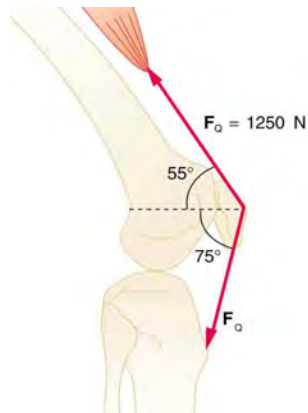


FIGURE 9.36 The knee joint works like a hinge to bend and straighten the lower leg. It permits a person to sit, stand, and pivot.

29. A device for exercising the upper leg muscle is shown in [Figure 9.37](#), together with a schematic representation of an equivalent lever system. Calculate the force exerted by the upper leg muscle to lift the mass at a constant speed. Explicitly show how you follow the steps in the Problem-Solving Strategy for static equilibrium in [Applications of Statistics, Including Problem-Solving Strategies](#).

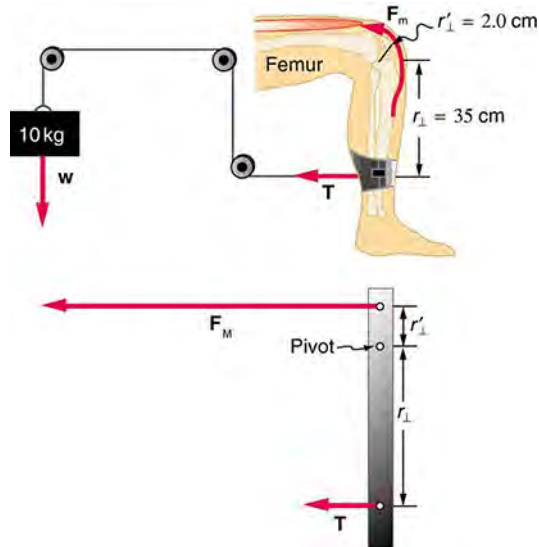


FIGURE 9.37 A mass is connected by pulleys and wires to the ankle in this exercise device.

30. A person working at a drafting board may hold her head as shown in [Figure 9.38](#), requiring muscle action to support the head. The three major acting forces are shown. Calculate the direction and magnitude of the force supplied by the upper vertebrae F_v to hold the head stationary, assuming that this force acts along a line through

the center of mass as do the weight and muscle force.

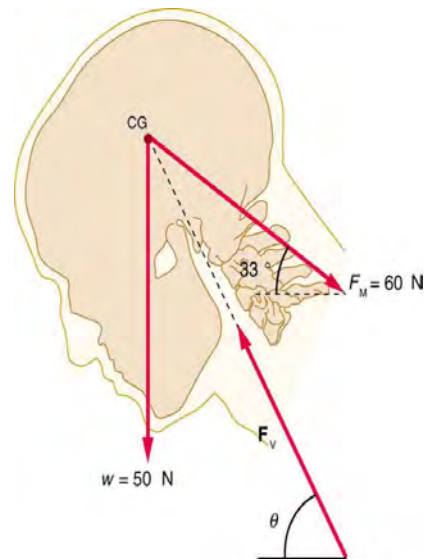


FIGURE 9.38

31. We analyzed the biceps muscle example with the angle between forearm and upper arm set at 90° . Using the same numbers as in [Example 9.4](#), find the force exerted by the biceps muscle when the angle is 120° and the forearm is in a downward position.
32. Even when the head is held erect, as in [Figure 9.39](#), its center of mass is not directly over the principal point of support (the atlanto-occipital joint). The muscles at the back of the neck should therefore exert a force to keep the head erect. That is why your head falls forward when you fall asleep in the class. (a) Calculate the force exerted by these muscles using the information in the figure. (b) What is the force exerted by the pivot on the head?

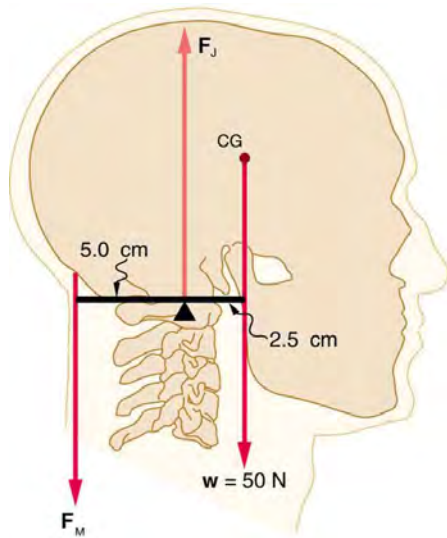


FIGURE 9.39 The center of mass of the head lies in front of its major point of support, requiring muscle action to hold the head erect. A simplified lever system is shown.

33. A 75-kg man stands on his toes by exerting an upward force through the Achilles tendon, as in [Figure 9.40](#). (a) What is the force in the Achilles tendon if he stands on one foot? (b) Calculate the force at the pivot of the simplified lever system shown—that force is representative of forces in the ankle joint.

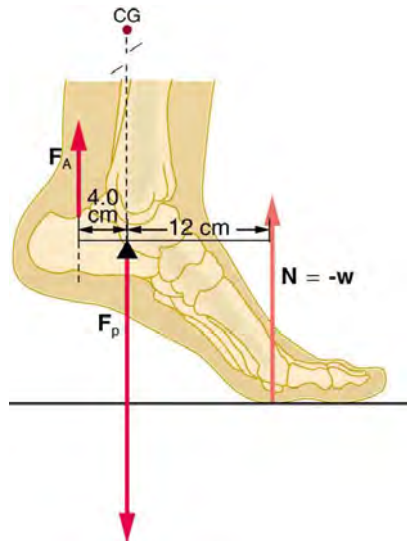


FIGURE 9.40 The muscles in the back of the leg pull the Achilles tendon when one stands on one's toes. A simplified lever system is shown.

34. A father lifts his child as shown in [Figure 9.41](#). What force should the upper leg muscle exert to lift the child at a constant speed?

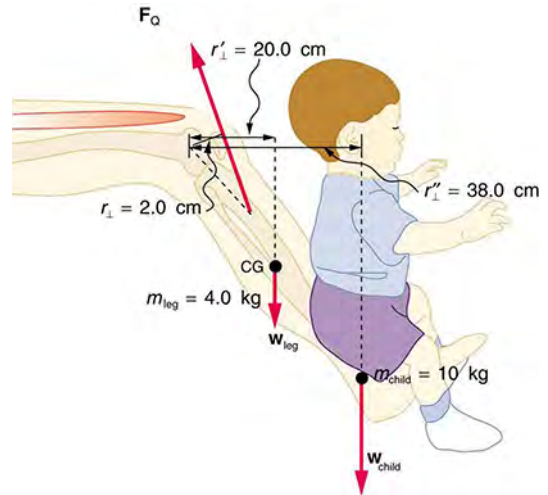


FIGURE 9.41 A child being lifted by a father's lower leg.

35. Unlike most of the other muscles in our bodies, the masseter muscle in the jaw, as illustrated in [Figure 9.42](#), is attached relatively far from the joint, enabling large forces to be exerted by the back teeth. (a) Using the information in the figure, calculate the force exerted by the lower teeth on the bullet. (b) Calculate the force on the joint.

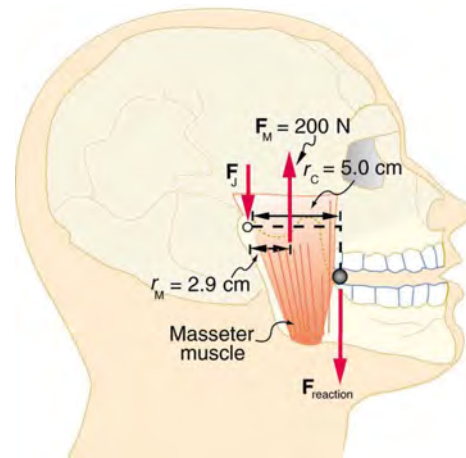


FIGURE 9.42 A person clenching a bullet between his teeth.

36. **Integrated Concepts**
Suppose we replace the 4.0-kg book in [Exercise 9.31](#) of the biceps muscle with an elastic exercise rope that obeys Hooke's Law. Assume its force constant $k = 600 \text{ N/m}$. (a) How much is the rope stretched (past equilibrium) to provide the same force F_B as in this example? Assume the rope is held in the hand at the same location as the book. (b) What force is on the biceps muscle if the exercise rope is pulled straight up so that the forearm makes an angle of 25° with the horizontal? Assume the biceps muscle is still perpendicular to the forearm.

37. (a) What force should the woman in [Figure 9.43](#) exert on the floor with each hand to do a push-up? Assume that she moves up at a constant speed. (b) The triceps muscle at the back of her upper arm has an effective lever arm of 1.75 cm, and she exerts force on the floor at a horizontal distance of 20.0 cm from the elbow joint. Calculate the magnitude of the force in each triceps muscle, and compare it to her weight. (c) How much work does she do if her center of mass rises 0.240 m? (d) What is her useful power output if she does 25 pushups in one minute?

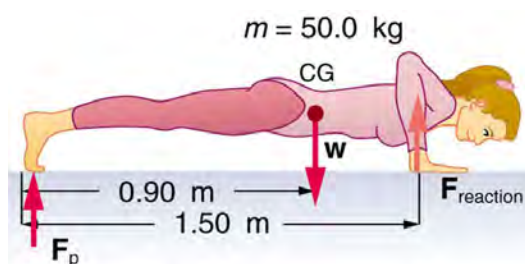


FIGURE 9.43 A woman doing pushups.

38. You have just planted a sturdy 2-m-tall palm tree in your front lawn for your mother's birthday. Your brother kicks a 500 g ball, which hits the top of the tree at a speed of 5 m/s and stays in contact with it for 10 ms. The ball falls to the ground near the base of the tree and the recoil of the tree is minimal. (a) What is the force on the tree? (b) The length of the sturdy section of the root is only 20 cm. Furthermore, the soil around the roots is loose and we can assume that an effective force is

applied at the tip of the 20 cm length. What is the effective force exerted by the end of the tip of the root to keep the tree from toppling? Assume the tree will be uprooted rather than bend. (c) What could you have done to ensure that the tree does not uproot easily?

39. Unreasonable Results

Suppose two children are using a uniform seesaw that is 3.00 m long and has its center of mass over the pivot. The first child has a mass of 30.0 kg and sits 1.40 m from the pivot. (a) Calculate where the second 18.0 kg child must sit to balance the seesaw. (b) What is unreasonable about the result? (c) Which premise is unreasonable, or which premises are inconsistent?

40. Construct Your Own Problem

Consider a method for measuring the mass of a person's arm in anatomical studies. The subject lies on her back, extends her relaxed arm to the side and two scales are placed below the arm. One is placed under the elbow and the other under the back of her hand. Construct a problem in which you calculate the mass of the arm and find its center of mass based on the scale readings and the distances of the scales from the shoulder joint. You must include a free body diagram of the arm to direct the analysis. Consider changing the position of the scale under the hand to provide more information, if needed. You may wish to consult references to obtain reasonable mass values.

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9.2 The Second Condition for Equilibrium

- Which of the following is not an example of an object undergoing a torque?
 - A car is rounding a bend at a constant speed.
 - A merry-go-round increases from rest to a constant rotational speed.
 - A pendulum swings back and forth.
 - A bowling ball rolls down a bowling alley.
- Five forces of equal magnitude, labeled **A–E**, are applied to the object shown below. If the object is anchored at point **P**, which force will provide the greatest torque?

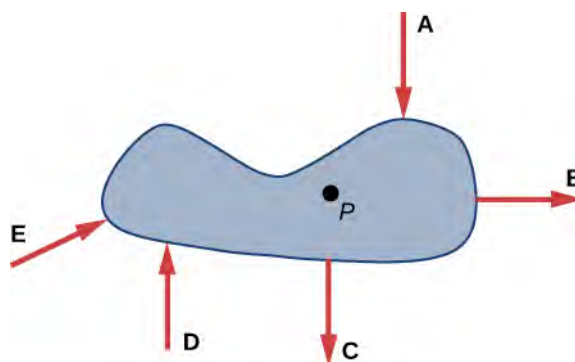


FIGURE 9.44 Five forces acting on an object.

- Force **A**
- Force **B**
- Force **C**
- Force **D**
- Force **E**

9.3 Stability

3. Using the concept of torque, explain why a traffic cone placed on its base is in stable equilibrium, while a traffic cone placed on its tip is in unstable equilibrium.

9.4 Applications of Statics, Including Problem-Solving Strategies

4. A child sits on the end of a playground see-saw. Which of the following values is the most appropriate estimate of the torque created by the child?
- 6 N•m
 - 60 N•m
 - 600 N•m
 - 6000 N•m
5. A group of students is stacking a set of identical books, each one overhanging the one below it by 1 inch. They would like to estimate how many books they could place on top of each other before the stack tipped. What information below would they need to know to make this calculation?

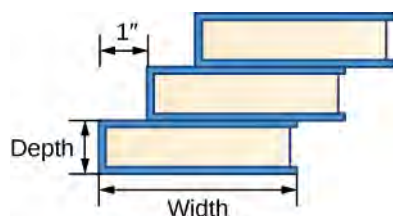


FIGURE 9.45 3 overlapping stacked books.

- The mass of each book
 - The width of each book
 - The depth of each book
- I only
 - I and II only
 - I and III only
 - II only
 - I, II, and III
6. A 10 N board of uniform density is 5 meters long. It is supported on the left by a string bearing a 3 N upward force. In order to prevent the string from breaking, a person must place an upward force of 7 N at a position along the bottom surface of the board. At what distance from its left edge would they need to place this force in order for the board to be in static equilibrium?
- $\frac{3}{7}$ m
 - $\frac{5}{2}$ m

- $\frac{25}{7}$ m
- $\frac{30}{7}$ m
- 5 m

7. A bridge is supported by two piers located 20 meters apart. Both the left and right piers provide an upward force on the bridge, labeled F_L and F_R respectively.
- If a 1000 kg car comes to rest at a point 5 meters from the left pier, how much force will the bridge provide to the left and right piers?
 - How will F_L and F_R change as the car drives to the right side of the bridge?
8. An object of unknown mass is provided to a student. Without using a scale, design an experimental procedure detailing how the magnitude of this mass could be experimentally found. Your explanation must include the concept of torque and all steps should be provided in an orderly sequence. You may include a labeled diagram of your setup to help in your description. Include enough detail so that another student could carry out your procedure.

9.5 Simple Machines

9. As a young student, you likely learned that simple machines are capable of increasing the ability to lift and move objects. Now, as an educated AP Physics student, you are aware that this capability is governed by the relationship between force and torque.

In the space below, explain why torque is integral to the increase in force created by a simple machine. You may use an example or diagram to assist in your explanation. Be sure to cite the mechanical advantage in your explanation as well.

10. Figure 9.24(a) shows a wheelbarrow being lifted by an applied force F_i . If the wheelbarrow is filled with twenty bricks massing 3 kg each, estimate the value of the applied force F_i . Provide an explanation behind the total weight w and any reasoning toward your final answer. Additionally, provide a range of values over which you feel the force could exist.

9.6 Forces and Torques in Muscles and Joints

11. When you use your hand to raise a 20 lb dumbbell in a curling motion, the force on your bicep muscle is not equal to 20 lb.
- Compare the size of the force placed on your

bicep muscle to the force of the 20 lb dumbbell lifted by your hand. Using the concept of torque, which force is greater and explain why the two forces are not identical.

- b. Does the force placed on your bicep muscle change as you curl the weight closer toward

your body? (In other words, is the force on your muscle different when your forearm is 90° to your upper arm than when it is 45° to your upper arm?) Explain your answer using torque.

CHAPTER 10

Rotational Motion and Angular Momentum



FIGURE 10.1 The mention of a tornado conjures up images of raw destructive power. Tornadoes blow houses away as if they were made of paper and have been known to pierce tree trunks with pieces of straw. They descend from clouds in funnel-like shapes that spin violently, particularly at the bottom where they are most narrow, producing winds as high as 500 km/h. (credit: Daphne Zaras, U.S. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration)

CHAPTER OUTLINE

10.1 Angular Acceleration

10.2 Kinematics of Rotational Motion

10.3 Dynamics of Rotational Motion: Rotational Inertia

10.4 Rotational Kinetic Energy: Work and Energy Revisited

10.5 Angular Momentum and Its Conservation

10.6 Collisions of Extended Bodies in Two Dimensions

10.7 Gyroscopic Effects: Vector Aspects of Angular Momentum

CONNECTION FOR AP® COURSES Why do tornados spin? And why do tornados spin so rapidly? The answer is that the air masses that produce tornados are themselves rotating, and when the radii of the air masses decrease, their rate of rotation increases. An ice skater increases her spin in an exactly analogous manner, as seen in [Figure 10.2](#). The skater starts her rotation with outstretched limbs and increases her rate of spin by pulling them in toward her body. The same physics describes the exhilarating spin of a skater and the wrenching force of a tornado. We will find that this is another example of the importance of conservation laws and their role in determining how changes happen in a system, supporting Big Idea 5. The idea that a change of a conserved quantity is always equal to the transfer of that quantity between interacting systems (Enduring Understanding 5.A) is presented for both energy and angular momentum (Enduring Understanding 5.E). The conservation of **angular momentum** in relation to the external net **torque** (Essential Knowledge 5.E.1) parallels that of linear momentum conservation in relation to the external net force. The concept of **rotational inertia** is introduced, a concept that takes into account not only the mass of an object or a system, but also the distribution of mass within the object or system. Therefore, changes in the rotational inertia of a system could lead to changes in the motion (Essential Knowledge 5.E.2) of the system. We

shall see that all important aspects of rotational motion either have already been defined for linear motion or have exact analogues in linear motion.

Clearly, therefore, force, energy, and power are associated with rotational motion. This supports Big Idea 3, that interactions are described by forces. The ability of forces to cause torques (Enduring Understanding 3.F) is extended to the interactions between objects that result in nonzero net torque. This nonzero net torque in turn causes changes in the rotational motion of an object (Essential Knowledge 3.F.2) and results in changes of the angular momentum of an object (Essential Knowledge 3.F.3).

Similarly, Big Idea 4, that interactions between systems cause changes in those systems, is supported by the empirical observation that when torques are exerted on rigid bodies these torques cause changes in the angular momentum of the system (Enduring Understanding 4.D).

Again, there is a clear analogy between linear and rotational motion in this interaction. Both the angular kinematics variables (angular displacement, angular velocity, and **angular acceleration**) and the dynamics variables (torque and angular momentum) are vectors with direction depending on whether the rotation is clockwise or counterclockwise with respect to an axis of rotation (Essential Knowledge 4.D.1). The angular momentum of the system can change due to interactions (Essential Knowledge 4.D.2). This change is defined as the product of the average torque and the time interval during which torque is exerted (Essential Knowledge 4.D.3), analogous to the impulse-momentum theorem for linear motion.

The concepts in this chapter support:

Big Idea 3. The interactions of an object with other objects can be described by forces.

Enduring Understanding 3.F. A force exerted on an object can cause a torque on that object.

Extended Knowledge 3.F.2. The presence of a net torque along any axis will cause a rigid system to change its rotational motion or an object to change its rotational motion about that axis.

Extended Knowledge 3.F.3. A torque exerted on an object can change the angular momentum of an object.

Big Idea 4. Interactions between systems can result in changes in those systems.

Enduring Understanding 4.D. A net torque exerted on a system by other objects or systems will change the angular momentum of the system.

Extended Knowledge 4.D.1. Torque, angular velocity, angular acceleration, and angular momentum are vectors and can be characterized as positive or negative depending upon whether they give rise to or correspond to counterclockwise or clockwise rotation with respect to an axis.

Extended Knowledge 4.D.2. The angular momentum of a system may change due to interactions with other objects or systems.

Extended Knowledge 4.D.3. The change in angular momentum is given by the product of the average torque and the time interval during which the torque is exerted.

Big Idea 5. Changes that occur as a result of interactions are constrained by conservation laws.

Enduring Understanding 5.A. Certain quantities are conserved, in the sense that the changes of those quantities in a given system are always equal to the transfer of that quantity to or from the system by all possible interactions with other systems.

Extended Knowledge 5.A.2. For all systems under all circumstances, energy, charge, linear momentum, and angular momentum are conserved.

Enduring Understanding 5.E. The angular momentum of a system is conserved.

Extended Knowledge 5.E.1. If the net external torque exerted on the system is zero, the angular momentum of the system does not change.

Extended Knowledge 5.E.2. The angular momentum of a system is determined by the locations and velocities of the objects that make up the system. The rotational inertia of an object or system depends upon the distribution of mass

within the object or system. Changes in the radius of a system or in the distribution of mass within the system result in changes in the system's rotational inertia, and hence in its angular velocity and linear speed for a given angular momentum. Examples should include elliptical orbits in an Earth-satellite system. Mathematical expressions for the moments of inertia will be provided where needed. Students will not be expected to know the parallel axis theorem.



FIGURE 10.2 This figure skater increases her rate of spin by pulling her arms and her extended leg closer to her axis of rotation. (credit: Luu, Wikimedia Commons)

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10.1 Angular Acceleration

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe uniform circular motion.
- Explain non-uniform circular motion.
- Calculate angular acceleration of an object.
- Observe the link between linear and angular acceleration.

[Uniform Circular Motion and Gravitation](#) discussed only uniform circular motion, which is motion in a circle at constant speed and, hence, constant angular velocity. Recall that angular velocity ω was defined as the time rate of change of angle θ :

$$\omega = \frac{\Delta\theta}{\Delta t}, \quad 10.1$$

where θ is the angle of rotation as seen in [Figure 10.3](#). The relationship between angular velocity ω and linear velocity v was also defined in [Rotation Angle and Angular Velocity](#) as

$$v = r\omega \quad 10.2$$

or

$$\omega = \frac{v}{r}, \quad 10.3$$

where r is the radius of curvature, also seen in [Figure 10.3](#). According to the sign convention, the counter clockwise direction is considered as positive direction and clockwise direction as negative

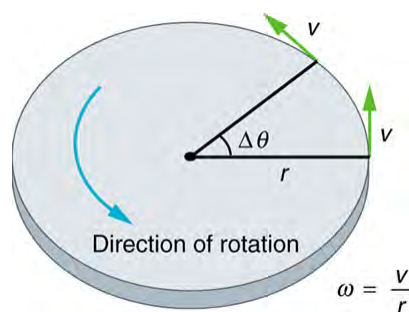


FIGURE 10.3 This figure shows uniform circular motion and some of its defined quantities.

Angular velocity is not constant when a skater pulls in her arms, when a child starts up a merry-go-round from rest, or when a computer's hard disk slows to a halt when switched off. In all these cases, there is an **angular acceleration**, in which ω changes. The faster the change occurs, the greater the angular acceleration. Angular acceleration α is defined as the rate of change of angular velocity. In equation form, angular acceleration is expressed as follows:

$$\alpha = \frac{\Delta\omega}{\Delta t}, \quad 10.4$$

where $\Delta\omega$ is the **change in angular velocity** and Δt is the change in time. The units of angular acceleration are (rad/s)/s, or rad/s^2 . If ω increases, then α is positive. If ω decreases, then α is negative.



EXAMPLE 10.1

Calculating the Angular Acceleration and Deceleration of a Bike Wheel

Suppose a teenager puts her bicycle on its back and starts the rear wheel spinning from rest to a final angular velocity of 250 rpm in 5.00 s. (a) Calculate the angular acceleration in rad/s^2 . (b) If she now slams on the brakes, causing an angular acceleration of -87.3 rad/s^2 , how long does it take the wheel to stop?

Strategy for (a)

The angular acceleration can be found directly from its definition in $\alpha = \frac{\Delta\omega}{\Delta t}$ because the final angular velocity and time are given. We see that $\Delta\omega$ is 250 rpm and Δt is 5.00 s.

Solution for (a)

Entering known information into the definition of angular acceleration, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= \frac{\Delta\omega}{\Delta t} \\ &= \frac{250 \text{ rpm}}{5.00 \text{ s}}. \end{aligned} \quad 10.5$$

Because $\Delta\omega$ is in revolutions per minute (rpm) and we want the standard units of rad/s^2 for angular acceleration, we need to convert $\Delta\omega$ from rpm to rad/s :

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta\omega &= 250 \frac{\text{rev}}{\text{min}} \cdot \frac{2\pi \text{ rad}}{\text{rev}} \cdot \frac{1 \text{ min}}{60 \text{ s}} \\ &= 26.2 \frac{\text{rad}}{\text{s}}. \end{aligned} \quad 10.6$$

Entering this quantity into the expression for α , we get

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= \frac{\Delta\omega}{\Delta t} \\ &= \frac{26.2 \text{ rad/s}}{5.00 \text{ s}} \\ &= 5.24 \text{ rad/s}^2. \end{aligned} \quad 10.7$$

Strategy for (b)

In this part, we know the angular acceleration and the initial angular velocity. We can find the stoppage time by using the definition of angular acceleration and solving for Δt , yielding

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta\omega}{\alpha}. \quad 10.8$$

Solution for (b)

Here the angular velocity decreases from 26.2 rad/s (250 rpm) to zero, so that $\Delta\omega$ is -26.2 rad/s, and α is given to be -87.3 rad/s². Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta t &= \frac{-26.2 \text{ rad/s}}{-87.3 \text{ rad/s}^2} \\ &= 0.300 \text{ s}. \end{aligned} \quad 10.9$$

Discussion

Note that the angular acceleration as the girl spins the wheel is small and positive; it takes 5 s to produce an appreciable angular velocity. When she hits the brake, the angular acceleration is large and negative. The angular velocity quickly goes to zero. In both cases, the relationships are analogous to what happens with linear motion. For example, there is a large deceleration when you crash into a brick wall—the velocity change is large in a short time interval.

If the bicycle in the preceding example had been on its wheels instead of upside-down, it would first have accelerated along the ground and then come to a stop. This connection between circular motion and linear motion needs to be explored. For example, it would be useful to know how linear and angular acceleration are related. In circular motion, linear acceleration is *tangent* to the circle at the point of interest, as seen in [Figure 10.4](#). Thus, linear acceleration is called **tangential acceleration** a_t .



FIGURE 10.4 In circular motion, linear acceleration a , occurs as the magnitude of the velocity changes: a is tangent to the motion. In the context of circular motion, linear acceleration is also called tangential acceleration a_t .

Linear or tangential acceleration refers to changes in the magnitude of velocity but not its direction. We know from [Uniform Circular Motion and Gravitation](#) that in circular motion centripetal acceleration, a_c , refers to changes in the direction of the velocity but not its magnitude. An object undergoing circular motion experiences centripetal acceleration, as seen in [Figure 10.5](#). Thus, a_t and a_c are perpendicular and independent of one another. Tangential acceleration a_t is directly related to the angular acceleration α and is linked to an increase or decrease in the velocity, but not its direction.

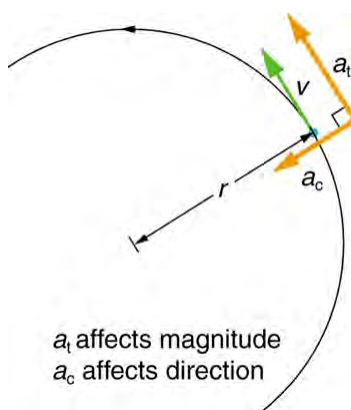


FIGURE 10.5 Centripetal acceleration a_c occurs as the direction of velocity changes; it is perpendicular to the circular motion. Centripetal and tangential acceleration are thus perpendicular to each other.

Now we can find the exact relationship between linear acceleration a_t and angular acceleration α . Because linear acceleration is proportional to a change in the magnitude of the velocity, it is defined (as it was in [One-Dimensional Kinematics](#)) to be

$$a_t = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t}. \quad 10.10$$

For circular motion, note that $v = r\omega$, so that

$$a_t = \frac{\Delta(r\omega)}{\Delta t}. \quad 10.11$$

The radius r is constant for circular motion, and so $\Delta(r\omega) = r(\Delta\omega)$. Thus,

$$a_t = r \frac{\Delta\omega}{\Delta t}. \quad 10.12$$

By definition, $\alpha = \frac{\Delta\omega}{\Delta t}$. Thus,

$$a_t = r\alpha, \quad 10.13$$

or

$$\alpha = \frac{a_t}{r}. \quad 10.14$$

These equations mean that linear acceleration and angular acceleration are directly proportional. The greater the angular acceleration is, the larger the linear (tangential) acceleration is, and vice versa. For example, the greater the angular acceleration of a car's drive wheels, the greater the acceleration of the car. The radius also matters. For example, the smaller a wheel, the smaller its linear acceleration for a given angular acceleration α .



EXAMPLE 10.2

Calculating the Angular Acceleration of a Motorcycle Wheel

A powerful motorcycle can accelerate from 0 to 30.0 m/s (about 108 km/h) in 4.20 s. What is the angular acceleration of its 0.320-m-radius wheels? (See [Figure 10.6](#).)

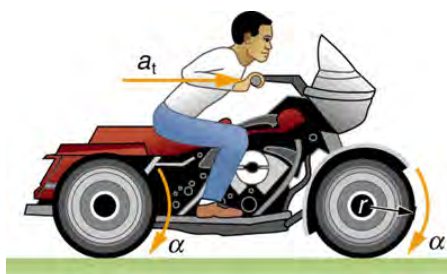


FIGURE 10.6 The linear acceleration of a motorcycle is accompanied by an angular acceleration of its wheels.

Strategy

We are given information about the linear velocities of the motorcycle. Thus, we can find its linear acceleration a_t . Then, the expression $\alpha = \frac{a_t}{r}$ can be used to find the angular acceleration.

Solution

The linear acceleration is

$$\begin{aligned} a_t &= \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} \\ &= \frac{30.0 \text{ m/s}}{4.20 \text{ s}} \\ &= 7.14 \text{ m/s}^2. \end{aligned} \quad 10.15$$

We also know the radius of the wheels. Entering the values for a_t and r into $\alpha = \frac{a_t}{r}$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= \frac{a_t}{r} \\ &= \frac{7.14 \text{ m/s}^2}{0.320 \text{ m}} \\ &= 22.3 \text{ rad/s}^2. \end{aligned} \quad 10.16$$

Discussion

Units of radians are dimensionless and appear in any relationship between angular and linear quantities.

So far, we have defined three rotational quantities— θ , ω , and α . These quantities are analogous to the translational quantities x , v , and a . [Table 10.1](#) displays rotational quantities, the analogous translational quantities, and the relationships between them.

Rotational	Translational	Relationship
θ	x	$\theta = \frac{x}{r}$
ω	v	$\omega = \frac{v}{r}$
α	a	$\alpha = \frac{a_t}{r}$

TABLE 10.1 Rotational and Translational Quantities

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT

Sit down with your feet on the ground on a chair that rotates. Lift one of your legs such that it is unbent (straightened out). Using the other leg, begin to rotate yourself by pushing on the ground. Stop using your leg to

push the ground but allow the chair to rotate. From the origin where you began, sketch the angle, angular velocity, and angular acceleration of your leg as a function of time in the form of three separate graphs. Estimate the magnitudes of these quantities.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Angular acceleration is a vector, having both magnitude and direction. How do we denote its magnitude and direction? Illustrate with an example.

Solution

The magnitude of angular acceleration is α and its most common units are rad/s^2 . The direction of angular acceleration along a fixed axis is denoted by a + or a – sign, just as the direction of linear acceleration in one dimension is denoted by a + or a – sign. For example, consider a gymnast doing a forward flip. Her angular momentum would be parallel to the mat and to her left. The magnitude of her angular acceleration would be proportional to her angular velocity (spin rate) and her moment of inertia about her spin axis.

LADYBUG REVOLUTION

Join the ladybug in an exploration of rotational motion. Rotate the merry-go-round to change its angle, or choose a constant angular velocity or angular acceleration. Explore how circular motion relates to the bug's x,y position, velocity, and acceleration using vectors or graphs.

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/l/28ladybugrevolutionrotation\).](https://openstax.org/l/28ladybugrevolutionrotation)

10.2 Kinematics of Rotational Motion

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Observe the kinematics of rotational motion.
- Derive rotational kinematic equations.
- Evaluate problem solving strategies for rotational kinematics.

Just by using our intuition, we can begin to see how rotational quantities like θ , ω , and α are related to one another. For example, if a motorcycle wheel has a large angular acceleration for a fairly long time, it ends up spinning rapidly and rotates through many revolutions. In more technical terms, if the wheel's angular acceleration α is large for a long period of time t , then the final angular velocity ω and angle of rotation θ are large. The wheel's rotational motion is exactly analogous to the fact that the motorcycle's large translational acceleration produces a large final velocity, and the distance traveled will also be large.

Kinematics is the description of motion. The **kinematics of rotational motion** describes the relationships among rotation angle, angular velocity, angular acceleration, and time. Let us start by finding an equation relating ω , α , and t . To determine this equation, we recall a familiar kinematic equation for translational, or straight-line, motion:

$$v = v_0 + at \quad (\text{constant } a) \quad 10.17$$

Note that in rotational motion $a = a_t$, and we shall use the symbol a for tangential or linear acceleration from now on. As in linear kinematics, we assume a is constant, which means that angular acceleration α is also a constant, because $a = r\alpha$. Now, let us substitute $v = r\omega$ and $a = r\alpha$ into the linear equation above:

$$r\omega = r\omega_0 + r\alpha t. \quad 10.18$$

The radius r cancels in the equation, yielding

$$\omega = \omega_0 + \alpha t \quad (\text{constant } \alpha), \quad 10.19$$

where ω_0 is the initial angular velocity. This last equation is a *kinematic relationship* among ω , α , and t —that is, it describes their relationship without reference to forces or masses that may affect rotation. It is also precisely analogous in form to its translational counterpart.

MAKING CONNECTIONS

Kinematics for rotational motion is completely analogous to translational kinematics, first presented in [One-Dimensional Kinematics](#). Kinematics is concerned with the description of motion without regard to force or mass. We will find that translational kinematic quantities, such as displacement, velocity, and acceleration have direct analogs in rotational motion.

Starting with the four kinematic equations we developed in [One-Dimensional Kinematics](#), we can derive the following four rotational kinematic equations (presented together with their translational counterparts):

Rotational	Translational	
$\theta = \bar{\omega}t$	$x = \bar{v}t$	
$\omega = \omega_0 + \alpha t$	$v = v_0 + at$	(constant α, a)
$\theta = \omega_0 t + \frac{1}{2}\alpha t^2$	$x = v_0 t + \frac{1}{2}at^2$	(constant α, a)
$\omega^2 = \omega_0^2 + 2\alpha\theta$	$v^2 = v_0^2 + 2ax$	(constant α, a)

TABLE 10.2 Rotational Kinematic Equations

In these equations, the subscript 0 denotes initial values (θ_0 , x_0 , and t_0 are initial values), and the average angular velocity $\bar{\omega}$ and average velocity $\bar{v}$ are defined as follows:

$$\bar{\omega} = \frac{\omega_0 + \omega}{2} \text{ and } \bar{v} = \frac{v_0 + v}{2}. \quad 10.20$$

The equations given above in [Table 10.2](#) can be used to solve any rotational or translational kinematics problem in which a and α are constant.

PROBLEM-SOLVING STRATEGY FOR ROTATIONAL KINEMATICS

1. *Examine the situation to determine that rotational kinematics (rotational motion) is involved.* Rotation must be involved, but without the need to consider forces or masses that affect the motion.
2. *Identify exactly what needs to be determined in the problem (identify the unknowns).* A sketch of the situation is useful.
3. *Make a list of what is given or can be inferred from the problem as stated (identify the knowns).*
4. *Solve the appropriate equation or equations for the quantity to be determined (the unknown).* It can be useful to think in terms of a translational analog because by now you are familiar with such motion.
5. *Substitute the known values along with their units into the appropriate equation, and obtain numerical solutions complete with units.* Be sure to use units of radians for angles.
6. *Check your answer to see if it is reasonable: Does your answer make sense?*



EXAMPLE 10.3

Calculating the Acceleration of a Fishing Reel

A deep-sea fisherman hooks a big fish that swims away from the boat pulling the fishing line from his fishing reel. The whole system is initially at rest and the fishing line unwinds from the reel at a radius of 4.50 cm from its axis of rotation. The reel is given an angular acceleration of 110 rad/s^2 for 2.00 s as seen in [Figure 10.7](#).

(a) What is the final angular velocity of the reel?

- (b) At what speed is fishing line leaving the reel after 2.00 s elapses?
- (c) How many revolutions does the reel make?
- (d) How many meters of fishing line come off the reel in this time?

Strategy

In each part of this example, the strategy is the same as it was for solving problems in linear kinematics. In particular, known values are identified and a relationship is then sought that can be used to solve for the unknown.

Solution for (a)

Here α and t are given and ω needs to be determined. The most straightforward equation to use is $\omega = \omega_0 + \alpha t$ because the unknown is already on one side and all other terms are known. That equation states that

$$\omega = \omega_0 + \alpha t. \quad 10.21$$

We are also given that $\omega_0 = 0$ (it starts from rest), so that

$$\omega = 0 + (110 \text{ rad/s}^2)(2.00 \text{ s}) = 220 \text{ rad/s}. \quad 10.22$$

Solution for (b)

Now that ω is known, the speed v can most easily be found using the relationship

$$v = r\omega, \quad 10.23$$

where the radius r of the reel is given to be 4.50 cm; thus,

$$v = (0.0450 \text{ m})(220 \text{ rad/s}) = 9.90 \text{ m/s}. \quad 10.24$$

Note again that radians must always be used in any calculation relating linear and angular quantities. Also, because radians are dimensionless, we have $\text{m} \times \text{rad} = \text{m}$.

Solution for (c)

Here, we are asked to find the number of revolutions. Because $1 \text{ rev} = 2\pi \text{ rad}$, we can find the number of revolutions by finding θ in radians. We are given α and t , and we know ω_0 is zero, so that θ can be obtained using $\theta = \omega_0 t + \frac{1}{2}\alpha t^2$.

$$\begin{aligned} \theta &= \omega_0 t + \frac{1}{2}\alpha t^2 \\ &= 0 + (0.500)(110 \text{ rad/s}^2)(2.00 \text{ s})^2 = 220 \text{ rad}. \end{aligned} \quad 10.25$$

Converting radians to revolutions gives

$$\theta = (220 \text{ rad}) \frac{1 \text{ rev}}{2\pi \text{ rad}} = 35.0 \text{ rev}. \quad 10.26$$

Solution for (d)

The number of meters of fishing line is x , which can be obtained through its relationship with θ :

$$x = r\theta = (0.0450 \text{ m})(220 \text{ rad}) = 9.90 \text{ m}. \quad 10.27$$

Discussion

This example illustrates that relationships among rotational quantities are highly analogous to those among linear quantities. We also see in this example how linear and rotational quantities are connected. The answers to the questions are realistic. After unwinding for two seconds, the reel is found to spin at 220 rad/s, which is 2100 rpm. (No wonder reels sometimes make high-pitched sounds.) The amount of fishing line played out is 9.90 m, about right for when the big fish bites.

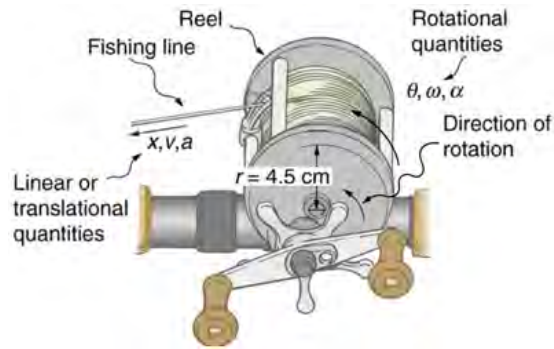


FIGURE 10.7 Fishing line coming off a rotating reel moves linearly. [Example 10.3](#) and [Example 10.4](#) consider relationships between rotational and linear quantities associated with a fishing reel.

EXAMPLE 10.4

Calculating the Duration When the Fishing Reel Slows Down and Stops

Now let us consider what happens if the fisherman applies a brake to the spinning reel, achieving an angular acceleration of -300 rad/s^2 . How long does it take the reel to come to a stop?

Strategy

We are asked to find the time t for the reel to come to a stop. The initial and final conditions are different from those in the previous problem, which involved the same fishing reel. Now we see that the initial angular velocity is $\omega_0 = 220 \text{ rad/s}$ and the final angular velocity ω is zero. The angular acceleration is given to be $\alpha = -300 \text{ rad/s}^2$. Examining the available equations, we see all quantities but t are known in $\omega = \omega_0 + \alpha t$, making it easiest to use this equation.

Solution

The equation states

$$\omega = \omega_0 + \alpha t. \quad 10.28$$

We solve the equation algebraically for t , and then substitute the known values as usual, yielding

$$t = \frac{\omega - \omega_0}{\alpha} = \frac{0 - 220 \text{ rad/s}}{-300 \text{ rad/s}^2} = 0.733 \text{ s}. \quad 10.29$$

Discussion

Note that care must be taken with the signs that indicate the directions of various quantities. Also, note that the time to stop the reel is fairly small because the acceleration is rather large. Fishing lines sometimes snap because of the accelerations involved, and fishermen often let the fish swim for a while before applying brakes on the reel. A tired fish will be slower, requiring a smaller acceleration.

EXAMPLE 10.5

Calculating the Slow Acceleration of Trains and Their Wheels

Large freight trains accelerate very slowly. Suppose one such train accelerates from rest, giving its 0.350-m-radius wheels an angular acceleration of 0.250 rad/s^2 . After the wheels have made 200 revolutions (assume no slippage): (a) How far has the train moved down the track? (b) What are the final angular velocity of the wheels and the linear velocity of the train?

Strategy

In part (a), we are asked to find x , and in (b) we are asked to find ω and v . We are given the number of revolutions θ ,

the radius of the wheels r , and the angular acceleration α .

Solution for (a)

The distance x is very easily found from the relationship between distance and rotation angle:

$$\theta = \frac{x}{r}. \quad 10.30$$

Solving this equation for x yields

$$x = r\theta. \quad 10.31$$

Before using this equation, we must convert the number of revolutions into radians, because we are dealing with a relationship between linear and rotational quantities:

$$\theta = (200 \text{ rev}) \frac{2\pi \text{ rad}}{1 \text{ rev}} = 1257 \text{ rad}. \quad 10.32$$

Now we can substitute the known values into $x = r\theta$ to find the distance the train moved down the track:

$$x = r\theta = (0.350 \text{ m})(1257 \text{ rad}) = 440 \text{ m}. \quad 10.33$$

Solution for (b)

We cannot use any equation that incorporates t to find ω , because the equation would have at least two unknown values. The equation $\omega^2 = \omega_0^2 + 2\alpha\theta$ will work, because we know the values for all variables except ω :

$$\omega^2 = \omega_0^2 + 2\alpha\theta \quad 10.34$$

Taking the square root of this equation and entering the known values gives

$$\begin{aligned} \omega &= [0 + 2(0.250 \text{ rad/s}^2)(1257 \text{ rad})]^{1/2} \\ &= 25.1 \text{ rad/s}. \end{aligned} \quad 10.35$$

We can find the linear velocity of the train, v , through its relationship to ω :

$$v = r\omega = (0.350 \text{ m})(25.1 \text{ rad/s}) = 8.77 \text{ m/s}. \quad 10.36$$

Discussion

The distance traveled is fairly large and the final velocity is fairly slow (just under 32 km/h).

There is translational motion even for something spinning in place, as the following example illustrates. [Figure 10.8](#) shows a fly on the edge of a rotating microwave oven plate. The example below calculates the total distance it travels.

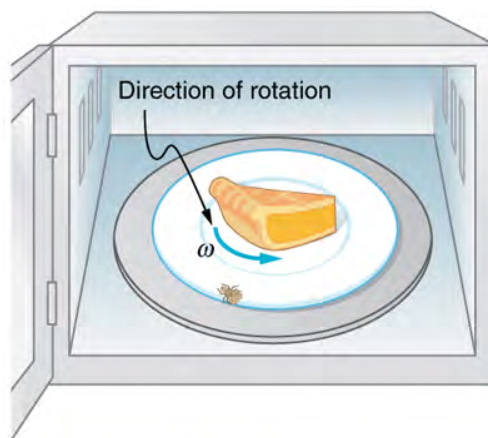


FIGURE 10.8 The image shows a microwave plate. The fly makes revolutions while the food is heated (along with the fly).



EXAMPLE 10.6

Calculating the Distance Traveled by a Fly on the Edge of a Microwave Oven Plate

A person decides to use a microwave oven to reheat some lunch. In the process, a fly accidentally flies into the microwave and lands on the outer edge of the rotating plate and remains there. If the plate has a radius of 0.15 m and rotates at 6.0 rpm, calculate the total distance traveled by the fly during a 2.0-min cooking period. (Ignore the start-up and slow-down times.)

Strategy

First, find the total number of revolutions θ , and then the linear distance x traveled. $\theta = \bar{\omega}t$ can be used to find θ because $\bar{\omega}$ is given to be 6.0 rpm.

Solution

Entering known values into $\theta = \bar{\omega}t$ gives

$$\theta = \bar{\omega}t = (6.0 \text{ rpm})(2.0 \text{ min}) = 12 \text{ rev.} \quad 10.37$$

As always, it is necessary to convert revolutions to radians before calculating a linear quantity like x from an angular quantity like θ :

$$\theta = (12 \text{ rev}) \left(\frac{2\pi \text{ rad}}{1 \text{ rev}} \right) = 75.4 \text{ rad.} \quad 10.38$$

Now, using the relationship between x and θ , we can determine the distance traveled:

$$x = r\theta = (0.15 \text{ m})(75.4 \text{ rad}) = 11 \text{ m.} \quad 10.39$$

Discussion

Quite a trip (if it survives)! Note that this distance is the total distance traveled by the fly. Displacement is actually zero for complete revolutions because they bring the fly back to its original position. The distinction between total distance traveled and displacement was first noted in [One-Dimensional Kinematics](#).



CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Rotational kinematics has many useful relationships, often expressed in equation form. Are these relationships laws of physics or are they simply descriptive? (Hint: the same question applies to linear kinematics.)

Solution

Rotational kinematics (just like linear kinematics) is descriptive and does not represent laws of nature. With kinematics, we can describe many things to great precision but kinematics does not consider causes. For example, a large angular acceleration describes a very rapid change in angular velocity without any consideration of its cause.

10.3 Dynamics of Rotational Motion: Rotational Inertia

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Understand the relationship between force, mass and acceleration.
- Study the turning effect of force.
- Study the analogy between force and torque, mass and moment of inertia, and linear acceleration and angular acceleration.

If you have ever spun a bike wheel or pushed a merry-go-round, you know that force is needed to change angular velocity as seen in [Figure 10.9](#). In fact, your intuition is reliable in predicting many of the factors that are involved. For example, we know that a door opens slowly if we push too close to its hinges. Furthermore, we know that the more massive the door, the more slowly it opens. The first example implies that the farther the force is applied from the pivot, the greater the angular acceleration; another implication is that angular acceleration is inversely

proportional to mass. These relationships should seem very similar to the familiar relationships among force, mass, and acceleration embodied in Newton's second law of motion. There are, in fact, precise rotational analogs to both force and mass.

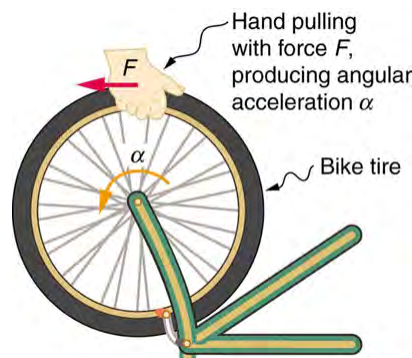


FIGURE 10.9 Force is required to spin the bike wheel. The greater the force, the greater the angular acceleration produced. The more massive the wheel, the smaller the angular acceleration. If you push on a spoke closer to the axle, the angular acceleration will be smaller.

To develop the precise relationship among force, mass, radius, and angular acceleration, consider what happens if we exert a force F on a point mass m that is at a distance r from a pivot point, as shown in Figure 10.10. Because the force is perpendicular to r , an acceleration $a = \frac{F}{m}$ is obtained in the direction of F . We can rearrange this equation such that $F = ma$ and then look for ways to relate this expression to expressions for rotational quantities. We note that $a = r\alpha$, and we substitute this expression into $F = ma$, yielding

$$F = mr\alpha. \quad 10.40$$

Recall that **torque** is the turning effectiveness of a force. In this case, because $\mathbf{F}$ is perpendicular to r , torque is simply $\tau = Fr$. So, if we multiply both sides of the equation above by r , we get torque on the left-hand side. That is,

$$rF = mr^2\alpha \quad 10.41$$

or

$$\tau = mr^2\alpha. \quad 10.42$$

This last equation is the rotational analog of Newton's second law ($F = ma$), where torque is analogous to force, angular acceleration is analogous to translational acceleration, and mr^2 is analogous to mass (or inertia). The quantity mr^2 is called the **rotational inertia** or **moment of inertia** of a point mass m a distance r from the center of rotation.

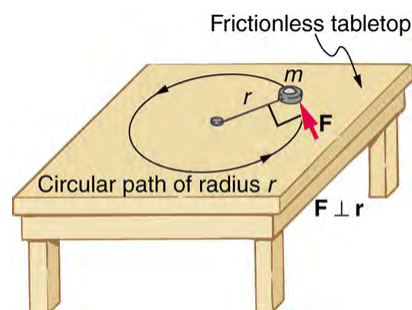


FIGURE 10.10 An object is supported by a horizontal frictionless table and is attached to a pivot point by a cord that supplies centripetal force. A force F is applied to the object perpendicular to the radius r , causing it to accelerate about the pivot point. The force is kept perpendicular to r .

MAKING CONNECTIONS: ROTATIONAL MOTION DYNAMICS

Dynamics for rotational motion is completely analogous to linear or translational dynamics. Dynamics is concerned with force and mass and their effects on motion. For rotational motion, we will find direct analogs to force and mass that behave just as we would expect from our earlier experiences.

Rotational Inertia and Moment of Inertia

Before we can consider the rotation of anything other than a point mass like the one in [Figure 10.10](#), we must extend the idea of rotational inertia to all types of objects. To expand our concept of rotational inertia, we define the **moment of inertia** I of an object to be the sum of mr^2 for all the point masses of which it is composed. That is, $I = \sum mr^2$. Here I is analogous to m in translational motion. Because of the distance r , the moment of inertia for any object depends on the chosen axis. Actually, calculating I is beyond the scope of this text except for one simple case—that of a hoop, which has all its mass at the same distance from its axis. A hoop's moment of inertia around its axis is therefore MR^2 , where M is its total mass and R its radius. (We use M and R for an entire object to distinguish them from m and r for point masses.) In all other cases, we must consult [Figure 10.11](#) (note that the table is piece of artwork that has shapes as well as formulae) for formulas for I that have been derived from integration over the continuous body. Note that I has units of mass multiplied by distance squared ($\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^2$), as we might expect from its definition.

The general relationship among torque, moment of inertia, and angular acceleration is

$$\text{net } \tau = I\alpha \quad 10.43$$

or

$$\alpha = \frac{\text{net } \tau}{I}, \quad 10.44$$

where net τ is the total torque from all forces relative to a chosen axis. For simplicity, we will only consider torques exerted by forces in the plane of the rotation. Such torques are either positive or negative and add like ordinary numbers. The relationship in $\tau = I\alpha$, $\alpha = \frac{\text{net } \tau}{I}$ is the rotational analog to Newton's second law and is very generally applicable. This equation is actually valid for *any* torque, applied to *any* object, relative to *any* axis.

As we might expect, the larger the torque is, the larger the angular acceleration is. For example, the harder a child pushes on a merry-go-round, the faster it accelerates. Furthermore, the more massive a merry-go-round, the slower it accelerates for the same torque. The basic relationship between moment of inertia and angular acceleration is that the larger the moment of inertia, the smaller is the angular acceleration. But there is an additional twist. The moment of inertia depends not only on the mass of an object, but also on its *distribution* of mass relative to the axis around which it rotates. For example, it will be much easier to accelerate a merry-go-round full of children if they stand close to its axis than if they all stand at the outer edge. The mass is the same in both cases, but the moment of inertia is much larger when the children are at the edge.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT

Cut out a circle that has about a 10 cm radius from stiff cardboard. Near the edge of the circle, write numbers 1 to 12 like hours on a clock face. Position the circle so that it can rotate freely about a horizontal axis through its center, like a wheel. (You could loosely nail the circle to a wall.) Hold the circle stationary and with the number 12 positioned at the top, attach a lump of blue putty (sticky material used for fixing posters to walls) at the number 3. How large does the lump need to be to just rotate the circle? Describe how you can change the moment of inertia of the circle. How does this change affect the amount of blue putty needed at the number 3 to just rotate the circle? Change the circle's moment of inertia and then try rotating the circle by using different amounts of blue putty. Repeat this process several times.

PROBLEM-SOLVING STRATEGY FOR ROTATIONAL DYNAMICS

1. *Examine the situation to determine that torque and mass are involved in the rotation.* Draw a careful sketch of the situation.
2. *Determine the system of interest.*
3. *Draw a free body diagram.* That is, draw and label all external forces acting on the system of interest.
4. *Apply net $\tau = I\alpha$, $\alpha = \frac{\text{net } \tau}{I}$, the rotational equivalent of Newton's second law, to solve the problem.* Care

must be taken to use the correct moment of inertia and to consider the torque about the point of rotation.

5. As always, check the solution to see if it is reasonable.

MAKING CONNECTIONS

In statics, the net torque is zero, and there is no angular acceleration. In rotational motion, net torque is the cause of angular acceleration, exactly as in Newton's second law of motion for rotation.

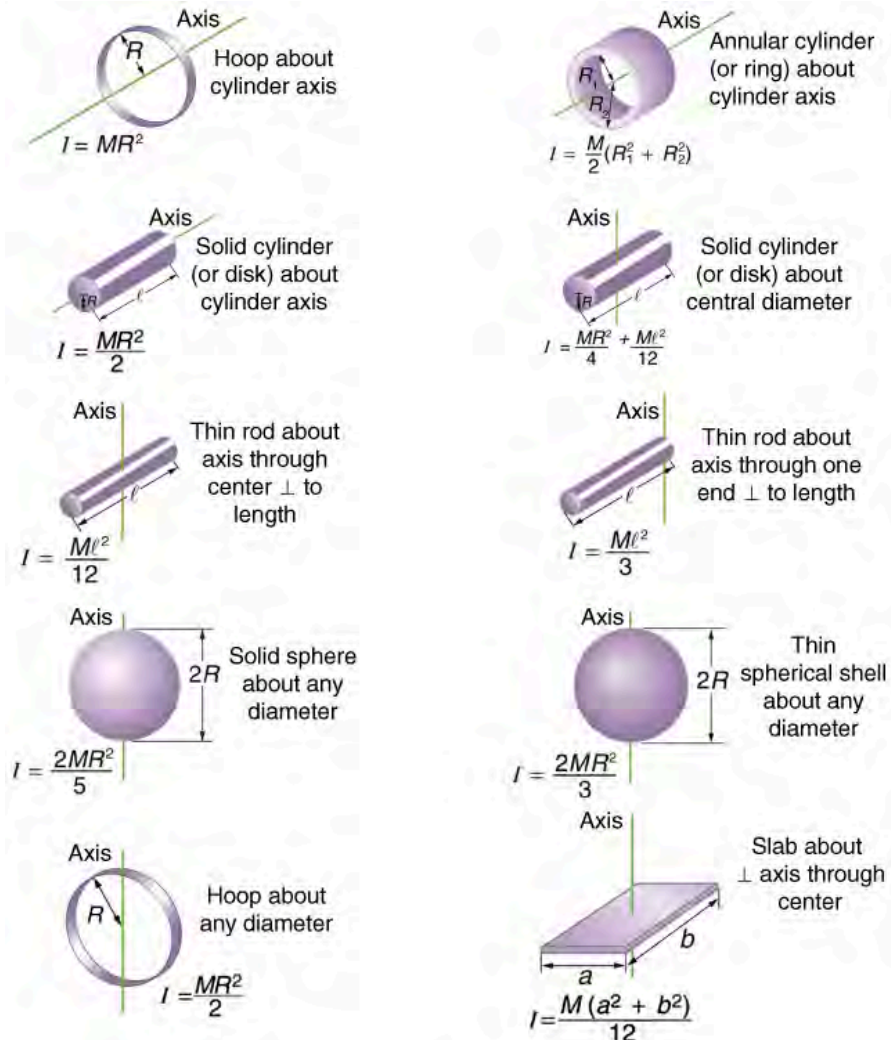


FIGURE 10.11 Some rotational inertias.

EXAMPLE 10.7

Calculating the Effect of Mass Distribution on a Merry-Go-Round

Consider the father pushing a playground merry-go-round in [Figure 10.12](#). He exerts a force of 250 N at the edge of the 50.0-kg merry-go-round, which has a 1.50 m radius. Calculate the angular acceleration produced (a) when no one is on the merry-go-round and (b) when an 18.0-kg child sits 1.25 m away from the center. Consider the merry-go-round itself to be a uniform disk with negligible retarding friction.

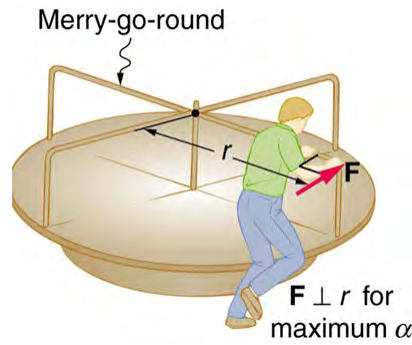


FIGURE 10.12 A father pushes a playground merry-go-round at its edge and perpendicular to its radius to achieve maximum torque.

Strategy

Angular acceleration is given directly by the expression $\alpha = \frac{\text{net } \tau}{I}$:

$$\alpha = \frac{\tau}{I}. \quad 10.45$$

To solve for α , we must first calculate the torque τ (which is the same in both cases) and moment of inertia I (which is greater in the second case). To find the torque, we note that the applied force is perpendicular to the radius and friction is negligible, so that

$$\tau = rF \sin \theta = (1.50 \text{ m})(250 \text{ N}) = 375 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}. \quad 10.46$$

Solution for (a)

The moment of inertia of a solid disk about this axis is given in [Figure 10.11](#) to be

$$\frac{1}{2}MR^2, \quad 10.47$$

where $M = 50.0 \text{ kg}$ and $R = 1.50 \text{ m}$, so that

$$I = (0.500)(50.0 \text{ kg})(1.50 \text{ m})^2 = 56.25 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2. \quad 10.48$$

Now, after we substitute the known values, we find the angular acceleration to be

$$\alpha = \frac{\tau}{I} = \frac{375 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}}{56.25 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2} = 6.67 \frac{\text{rad}}{\text{s}^2}. \quad 10.49$$

Solution for (b)

We expect the angular acceleration for the system to be less in this part, because the moment of inertia is greater when the child is on the merry-go-round. To find the total moment of inertia I , we first find the child's moment of inertia I_c by considering the child to be equivalent to a point mass at a distance of 1.25 m from the axis. Then,

$$I_c = MR^2 = (18.0 \text{ kg})(1.25 \text{ m})^2 = 28.13 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2. \quad 10.50$$

The total moment of inertia is the sum of moments of inertia of the merry-go-round and the child (about the same axis). To justify this sum to yourself, examine the definition of I :

$$I = 28.13 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2 + 56.25 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2 = 84.38 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2. \quad 10.51$$

Substituting known values into the equation for α gives

$$\alpha = \frac{\tau}{I} = \frac{375 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}}{84.38 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2} = 4.44 \frac{\text{rad}}{\text{s}^2}. \quad 10.52$$

Discussion

The angular acceleration is less when the child is on the merry-go-round than when the merry-go-round is empty, as expected. The angular accelerations found are quite large, partly due to the fact that friction was considered to be

negligible. If, for example, the father kept pushing perpendicularly for 2.00 s, he would give the merry-go-round an angular velocity of 13.3 rad/s when it is empty but only 8.89 rad/s when the child is on it. In terms of revolutions per second, these angular velocities are 2.12 rev/s and 1.41 rev/s, respectively. The father would end up running at about 50 km/h in the first case. Summer Olympics, here he comes! Confirmation of these numbers is left as an exercise for the reader.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Torque is the analog of force and moment of inertia is the analog of mass. Force and mass are physical quantities that depend on only one factor. For example, mass is related solely to the numbers of atoms of various types in an object. Are torque and moment of inertia similarly simple?

Solution

No. Torque depends on three factors: force magnitude, force direction, and point of application. Moment of inertia depends on both mass and its distribution relative to the axis of rotation. So, while the analogies are precise, these rotational quantities depend on more factors.

10.4 Rotational Kinetic Energy: Work and Energy Revisited

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Derive the equation for rotational work.
- Calculate rotational kinetic energy.
- Demonstrate the Law of Conservation of Energy.

In this module, we will learn about work and energy associated with rotational motion. [Figure 10.13](#) shows a worker using an electric grindstone propelled by a motor. Sparks are flying, and noise and vibration are created as layers of steel are pared from the pole. The stone continues to turn even after the motor is turned off, but it is eventually brought to a stop by friction. Clearly, the motor had to work to get the stone spinning. This work went into heat, light, sound, vibration, and considerable **rotational kinetic energy**.

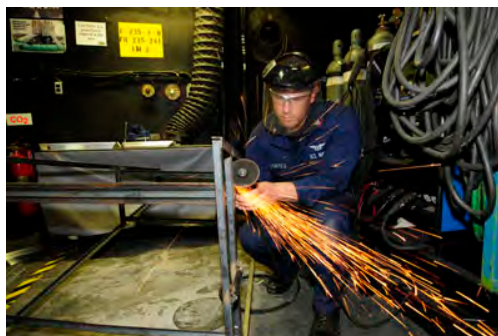


FIGURE 10.13 The motor works in spinning the grindstone, giving it rotational kinetic energy. That energy is then converted to heat, light, sound, and vibration. (credit: U.S. Navy photo by Mass Communication Specialist Seaman Zachary David Bell)

Work must be done to rotate objects such as grindstones or merry-go-rounds. Work was defined in [Uniform Circular Motion and Gravitation](#) for translational motion, and we can build on that knowledge when considering work done in rotational motion. The simplest rotational situation is one in which the net force is exerted perpendicular to the radius of a disk (as shown in [Figure 10.14](#)) and remains perpendicular as the disk starts to rotate. The force is parallel to the displacement, and so the net work done is the product of the force times the arc length traveled:

$$\text{net } W = (\text{net } F)\Delta s. \quad 10.53$$

To get torque and other rotational quantities into the equation, we multiply and divide the right-hand side of the equation by r , and gather terms:

$$\text{net } W = (r \text{ net } F) \frac{\Delta s}{r}. \quad 10.54$$

We recognize that $r \text{ net } F = \text{net } \tau$ and $\Delta s/r = \theta$, so that

$$\text{net } W = (\text{net } \tau)\theta. \quad 10.55$$

This equation is the expression for rotational work. It is very similar to the familiar definition of translational work as force multiplied by distance. Here, torque is analogous to force, and angle is analogous to distance. The equation $\text{net } W = (\text{net } \tau)\theta$ is valid in general, even though it was derived for a special case.

To get an expression for rotational kinetic energy, we must again perform some algebraic manipulations. The first step is to note that $\text{net } \tau = I\alpha$, so that

$$\text{net } W = I\alpha\theta. \quad 10.56$$

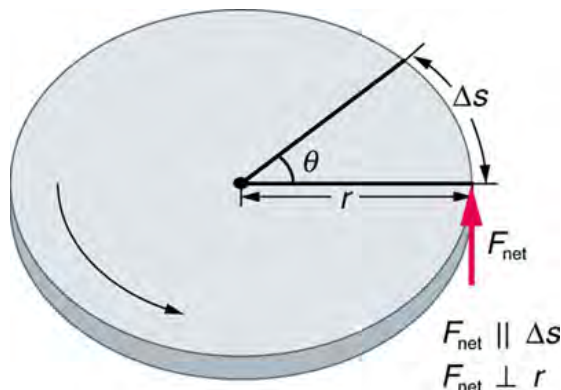


FIGURE 10.14 The net force on this disk is kept perpendicular to its radius as the force causes the disk to rotate. The net work done is thus $(\text{net } F)\Delta s$. The net work goes into rotational kinetic energy.

MAKING CONNECTIONS

Work and energy in rotational motion are completely analogous to work and energy in translational motion, first presented in [Uniform Circular Motion and Gravitation](#).

Now, we solve one of the rotational kinematics equations for $\alpha\theta$. We start with the equation

$$\omega^2 = \omega_0^2 + 2\alpha\theta. \quad 10.57$$

Next, we solve for $\alpha\theta$:

$$\alpha\theta = \frac{\omega^2 - \omega_0^2}{2}. \quad 10.58$$

Substituting this into the equation for net W and gathering terms yields

$$\text{net } W = \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2 - \frac{1}{2}I\omega_0^2. \quad 10.59$$

This equation is the **work-energy theorem** for rotational motion only. As you may recall, net work changes the kinetic energy of a system. Through an analogy with translational motion, we define the term $(\frac{1}{2})I\omega^2$ to be **rotational kinetic energy** KE_{rot} for an object with a moment of inertia I and an angular velocity ω :

$$\text{KE}_{\text{rot}} = \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2. \quad 10.60$$

The expression for rotational kinetic energy is exactly analogous to translational kinetic energy, with I being analogous to m and ω to v . Rotational kinetic energy has important effects. Flywheels, for example, can be used to store large amounts of rotational kinetic energy in a vehicle, as seen in [Figure 10.15](#).



FIGURE 10.15 Experimental vehicles, such as this bus, have been constructed in which rotational kinetic energy is stored in a large flywheel. When the bus goes down a hill, its transmission converts its gravitational potential energy into KE_{rot} . It can also convert translational kinetic energy, when the bus stops, into KE_{rot} . The flywheel's energy can then be used to accelerate, to go up another hill, or to keep the bus from slowing down due to friction.



EXAMPLE 10.8

Calculating the Work and Energy for Spinning a Grindstone

Consider a person who spins a large grindstone by placing her hand on its edge and exerting a force through part of a revolution as shown in [Figure 10.16](#). In this example, we verify that the work done by the torque she exerts equals the change in rotational energy. (a) How much work is done if she exerts a force of 200 N through a rotation of 1.00 rad (57.3°)? The force is kept perpendicular to the grindstone's 0.320-m radius at the point of application, and the effects of friction are negligible. (b) What is the final angular velocity if the grindstone has a mass of 85.0 kg? (c) What is the final rotational kinetic energy? (It should equal the work.)

Strategy

To find the work, we can use the equation $\text{net } W = (\text{net } \tau)\theta$. We have enough information to calculate the torque and are given the rotation angle. In the second part, we can find the final angular velocity using one of the kinematic relationships. In the last part, we can calculate the rotational kinetic energy from its expression in $KE_{\text{rot}} = \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2$.

Solution for (a)

The net work is expressed in the equation

$$\text{net } W = (\text{net } \tau)\theta, \quad 10.61$$

where $\text{net } \tau$ is the applied force multiplied by the radius (rF) because there is no retarding friction, and the force is perpendicular to r . The angle θ is given. Substituting the given values in the equation above yields

$$\begin{aligned} \text{net } W &= rF\theta = (0.320 \text{ m})(200 \text{ N})(1.00 \text{ rad}) \\ &= 64.0 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}. \end{aligned} \quad 10.62$$

Noting that $1 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m} = 1 \text{ J}$,

$$\text{net } W = 64.0 \text{ J}. \quad 10.63$$

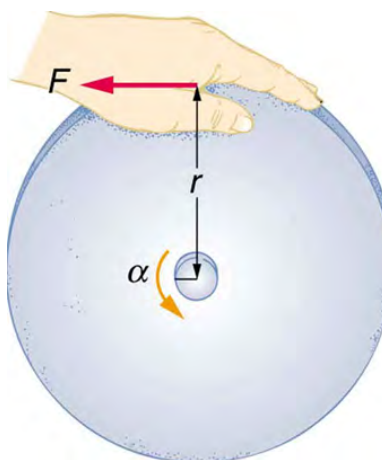


FIGURE 10.16 A large grindstone is given a spin by a person grasping its outer edge.

Solution for (b)

To find ω from the given information requires more than one step. We start with the kinematic relationship in the equation

$$\omega^2 = \omega_0^2 + 2\alpha\theta. \quad 10.64$$

Note that $\omega_0 = 0$ because we start from rest. Taking the square root of the resulting equation gives

$$\omega = (2\alpha\theta)^{1/2}. \quad 10.65$$

Now we need to find α . One possibility is

$$\alpha = \frac{\text{net } \tau}{I}, \quad 10.66$$

where the torque is

$$\text{net } \tau = rF = (0.320 \text{ m})(200 \text{ N}) = 64.0 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}. \quad 10.67$$

The formula for the moment of inertia for a disk is found in [Figure 10.11](#):

$$I = \frac{1}{2}MR^2 = 0.5(85.0 \text{ kg})(0.320 \text{ m})^2 = 4.352 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2. \quad 10.68$$

Substituting the values of torque and moment of inertia into the expression for α , we obtain

$$\alpha = \frac{64.0 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}}{4.352 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2} = 14.7 \frac{\text{rad}}{\text{s}^2}. \quad 10.69$$

Now, substitute this value and the given value for θ into the above expression for ω :

$$\omega = (2\alpha\theta)^{1/2} = \left[2 \left(14.7 \frac{\text{rad}}{\text{s}^2} \right) (1.00 \text{ rad}) \right]^{1/2} = 5.42 \frac{\text{rad}}{\text{s}}. \quad 10.70$$

Solution for (c)

The final rotational kinetic energy is

$$\text{KE}_{\text{rot}} = \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2. \quad 10.71$$

Both I and ω were found above. Thus,

$$\text{KE}_{\text{rot}} = (0.5)(4.352 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2)(5.42 \text{ rad/s})^2 = 64.0 \text{ J}. \quad 10.72$$

Discussion

The final rotational kinetic energy equals the work done by the torque, which confirms that the work done went into rotational kinetic energy. We could, in fact, have used an expression for energy instead of a kinematic relation to solve part (b). We will do this in later examples.

Helicopter pilots are quite familiar with rotational kinetic energy. They know, for example, that a point of no return will be reached if they allow their blades to slow below a critical angular velocity during flight. The blades lose lift, and it is impossible to immediately get the blades spinning fast enough to regain it. Rotational kinetic energy must be supplied to the blades to get them to rotate faster, and enough energy cannot be supplied in time to avoid a crash. Because of weight limitations, helicopter engines are too small to supply both the energy needed for lift and to replenish the rotational kinetic energy of the blades once they have slowed down. The rotational kinetic energy is put into them before takeoff and must not be allowed to drop below this crucial level. One possible way to avoid a crash is to use the gravitational potential energy of the helicopter to replenish the rotational kinetic energy of the blades by losing altitude and aligning the blades so that the helicopter is spun up in the descent. Of course, if the helicopter's altitude is too low, then there is insufficient time for the blade to regain lift before reaching the ground.

PROBLEM-SOLVING STRATEGY FOR ROTATIONAL ENERGY

1. Determine that energy or work is involved in the rotation.
2. Determine the system of interest. A sketch usually helps.
3. Analyze the situation to determine the types of work and energy involved.
4. For closed systems, mechanical energy is conserved. That is, $KE_i + PE_i = KE_f + PE_f$. Note that KE_i and KE_f may each include translational and rotational contributions.
5. For open systems, mechanical energy may not be conserved, and other forms of energy (referred to previously as *OE*), such as heat transfer, may enter or leave the system. Determine what they are, and calculate them as necessary.
6. Eliminate terms wherever possible to simplify the algebra.
7. Check the answer to see if it is reasonable.



EXAMPLE 10.9

Calculating Helicopter Energies

A typical small rescue helicopter, similar to the one in [Figure 10.17](#), has four blades, each is 4.00 m long and has a mass of 50.0 kg. The blades can be approximated as thin rods that rotate about one end of an axis perpendicular to their length. The helicopter has a total loaded mass of 1000 kg. (a) Calculate the rotational kinetic energy in the blades when they rotate at 300 rpm. (b) Calculate the translational kinetic energy of the helicopter when it flies at 20.0 m/s, and compare it with the rotational energy in the blades. (c) To what height could the helicopter be raised if all of the rotational kinetic energy could be used to lift it?

Strategy

Rotational and translational kinetic energies can be calculated from their definitions. The last part of the problem relates to the idea that energy can change form, in this case from rotational kinetic energy to gravitational potential energy.

Solution for (a)

The rotational kinetic energy is

$$KE_{\text{rot}} = \frac{1}{2} I \omega^2. \quad 10.73$$

We must convert the angular velocity to radians per second and calculate the moment of inertia before we can find KE_{rot} . The angular velocity ω is

$$\omega = \frac{300 \text{ rev}}{1.00 \text{ min}} \cdot \frac{2\pi \text{ rad}}{1 \text{ rev}} \cdot \frac{1.00 \text{ min}}{60.0 \text{ s}} = 31.4 \frac{\text{rad}}{\text{s}}. \quad 10.74$$

The moment of inertia of one blade will be that of a thin rod rotated about its end, found in [Figure 10.11](#). The total I is four times this moment of inertia, because there are four blades. Thus,

$$I = 4 \frac{M\ell^2}{3} = 4 \times \frac{(50.0 \text{ kg})(4.00 \text{ m})^2}{3} = 1067 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2. \quad 10.75$$

Entering ω and I into the expression for rotational kinetic energy gives

$$\begin{aligned} KE_{\text{rot}} &= 0.5(1067 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2)(31.4 \text{ rad/s})^2 \\ &= 5.26 \times 10^5 \text{ J} \end{aligned} \quad 10.76$$

Solution for (b)

Translational kinetic energy was defined in [Uniform Circular Motion and Gravitation](#). Entering the given values of mass and velocity, we obtain

$$KE_{\text{trans}} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = (0.5)(1000 \text{ kg})(20.0 \text{ m/s})^2 = 2.00 \times 10^5 \text{ J}. \quad 10.77$$

To compare kinetic energies, we take the ratio of translational kinetic energy to rotational kinetic energy. This ratio is

$$\frac{2.00 \times 10^5 \text{ J}}{5.26 \times 10^5 \text{ J}} = 0.380. \quad 10.78$$

Solution for (c)

At the maximum height, all rotational kinetic energy will have been converted to gravitational energy. To find this height, we equate those two energies:

$$KE_{\text{rot}} = PE_{\text{grav}} \quad 10.79$$

or

$$\frac{1}{2}I\omega^2 = mgh. \quad 10.80$$

We now solve for h and substitute known values into the resulting equation

$$h = \frac{\frac{1}{2}I\omega^2}{mg} = \frac{5.26 \times 10^5 \text{ J}}{(1000 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)} = 53.7 \text{ m}. \quad 10.81$$

Discussion

The ratio of translational energy to rotational kinetic energy is only 0.380. This ratio tells us that most of the kinetic energy of the helicopter is in its spinning blades—something you probably would not suspect. The 53.7 m height to which the helicopter could be raised with the rotational kinetic energy is also impressive, again emphasizing the amount of rotational kinetic energy in the blades.

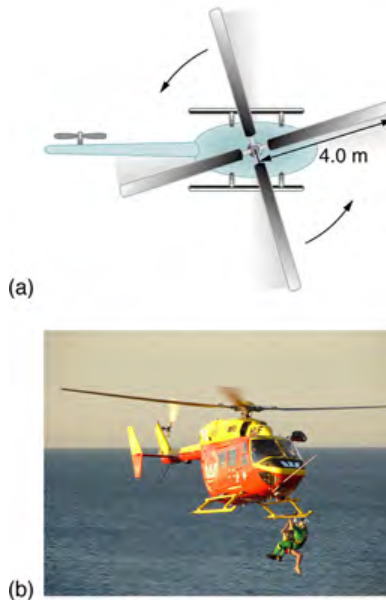


FIGURE 10.17 The first image shows how helicopters store large amounts of rotational kinetic energy in their blades. This energy must be put into the blades before takeoff and maintained until the end of the flight. The engines do not have enough power to simultaneously provide lift and put significant rotational energy into the blades. The second image shows a helicopter from the Auckland Westpac Rescue Helicopter Service. Over 50,000 lives have been saved since its operations beginning in 1973. Here, a water rescue operation is shown. (credit: 111 Emergency, Flickr)

MAKING CONNECTIONS

Conservation of energy includes rotational motion, because rotational kinetic energy is another form of KE. [Uniform Circular Motion and Gravitation](#) has a detailed treatment of conservation of energy.

How Thick Is the Soup? Or Why Don't All Objects Roll Downhill at the Same Rate?

One of the quality controls in a tomato soup factory consists of rolling filled cans down a ramp. If they roll too fast, the soup is too thin. Why should cans of identical size and mass roll down an incline at different rates? And why should the thickest soup roll the slowest?

The easiest way to answer these questions is to consider energy. Suppose each can starts down the ramp from rest. Each can starting from rest means each starts with the same gravitational potential energy PE_{grav} , which is converted entirely to KE, provided each rolls without slipping. KE, however, can take the form of KE_{trans} or KE_{rot} , and total KE is the sum of the two. If a can rolls down a ramp, it puts part of its energy into rotation, leaving less for translation. Thus, the can goes slower than it would if it slid down. Furthermore, the thin soup does not rotate, whereas the thick soup does, because it sticks to the can. The thick soup thus puts more of the can's original gravitational potential energy into rotation than the thin soup, and the can rolls more slowly, as seen in [Figure 10.18](#).

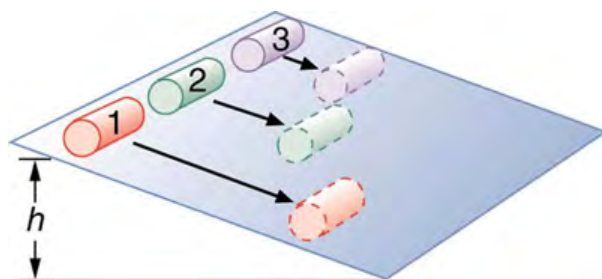


FIGURE 10.18 Three cans of soup with identical masses race down an incline. The first can has a low friction coating and does not roll but just slides down the incline. It wins because it converts its entire PE into translational KE. The second and third cans both roll down the incline without slipping. The second can contains thin soup and comes in second because part of its initial PE goes into rotating the can (but not the thin soup). The third can contains thick soup. It comes in third because the soup rotates along with the can, taking even more of the initial PE for rotational KE, leaving less for translational KE.

Assuming no losses due to friction, there is only one force doing work—gravity. Therefore the total work done is the change in kinetic energy. As the cans start moving, the potential energy is changing into kinetic energy. Conservation of energy gives

$$PE_i = KE_f. \quad 10.82$$

More specifically,

$$PE_{\text{grav}} = KE_{\text{trans}} + KE_{\text{rot}} \quad 10.83$$

or

$$mgh = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2. \quad 10.84$$

So, the initial mgh is divided between translational kinetic energy and rotational kinetic energy; and the greater I is, the less energy goes into translation. If the can slides down without friction, then $\omega = 0$ and all the energy goes into translation; thus, the can goes faster.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT

Locate several cans each containing different types of food. First, predict which can will win the race down an inclined plane and explain why. See if your prediction is correct. You could also do this experiment by collecting several empty cylindrical containers of the same size and filling them with different materials such as wet or dry sand.

**EXAMPLE 10.10****Calculating the Speed of a Cylinder Rolling Down an Incline**

Calculate the final speed of a solid cylinder that rolls down a 2.00-m-high incline. The cylinder starts from rest, has a mass of 0.750 kg, and has a radius of 4.00 cm.

Strategy

We can solve for the final velocity using conservation of energy, but we must first express rotational quantities in terms of translational quantities to end up with v as the only unknown.

Solution

Conservation of energy for this situation is written as described above:

$$mgh = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2. \quad 10.85$$

Before we can solve for v , we must get an expression for I from [Figure 10.11](#). Because v and ω are related (note here that the cylinder is rolling without slipping), we must also substitute the relationship $\omega = v/R$ into the expression. These substitutions yield

$$mgh = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{2}mR^2\right)\left(\frac{v^2}{R^2}\right). \quad 10.86$$

Interestingly, the cylinder's radius R and mass m cancel, yielding

$$gh = \frac{1}{2}v^2 + \frac{1}{4}v^2 = \frac{3}{4}v^2. \quad 10.87$$

Solving algebraically, the equation for the final velocity v gives

$$v = \left(\frac{4gh}{3}\right)^{1/2}. \quad 10.88$$

Substituting known values into the resulting expression yields

$$v = \left[\frac{4(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(2.00 \text{ m})}{3}\right]^{1/2} = 5.11 \text{ m/s}. \quad 10.89$$

Discussion

Because m and R cancel, the result $v = \left(\frac{4}{3}gh\right)^{1/2}$ is valid for any solid cylinder, implying that all solid cylinders will roll down an incline at the same rate independent of their masses and sizes. (Rolling cylinders down inclines is what Galileo actually did to show that objects fall at the same rate independent of mass.) Note that if the cylinder slid without friction down the incline without rolling, then the entire gravitational potential energy would go into translational kinetic energy. Thus, $\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = mgh$ and $v = (2gh)^{1/2}$, which is 22% greater than $(4gh/3)^{1/2}$. That is, the cylinder would go faster at the bottom.

**CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING**

Analogy of Rotational and Translational Kinetic Energy Is rotational kinetic energy completely analogous to translational kinetic energy? What, if any, are their differences? Give an example of each type of kinetic energy.

Solution

Yes, rotational and translational kinetic energy are exact analogs. They both are the energy of motion involved with the coordinated (non-random) movement of mass relative to some reference frame. The only difference between rotational and translational kinetic energy is that translational is straight line motion while rotational is not. An

example of both kinetic and translational kinetic energy is found in a bike tire while being ridden down a bike path. The rotational motion of the tire means it has rotational kinetic energy while the movement of the bike along the path means the tire also has translational kinetic energy. If you were to lift the front wheel of the bike and spin it while the bike is stationary, then the wheel would have only rotational kinetic energy relative to the Earth.

10.5 Angular Momentum and Its Conservation

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Understand the analogy between angular momentum and linear momentum.
- Observe the relationship between torque and angular momentum.
- Apply the law of conservation of angular momentum.

Why does Earth keep on spinning? What started it spinning to begin with? And how does an ice skater manage to spin faster and faster simply by pulling her arms in? Why does she not have to exert a torque to spin faster? Questions like these have answers based in angular momentum, the rotational analog to linear momentum.

By now the pattern is clear—every rotational phenomenon has a direct translational analog. It seems quite reasonable, then, to define **angular momentum** L as

$$L = I\omega. \quad 10.90$$

This equation is an analog to the definition of linear momentum as $p = mv$. Units for linear momentum are $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$ while units for angular momentum are $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}$. As we would expect, an object that has a large moment of inertia I , such as Earth, has a very large angular momentum. An object that has a large angular velocity ω , such as a centrifuge, also has a rather large angular momentum.

MAKING CONNECTIONS

Angular momentum is completely analogous to linear momentum, first presented in [Uniform Circular Motion and Gravitation](#). It has the same implications in terms of carrying rotation forward, and it is conserved when the net external torque is zero. Angular momentum, like linear momentum, is also a property of the atoms and subatomic particles.



EXAMPLE 10.11

Calculating Angular Momentum of the Earth

Strategy

No information is given in the statement of the problem; so we must look up pertinent data before we can calculate $L = I\omega$. First, according to [Figure 10.11](#), the formula for the moment of inertia of a sphere is

$$I = \frac{2MR^2}{5} \quad 10.91$$

so that

$$L = I\omega = \frac{2MR^2\omega}{5}. \quad 10.92$$

Earth's mass M is 5.979×10^{24} kg and its radius R is 6.376×10^6 m. The Earth's angular velocity ω is, of course, exactly one revolution per day, but we must convert ω to radians per second to do the calculation in SI units.

Solution

Substituting known information into the expression for L and converting ω to radians per second gives

$$\begin{aligned}
 L &= 0.4(5.979 \times 10^{24} \text{ kg})(6.376 \times 10^6 \text{ m})^2 \left(\frac{1 \text{ rev}}{\text{d}} \right) \\
 &= 9.72 \times 10^{37} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2 \cdot \text{rev/d}.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{10.93}$$

Substituting 2π rad for 1 rev and 8.64×10^4 s for 1 day gives

$$\begin{aligned}
 L &= (9.72 \times 10^{37} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2) \left(\frac{2\pi \text{ rad/rev}}{8.64 \times 10^4 \text{ s/d}} \right) (1 \text{ rev/d}) \\
 &= 7.07 \times 10^{33} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{10.94}$$

Discussion

This number is large, demonstrating that Earth, as expected, has a tremendous angular momentum. The answer is approximate, because we have assumed a constant density for Earth in order to estimate its moment of inertia.

When you push a merry-go-round, spin a bike wheel, or open a door, you exert a torque. If the torque you exert is greater than opposing torques, then the rotation accelerates, and angular momentum increases. The greater the net torque, the more rapid the increase in L . The relationship between torque and angular momentum is

$$\text{net } \tau = \frac{\Delta L}{\Delta t}. \tag{10.95}$$

This expression is exactly analogous to the relationship between force and linear momentum, $F = \Delta p / \Delta t$. The equation $\text{net } \tau = \frac{\Delta L}{\Delta t}$ is very fundamental and broadly applicable. It is, in fact, the rotational form of Newton's second law.



EXAMPLE 10.12

Calculating the Torque Putting Angular Momentum Into a Rotating Food Tray

Figure 10.19 shows a rotating food tray, often called a lazy Susan, being turned by a person in quest of sustenance. Suppose the person exerts a 2.50 N force perpendicular to the lazy Susan's 0.260-m radius for 0.150 s. (a) What is the final angular momentum of the lazy Susan if it starts from rest, assuming friction is negligible? (b) What is the final angular velocity of the lazy Susan, given that its mass is 4.00 kg and assuming its moment of inertia is that of a disk?

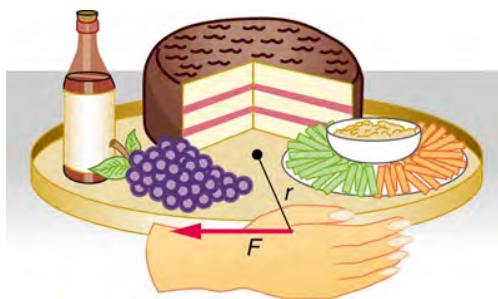


FIGURE 10.19 A partygoer exerts a torque on a lazy Susan to make it rotate. The equation $\text{net } \tau = \frac{\Delta L}{\Delta t}$ gives the relationship between torque and the angular momentum produced.

Strategy

We can find the angular momentum by solving $\text{net } \tau = \frac{\Delta L}{\Delta t}$ for ΔL , and using the given information to calculate the torque. The final angular momentum equals the change in angular momentum, because the lazy Susan starts from rest. That is, $\Delta L = L$. To find the final velocity, we must calculate ω from the definition of L in $L = I\omega$.

Solution for (a)

Solving $\text{net } \tau = \frac{\Delta L}{\Delta t}$ for ΔL gives

$$\Delta L = (\text{net } \tau) \Delta t. \tag{10.96}$$

Because the force is perpendicular to r , we see that net $\tau = rF$, so that

$$\begin{aligned} L &= rF\Delta t = (0.260 \text{ m})(2.50 \text{ N})(0.150 \text{ s}) \\ &= 9.75 \times 10^{-2} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}. \end{aligned} \quad 10.97$$

Solution for (b)

The final angular velocity can be calculated from the definition of angular momentum,

$$L = I\omega. \quad 10.98$$

Solving for ω and substituting the formula for the moment of inertia of a disk into the resulting equation gives

$$\omega = \frac{L}{I} = \frac{L}{\frac{1}{2}MR^2}. \quad 10.99$$

And substituting known values into the preceding equation yields

$$\omega = \frac{9.75 \times 10^{-2} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}}{(0.500)(4.00 \text{ kg})(0.260 \text{ m})^2} = 0.721 \text{ rad/s}. \quad 10.100$$

Discussion

Note that the imparted angular momentum does not depend on any property of the object but only on torque and time. The final angular velocity is equivalent to one revolution in 8.71 s (determination of the time period is left as an exercise for the reader), which is about right for a lazy Susan.



EXAMPLE 10.13

Calculating the Torque in a Kick

The person whose leg is shown in [Figure 10.20](#) kicks his leg by exerting a 2000-N force with his upper leg muscle. The effective perpendicular lever arm is 2.20 cm. Given the moment of inertia of the lower leg is $1.25 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2$, (a) find the angular acceleration of the leg. (b) Neglecting the gravitational force, what is the rotational kinetic energy of the leg after it has rotated through 57.3° (1.00 rad)?

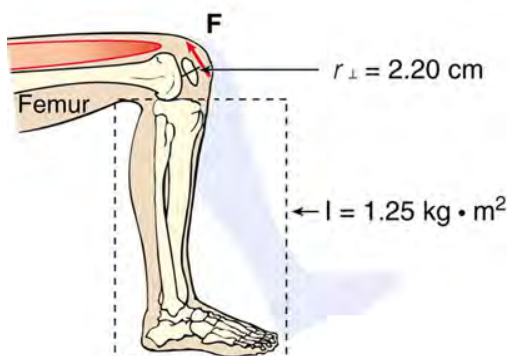


FIGURE 10.20 The muscle in the upper leg gives the lower leg an angular acceleration and imparts rotational kinetic energy to it by exerting a torque about the knee. $\mathbf{F}$ is a vector that is perpendicular to r . This example examines the situation.

Strategy

The angular acceleration can be found using the rotational analog to Newton's second law, or $\alpha = \text{net } \tau/I$. The moment of inertia I is given and the torque can be found easily from the given force and perpendicular lever arm. Once the angular acceleration α is known, the final angular velocity and rotational kinetic energy can be calculated.

Solution to (a)

From the rotational analog to Newton's second law, the angular acceleration α is

$$\alpha = \frac{\text{net } \tau}{I}. \quad 10.101$$

Because the force and the perpendicular lever arm are given and the leg is vertical so that its weight does not create a torque, the net torque is thus

$$\begin{aligned} \text{net } \tau &= r_{\perp} F \\ &= (0.0220 \text{ m})(2000 \text{ N}) \\ &= 44.0 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}. \end{aligned} \quad 10.102$$

Substituting this value for the torque and the given value for the moment of inertia into the expression for α gives

$$\alpha = \frac{44.0 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}}{1.25 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2} = 35.2 \text{ rad/s}^2. \quad 10.103$$

Solution to (b)

The final angular velocity can be calculated from the kinematic expression

$$\omega^2 = \omega_0^2 + 2\alpha\theta \quad 10.104$$

or

$$\omega^2 = 2\alpha\theta \quad 10.105$$

because the initial angular velocity is zero. The kinetic energy of rotation is

$$\text{KE}_{\text{rot}} = \frac{1}{2} I \omega^2 \quad 10.106$$

so it is most convenient to use the value of ω^2 just found and the given value for the moment of inertia. The kinetic energy is then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{KE}_{\text{rot}} &= 0.5(1.25 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2)(70.4 \text{ rad}^2/\text{s}^2) \\ &= 44.0 \text{ J} \end{aligned} \quad 10.107$$

Discussion

These values are reasonable for a person kicking his leg starting from the position shown. The weight of the leg can be neglected in part (a) because it exerts no torque when the center of gravity of the lower leg is directly beneath the pivot in the knee. In part (b), the force exerted by the upper leg is so large that its torque is much greater than that created by the weight of the lower leg as it rotates. The rotational kinetic energy given to the lower leg is enough that it could give a ball a significant velocity by transferring some of this energy in a kick.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: CONSERVATION LAWS

Angular momentum, like energy and linear momentum, is conserved. This universally applicable law is another sign of underlying unity in physical laws. Angular momentum is conserved when net external torque is zero, just as linear momentum is conserved when the net external force is zero.

Conservation of Angular Momentum

We can now understand why Earth keeps on spinning. As we saw in the previous example, $\Delta L = (\text{net } \tau)\Delta t$. This equation means that, to change angular momentum, a torque must act over some period of time. Because Earth has a large angular momentum, a large torque acting over a long time is needed to change its rate of spin. So what external torques are there? Tidal friction exerts torque that is slowing Earth's rotation, but tens of millions of years must pass before the change is very significant. Recent research indicates the length of the day was 18 h some 900 million years ago. Only the tides exert significant retarding torques on Earth, and so it will continue to spin, although ever more slowly, for many billions of years.

What we have here is, in fact, another conservation law. If the net torque is *zero*, then angular momentum is constant or *conserved*. We can see this rigorously by considering $\text{net } \tau = \frac{\Delta L}{\Delta t}$ for the situation in which the net torque is zero. In that case,

$$\text{net } \tau = 0 \quad 10.108$$

implying that

$$\frac{\Delta L}{\Delta t} = 0. \quad 10.109$$

If the change in angular momentum ΔL is zero, then the angular momentum is constant; thus,

$$L = \text{constant (net } \tau = 0) \quad 10.110$$

or

$$L = L' (\text{net } \tau = 0). \quad 10.111$$

These expressions are the **law of conservation of angular momentum**. Conservation laws are as scarce as they are important.

An example of conservation of angular momentum is seen in [Figure 10.21](#), in which an ice skater is executing a spin. The net torque on her is very close to zero, because there is relatively little friction between her skates and the ice and because the friction is exerted very close to the pivot point. (Both F and r are small, and so τ is negligibly small.) Consequently, she can spin for quite some time. She can do something else, too. She can increase her rate of spin by pulling her arms and legs in. Why does pulling her arms and legs in increase her rate of spin? The answer is that her angular momentum is constant, so that

$$L = L'. \quad 10.112$$

Expressing this equation in terms of the moment of inertia,

$$I\omega = I'\omega', \quad 10.113$$

where the primed quantities refer to conditions after she has pulled in her arms and reduced her moment of inertia. Because I' is smaller, the angular velocity ω' must increase to keep the angular momentum constant. The change can be dramatic, as the following example shows.

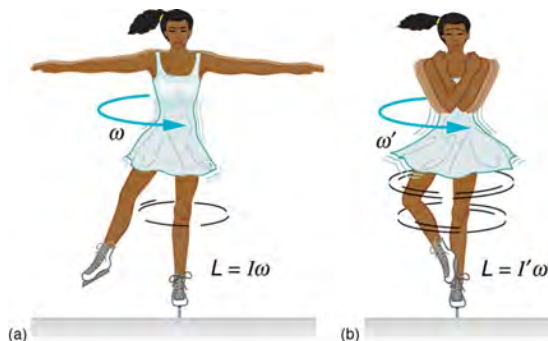


FIGURE 10.21 (a) An ice skater is spinning on the tip of her skate with her arms extended. Her angular momentum is conserved because the net torque on her is negligibly small. In the next image, her rate of spin increases greatly when she pulls in her arms, decreasing her moment of inertia. The work she does to pull in her arms results in an increase in rotational kinetic energy.



EXAMPLE 10.14

Calculating the Angular Momentum of a Spinning Skater

Suppose an ice skater, such as the one in [Figure 10.21](#), is spinning at 0.800 rev/s with her arms extended. She has a moment of inertia of $2.34 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2$ with her arms extended and of $0.363 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2$ with her arms close to her body. (These moments of inertia are based on reasonable assumptions about a 60.0-kg skater.) (a) What is her angular velocity in revolutions per second after she pulls in her arms? (b) What is her rotational kinetic energy before and after she does this?

Strategy

In the first part of the problem, we are looking for the skater's angular velocity ω' after she has pulled in her arms. To find this quantity, we use the conservation of angular momentum and note that the moments of inertia and initial angular velocity are given. To find the initial and final kinetic energies, we use the definition of rotational kinetic energy given by

$$KE_{\text{rot}} = \frac{1}{2} I \omega^2. \quad 10.114$$

Solution for (a)

Because torque is negligible (as discussed above), the conservation of angular momentum given in $I\omega = I'\omega'$ is applicable. Thus,

$$L = L' \quad 10.115$$

or

$$I\omega = I'\omega' \quad 10.116$$

Solving for ω' and substituting known values into the resulting equation gives

$$\begin{aligned} \omega' &= \frac{I}{I'} \omega = \left(\frac{2.34 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2}{0.363 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2} \right) (0.800 \text{ rev/s}) \\ &= 5.16 \text{ rev/s}. \end{aligned} \quad 10.117$$

Solution for (b)

Rotational kinetic energy is given by

$$KE_{\text{rot}} = \frac{1}{2} I \omega^2. \quad 10.118$$

The initial value is found by substituting known values into the equation and converting the angular velocity to rad/s:

$$\begin{aligned} KE_{\text{rot}} &= (0.5)(2.34 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2)((0.800 \text{ rev/s})(2\pi \text{ rad/rev}))^2 \\ &= 29.6 \text{ J}. \end{aligned} \quad 10.119$$

The final rotational kinetic energy is

$$KE_{\text{rot}}' = \frac{1}{2} I' \omega'^2. \quad 10.120$$

Substituting known values into this equation gives

$$\begin{aligned} KE_{\text{rot}}' &= (0.5)(0.363 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2)[(5.16 \text{ rev/s})(2\pi \text{ rad/rev})]^2 \\ &= 191 \text{ J}. \end{aligned} \quad 10.121$$

Discussion

In both parts, there is an impressive increase. First, the final angular velocity is large, although most world-class skaters can achieve spin rates about this great. Second, the final kinetic energy is much greater than the initial kinetic energy. The increase in rotational kinetic energy comes from work done by the skater in pulling in her arms. This work is internal work that depletes some of the skater's food energy.

There are several other examples of objects that increase their rate of spin because something reduced their moment of inertia. Tornadoes are one example. Storm systems that create tornadoes are slowly rotating. When the radius of rotation narrows, even in a local region, angular velocity increases, sometimes to the furious level of a tornado. Earth is another example. Our planet was born from a huge cloud of gas and dust, the rotation of which came from turbulence in an even larger cloud. Gravitational forces caused the cloud to contract, and the rotation rate increased as a result. (See [Figure 10.22](#).)

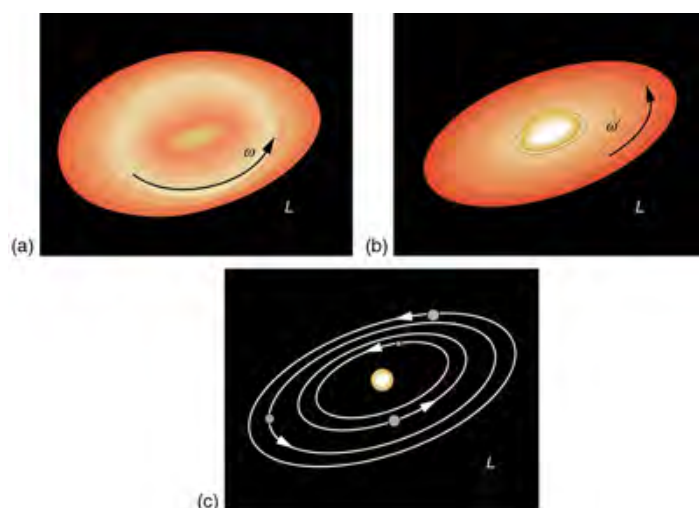


FIGURE 10.22 The Solar System coalesced from a cloud of gas and dust that was originally rotating. The orbital motions and spins of the planets are in the same direction as the original spin and conserve the angular momentum of the parent cloud.

In case of human motion, one would not expect angular momentum to be conserved when a body interacts with the environment as its foot pushes off the ground. Astronauts floating in space aboard the International Space Station have no angular momentum relative to the inside of the ship if they are motionless. Their bodies will continue to have this zero value no matter how they twist about as long as they do not give themselves a push off the side of the vessel.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Is angular momentum completely analogous to linear momentum? What, if any, are their differences?

Solution

Yes, angular and linear momentums are completely analogous. While they are exact analogs they have different units and are not directly inter-convertible like forms of energy are.

10.6 Collisions of Extended Bodies in Two Dimensions

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Observe collisions of extended bodies in two dimensions.
- Examine collision at the point of percussion.

Bowling pins are sent flying and spinning when hit by a bowling ball—angular momentum as well as linear momentum and energy have been imparted to the pins. (See [Figure 10.23](#)). Many collisions involve angular momentum. Cars, for example, may spin and collide on ice or a wet surface. Baseball pitchers throw curves by putting spin on the baseball. A tennis player can put a lot of top spin on the tennis ball which causes it to dive down onto the court once it crosses the net. We now take a brief look at what happens when objects that can rotate collide.

Consider the relatively simple collision shown in [Figure 10.24](#), in which a disk strikes and adheres to an initially motionless stick nailed at one end to a frictionless surface. After the collision, the two rotate about the nail. There is an unbalanced external force on the system at the nail. This force exerts no torque because its lever arm r is zero. Angular momentum is therefore conserved in the collision. Kinetic energy is not conserved, because the collision is inelastic. It is possible that momentum is not conserved either because the force at the nail may have a component in the direction of the disk's initial velocity. Let us examine a case of rotation in a collision in [Example 10.15](#).



FIGURE 10.23 The bowling ball causes the pins to fly, some of them spinning violently. (credit: Tinou Bao, Flickr)

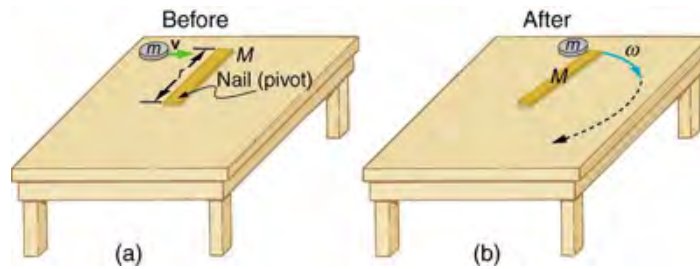


FIGURE 10.24 (a) A disk slides toward a motionless stick on a frictionless surface. (b) The disk hits the stick at one end and adheres to it, and they rotate together, pivoting around the nail. Angular momentum is conserved for this inelastic collision because the surface is frictionless and the unbalanced external force at the nail exerts no torque.



EXAMPLE 10.15

Rotation in a Collision

Suppose the disk in [Figure 10.24](#) has a mass of 50.0 g and an initial velocity of 30.0 m/s when it strikes the stick that is 1.20 m long and 2.00 kg.

- What is the angular velocity of the two after the collision?
- What is the kinetic energy before and after the collision?
- What is the total linear momentum before and after the collision?

Strategy for (a)

We can answer the first question using conservation of angular momentum as noted. Because angular momentum is $I\omega$, we can solve for angular velocity.

Solution for (a)

Conservation of angular momentum states

$$L = L', \quad 10.122$$

where primed quantities stand for conditions after the collision and both momenta are calculated relative to the pivot point. The initial angular momentum of the system of stick-disk is that of the disk just before it strikes the stick. That is,

$$L = I\omega, \quad 10.123$$

where I is the moment of inertia of the disk and ω is its angular velocity around the pivot point. Now, $I = mr^2$ (taking the disk to be approximately a point mass) and $\omega = v/r$, so that

$$L = mr^2 \frac{v}{r} = mvr. \quad 10.124$$

After the collision,

$$L' = I' \omega' . \quad 10.125$$

It is ω' that we wish to find. Conservation of angular momentum gives

$$I' \omega' = mvr . \quad 10.126$$

Rearranging the equation yields

$$\omega' = \frac{mvr}{I'} , \quad 10.127$$

where I' is the moment of inertia of the stick and disk stuck together, which is the sum of their individual moments of inertia about the nail. [Figure 10.11](#) gives the formula for a rod rotating around one end to be $I = Mr^2/3$. Thus,

$$I' = mr^2 + \frac{Mr^2}{3} = \left(m + \frac{M}{3}\right)r^2 . \quad 10.128$$

Entering known values in this equation yields,

$$I' = (0.0500 \text{ kg} + 0.667 \text{ kg})(1.20 \text{ m})^2 = 1.032 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2 . \quad 10.129$$

The value of I' is now entered into the expression for ω' , which yields

$$\begin{aligned} \omega' &= \frac{mvr}{I'} = \frac{(0.0500 \text{ kg})(30.0 \text{ m/s})(1.20 \text{ m})}{1.032 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2} \\ &= 1.744 \text{ rad/s} \approx 1.74 \text{ rad/s} . \end{aligned} \quad 10.130$$

Strategy for (b)

The kinetic energy before the collision is the incoming disk's translational kinetic energy, and after the collision, it is the rotational kinetic energy of the two stuck together.

Solution for (b)

First, we calculate the translational kinetic energy by entering given values for the mass and speed of the incoming disk.

$$\text{KE} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = (0.500)(0.0500 \text{ kg})(30.0 \text{ m/s})^2 = 22.5 \text{ J} \quad 10.131$$

After the collision, the rotational kinetic energy can be found because we now know the final angular velocity and the final moment of inertia. Thus, entering the values into the rotational kinetic energy equation gives

$$\begin{aligned} \text{KE}' &= \frac{1}{2}I'\omega'^2 = (0.5)(1.032 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2)\left(1.744 \frac{\text{rad}}{\text{s}}\right)^2 \\ &= 1.57 \text{ J} . \end{aligned} \quad 10.132$$

Strategy for (c)

The linear momentum before the collision is that of the disk. After the collision, it is the sum of the disk's momentum and that of the center of mass of the stick.

Solution of (c)

Before the collision, then, linear momentum is

$$p = mv = (0.0500 \text{ kg})(30.0 \text{ m/s}) = 1.50 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s} . \quad 10.133$$

After the collision, the disk and the stick's center of mass move in the same direction. The total linear momentum is that of the disk moving at a new velocity $v' = r\omega'$ plus that of the stick's center of mass,

which moves at half this speed because $v_{\text{CM}} = \left(\frac{r}{2}\right)\omega' = \frac{v'}{2}$. Thus,

$$p' = mv' + Mv_{\text{CM}} = mv' + \frac{Mv'}{2} . \quad 10.134$$

Gathering similar terms in the equation yields,

$$p' = \left(m + \frac{M}{2} \right) v' \quad 10.135$$

so that

$$p' = \left(m + \frac{M}{2} \right) r\omega'. \quad 10.136$$

Substituting known values into the equation,

$$p' = (1.050 \text{ kg})(1.20 \text{ m})(1.744 \text{ rad/s}) = 2.20 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}. \quad 10.137$$

Discussion

First note that the kinetic energy is less after the collision, as predicted, because the collision is inelastic. More surprising is that the momentum after the collision is actually greater than before the collision. This result can be understood if you consider how the nail affects the stick and vice versa. Apparently, the stick pushes backward on the nail when first struck by the disk. The nail's reaction (consistent with Newton's third law) is to push forward on the stick, imparting momentum to it in the same direction in which the disk was initially moving, thereby increasing the momentum of the system.

The above example has other implications. For example, what would happen if the disk hit very close to the nail? Obviously, a force would be exerted on the nail in the forward direction. So, when the stick is struck at the end farthest from the nail, a backward force is exerted on the nail, and when it is hit at the end nearest the nail, a forward force is exerted on the nail. Thus, striking it at a certain point in between produces no force on the nail. This intermediate point is known as the *percussion point*.

An analogous situation occurs in tennis as seen in [Figure 10.25](#). If you hit a ball with the end of your racquet, the handle is pulled away from your hand. If you hit a ball much farther down, for example, on the shaft of the racquet, the handle is pushed into your palm. And if you hit the ball at the racquet's percussion point (what some people call the "sweet spot"), then little or *no* force is exerted on your hand, and there is less vibration, reducing chances of a tennis elbow. The same effect occurs for a baseball bat.

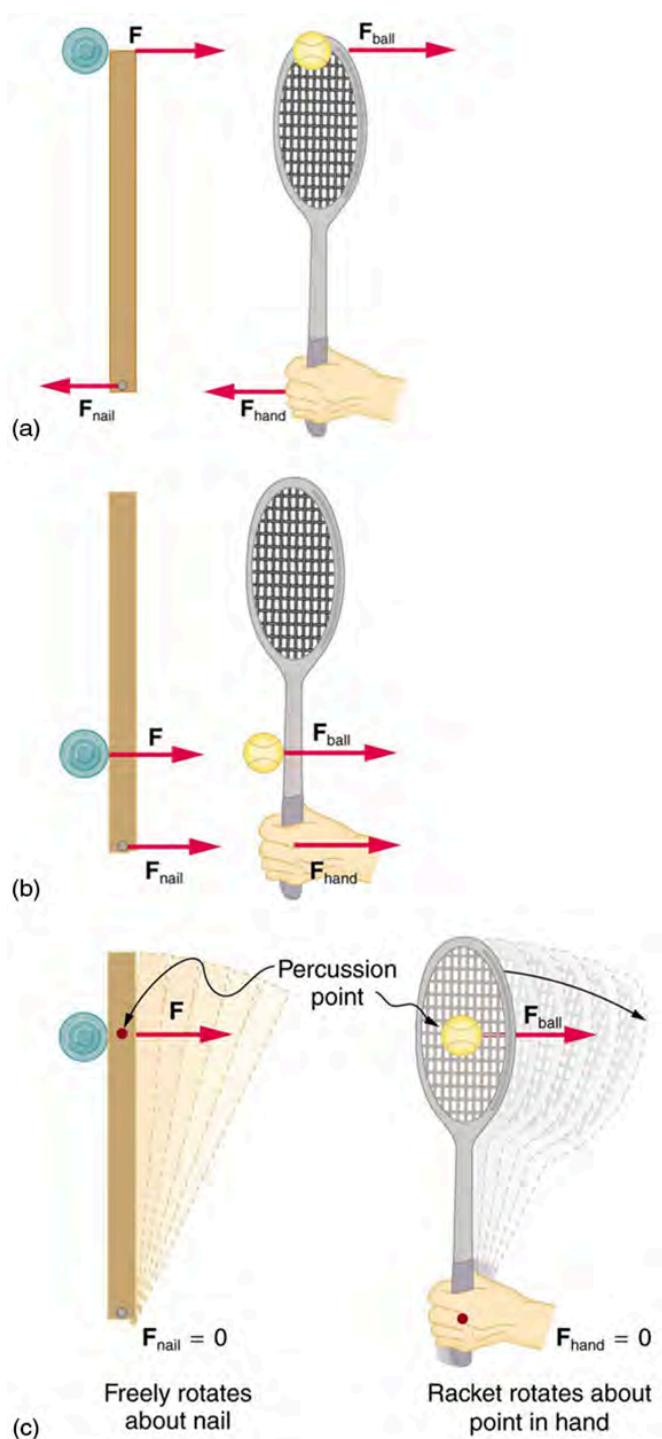


FIGURE 10.25 A disk hitting a stick is compared to a tennis ball being hit by a racquet. (a) When the ball strikes the racquet near the end, a backward force is exerted on the hand. (b) When the racquet is struck much farther down, a forward force is exerted on the hand. (c) When the racquet is struck at the percussion point, no force is delivered to the hand.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Is rotational kinetic energy a vector? Justify your answer.

Solution

No, energy is always scalar whether motion is involved or not. No form of energy has a direction in space and you can see that rotational kinetic energy does not depend on the direction of motion just as linear kinetic energy is independent of the direction of motion.

10.7 Gyroscopic Effects: Vector Aspects of Angular Momentum

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the right-hand rule to find the direction of angular velocity, momentum, and torque.
- Explain the gyroscopic effect.
- Study how Earth acts like a gigantic gyroscope.

Angular momentum is a vector and, therefore, *has direction as well as magnitude*. Torque affects both the direction and the magnitude of angular momentum. What is the direction of the angular momentum of a rotating object like the disk in [Figure 10.26](#)? The figure shows the **right-hand rule** used to find the direction of both angular momentum and angular velocity. Both $\mathbf{L}$ and $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ are vectors—each has direction and magnitude. Both can be represented by arrows. The right-hand rule defines both to be perpendicular to the plane of rotation in the direction shown. Because angular momentum is related to angular velocity by $\mathbf{L} = I\boldsymbol{\omega}$, the direction of $\mathbf{L}$ is the same as the direction of $\boldsymbol{\omega}$. Notice in the figure that both point along the axis of rotation.

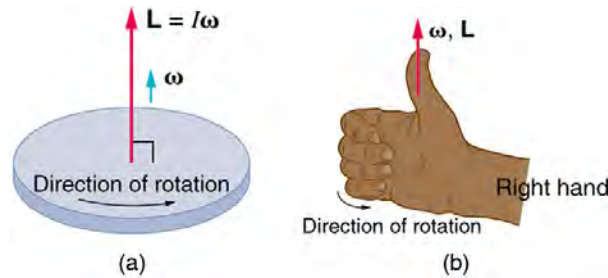


FIGURE 10.26 Figure (a) shows a disk is rotating counterclockwise when viewed from above. Figure (b) shows the right-hand rule. The direction of angular velocity $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ and angular momentum $\mathbf{L}$ are defined to be the direction in which the thumb of your right hand points when you curl your fingers in the direction of the disk's rotation as shown.

Now, recall that torque changes angular momentum as expressed by

$$\text{net } \boldsymbol{\tau} = \frac{\Delta \mathbf{L}}{\Delta t}. \quad 10.138$$

This equation means that the direction of $\Delta \mathbf{L}$ is the same as the direction of the torque $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ that creates it. This result is illustrated in [Figure 10.27](#), which shows the direction of torque and the angular momentum it creates.

Let us now consider a bicycle wheel with a couple of handles attached to it, as shown in [Figure 10.28](#). (This device is popular in demonstrations among physicists, because it does unexpected things.) With the wheel rotating as shown, its angular momentum is to the woman's left. Suppose the person holding the wheel tries to rotate it as in the figure. Her natural expectation is that the wheel will rotate in the direction she pushes it—but what happens is quite different. The forces exerted create a torque that is horizontal toward the person, as shown in [Figure 10.28\(a\)](#). This torque creates a change in angular momentum $\mathbf{L}$ in the same direction, perpendicular to the original angular momentum $\mathbf{L}$, thus changing the direction of $\mathbf{L}$ but not the magnitude of $\mathbf{L}$. [Figure 10.28](#) shows how $\Delta \mathbf{L}$ and $\mathbf{L}$ add, giving a new angular momentum with direction that is inclined more toward the person than before. The axis of the wheel has thus moved *perpendicular to the forces exerted on it*, instead of in the expected direction.

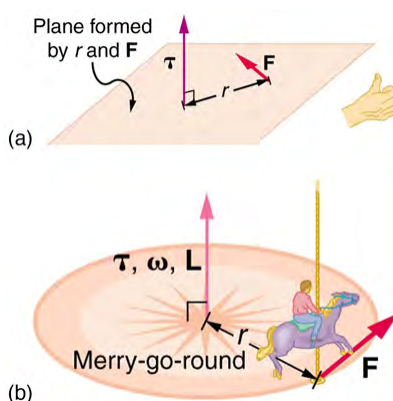


FIGURE 10.27 In figure (a), the torque is perpendicular to the plane formed by r and $\mathbf{F}$ and is the direction your right thumb would point to if you curled your fingers in the direction of $\mathbf{F}$. Figure (b) shows that the direction of the torque is the same as that of the angular momentum it produces.

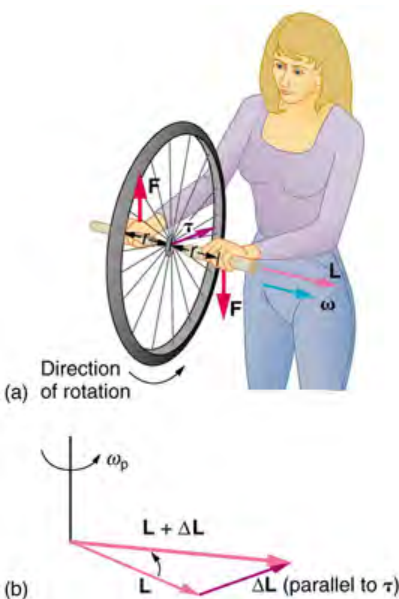


FIGURE 10.28 In figure (a), a person holding the spinning bike wheel lifts it with her right hand and pushes down with her left hand in an attempt to rotate the wheel. This action creates a torque directly toward her. This torque causes a change in angular momentum $\Delta\mathbf{L}$ in exactly the same direction. Figure (b) shows a vector diagram depicting how $\Delta\mathbf{L}$ and $\mathbf{L}$ add, producing a new angular momentum pointing more toward the person. The wheel moves toward the person, perpendicular to the forces she exerts on it.

This same logic explains the behavior of gyroscopes. [Figure 10.29](#) shows the two forces acting on a spinning gyroscope. The torque produced is perpendicular to the angular momentum, thus the direction of the torque is changed, but not its magnitude. The gyroscope *precesses* around a vertical axis, since the torque is always horizontal and perpendicular to $\mathbf{L}$. If the gyroscope is *not* spinning, it acquires angular momentum in the direction of the torque ($\mathbf{L} = \Delta\mathbf{L}$), and it rotates around a horizontal axis, falling over just as we would expect.

Earth itself acts like a gigantic gyroscope. Its angular momentum is along its axis and points at Polaris, the North Star. But Earth is slowly precessing (once in about 26,000 years) due to the torque of the Sun and the Moon on its nonspherical shape.

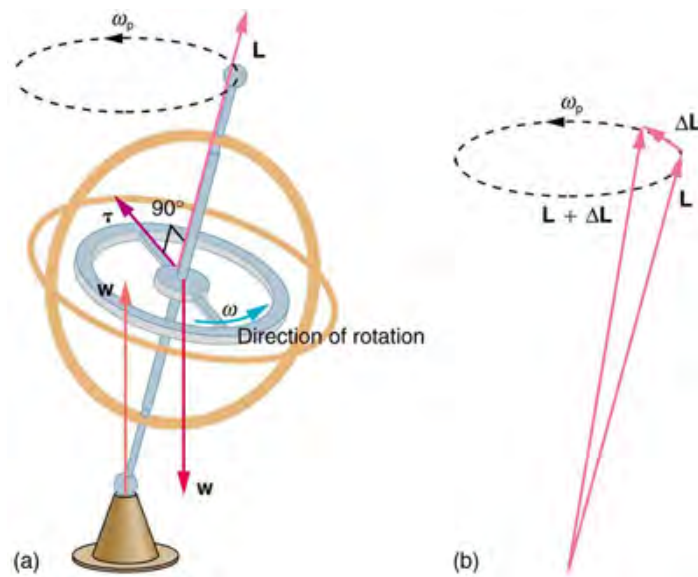


FIGURE 10.29 As seen in figure (a), the forces on a spinning gyroscope are its weight and the supporting force from the stand. These forces create a horizontal torque on the gyroscope, which create a change in angular momentum $\Delta \mathbf{L}$ that is also horizontal. In figure (b), $\Delta \mathbf{L}$ and $\mathbf{L}$ add to produce a new angular momentum with the same magnitude, but different direction, so that the gyroscope precesses in the direction shown instead of falling over.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Rotational kinetic energy is associated with angular momentum? Does that mean that rotational kinetic energy is a vector?

Solution

No, energy is always a scalar whether motion is involved or not. No form of energy has a direction in space and you can see that rotational kinetic energy does not depend on the direction of motion just as linear kinetic energy is independent of the direction of motion.

Glossary

angular acceleration the rate of change of angular velocity with time

angular momentum the product of moment of inertia and angular velocity

change in angular velocity the difference between final and initial values of angular velocity

kinematics of rotational motion describes the relationships among rotation angle, angular velocity, angular acceleration, and time

law of conservation of angular momentum angular momentum is conserved, i.e., the initial angular momentum is equal to the final angular momentum when no external torque is applied to the system

moment of inertia mass times the square of perpendicular distance from the rotation axis; for a point mass, it is $I = mr^2$ and, because any object can be built up from a collection of point masses, this relationship is the basis for all other moments of inertia

right-hand rule direction of angular velocity ω and angular momentum L in which the thumb of your right hand points when you curl your fingers in the direction of the disk's rotation

rotational inertia resistance to change of rotation. The more rotational inertia an object has, the harder it is to rotate

rotational kinetic energy the kinetic energy due to the rotation of an object. This is part of its total kinetic energy

tangential acceleration the acceleration in a direction tangent to the circle at the point of interest in circular motion

torque the turning effectiveness of a force

work-energy theorem if one or more external forces act upon a rigid object, causing its kinetic energy to change from KE_1 to KE_2 , then the work W done by the net force is equal to the change in kinetic energy

Section Summary

10.1 Angular Acceleration

- Uniform circular motion is the motion with a constant angular velocity $\omega = \frac{\Delta\theta}{\Delta t}$.
- In non-uniform circular motion, the velocity changes with time and the rate of change of angular velocity (i.e. angular acceleration) is $\alpha = \frac{\Delta\omega}{\Delta t}$.
- Linear or tangential acceleration refers to changes in the magnitude of velocity but not its direction, given as $a_t = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t}$.
- For circular motion, note that $v = r\omega$, so that $a_t = \frac{\Delta(r\omega)}{\Delta t}$.
- The radius r is constant for circular motion, and so $\Delta(r\omega) = r\Delta\omega$. Thus, $a_t = r\frac{\Delta\omega}{\Delta t}$.
- By definition, $\Delta\omega/\Delta t = \alpha$. Thus, $a_t = r\alpha$ or $\alpha = \frac{a_t}{r}$.

10.2 Kinematics of Rotational Motion

- Kinematics is the description of motion.
- The kinematics of rotational motion describes the relationships among rotation angle, angular velocity, angular acceleration, and time.
- Starting with the four kinematic equations we developed in the [One-Dimensional Kinematics](#), we

can derive the four rotational kinematic equations (presented together with their translational counterparts) seen in [Table 10.2](#).

- In these equations, the subscript 0 denotes initial values (x_0 and t_0 are initial values), and the average angular velocity $\bar{\omega}$ and average velocity $\bar{v}$ are defined as follows:

$$\bar{\omega} = \frac{\omega_0 + \omega}{2} \text{ and } \bar{v} = \frac{v_0 + v}{2}.$$

10.3 Dynamics of Rotational Motion: Rotational Inertia

- The farther the force is applied from the pivot, the greater is the angular acceleration; angular acceleration is inversely proportional to mass.
- If we exert a force F on a point mass m that is at a distance r from a pivot point and because the force is perpendicular to r , an acceleration $a = F/m$ is obtained in the direction of F . We can rearrange this equation such that $F = ma$, and then look for ways to relate this expression to expressions for rotational quantities. We note that $a = r\alpha$, and we substitute this expression into $F = ma$, yielding

$$F = mra$$

- Torque is the turning effectiveness of a force. In this case, because F is perpendicular to r , torque is simply $\tau = rF$. If we multiply both sides of the equation above by r , we get torque on the left-

hand side. That is,

$$rF = mr^2\alpha$$

or

$$\tau = mr^2\alpha.$$

- The moment of inertia I of an object is the sum of MR^2 for all the point masses of which it is composed. That is,

$$I = \sum mr^2.$$

- The general relationship among torque, moment of inertia, and angular acceleration is

$$\tau = I\alpha$$

or

$$\alpha = \frac{\text{net } \tau}{I}.$$

10.4 Rotational Kinetic Energy: Work and Energy Revisited

- The rotational kinetic energy KE_{rot} for an object with a moment of inertia I and an angular velocity ω is given by

$$\text{KE}_{\text{rot}} = \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2.$$

- Helicopters store large amounts of rotational kinetic energy in their blades. This energy must be put into the blades before takeoff and maintained until the end of the flight. The engines do not have enough power to simultaneously provide lift and put significant rotational energy into the blades.
- Work and energy in rotational motion are completely analogous to work and energy in translational motion.
- The equation for the **work-energy theorem** for rotational motion is,

$$\text{net } W = \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2 - \frac{1}{2}I\omega_0^2.$$

10.5 Angular Momentum and Its Conservation

- Every rotational phenomenon has a direct translational analog, likewise angular momentum L can be defined as $L = I\omega$.
- This equation is an analog to the definition of

linear momentum as $p = mv$. The relationship between torque and angular momentum is $\text{net } \tau = \frac{\Delta L}{\Delta t}$.

- Angular momentum, like energy and linear momentum, is conserved. This universally applicable law is another sign of underlying unity in physical laws. Angular momentum is conserved when net external torque is zero, just as linear momentum is conserved when the net external force is zero.

10.6 Collisions of Extended Bodies in Two Dimensions

- Angular momentum L is analogous to linear momentum and is given by $L = I\omega$.
- Angular momentum is changed by torque, following the relationship $\text{net } \tau = \frac{\Delta L}{\Delta t}$.
- Angular momentum is conserved if the net torque is zero $L = \text{constant}$ ($\text{net } \tau = 0$) or $L = L'$ ($\text{net } \tau = 0$). This equation is known as the law of conservation of angular momentum, which may be conserved in collisions.

10.7 Gyroscopic Effects: Vector Aspects of Angular Momentum

- Torque is perpendicular to the plane formed by r and F and is the direction your right thumb would point if you curled the fingers of your right hand in the direction of F . The direction of the torque is thus the same as that of the angular momentum it produces.
- The gyroscope precesses around a vertical axis, since the torque is always horizontal and perpendicular to L . If the gyroscope is not spinning, it acquires angular momentum in the direction of the torque ($L = \Delta L$), and it rotates about a horizontal axis, falling over just as we would expect.
- Earth itself acts like a gigantic gyroscope. Its angular momentum is along its axis and points at Polaris, the North Star.

Conceptual Questions

10.1 Angular Acceleration

1. Analogies exist between rotational and translational physical quantities. Identify the rotational term analogous to each of the following: acceleration, force, mass, work, translational kinetic energy, linear momentum, impulse.

2. Explain why centripetal acceleration changes the direction of velocity in circular motion but not its magnitude.
3. In circular motion, a tangential acceleration can change the magnitude of the velocity but not its direction. Explain your answer.
4. Suppose a piece of food is on the edge of a rotating

microwave oven plate. Does it experience nonzero tangential acceleration, centripetal acceleration, or both when: (a) The plate starts to spin? (b) The plate rotates at constant angular velocity? (c) The plate slows to a halt?

10.3 Dynamics of Rotational Motion: Rotational Inertia

- The moment of inertia of a long rod spun around an axis through one end perpendicular to its length is $ML^2/3$. Why is this moment of inertia greater than it would be if you spun a point mass M at the location of the center of mass of the rod (at $L/2$)? (That would be $ML^2/4$.)
- Why is the moment of inertia of a hoop that has a mass M and a radius R greater than the moment of inertia of a disk that has the same mass and radius? Why is the moment of inertia of a spherical shell that has a mass M and a radius R greater than that of a solid sphere that has the same mass and radius?
- Give an example in which a small force exerts a large torque. Give another example in which a large force exerts a small torque.
- While reducing the mass of a racing bike, the greatest benefit is realized from reducing the mass of the tires and wheel rims. Why does this allow a racer to achieve greater accelerations than would an identical reduction in the mass of the bicycle's frame?



FIGURE 10.30 The image shows a side view of a racing bicycle. Can you see evidence in the design of the wheels on this racing bicycle that their moment of inertia has been purposely reduced? (credit: Jesús Rodríguez)

- A ball slides up a frictionless ramp. It is then rolled without slipping and with the same initial velocity up another frictionless ramp (with the same slope angle). In which case does it reach a greater height, and why?

10.4 Rotational Kinetic Energy: Work and Energy Revisited

- Describe the energy transformations involved when a yo-yo is thrown downward and then climbs back up its string to be caught in the user's hand.
- What energy transformations are involved when a dragster engine is revved, its clutch let out rapidly, its tires spun, and it starts to accelerate forward? Describe the source and transformation of energy at each step.
- The Earth has more rotational kinetic energy now than did the cloud of gas and dust from which it formed. Where did this energy come from?

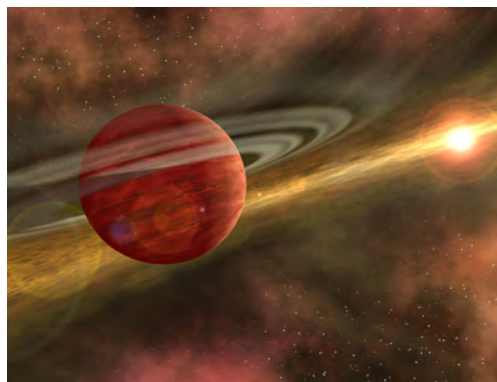


FIGURE 10.31 An immense cloud of rotating gas and dust contracted under the influence of gravity to form the Earth and in the process rotational kinetic energy increased. (credit: NASA)

10.5 Angular Momentum and Its Conservation

- When you start the engine of your car with the transmission in neutral, you notice that the car rocks in the opposite sense of the engine's rotation. Explain in terms of conservation of angular momentum. Is the angular momentum of the car conserved for long (for more than a few seconds)?
- Suppose a child walks from the outer edge of a rotating merry-go-round to the inside. Does the angular velocity of the merry-go-round increase, decrease, or remain the same? Explain your answer.

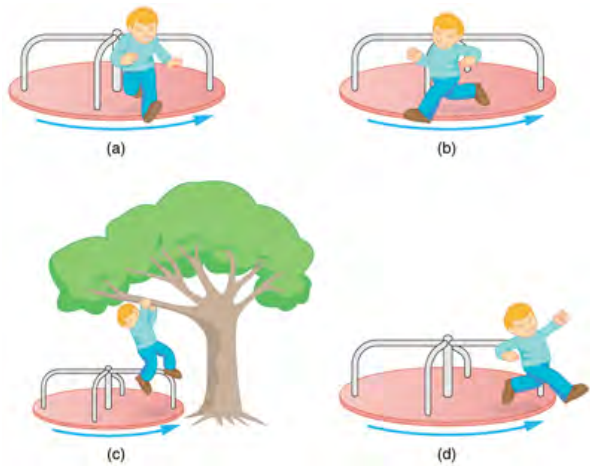


FIGURE 10.32 A child may jump off a merry-go-round in a variety of directions.

15. Suppose a child gets off a rotating merry-go-round. Does the angular velocity of the merry-go-round increase, decrease, or remain the same if: (a) He jumps off radially? (b) He jumps backward to land motionless? (c) He jumps straight up and hangs onto an overhead tree branch? (d) He jumps off forward, tangential to the edge? Explain your answers. (Refer to [Figure 10.32](#)).
16. Helicopters have a small propeller on their tail to keep them from rotating in the opposite direction of their main lifting blades. Explain in terms of Newton's third law why the helicopter body rotates in the opposite direction to the blades.
17. Whenever a helicopter has two sets of lifting blades, they rotate in opposite directions (and there will be no tail propeller). Explain why it is best to have the blades rotate in opposite directions.
18. Describe how work is done by a skater pulling in her arms during a spin. In particular, identify the force she exerts on each arm to pull it in and the distance each moves, noting that a component of the force is in the direction moved. Why is angular momentum not increased by this action?
19. When there is a global heating trend on Earth, the atmosphere expands and the length of the day increases very slightly. Explain why the length of a day increases.
20. Nearly all conventional piston engines have flywheels on them to smooth out engine vibrations caused by the thrust of individual piston firings. Why does the flywheel have this effect?
21. Jet turbines spin rapidly. They are designed to fly apart if something makes them seize suddenly, rather than transfer angular momentum to the plane's wing, possibly tearing it off. Explain how flying apart conserves angular momentum without transferring it to the wing.
22. An astronaut tightens a bolt on a satellite in orbit. He rotates in a direction opposite to that of the bolt, and the satellite rotates in the same direction as the bolt. Explain why. If a handhold is available on the satellite, can this counter-rotation be prevented? Explain your answer.
23. Competitive divers pull their limbs in and curl up their bodies when they do flips. Just before entering the water, they fully extend their limbs to enter straight down. Explain the effect of both actions on their angular velocities. Also explain the effect on their angular momenta.

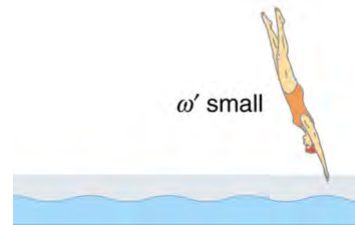


FIGURE 10.33 The diver spins rapidly when curled up and slows when she extends her limbs before entering the water.

24. Draw a free body diagram to show how a diver gains angular momentum when leaving the diving board.
25. In terms of angular momentum, what is the advantage of giving a football or a rifle bullet a spin when throwing or releasing it?



FIGURE 10.34 The image shows a view down the barrel of a

cannon, emphasizing its rifling. Rifling in the barrel of a canon causes the projectile to spin just as is the case for rifles (hence the name for the grooves in the barrel). (credit: Elsie esq., Flickr)

10.6 Collisions of Extended Bodies in Two Dimensions

26. Describe two different collisions—one in which angular momentum is conserved, and the other in which it is not. Which condition determines whether or not angular momentum is conserved in a collision?
27. Suppose an ice hockey puck strikes a hockey stick that lies flat on the ice and is free to move in any direction. Which quantities are likely to be conserved: angular momentum, linear momentum, or kinetic energy (assuming the puck and stick are very resilient)?
28. While driving his motorcycle at highway speed, a

Problems & Exercises

10.1 Angular Acceleration

1. At its peak, a tornado is 60.0 m in diameter and carries 500 km/h winds. What is its angular velocity in revolutions per second?
2. Integrated Concepts
An ultracentrifuge accelerates from rest to 100,000 rpm in 2.00 min. (a) What is its angular acceleration in rad/s^2 ? (b) What is the tangential acceleration of a point 9.50 cm from the axis of rotation? (c) What is the radial acceleration in m/s^2 and multiples of g of this point at full rpm?
3. Integrated Concepts
You have a grindstone (a disk) that is 90.0 kg, has a 0.340-m radius, and is turning at 90.0 rpm, and you press a steel axe against it with a radial force of 20.0 N. (a) Assuming the kinetic coefficient of friction between steel and stone is 0.20, calculate the angular acceleration of the grindstone. (b) How many turns will the stone make before coming to rest?
4. Unreasonable Results
You are told that a basketball player spins the ball with an angular acceleration of 100 rad/s^2 . (a) What is the ball's final angular velocity if the ball starts from rest and the acceleration lasts 2.00 s? (b) What is unreasonable about the result? (c) Which premises are unreasonable or inconsistent?

physics student notices that pulling back lightly on the right handlebar tips the cycle to the left and produces a left turn. Explain why this happens.

10.7 Gyroscopic Effects: Vector Aspects of Angular Momentum

29. While driving his motorcycle at highway speed, a physics student notices that pulling back lightly on the right handlebar tips the cycle to the left and produces a left turn. Explain why this happens.
30. Gyroscopes used in guidance systems to indicate directions in space must have an angular momentum that does not change in direction. Yet they are often subjected to large forces and accelerations. How can the direction of their angular momentum be constant when they are accelerated?

10.2 Kinematics of Rotational Motion

5. With the aid of a string, a gyroscope is accelerated from rest to 32 rad/s in 0.40 s.
(a) What is its angular acceleration in rad/s^2 ?
(b) How many revolutions does it go through in the process?
6. Suppose a piece of dust finds itself on a CD. If the spin rate of the CD is 500 rpm, and the piece of dust is 4.3 cm from the center, what is the total distance traveled by the dust in 3 minutes? (Ignore accelerations due to getting the CD rotating.)
7. A gyroscope slows from an initial rate of 32.0 rad/s at a rate of 0.700 rad/s^2 .
(a) How long does it take to come to rest?
(b) How many revolutions does it make before stopping?
8. During a very quick stop, a car decelerates at 7.00 m/s^2 .
(a) What is the angular acceleration of its 0.280-m-radius tires, assuming they do not slip on the pavement?
(b) How many revolutions do the tires make before coming to rest, given their initial angular velocity is 95.0 rad/s ?
(c) How long does the car take to stop completely?
(d) What distance does the car travel in this time?
(e) What was the car's initial velocity?
(f) Do the values obtained seem reasonable, considering that this stop happens very quickly?



FIGURE 10.35 Yo-yos are amusing toys that display significant physics and are engineered to enhance performance based on physical laws. (credit: Beyond Neon, Flickr)

9. Everyday application: Suppose a yo-yo has a center shaft that has a 0.250 cm radius and that its string is being pulled.
- If the string is stationary and the yo-yo accelerates away from it at a rate of 1.50 m/s^2 , what is the angular acceleration of the yo-yo?
 - What is the angular velocity after 0.750 s if it starts from rest?
 - The outside radius of the yo-yo is 3.50 cm. What is the tangential acceleration of a point on its edge?
13. A soccer player extends her lower leg in a kicking motion by exerting a force with the muscle above the knee in the front of her leg. She produces an angular acceleration of 30.00 rad/s^2 and her lower leg has a moment of inertia of $0.750 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2$. What is the force exerted by the muscle if its effective perpendicular lever arm is 1.90 cm?
14. Suppose you exert a force of 180 N tangential to a 0.280-m-radius 75.0-kg grindstone (a solid disk).
- What torque is exerted?
 - What is the angular acceleration assuming negligible opposing friction?
 - What is the angular acceleration if there is an opposing frictional force of 20.0 N exerted 1.50 cm from the axis?
15. Consider the 12.0 kg motorcycle wheel shown in [Figure 10.36](#). Assume it to be approximately an annular ring with an inner radius of 0.280 m and an outer radius of 0.330 m. The motorcycle is on its center stand, so that the wheel can spin freely.
- If the drive chain exerts a force of 2200 N at a radius of 5.00 cm, what is the angular acceleration of the wheel?
 - What is the tangential acceleration of a point on the outer edge of the tire?
 - How long, starting from rest, does it take to reach an angular velocity of 80.0 rad/s ?

10.3 Dynamics of Rotational Motion: Rotational Inertia

10. This problem considers additional aspects of example [Calculating the Effect of Mass Distribution on a Merry-Go-Round](#).
- How long does it take the father to give the merry-go-round an angular velocity of 1.50 rad/s ?
 - How many revolutions must he go through to generate this velocity?
 - If he exerts a slowing force of 300 N at a radius of 1.35 m, how long would it take him to stop them?
11. Calculate the moment of inertia of a skater given the following information.
- The 60.0-kg skater is approximated as a cylinder that has a 0.110-m radius.
 - The skater with arms extended is approximately a cylinder that is 52.5 kg, has a 0.110-m radius, and has two 0.900-m-long arms which are 3.75 kg each and extend straight out from the cylinder like rods rotated about their ends.
12. The triceps muscle in the back of the upper arm extends the forearm. This muscle in a professional boxer exerts a force of $2.00 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$ with an effective perpendicular lever arm of 3.00 cm, producing an angular acceleration of the forearm of 120 rad/s^2 . What is the moment of inertia of the boxer's forearm?

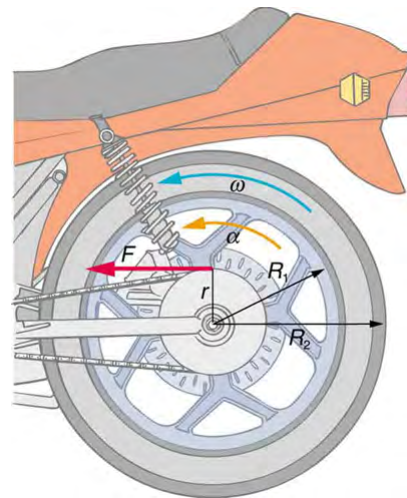


FIGURE 10.36 A motorcycle wheel has a moment of inertia approximately that of an annular ring.

16. Zorch, an archenemy of Superman, decides to slow Earth's rotation to once per 28.0 h by exerting an opposing force at and parallel to the equator. Superman is not immediately concerned, because he knows Zorch can only exert a force of $4.00 \times 10^7 \text{ N}$ (a little greater than a Saturn V rocket's thrust). How long must Zorch push with this force to accomplish his goal? (This period gives Superman time to devote to other villains.)

Explicitly show how you follow the steps found in [Problem-Solving Strategy for Rotational Dynamics](#).

17. An automobile engine can produce $200 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}$ of torque. Calculate the angular acceleration produced if 95.0% of this torque is applied to the drive shaft, axle, and rear wheels of a car, given the following information. The car is suspended so that the wheels can turn freely. Each wheel acts like a 15.0 kg disk that has a 0.180 m radius. The walls of each tire act like a 2.00-kg annular ring that has inside radius of 0.180 m and outside radius of 0.320 m . The tread of each tire acts like a 10.0-kg hoop of radius 0.330 m . The 14.0-kg axle acts like a rod that has a 2.00-cm radius. The 30.0-kg drive shaft acts like a rod that has a 3.20-cm radius.
18. Starting with the formula for the moment of inertia of a rod rotated around an axis through one end perpendicular to its length ($I = M\ell^2/3$), prove that the moment of inertia of a rod rotated about an axis through its center perpendicular to its length is $I = M\ell^2/12$. You will find the graphics in [Figure 10.11](#) useful in visualizing these rotations.
19. **Unreasonable Results**
A gymnast doing a forward flip lands on the mat and exerts a $500\text{-N} \cdot \text{m}$ torque to slow their angular velocity to zero. Their initial angular velocity is 10.0 rad/s , and their moment of inertia is $0.050 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2$. (a) What time is required for the gymnast to exactly stop their spin? (b) What is unreasonable about the result? (c) Which premises are unreasonable or inconsistent?
20. **Unreasonable Results**
An advertisement claims that an 800-kg car is aided by its 20.0-kg flywheel, which can accelerate the car from rest to a speed of 30.0 m/s . The flywheel is a disk with a 0.150-m radius. (a) Calculate the angular velocity the flywheel must have if 95.0% of its rotational energy is used to get the car up to speed. (b) What is unreasonable about the result? (c) Which premise is unreasonable or which premises are inconsistent?

10.4 Rotational Kinetic Energy: Work and Energy Revisited

21. This problem considers energy and work aspects of [Example 10.7](#)—use data from that example as needed. (a) Calculate the rotational kinetic energy in the merry-go-round plus child when they have an angular velocity of 20.0 rpm . (b) Using energy considerations, find the number of revolutions the father will have to push to achieve this angular velocity starting from rest. (c) Again, using energy considerations, calculate the force the father must exert to stop the merry-go-round in two revolutions
22. What is the final velocity of a hoop that rolls without slipping down a 5.00-m -high hill, starting from rest?
23. (a) Calculate the rotational kinetic energy of Earth on its axis. (b) What is the rotational kinetic energy of Earth in its orbit around the Sun?
24. Calculate the rotational kinetic energy in the motorcycle wheel ([Figure 10.36](#)) if its angular velocity is 120 rad/s . Assume $M = 12.0 \text{ kg}$, $R_1 = 0.280 \text{ m}$, and $R_2 = 0.330 \text{ m}$.
25. A baseball pitcher throws the ball in a motion where there is rotation of the forearm about the elbow joint as well as other movements. If the linear velocity of the ball relative to the elbow joint is 20.0 m/s at a distance of 0.480 m from the joint and the moment of inertia of the forearm is $0.500 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2$, what is the rotational kinetic energy of the forearm?
26. While punting a football, a kicker rotates her leg about the hip joint. The moment of inertia of the leg is $3.75 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2$ and its rotational kinetic energy is 175 J . (a) What is the angular velocity of the leg? (b) What is the velocity of tip of the punter's shoe if it is 1.05 m from the hip joint? (c) Explain how the football can be given a velocity greater than the tip of the shoe (necessary for a decent kick distance).
27. A bus contains a 1500 kg flywheel (a disk that has a 0.600 m radius) and has a total mass of $10,000 \text{ kg}$. (a) Calculate the angular velocity the flywheel must have to contain enough energy to take the bus from rest to a speed of 20.0 m/s , assuming 90.0% of the rotational kinetic energy can be transformed into translational energy. (b) How high a hill can the bus climb with this stored energy and still have a speed of 3.00 m/s at the top of the hill? Explicitly show how you follow the steps in the [Problem-Solving Strategy for Rotational Energy](#).
28. A ball with an initial velocity of 8.00 m/s rolls up a hill without slipping. Treating the ball as a spherical shell, calculate the vertical height it reaches. (b) Repeat the calculation for the same ball if it slides up the hill without rolling.

- 29.** While exercising in a fitness center, a man lies face down on a bench and lifts a weight with one lower leg by contacting the muscles in the back of the upper leg. (a) Find the angular acceleration produced given the mass lifted is 10.0 kg at a distance of 28.0 cm from the knee joint, the moment of inertia of the lower leg is $0.900 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2$, the muscle force is 1500 N, and its effective perpendicular lever arm is 3.00 cm. (b) How much work is done if the leg rotates through an angle of 20.0° with a constant force exerted by the muscle?
- 30.** To develop muscle tone, a woman lifts a 2.00-kg weight held in her hand. She uses her biceps muscle to flex the lower arm through an angle of 60.0° . (a) What is the angular acceleration if the weight is 24.0 cm from the elbow joint, her forearm has a moment of inertia of $0.250 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2$, and the net force she exerts is 750 N at an effective perpendicular lever arm of 2.00 cm? (b) How much work does she do?
- 31.** Consider two cylinders that start down identical inclines from rest except that one is frictionless. Thus one cylinder rolls without slipping, while the other slides frictionlessly without rolling. They both travel a short distance at the bottom and then start up another incline. (a) Show that they both reach the same height on the other incline, and that this height is equal to their original height. (b) Find the ratio of the time the rolling cylinder takes to reach the height on the second incline to the time the sliding cylinder takes to reach the height on the second incline. (c) Explain why the time for the rolling motion is greater than that for the sliding motion.
- 32.** What is the moment of inertia of an object that rolls without slipping down a 2.00-m-high incline starting from rest, and has a final velocity of 6.00 m/s? Express the moment of inertia as a multiple of MR^2 , where M is the mass of the object and R is its radius.
- 33.** Suppose a 200-kg motorcycle has two wheels like, [the one described in Problem 10.15](#) and is heading toward a hill at a speed of 30.0 m/s. (a) How high can it coast up the hill, if you neglect friction? (b) How much energy is lost to friction if the motorcycle only gains an altitude of 35.0 m before coming to rest?
- 34.** In softball, the pitcher throws with the arm fully extended (straight at the elbow). In a fast pitch the ball leaves the hand with a speed of 139 km/h.
- (a) Find the rotational kinetic energy of the pitcher's arm and ball together given that the arm's moment of inertia is $0.720 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2$ and the ball leaves the hand at a distance of 0.600 m from the pivot at the shoulder. (b) What force did the muscles exert to cause the arm to rotate if their effective perpendicular lever arm is 4.00 cm and the ball is 0.156 kg?
- 35. Construct Your Own Problem**
Consider the work done by a spinning skater pulling his arms in to increase his rate of spin. Construct a problem in which you calculate the work done with a "force multiplied by distance" calculation and compare it to the skater's increase in kinetic energy.

10.5 Angular Momentum and Its Conservation

- 36.** (a) Calculate the angular momentum of the Earth in its orbit around the Sun.
(b) Compare this angular momentum with the angular momentum of Earth on its axis.
- 37.** (a) What is the angular momentum of the Moon in its orbit around Earth?
(b) How does this angular momentum compare with the angular momentum of the Moon on its axis? Remember that the Moon keeps one side toward Earth at all times.
(c) Discuss whether the values found in parts (a) and (b) seem consistent with the fact that tidal effects with Earth have caused the Moon to rotate with one side always facing Earth.
- 38.** Suppose you start an antique car by exerting a force of 300 N on its crank for 0.250 s. What angular momentum is given to the engine if the handle of the crank is 0.300 m from the pivot and the force is exerted to create maximum torque the entire time?
- 39.** A playground merry-go-round has a mass of 120 kg and a radius of 1.80 m and it is rotating with an angular velocity of 0.500 rev/s. What is its angular velocity after a 22.0-kg child gets onto it by grabbing its outer edge? The child is initially at rest.
- 40.** Three children are riding on the edge of a merry-go-round that is 100 kg, has a 1.60-m radius, and is spinning at 20.0 rpm. The children have masses of 22.0, 28.0, and 33.0 kg. If the child who has a mass of 28.0 kg moves to the center of the merry-go-round, what is the new angular velocity in rpm?

41. (a) Calculate the angular momentum of an ice skater spinning at 6.00 rev/s given his moment of inertia is $0.400 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2$. (b) He reduces his rate of spin (his angular velocity) by extending his arms and increasing his moment of inertia. Find the value of his moment of inertia if his angular velocity decreases to 1.25 rev/s. (c) Suppose instead he keeps his arms in and allows friction of the ice to slow him to 3.00 rev/s. What average torque was exerted if this takes 15.0 s?
42. **Construct Your Own Problem** Consider the Earth-Moon system. Construct a problem in which you calculate the total angular momentum of the system including the spins of the Earth and the Moon on their axes and the orbital angular momentum of the Earth-Moon system in its nearly monthly rotation. Calculate what happens to the Moon's orbital radius if the Earth's rotation decreases due to tidal drag. Among the things to be considered are the amount by which the Earth's rotation slows and the fact that the Moon will continue to have one side always facing the Earth.

10.6 Collisions of Extended Bodies in Two Dimensions

43. Repeat [Example 10.15](#) in which the disk strikes and adheres to the stick 0.100 m from the nail.
44. Repeat [Example 10.15](#) in which the disk originally spins clockwise at 1000 rpm and has a radius of 1.50 cm.
45. Twin skaters approach one another as shown in [Figure 10.37](#) and lock hands. (a) Calculate their final angular velocity, given each had an initial speed of 2.50 m/s relative to the ice. Each has a mass of 70.0 kg, and each has a center of mass located 0.800 m from their locked hands. You may approximate their moments of inertia to be that of point masses at this radius. (b) Compare the initial kinetic energy and final kinetic energy.

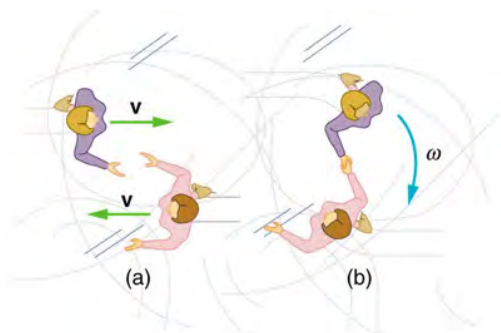


FIGURE 10.37 Twin skaters approach each other with

identical speeds. Then, the skaters lock hands and spin.

46. Suppose a 0.250-kg ball is thrown at 15.0 m/s to a motionless person standing on ice who catches it with an outstretched arm as shown in [Figure 10.38](#). (a) Calculate the final linear velocity of the person, given his mass is 70.0 kg. (b) What is his angular velocity if each arm is 5.00 kg? You may treat the ball as a point mass and treat the person's arms as uniform rods (each has a length of 0.900 m) and the rest of his body as a uniform cylinder of radius 0.180 m. Neglect the effect of the ball on his center of mass so that his center of mass remains in his geometrical center. (c) Compare the initial and final total kinetic energies.

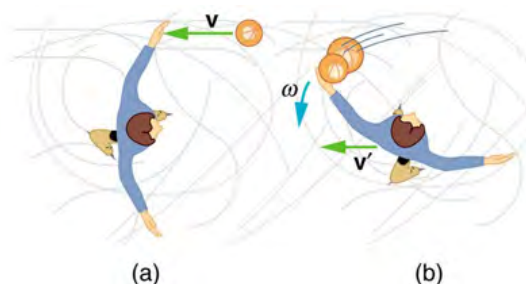


FIGURE 10.38 The figure shows the overhead view of a person standing motionless on ice about to catch a ball. Both arms are outstretched. After catching the ball, the skater recoils and rotates.

47. Repeat [Example 10.15](#) in which the stick is free to have translational motion as well as rotational motion.

10.7 Gyroscopic Effects: Vector Aspects of Angular Momentum

48. Integrated Concepts

The axis of Earth makes a 23.5° angle with a direction perpendicular to the plane of Earth's orbit. As shown in [Figure 10.39](#), this axis precesses, making one complete rotation in 25,780 y.

- (a) Calculate the change in angular momentum in half this time.
 (b) What is the average torque producing this change in angular momentum?
 (c) If this torque were created by a single force (it is not) acting at the most effective point on the equator, what would its magnitude be?

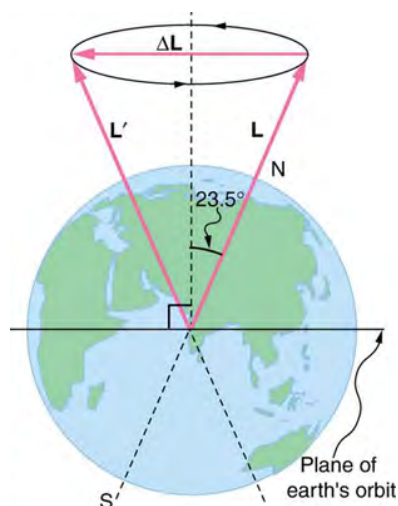


FIGURE 10.39 The Earth's axis slowly precesses, always

making an angle of 23.5° with the direction perpendicular to the plane of Earth's orbit. The change in angular momentum for the two shown positions is quite large, although the magnitude L is unchanged.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

10.3 Dynamics of Rotational Motion: Rotational Inertia

- A piece of wood can be carved by spinning it on a motorized lathe and holding a sharp chisel to the edge of the wood as it spins. How does the angular velocity of a piece of wood with a radius of 0.2 m spinning on a lathe change when a chisel is held to the wood's edge with a force of 50 N?
 - It increases by $0.1 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}$ multiplied by the moment of inertia of the wood.
 - It decreases by $0.1 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}$ divided by the moment of inertia of the wood-and-lathe system.
 - It decreases by $0.1 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}$ multiplied by the moment of inertia of the wood.
 - It decreases by 0.1 m/s^2 .
- A Ferris wheel is loaded with people in the chairs at the following positions: 4 o'clock, 1 o'clock, 9 o'clock, and 6 o'clock. As the wheel begins to turn, what forces are acting on the system? How will each force affect the angular velocity and angular momentum?
- A lever is placed on a fulcrum. A rock is placed on the left end of the lever and a downward (clockwise) force is applied to the right end of the lever. What measurements would be most effective to help you determine the angular momentum of the system? (Assume the lever itself has negligible mass.)
 - the angular velocity and mass of the rock
 - the angular velocity and mass of the rock, and the radius of the lever
 - the velocity of the force, the radius of the lever, and the mass of the rock
 - the mass of the rock, the length of the lever on both sides of the fulcrum, and the force applied on the right side of the lever
- You can use the following setup to determine angular acceleration and angular momentum: A lever is placed on a fulcrum. A rock is placed on the left end of the lever and a known downward (clockwise) force is applied to the right end of the lever. What calculations would you perform? How would you account for gravity in your calculations?
- Consider two sizes of disk, both of mass M . One size of disk has radius R ; the other has radius $2R$. System A consists of two of the larger disks rigidly connected to each other with a common axis of rotation. System B consists of one of the larger disks and a number of the smaller disks rigidly connected with a common axis of rotation. If the moment of inertia for system A equals the moment of inertia for system B, how many of the smaller disks are in system B?
 - 1
 - 2
 - 3
 - 4
- You are given a thin rod of length 1.0 m and mass 2.0 kg, a small lead weight of 0.50 kg, and a not-so-small lead weight of 1.0 kg. The rod has three holes, one in each end and one through the middle, which may either hold a pivot point or one of the

small lead weights. How do you arrange these objects so that the resulting system has the maximum possible moment of inertia? What is that moment of inertia? do you arrange these objects so that the resulting system has the maximum possible moment of inertia? What is that moment of inertia?

10.4 Rotational Kinetic Energy: Work and Energy Revisited

7. Gear A, which turns clockwise, meshes with gear B, which turns counterclockwise. When more force is applied through gear A, torque is created. How does the angular velocity of gear B change as a result?
 - a. It increases in magnitude.
 - b. It decreases in magnitude.
 - c. It changes direction.
 - d. It stays the same.
8. Which will cause a greater increase in the angular velocity of a disk: doubling the torque applied or halving the radius at which the torque is applied? Explain.
9. Which measure would not be useful to help you determine the change in angular velocity when the torque on a fishing reel is increased?
 - a. the radius of the reel
 - b. the amount of line that unspools
 - c. the angular momentum of the fishing line
 - d. the time it takes the line to unspool
10. What data could you collect to study the change in angular velocity when two people push a merry-go-round instead of one, providing twice as much torque? How would you use the data you collect?
11. Which rotational system would be best to use as a model to measure how angular momentum changes when forces on the system are changed?
 - a. a fishing reel
 - b. a planet and its moon
 - c. a figure skater spinning
 - d. a person's lower leg
12. You are collecting data to study changes in the angular momentum of a bicycle wheel when a force is applied to it. Which of the following measurements would be least helpful to you?
 - a. the time for which the force is applied
 - b. the radius at which the force is applied
 - c. the angular velocity of the wheel when the force is applied
 - d. the direction of the force
13. Which torque applied to a disk with radius 7.0 cm for 3.5 s will produce an angular momentum of 25 $\text{N}\cdot\text{m}\cdot\text{s}$?
 - a. 7.1 $\text{N}\cdot\text{m}$
 - b. 357.1 $\text{N}\cdot\text{m}$
 - c. 3.6 $\text{N}\cdot\text{m}$
 - d. 612.5 $\text{N}\cdot\text{m}$
14. Which of the following would be the best way to produce measurable amounts of torque on a system to test the relationship between the angular momentum of the system, the average torque applied to the system, and the time for which the torque is applied?
 - a. having different numbers of people push on a merry-go-round
 - b. placing known masses on one end of a seesaw
 - c. touching the outer edge of a bicycle wheel to a treadmill that is moving at different speeds
 - d. hanging known masses from a string that is wound around a spool suspended horizontally on an axle

15.

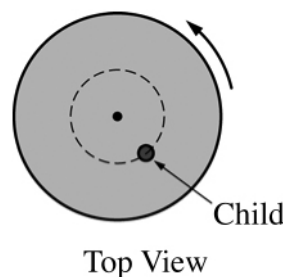


FIGURE 10.40 A curved arrow lies at the side of a gray disk. There is a point at the center of the disk, and around the point there is a dashed circle. There is a point labeled "Child" on the dashed circle. Below the disc is a label saying "Top View".

The diagram above shows a top view of a child of mass M on a circular platform of mass $2M$ that is rotating counterclockwise. Assume the platform rotates without friction. Which of the following describes an action by the child that will increase the angular speed of the platform-child system and why?

11. Which rotational system would be best to use as a model to measure how angular momentum changes when forces on the system are changed?
 - a. a fishing reel
 - b. a planet and its moon
 - c. a figure skater spinning
 - d. a person's lower leg
12. You are collecting data to study changes in the angular momentum of a bicycle wheel when a force is applied to it. Which of the following measurements would be least helpful to you?
 - a. the time for which the force is applied
 - b. the radius at which the force is applied

- the system.
- The child moves away from the center of the platform, increasing the total angular momentum of the system.
 - The child moves away from the center of the platform, decreasing the rotational inertia of the system.

16.

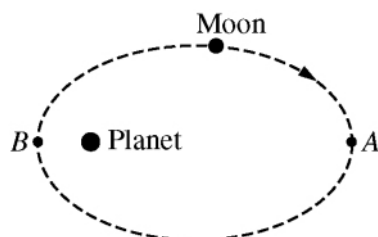


FIGURE 10.41 A point labeled “Moon” lies on a dashed ellipse. Two other points, labeled “A” and “B”, lie at opposite ends of the ellipse. A point labeled “Planet” lies inside the ellipse.

A moon is in an elliptical orbit about a planet as shown above. At point A the moon has speed u_A and is at distance RA from the planet. At point B the moon has speed u_B . Has the moon's angular momentum changed? Explain your answer.

- A hamster sits 0.10 m from the center of a lazy Susan of negligible mass. The wheel spins with a frequency of 1.0 rev/s. How will the frequency of the lazy Susan change if the hamster walks to 0.30 m from the center of rotation? Assume zero friction and no external torque.
 - It will speed up to 2.0 rev/s.
 - It will speed up to 9.0 rev/s.
 - It will slow to 0.11 rev/s.
 - It will slow to 0.22 rev/s.
- Earth has a mass of 6.0×10^{24} kg, a radius of 6.4×10^6 m, and a rotational frequency of 1.2×10^{-5} rev/s. How would the planet's rotational frequency change if a layer of Earth with mass 1.0×10^{23} kg broke off of the Earth, decreasing Earth's radius by 0.2×10^6 m? Assume no friction.
- Consider system A, consisting of two disks of radius R , with both rotating clockwise. Now consider system B, consisting of one disk of radius R rotating counterclockwise and another disk of radius $2R$ rotating clockwise. All of the disks have the same mass, and all have the same magnitude of angular velocity. Which system has the greatest angular momentum?
 - A

- B
- They're equal.
- Not enough information

- Assume that a baseball bat being swung at 3π rad/s by a batting machine is equivalent to a 1.1 m thin rod with a mass of 1.0 kg. How fast would a 0.15 kg baseball that squarely hits the very tip of the bat have to be going for the net angular momentum of the bat-ball system to be zero?

10.6 Collisions of Extended Bodies in Two Dimensions

- A box with a mass of 2.0 kg rests on one end of a seesaw. The seesaw is 6.0 m long, and we can assume it has negligible mass. Approximately what angular momentum will the box have if someone with a mass of 65 kg sits on the other end of the seesaw quickly, with a velocity of 1.2 m/s?
 - $702 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}$
 - $39 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}$
 - $18 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}$
 - $1.2 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}$
- A spinner in a board game can be thought of as a thin rod that spins about an axis at its center. The spinner in a certain game is 12 cm long and has a mass of 10 g. How will its angular velocity change when it is flicked at one end with a force equivalent to 15 g travelling at 5.0 m/s if all the energy of the collision is transferred to the spinner? (You can use the table in [Figure 10.12](#) to estimate the rotational inertia of the spinner.)
- A cyclist pedals to exert a torque on the rear wheel of the bicycle. When the cyclist changes to a higher gear, the torque increases. Which of the following would be the most effective strategy to help you determine the change in angular momentum of the bicycle wheel?
 - multiplying the ratio between the two torques by the mass of the bicycle and rider
 - adding the two torques together, and multiplying by the time for which both torques are applied
 - multiplying the difference in the two torques by the time for which the new torque is applied
 - multiplying both torques by the mass of the bicycle and rider
- An electric screwdriver has two speeds, each of which exerts a different torque on a screw.

Describe what calculations you could use to help you compare the angular momentum of a screw at each speed. What measurements would you need to make in order to calculate this?

- 25.** Why is it important to consider the shape of an object when determining the object's angular momentum?
- The shape determines the location of the center of mass. The location of the center of mass in turn determines the angular velocity of the object.
 - The shape helps you determine the location of the object's outer edge, where rotational velocity will be greatest.
 - The shape helps you determine the location of the center of rotation.
 - The shape determines the location of the center of mass. The location of the center of mass contributes to the object's rotational inertia, which contributes to its angular momentum.
- 26.** How could you collect and analyze data to test the difference between the torques provided by two speeds on a tabletop fan?

27. Describe a rotational system you could use to demonstrate the effect on the system's angular momentum of applying different amounts of external torque.

28. How could you use simple equipment such as balls and string to study the changes in angular momentum of a system when it interacts with another system?

10.7 Gyroscopic Effects: Vector Aspects of Angular Momentum

29. A globe (model of the Earth) is a hollow sphere with a radius of 16 cm. By wrapping a cord around the equator of a globe and pulling on it, a person exerts a torque on the globe of $120 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}$ for 1.2 s. What angular momentum does the globe have after 1.2 s?

30. How could you use a fishing reel to test the relationship between the torque applied to a system, the time for which the torque was applied, and the resulting angular momentum of the system? How would you measure angular momentum?

CHAPTER 11

Fluid Statics



FIGURE 11.1 The fluid essential to all life has a beauty of its own. It also helps support the weight of this swimmer. (credit: 12019, Pixabay)

CHAPTER OUTLINE

11.1 What Is a Fluid?

11.2 Density

11.3 Pressure

11.4 Variation of Pressure with Depth in a Fluid

11.5 Pascal's Principle

11.6 Gauge Pressure, Absolute Pressure, and Pressure Measurement

11.7 Archimedes' Principle

11.8 Cohesion and Adhesion in Liquids: Surface Tension and Capillary Action

11.9 Pressures in the Body

CONNECTION FOR AP® COURSES Much of what we value in life is fluid: a breath of fresh winter air; the water we drink, swim in, and bathe in; the blood in our veins. But what exactly is a fluid? Can we understand fluids with the laws already presented, or will new laws emerge from their study?

As you read this chapter, you will learn how the arrangement and interaction of the particles—atoms and molecules—that make up a fluid define many of its macroscopic characteristics, like density and pressure (Big Idea

1, Enduring Understanding 1.E, Essential Knowledge 1.E.1). While the number of particles in a fluid is often immense, you will be able to use a probabilistic approach in order to explain how a fluid affects its environment in a variety of ways (Big Idea 7, Enduring Understanding 7.A, Essential Knowledge 7.A.1). From the pressure a fluid places on the walls of a hydraulic system to a variety of biological and medical applications, understanding a fluid's properties begins with understanding its internal structure.

Big Idea 1 Objects and systems have properties such as mass and charge. Systems may have internal structure.

Enduring Understanding 1.E Materials have many macroscopic properties that result from the arrangement and interactions of the atoms and molecules that make up the material.

Essential Knowledge 1.E.1 Matter has a property called density.

Big Idea 7 The mathematics of probability can be used to describe the behavior of complex systems and to interpret the behavior of quantum mechanical systems.

Enduring Understanding 7.A The properties of an ideal gas can be explained in terms of a small number of macroscopic variables including temperature and pressure.

Essential Knowledge 7.A.1 The pressure of a system determines the force that the system exerts on the walls of its container and is a measure of the average change in the momentum or impulse of the molecules colliding with the walls of the container. The pressure also exists inside the system itself, not just at the walls of the container.

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11.1 What Is a Fluid?

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- State the common phases of matter.
- Explain the physical characteristics of solids, liquids, and gases.
- Describe the arrangement of atoms in solids, liquids, and gases.

Matter most commonly exists as a solid, liquid, gas, or plasma; these states are known as the common *phases of matter*. Solids have a definite shape and a specific volume, liquids have a definite volume but their shape changes depending on the container in which they are held, gases have neither a definite shape nor a specific volume as their molecules move to fill the container in which they are held, and plasmas also have neither definite shape nor volume. (See [Figure 11.2](#).) Liquids, gases, and plasmas are considered to be fluids because they yield to shearing forces, whereas solids resist them. Note that the extent to which fluids yield to shearing forces (and hence flow easily and quickly) depends on a quantity called the viscosity which is discussed in detail in [Viscosity and Laminar Flow; Poiseuille's Law](#). We can understand the phases of matter and what constitutes a fluid by considering the forces between atoms that make up matter in the three phases.

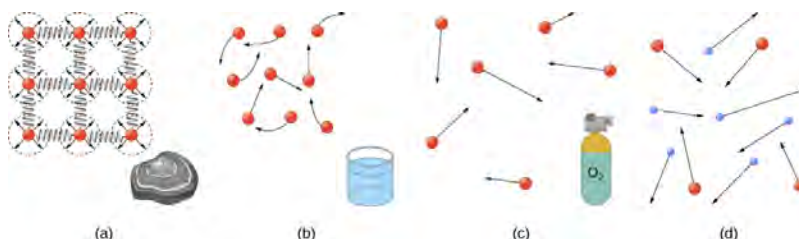


FIGURE 11.2 (a) Atoms in a solid always have the same neighbors, held near home by forces represented here by springs. These atoms are essentially in contact with one another. A rock is an example of a solid. This rock retains its shape because of the forces holding its atoms together. (b) Atoms in a liquid are also in close contact but can slide over one another. Forces between them strongly resist attempts to push them closer together and also hold them in close contact. Water is an example of a liquid. Water can flow, but it also remains in an open container because of the forces between its atoms. (c) Atoms in a gas are separated by distances that are considerably larger than the size of the atoms themselves, and they move about freely. A gas must be held in a closed container to prevent it from moving out freely. (d) A plasma is composed of electrons, protons, and ions that, like gases, are spaced far apart and move about freely.

Atoms in *solids* are in close contact, with forces between them that allow the atoms to vibrate but not to change positions with neighboring atoms. (These forces can be thought of as springs that can be stretched or compressed, but not easily broken.) Thus a solid *resists* all types of stress. A solid cannot be easily deformed because the atoms

that make up the solid are not able to move about freely. Solids also resist compression, because their atoms form part of a lattice structure in which the atoms are a relatively fixed distance apart. Under compression, the atoms would be forced into one another. Most of the examples we have studied so far have involved solid objects which deform very little when stressed.

CONNECTIONS: SUBMICROSCOPIC EXPLANATION OF SOLIDS AND LIQUIDS

Atomic and molecular characteristics explain and underlie the macroscopic characteristics of solids and fluids. This submicroscopic explanation is one theme of this text and is highlighted in the Things Great and Small features in [Conservation of Momentum](#). See, for example, microscopic description of collisions and momentum or microscopic description of pressure in a gas. This present section is devoted entirely to the submicroscopic explanation of solids and liquids.

In contrast, *liquids* deform easily when stressed and do not spring back to their original shape once the force is removed because the atoms are free to slide about and change neighbors—that is, they *flow* (so they are a type of fluid), with the molecules held together by their mutual attraction. When a liquid is placed in a container with no lid on, it remains in the container (providing the container has no holes below the surface of the liquid!). Because the atoms are closely packed, liquids, like solids, resist compression.

Atoms in *gases* and charged particles in *plasmas* are separated by distances that are large compared with the size of the particles. The forces between the particles are therefore very weak, except when they collide with one another. Gases and plasmas thus not only flow (and are therefore considered to be fluids) but they are relatively easy to compress because there is much space and little force between the particles. When placed in an open container gases, unlike liquids, will escape. The major distinction is that gases are easily compressed, whereas liquids are not. Plasmas are difficult to contain because they have so much energy. When discussing how substances flow, we shall generally refer to both gases and liquids simply as **fluids**, and make a distinction between them only when they behave differently.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

States of Matter—Basics

Heat, cool, and compress atoms and molecules and watch as they change between solid, liquid, and gas phases.

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/11-1-what-is-a-fluid\)](https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/11-1-what-is-a-fluid)



11.2 Density

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define density.
- Calculate the mass of a reservoir from its density.
- Compare and contrast the densities of various substances.

Which weighs more, a ton of feathers or a ton of bricks? This old riddle plays with the distinction between mass and density. A ton is a ton, of course; but bricks have much greater density than feathers, and so we are tempted to think of them as heavier. (See [Figure 11.3](#).)

Density, as you will see, is an important characteristic of substances. It is crucial, for example, in determining whether an object sinks or floats in a fluid. Density is the mass per unit volume of a substance or object. In equation form, density is defined as

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V}, \quad 11.1$$

where the Greek letter ρ (rho) is the symbol for density, m is the mass, and V is the volume occupied by the

substance.

DENSITY

Density is mass per unit volume.

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V},$$

11.2

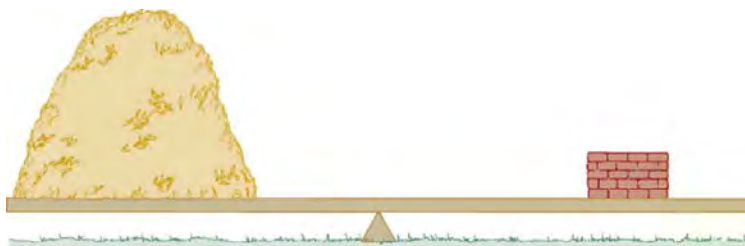
where ρ is the symbol for density, m is the mass, and V is the volume occupied by the substance.

In the riddle regarding the feathers and bricks, the masses are the same, but the volume occupied by the feathers is much greater, since their density is much lower. The SI unit of density is kg/m^3 , representative values are given in [Table 11.1](#). The metric system was originally devised so that water would have a density of 1 g/cm^3 , equivalent to 10^3 kg/m^3 . Thus the basic mass unit, the kilogram, was first devised to be the mass of 1000 mL of water, which has a volume of 1000 cm^3 .

Substance	$\rho(\times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3 \text{ or g/mL})$	Substance	$\rho(10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3 \text{ or g/mL})$	Substance	$\rho(10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3 \text{ or g/mL})$
Solids		Liquids		Gases	
Aluminum	2.7	Water (4°C)	1.000	Air	1.29×10^{-3}
Brass	8.44	Blood	1.05	Carbon dioxide	1.98×10^{-3}
Copper (average)	8.8	Sea water	1.025	Carbon monoxide	1.25×10^{-3}
Gold	19.32	Mercury	13.6	Hydrogen	0.090×10^{-3}
Iron or steel	7.8	Ethyl alcohol	0.79	Helium	0.18×10^{-3}
Lead	11.3	Gasoline	0.68	Methane	0.72×10^{-3}
Polystyrene	0.10	Glycerin	1.26	Nitrogen	1.25×10^{-3}
Tungsten	19.30	Olive oil	0.92	Nitrous oxide	1.98×10^{-3}
Uranium	18.70			Oxygen	1.43×10^{-3}
Concrete	2.30–3.0			Steam (100° C)	0.60×10^{-3}
Cork	0.24				

TABLE 11.1 Densities of Various Substances

Substance	$\rho(\times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3 \text{ or g/mL})$	Substance	$\rho(10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3 \text{ or g/mL})$	Substance	$\rho(10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3 \text{ or g/mL})$
Glass, common (average)	2.6				
Granite	2.7				
Earth's crust	3.3				
Wood	0.3–0.9				
Ice (0°C)	0.917				
Bone	1.7–2.0				
Silver	10.49				

TABLE 11.1 Densities of Various Substances**FIGURE 11.3** A ton of feathers and a ton of bricks have the same mass, but the feathers make a much bigger pile because they have a much lower density.

As you can see by examining [Table 11.1](#), the density of an object may help identify its composition. The density of gold, for example, is about 2.5 times the density of iron, which is about 2.5 times the density of aluminum. Density also reveals something about the phase of the matter and its substructure. Notice that the densities of liquids and solids are roughly comparable, consistent with the fact that their atoms are in close contact. The densities of gases are much less than those of liquids and solids, because the atoms in gases are separated by large amounts of empty space.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT SUGAR AND SALT

A pile of sugar and a pile of salt look pretty similar, but which weighs more? If the volumes of both piles are the same, any difference in mass is due to their different densities (including the air space between crystals). Which do you think has the greater density? What values did you find? What method did you use to determine these values?



EXAMPLE 11.1

Calculating the Mass of a Reservoir From Its Volume

A reservoir has a surface area of 50.0 km^2 and an average depth of 40.0 m . What mass of water is held behind the dam? (See [Figure 11.4](#) for a view of a large reservoir—the Three Gorges Dam site on the Yangtze River in central China.)

Strategy

We can calculate the volume V of the reservoir from its dimensions, and find the density of water ρ in [Table 11.1](#). Then the mass m can be found from the definition of density

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V}. \quad 11.3$$

Solution

Solving equation $\rho = m/V$ for m gives $m = \rho V$.

The volume V of the reservoir is its surface area A times its average depth h :

$$\begin{aligned} V &= Ah = (50.0 \text{ km}^2)(40.0 \text{ m}) \\ &= \left[(50.0 \text{ km}^2) \left(\frac{10^3 \text{ m}}{1 \text{ km}} \right)^2 \right] (40.0 \text{ m}) = 2.00 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^3 \end{aligned} \quad 11.4$$

The density of water ρ from [Table 11.1](#) is $1.000 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3$. Substituting V and ρ into the expression for mass gives

$$\begin{aligned} m &= (1.00 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3)(2.00 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^3) \\ &= 2.00 \times 10^{12} \text{ kg}. \end{aligned} \quad 11.5$$

Discussion

A large reservoir contains a very large mass of water. In this example, the weight of the water in the reservoir is $mg = 1.96 \times 10^{13} \text{ N}$, where g is the acceleration due to the Earth's gravity (about 9.80 m/s^2). It is reasonable to ask whether the dam must supply a force equal to this tremendous weight. The answer is no. As we shall see in the following sections, the force the dam must supply can be much smaller than the weight of the water it holds back.



FIGURE 11.4 Three Gorges Dam in central China. When completed in 2008, this became the world's largest hydroelectric plant, generating power equivalent to that generated by 22 average-sized nuclear power plants. The concrete dam is 181 m high and 2.3 km across. The reservoir made by this dam is 660 km long. Over 1 million people were displaced by the creation of the reservoir. (credit: Le Grand Portage)

11.3 Pressure

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define pressure.
- Explain the relationship between pressure and force.
- Calculate force given pressure and area.

You have no doubt heard the word **pressure** being used in relation to blood (high or low blood pressure) and in relation to the weather (high- and low-pressure weather systems). These are only two of many examples of pressures in fluids. Pressure P is defined as

$$P = \frac{F}{A} \quad 11.6$$

where F is a force applied to an area A that is perpendicular to the force.

PRESSURE

Pressure is defined as the force divided by the area perpendicular to the force over which the force is applied, or

$$P = \frac{F}{A}. \quad 11.7$$

A given force can have a significantly different effect depending on the area over which the force is exerted, as shown in [Figure 11.5](#). The SI unit for pressure is the *pascal*, where

$$1 \text{ Pa} = 1 \text{ N/m}^2. \quad 11.8$$

In addition to the pascal, there are many other units for pressure that are in common use. In meteorology, atmospheric pressure is often described in units of millibar (mb), where

$$100 \text{ mb} = 1 \times 10^4 \text{ Pa}. \quad 11.9$$

Pounds per square inch (lb/in² or psi) is still sometimes used as a measure of tire pressure, and millimeters of mercury (mm Hg) is still often used in the measurement of blood pressure. Pressure is defined for all states of matter but is particularly important when discussing fluids.

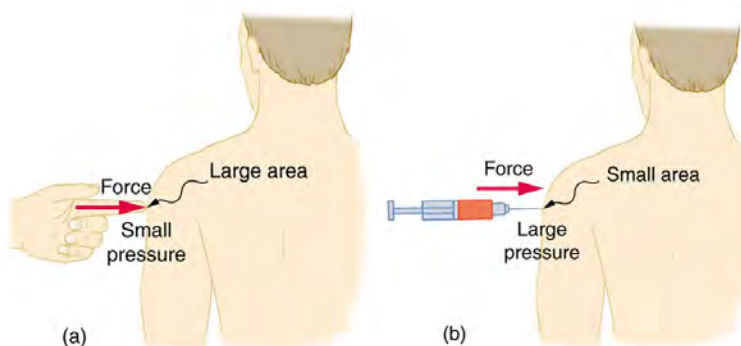


FIGURE 11.5 (a) While the person being poked with the finger might be irritated, the force has little lasting effect. (b) In contrast, the same force applied to an area the size of the sharp end of a needle is great enough to break the skin.

EXAMPLE 11.2

Calculating Force Exerted by the Air: What Force Does a Pressure Exert?

An astronaut is working outside the International Space Station where the atmospheric pressure is essentially zero. The pressure gauge on her air tank reads $6.90 \times 10^6 \text{ Pa}$. What force does the air inside the tank exert on the flat end of the cylindrical tank, a disk 0.150 m in diameter?

Strategy

We can find the force exerted from the definition of pressure given in $P = \frac{F}{A}$, provided we can find the area A acted upon.

Solution

By rearranging the definition of pressure to solve for force, we see that

$$F = PA. \quad 11.10$$

Here, the pressure P is given, as is the area of the end of the cylinder A , given by $A = \pi r^2$. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
 F &= (6.90 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2)(3.14)(0.0750 \text{ m})^2 \\
 &= 1.22 \times 10^5 \text{ N.}
 \end{aligned}$$

11.11

Discussion

Wow! No wonder the tank must be strong. Since we found $F = PA$, we see that the force exerted by a pressure is directly proportional to the area acted upon as well as the pressure itself.

The force exerted on the end of the tank is perpendicular to its inside surface. This direction is because the force is exerted by a static or stationary fluid. We have already seen that fluids cannot *withstand* shearing (sideways) forces; they cannot *exert* shearing forces, either. Fluid pressure has no direction, being a scalar quantity. The forces due to pressure have well-defined directions: they are always exerted perpendicular to any surface. (See the tire in [Figure 11.6](#), for example.) Finally, note that pressure is exerted on all surfaces. Swimmers, as well as the tire, feel pressure on all sides. (See [Figure 11.7](#).)

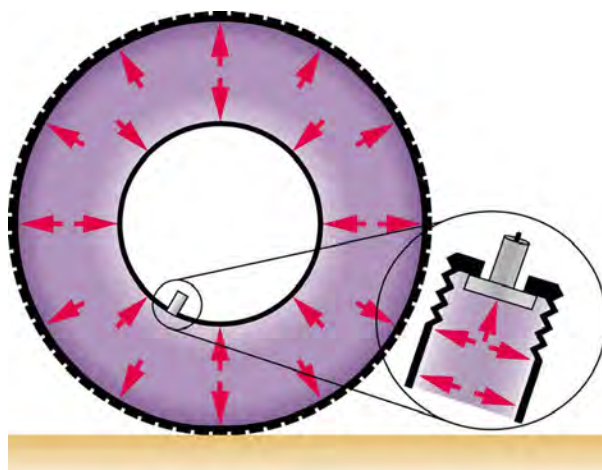


FIGURE 11.6 Pressure inside this tire exerts forces perpendicular to all surfaces it contacts. The arrows give representative directions and magnitudes of the forces exerted at various points. Note that static fluids do not exert shearing forces.

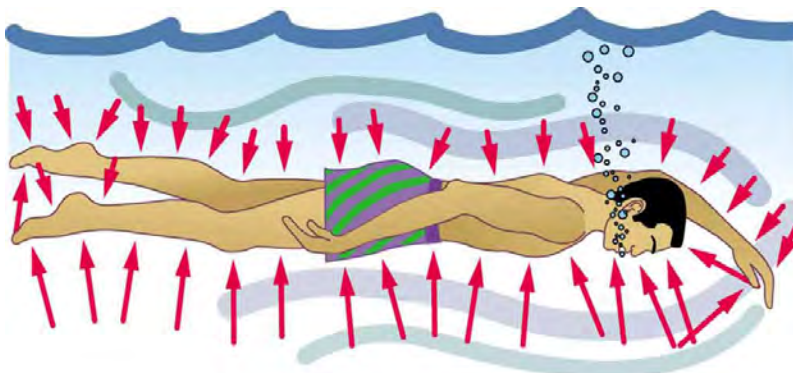


FIGURE 11.7 Pressure is exerted on all sides of this swimmer, since the water would flow into the space he occupies if he were not there. The arrows represent the directions and magnitudes of the forces exerted at various points on the swimmer. Note that the forces are larger underneath, due to greater depth, giving a net upward or buoyant force that is balanced by the weight of the swimmer.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

Gas Properties

Pump gas molecules to a box and see what happens as you change the volume, add or remove heat, change gravity, and more. Measure the temperature and pressure, and discover how the properties of the gas vary in relation to each other.

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/11-3-pressure\)](https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/11-3-pressure)



11.4 Variation of Pressure with Depth in a Fluid

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define pressure in terms of weight.
- Explain the variation of pressure with depth in a fluid.
- Calculate density given pressure and altitude.

If your ears have ever popped on a plane flight or ached during a deep dive in a swimming pool, you have experienced the effect of depth on pressure in a fluid. At the Earth's surface, the air pressure exerted on you is a result of the weight of air above you. This pressure is reduced as you climb up in altitude and the weight of air above you decreases. Under water, the pressure exerted on you increases with increasing depth. In this case, the pressure being exerted upon you is a result of both the weight of water above you *and* that of the atmosphere above you. You may notice an air pressure change on an elevator ride that transports you many stories, but you need only dive a meter or so below the surface of a pool to feel a pressure increase. The difference is that water is much denser than air, about 775 times as dense.

Consider the container in [Figure 11.8](#). Its bottom supports the weight of the fluid in it. Let us calculate the pressure exerted on the bottom by the weight of the fluid. That **pressure** is the weight of the fluid mg divided by the area A supporting it (the area of the bottom of the container):

$$P = \frac{mg}{A}. \quad 11.12$$

We can find the mass of the fluid from its volume and density:

$$m = \rho V. \quad 11.13$$

The volume of the fluid V is related to the dimensions of the container. It is

$$V = Ah, \quad 11.14$$

where A is the cross-sectional area and h is the depth. Combining the last two equations gives

$$m = \rho Ah. \quad 11.15$$

If we enter this into the expression for pressure, we obtain

$$P = \frac{(\rho Ah)g}{A}. \quad 11.16$$

The area cancels, and rearranging the variables yields

$$P = h\rho g. \quad 11.17$$

This value is the *pressure due to the weight of a fluid*. The equation has general validity beyond the special conditions under which it is derived here. Even if the container were not there, the surrounding fluid would still exert this pressure, keeping the fluid static. Thus the equation $P = h\rho g$ represents the pressure due to the weight of any fluid of *average density* ρ at any depth h below its surface. For liquids, which are nearly incompressible, this equation holds to great depths. For gases, which are quite compressible, one can apply this equation as long as the density changes are small over the depth considered. [Example 11.4](#) illustrates this situation.

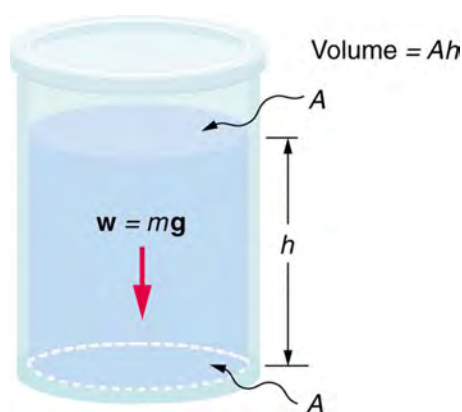


FIGURE 11.8 The bottom of this container supports the entire weight of the fluid in it. The vertical sides cannot exert an upward force on the fluid (since it cannot withstand a shearing force), and so the bottom must support it all.



EXAMPLE 11.3

Calculating the Average Pressure and Force Exerted: What Force Must a Dam Withstand?

In [Example 11.1](#), we calculated the mass of water in a large reservoir. We will now consider the pressure and force acting on the dam retaining water. (See [Figure 11.9](#).) The dam is 500 m wide, and the water is 80.0 m deep at the dam. (a) What is the average pressure on the dam due to the water? (b) Calculate the force exerted against the dam and compare it with the weight of water in the dam (previously found to be 1.96×10^{13} N).

Strategy for (a)

The average pressure $\bar{P}$ due to the weight of the water is the pressure at the average depth $\bar{h}$ of 40.0 m, since pressure increases linearly with depth.

Solution for (a)

The average pressure due to the weight of a fluid is

$$\bar{P} = \bar{h}\rho g. \quad 11.18$$

Entering the density of water from [Table 11.1](#) and taking $\bar{h}$ to be the average depth of 40.0 m, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{P} &= (40.0 \text{ m}) \left(10^3 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} \right) \left(9.80 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}^2} \right) \\ &= 3.92 \times 10^5 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}^2} = 392 \text{ kPa}. \end{aligned} \quad 11.19$$

Strategy for (b)

The force exerted on the dam by the water is the average pressure times the area of contact:

$$F = \bar{P}A. \quad 11.20$$

Solution for (b)

We have already found the value for $\bar{P}$. The area of the dam is $A = 80.0 \text{ m} \times 500 \text{ m} = 4.00 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^2$, so that

$$\begin{aligned} F &= (3.92 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2)(4.00 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^2) \\ &= 1.57 \times 10^{10} \text{ N}. \end{aligned} \quad 11.21$$

Discussion

Although this force seems large, it is small compared with the 1.96×10^{13} N weight of the water in the reservoir—in fact, it is only 0.0800% of the weight. Note that the pressure found in part (a) is completely independent of the width and length of the lake—it depends only on its average depth at the dam. Thus the force depends only on the water's average depth and the dimensions of the dam, *not* on the horizontal extent of the reservoir. In the diagram, the

thickness of the dam increases with depth to balance the increasing force due to the increasing pressure. The dam must balance the increasing force due to the increasing pressure.

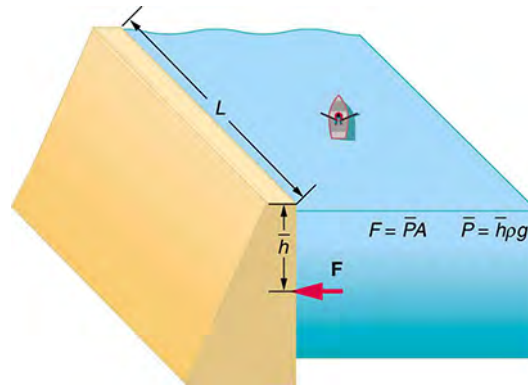


FIGURE 11.9 The dam must withstand the force exerted against it by the water it retains. This force is small compared with the weight of the water behind the dam.

Atmospheric pressure is another example of pressure due to the weight of a fluid, in this case due to the weight of *air* above a given height. The atmospheric pressure at the Earth's surface varies a little due to the large-scale flow of the atmosphere induced by the Earth's rotation (this creates weather “highs” and “lows”). However, the average pressure at sea level is given by the *standard atmospheric pressure* P_{atm} , measured to be

$$1 \text{ atmosphere (atm)} = P_{\text{atm}} = 1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2 = 101 \text{ kPa}. \quad 11.22$$

This relationship means that, on average, at sea level, a column of air above 1.00 m^2 of the Earth's surface has a weight of $1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ N}$, equivalent to 1 atm. (See [Figure 11.10](#).)

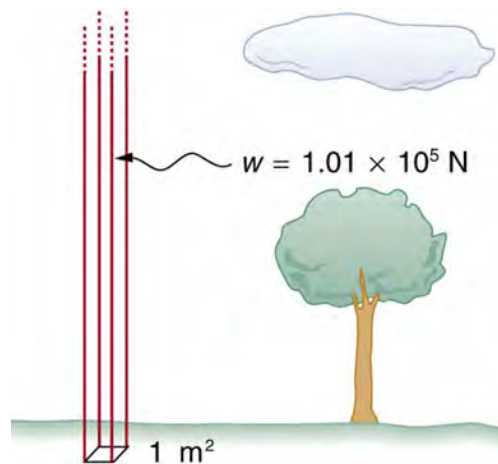


FIGURE 11.10 Atmospheric pressure at sea level averages $1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}$ (equivalent to 1 atm), since the column of air over this 1 m^2 , extending to the top of the atmosphere, weighs $1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ N}$.



EXAMPLE 11.4

Calculating Average Density: How Dense Is the Air?

Calculate the average density of the atmosphere, given that it extends to an altitude of 120 km. Compare this density with that of air listed in [Table 11.1](#).

Strategy

If we solve $P = h\rho g$ for density, we see that

$$\bar{\rho} = \frac{P}{hg}. \quad 11.23$$

We then take P to be atmospheric pressure, h is given, and g is known, and so we can use this to calculate $\bar{\rho}$.

Solution

Entering known values into the expression for $\bar{\rho}$ yields

$$\bar{\rho} = \frac{1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2}{(120 \times 10^3 \text{ m})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)} = 8.59 \times 10^{-2} \text{ kg/m}^3. \quad 11.24$$

Discussion

This result is the average density of air between the Earth's surface and the top of the Earth's atmosphere, which essentially ends at 120 km. The density of air at sea level is given in [Table 11.1](#) as 1.29 kg/m^3 —about 15 times its average value. Because air is so compressible, its density has its highest value near the Earth's surface and declines rapidly with altitude.



EXAMPLE 11.5

Calculating Depth Below the Surface of Water: What Depth of Water Creates the Same Pressure as the Entire Atmosphere?

Calculate the depth below the surface of water at which the pressure due to the weight of the water equals 1.00 atm.

Strategy

We begin by solving the equation $P = h\rho g$ for depth h :

$$h = \frac{P}{\rho g}. \quad 11.25$$

Then we take P to be 1.00 atm and ρ to be the density of the water that creates the pressure.

Solution

Entering the known values into the expression for h gives

$$h = \frac{1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2}{(1.00 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3)(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)} = 10.3 \text{ m}. \quad 11.26$$

Discussion

Just 10.3 m of water creates the same pressure as 120 km of air. Since water is nearly incompressible, we can neglect any change in its density over this depth.

What do you suppose is the *total* pressure at a depth of 10.3 m in a swimming pool? Does the atmospheric pressure on the water's surface affect the pressure below? The answer is yes. This seems only logical, since both the water's weight and the atmosphere's weight must be supported. So the *total* pressure at a depth of 10.3 m is 2 atm—half from the water above and half from the air above. We shall see in [Pascal's Principle](#) that fluid pressures always add in this way.

11.5 Pascal's Principle

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define pressure.
- State Pascal's principle.
- Understand applications of Pascal's principle.
- Derive relationships between forces in a hydraulic system.

Pressure is defined as force per unit area. Can pressure be increased in a fluid by pushing directly on the fluid? Yes, but it is much easier if the fluid is enclosed. The heart, for example, increases blood pressure by pushing directly on the blood in an enclosed system (valves closed in a chamber). If you try to push on a fluid in an open system, such as a river, the fluid flows away. An enclosed fluid cannot flow away, and so pressure is more easily increased by an applied force.

What happens to a pressure in an enclosed fluid? Since atoms in a fluid are free to move about, they transmit the pressure to all parts of the fluid and to the walls of the container. Remarkably, the pressure is transmitted *undiminished*. This phenomenon is called **Pascal's principle**, because it was first clearly stated by the French philosopher and scientist Blaise Pascal (1623–1662): A change in pressure applied to an enclosed fluid is transmitted undiminished to all portions of the fluid and to the walls of its container.

PASCAL'S PRINCIPLE

A change in pressure applied to an enclosed fluid is transmitted undiminished to all portions of the fluid and to the walls of its container.

Pascal's principle, an experimentally verified fact, is what makes pressure so important in fluids. Since a change in pressure is transmitted undiminished in an enclosed fluid, we often know more about pressure than other physical quantities in fluids. Moreover, Pascal's principle implies that *the total pressure in a fluid is the sum of the pressures from different sources*. We shall find this fact—that pressures add—very useful.

Blaise Pascal had an interesting life in that he was home-schooled by his father who removed all of the mathematics textbooks from his house and forbade him to study mathematics until the age of 15. This, of course, raised the boy's curiosity, and by the age of 12, he started to teach himself geometry. Despite this early deprivation, Pascal went on to make major contributions in the mathematical fields of probability theory, number theory, and geometry. He is also well known for being the inventor of the first mechanical digital calculator, in addition to his contributions in the field of fluid statics.

Application of Pascal's Principle

One of the most important technological applications of Pascal's principle is found in a *hydraulic system*, which is an enclosed fluid system used to exert forces. The most common hydraulic systems are those that operate car brakes. Let us first consider the simple hydraulic system shown in [Figure 11.11](#).

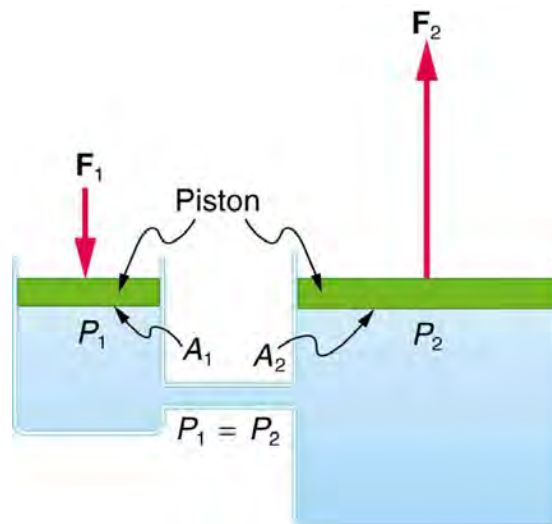


FIGURE 11.11 A typical hydraulic system with two fluid-filled cylinders, capped with pistons and connected by a tube called a hydraulic line. A downward force F_1 on the left piston creates a pressure that is transmitted undiminished to all parts of the enclosed fluid. This results in an upward force F_2 on the right piston that is larger than F_1 because the right piston has a larger area.

Relationship Between Forces in a Hydraulic System

We can derive a relationship between the forces in the simple hydraulic system shown in [Figure 11.11](#) by applying Pascal's principle. Note first that the two pistons in the system are at the same height, and so there will be no difference in pressure due to a difference in depth. Now the pressure due to F_1 acting on area A_1 is simply $P_1 = \frac{F_1}{A_1}$, as defined by $P = \frac{F}{A}$. According to Pascal's principle, this pressure is transmitted undiminished throughout the fluid and to all walls of the container. Thus, a pressure P_2 is felt at the other piston that is equal to P_1 . That is $P_1 = P_2$.

But since $P_2 = \frac{F_2}{A_2}$, we see that $\frac{F_1}{A_1} = \frac{F_2}{A_2}$.

This equation relates the ratios of force to area in any hydraulic system, providing the pistons are at the same vertical height and that friction in the system is negligible. Hydraulic systems can increase or decrease the force applied to them. To make the force larger, the pressure is applied to a larger area. For example, if a 100-N force is applied to the left cylinder in [Figure 11.11](#) and the right one has an area five times greater, then the force out is 500 N. Hydraulic systems are analogous to simple levers, but they have the advantage that pressure can be sent through tortuously curved lines to several places at once.



EXAMPLE 11.6

Calculating Force of Wheel Cylinders: Pascal Puts on the Brakes

Consider the automobile hydraulic system shown in [Figure 11.12](#).

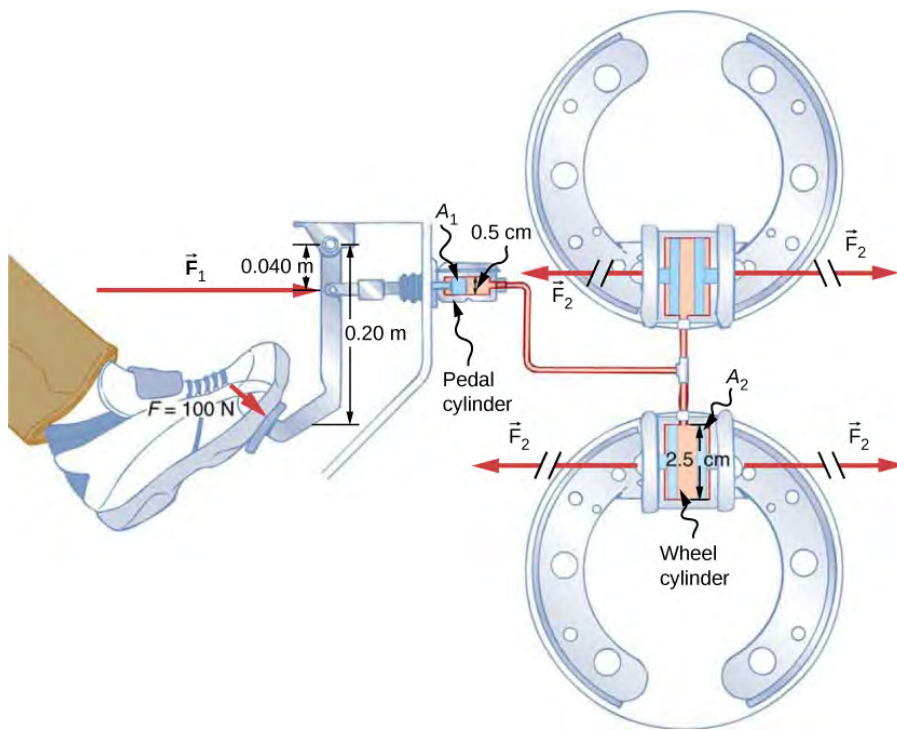


FIGURE 11.12 Hydraulic brakes use Pascal's principle. The driver exerts a force of 100 N on the brake pedal. This force is increased by the simple lever and again by the hydraulic system. Each of the identical wheel cylinders receives the same pressure and, therefore, creates the same force output F_2 . The circular cross-sectional areas of the pedal and wheel cylinders are represented by A_1 and A_2 , respectively.

A force of 100 N is applied to the brake pedal, which acts on the pedal cylinder through a lever. A force of 500 N is exerted on the pedal cylinder. (The reader can verify that the force is 500 N using techniques of statics from [Applications of Statics, Including Problem-Solving Strategies](#).) Pressure created in the pedal cylinder is transmitted to four wheel cylinders. The pedal cylinder has a diameter of 0.500 cm, and each wheel cylinder has a diameter of 2.50 cm. Calculate the force F_2 created at each of the wheel cylinders.

Strategy

We are given the force F_1 that is applied to the pedal cylinder. The cross-sectional areas A_1 and A_2 can be calculated from their given diameters. Then $\frac{F_1}{A_1} = \frac{F_2}{A_2}$ can be used to find the force F_2 . Manipulate this algebraically to get F_2 on one side and substitute known values:

Solution

Pascal's principle applied to hydraulic systems is given by $\frac{F_1}{A_1} = \frac{F_2}{A_2}$:

$$F_2 = \frac{A_2}{A_1} F_1 = \frac{\pi r_2^2}{\pi r_1^2} F_1 = \frac{(1.25 \text{ cm})^2}{(0.250 \text{ cm})^2} \times 500 \text{ N} = 1.25 \times 10^4 \text{ N}. \quad 11.27$$

Discussion

This value is the force exerted by each of the four wheel cylinders. Note that we can add as many wheel cylinders as we wish. If each has a 2.50-cm diameter, each will exert $1.25 \times 10^4 \text{ N}$.

A simple hydraulic system, such as a simple machine, can increase force but cannot do more work than done on it. Work is force times distance moved, and the wheel cylinder moves through a smaller distance than the pedal cylinder. Furthermore, the more wheels added, the smaller the distance each moves. Many hydraulic systems—such as power brakes and those in bulldozers—have a motorized pump that actually does most of the work in the system. The movement of the legs of a spider is achieved partly by hydraulics. Using hydraulics, a jumping spider can create a force that makes it capable of jumping 25 times its length!

MAKING CONNECTIONS: CONSERVATION OF ENERGY

Conservation of energy applied to a hydraulic system tells us that the system cannot do more work than is done on it. Work transfers energy, and so the work output cannot exceed the work input. Power brakes and other similar hydraulic systems use pumps to supply extra energy when needed.

11.6 Gauge Pressure, Absolute Pressure, and Pressure Measurement

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define gauge pressure and absolute pressure.
- Understand the working of aneroid and open-tube barometers.

If you limp into a gas station with a nearly flat tire, you will notice the tire gauge on the airline reads nearly zero when you begin to fill it. In fact, if there were a gaping hole in your tire, the gauge would read zero, even though atmospheric pressure exists in the tire. Why does the gauge read zero? There is no mystery here. Tire gauges are simply designed to read zero at atmospheric pressure and positive when pressure is greater than atmospheric.

Similarly, atmospheric pressure adds to blood pressure in every part of the circulatory system. (As noted in [Pascal's Principle](#), the total pressure in a fluid is the sum of the pressures from different sources—here, the heart and the atmosphere.) But atmospheric pressure has no net effect on blood flow since it adds to the pressure coming out of the heart and going back into it, too. What is important is how much *greater* blood pressure is than atmospheric pressure. Blood pressure measurements, like tire pressures, are thus made relative to atmospheric pressure.

In brief, it is very common for pressure gauges to ignore atmospheric pressure—that is, to read zero at atmospheric pressure. We therefore define **gauge pressure** to be the pressure relative to atmospheric pressure. Gauge pressure is positive for pressures above atmospheric pressure, and negative for pressures below it.

GAUGE PRESSURE

Gauge pressure is the pressure relative to atmospheric pressure. Gauge pressure is positive for pressures above atmospheric pressure, and negative for pressures below it.

In fact, atmospheric pressure does add to the pressure in any fluid not enclosed in a rigid container. This happens because of Pascal's principle. The total pressure, or **absolute pressure**, is thus the sum of gauge pressure and atmospheric pressure: $P_{\text{abs}} = P_{\text{g}} + P_{\text{atm}}$ where P_{abs} is absolute pressure, P_{g} is gauge pressure, and P_{atm} is atmospheric pressure. For example, if your tire gauge reads 34 psi (pounds per square inch), then the absolute pressure is 34 psi plus 14.7 psi (P_{atm} in psi), or 48.7 psi (equivalent to 336 kPa).

ABSOLUTE PRESSURE

Absolute pressure is the sum of gauge pressure and atmospheric pressure.

For reasons we will explore later, in most cases the absolute pressure in fluids cannot be negative. Fluids push rather than pull, so the smallest absolute pressure is zero. (A negative absolute pressure is a pull.) Thus the smallest possible gauge pressure is $P_{\text{g}} = -P_{\text{atm}}$ (this makes P_{abs} zero). There is no theoretical limit to how large a gauge pressure can be.

There are a host of devices for measuring pressure, ranging from tire gauges to blood pressure cuffs. Pascal's principle is of major importance in these devices. The undiminished transmission of pressure through a fluid allows precise remote sensing of pressures. Remote sensing is often more convenient than putting a measuring device into a system, such as a person's artery.

[Figure 11.13](#) shows one of the many types of mechanical pressure gauges in use today. In all mechanical pressure

gauges, pressure results in a force that is converted (or transduced) into some type of readout.

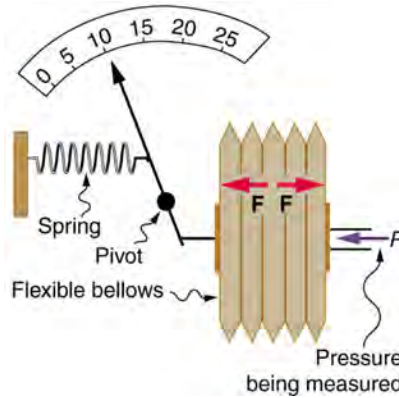


FIGURE 11.13 This aneroid gauge utilizes flexible bellows connected to a mechanical indicator to measure pressure.

An entire class of gauges uses the property that pressure due to the weight of a fluid is given by $P = h\rho g$. Consider the U-shaped tube shown in [Figure 11.14](#), for example. This simple tube is called a *manometer*. In [Figure 11.14\(a\)](#), both sides of the tube are open to the atmosphere. Atmospheric pressure therefore pushes down on each side equally so its effect cancels. If the fluid is deeper on one side, there is a greater pressure on the deeper side, and the fluid flows away from that side until the depths are equal.

Let us examine how a manometer is used to measure pressure. Suppose one side of the U-tube is connected to some source of pressure P_{abs} such as the toy balloon in [Figure 11.14\(b\)](#) or the vacuum-packed peanut jar shown in [Figure 11.14\(c\)](#). Pressure is transmitted undiminished to the manometer, and the fluid levels are no longer equal. In [Figure 11.14\(b\)](#), P_{abs} is greater than atmospheric pressure, whereas in [Figure 11.14\(c\)](#), P_{abs} is less than atmospheric pressure. In both cases, P_{abs} differs from atmospheric pressure by an amount $h\rho g$, where ρ is the density of the fluid in the manometer. In [Figure 11.14\(b\)](#), P_{abs} can support a column of fluid of height h , and so it must exert a pressure $h\rho g$ greater than atmospheric pressure (the gauge pressure P_g is positive). In [Figure 11.14\(c\)](#), atmospheric pressure can support a column of fluid of height h , and so P_{abs} is less than atmospheric pressure by an amount $h\rho g$ (the gauge pressure P_g is negative). A manometer with one side open to the atmosphere is an ideal device for measuring gauge pressures. The gauge pressure is $P_g = h\rho g$ and is found by measuring h .

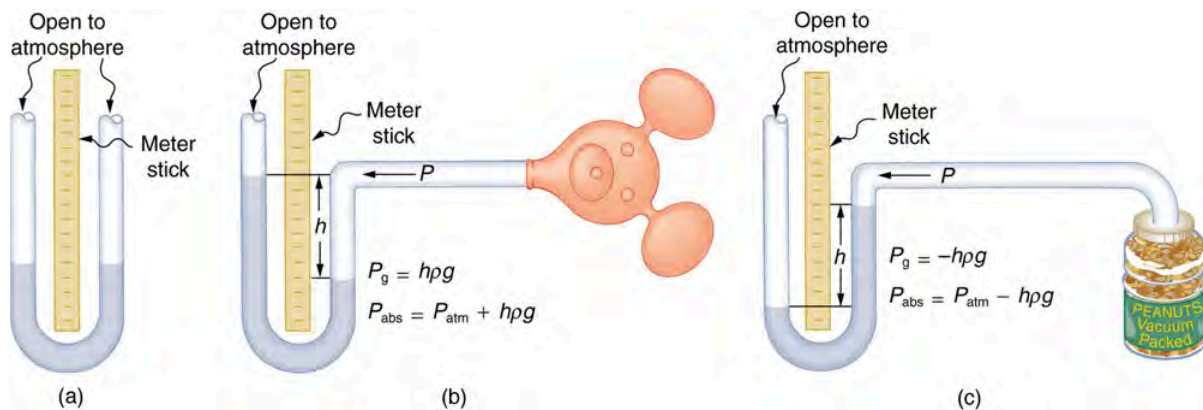


FIGURE 11.14 An open-tube manometer has one side open to the atmosphere. (a) Fluid depth must be the same on both sides, or the pressure each side exerts at the bottom will be unequal and there will be flow from the deeper side. (b) A positive gauge pressure $P_g = h\rho g$ transmitted to one side of the manometer can support a column of fluid of height h . (c) Similarly, atmospheric pressure is greater than a negative gauge pressure P_g by an amount $h\rho g$. The jar's rigidity prevents atmospheric pressure from being transmitted to the peanuts.

Mercury manometers are often used to measure arterial blood pressure. An inflatable cuff is placed on the upper arm as shown in [Figure 11.15](#). By squeezing the bulb, the person making the measurement exerts pressure, which is transmitted undiminished to both the main artery in the arm and the manometer. When this applied pressure exceeds blood pressure, blood flow below the cuff is cut off. The person making the measurement then slowly lowers the applied pressure and listens for blood flow to resume. Blood pressure pulsates because of the pumping action of the heart, reaching a maximum, called **systolic pressure**, and a minimum, called **diastolic pressure**, with

each heartbeat. Systolic pressure is measured by noting the value of h when blood flow first begins as cuff pressure is lowered. Diastolic pressure is measured by noting h when blood flows without interruption. The typical blood pressure of a young adult raises the mercury to a height of 120 mm at systolic and 80 mm at diastolic. This is commonly quoted as 120 over 80, or 120/80. The first pressure is representative of the maximum output of the heart; the second is due to the elasticity of the arteries in maintaining the pressure between beats. The density of the mercury fluid in the manometer is 13.6 times greater than water, so the height of the fluid will be $1/13.6$ of that in a water manometer. This reduced height can make measurements difficult, so mercury manometers are used to measure larger pressures, such as blood pressure. The density of mercury is such that $1.0 \text{ mm Hg} = 133 \text{ Pa}$.

SYSTOLIC PRESSURE

Systolic pressure is the maximum blood pressure.

DIASTOLIC PRESSURE

Diastolic pressure is the minimum blood pressure.



FIGURE 11.15 In routine blood pressure measurements, an inflatable cuff is placed on the upper arm at the same level as the heart. Blood flow is detected just below the cuff, and corresponding pressures are transmitted to a mercury-filled manometer. (credit: U.S. Army photo by Spc. Micah E. Clare\4TH BCT)



EXAMPLE 11.7

Calculating Height of IV Bag: Blood Pressure and Intravenous Infusions

Intravenous infusions are usually made with the help of the gravitational force. Assuming that the density of the

fluid being administered is 1.00 g/ml, at what height should the IV bag be placed above the entry point so that the fluid just enters the vein if the blood pressure in the vein is 18 mm Hg above atmospheric pressure? Assume that the IV bag is collapsible.

Strategy for (a)

For the fluid to just enter the vein, its pressure at entry must exceed the blood pressure in the vein (18 mm Hg above atmospheric pressure). We therefore need to find the height of fluid that corresponds to this gauge pressure.

Solution

We first need to convert the pressure into SI units. Since 1.0 mm Hg = 133 Pa,

$$P = 18 \text{ mm Hg} \times \frac{133 \text{ Pa}}{1.0 \text{ mm Hg}} = 2400 \text{ Pa.} \quad 11.28$$

Rearranging $P_g = h\rho g$ for h gives $h = \frac{P_g}{\rho g}$. Substituting known values into this equation gives

$$\begin{aligned} h &= \frac{2400 \text{ N/m}^2}{(1.0 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3)(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)} \\ &= 0.24 \text{ m.} \end{aligned} \quad 11.29$$

Discussion

The IV bag must be placed at 0.24 m above the entry point into the arm for the fluid to just enter the arm. Generally, IV bags are placed higher than this. You may have noticed that the bags used for blood collection are placed below the donor to allow blood to flow easily from the arm to the bag, which is the opposite direction of flow than required in the example presented here.

A *barometer* is a device that measures atmospheric pressure. A mercury barometer is shown in [Figure 11.16](#). This device measures atmospheric pressure, rather than gauge pressure, because there is a nearly pure vacuum above the mercury in the tube. The height of the mercury is such that $h\rho g = P_{\text{atm}}$. When atmospheric pressure varies, the mercury rises or falls, giving important clues to weather forecasters. The barometer can also be used as an altimeter, since average atmospheric pressure varies with altitude. Mercury barometers and manometers are so common that units of mm Hg are often quoted for atmospheric pressure and blood pressures. [Table 11.2](#) gives conversion factors for some of the more commonly used units of pressure.

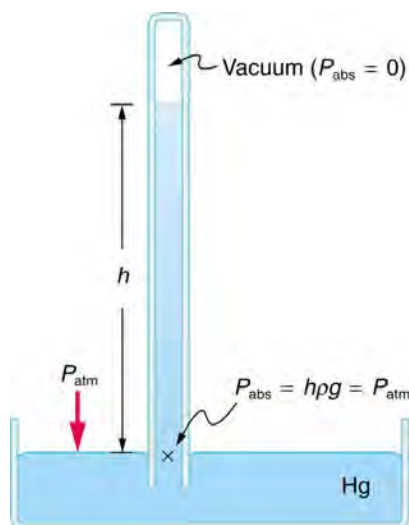


FIGURE 11.16 A mercury barometer measures atmospheric pressure. The pressure due to the mercury's weight, $h\rho g$, equals atmospheric pressure. The atmosphere is able to force mercury in the tube to a height h because the pressure above the mercury is zero.

Conversion to N/m^2 (Pa)	Conversion from atm
$1.0 \text{ atm} = 1.013 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2$	$1.0 \text{ atm} = 1.013 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2$
$1.0 \text{ dyne/cm}^2 = 0.10 \text{ N/m}^2$	$1.0 \text{ atm} = 1.013 \times 10^6 \text{ dyne/cm}^2$
$1.0 \text{ kg/cm}^2 = 9.8 \times 10^4 \text{ N/m}^2$	$1.0 \text{ atm} = 1.013 \text{ kg/cm}^2$
$1.0 \text{ lb/in.}^2 = 6.90 \times 10^3 \text{ N/m}^2$	$1.0 \text{ atm} = 14.7 \text{ lb/in.}^2$
$1.0 \text{ mm Hg} = 133 \text{ N/m}^2$	$1.0 \text{ atm} = 760 \text{ mm Hg}$
$1.0 \text{ cm Hg} = 1.33 \times 10^3 \text{ N/m}^2$	$1.0 \text{ atm} = 76.0 \text{ cm Hg}$
$1.0 \text{ cm water} = 98.1 \text{ N/m}^2$	$1.0 \text{ atm} = 1.03 \times 10^3 \text{ cm water}$
$1.0 \text{ bar} = 1.000 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2$	$1.0 \text{ atm} = 1.013 \text{ bar}$
$1.0 \text{ millibar} = 1.000 \times 10^2 \text{ N/m}^2$	$1.0 \text{ atm} = 1013 \text{ millibar}$

TABLE 11.2 Conversion Factors for Various Pressure Units

11.7 Archimedes' Principle

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define buoyant force.
- State Archimedes' principle.
- Understand why objects float or sink.
- Understand the relationship between density and Archimedes' principle.

When you rise from lounging in a warm bath, your arms feel strangely heavy. This is because you no longer have the buoyant support of the water. Where does this buoyant force come from? Why is it that some things float and others do not? Do objects that sink get any support at all from the fluid? Is your body buoyed by the atmosphere, or are only helium balloons affected? (See [Figure 11.17](#).)

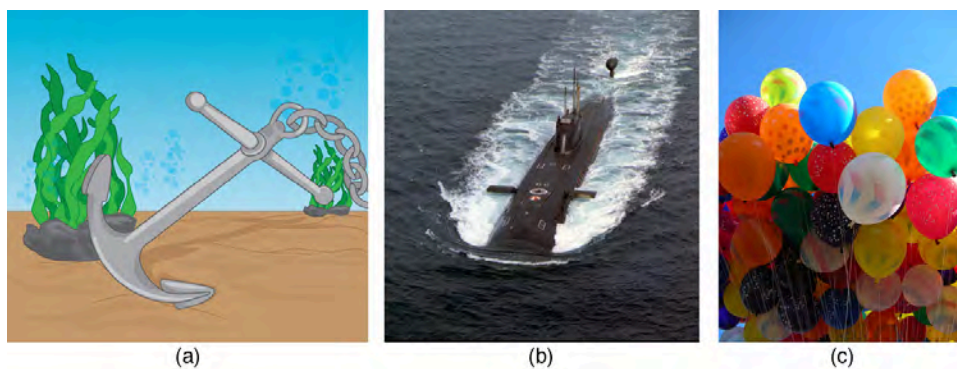


FIGURE 11.17 (a) Even objects that sink, like this anchor, are partly supported by water when submerged. (b) Submarines have adjustable density (ballast tanks) so that they may float or sink as desired. (credit: Allied Navy) (c) Helium-filled balloons tug upward on their strings, demonstrating air's buoyant effect. (credit: Crystl)

Answers to all these questions, and many others, are based on the fact that pressure increases with depth in a fluid. This means that the upward force on the bottom of an object in a fluid is greater than the downward force on the top of the object. There is a net upward, or **buoyant force** on any object in any fluid. (See [Figure 11.18](#).) If the buoyant force is greater than the object's weight, the object will rise to the surface and float. If the buoyant force is less than

the object's weight, the object will sink. If the buoyant force equals the object's weight, the object will remain suspended at that depth. The buoyant force is always present whether the object floats, sinks, or is suspended in a fluid.

BUOYANT FORCE

The buoyant force is the net upward force on any object in any fluid.

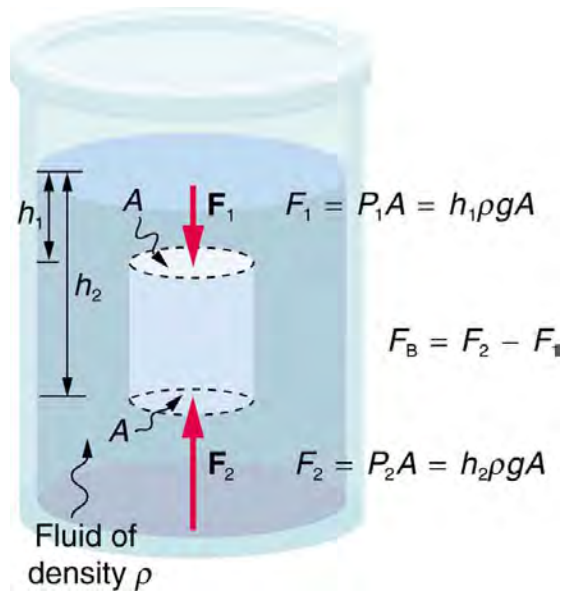


FIGURE 11.18 Pressure due to the weight of a fluid increases with depth since $P = h\rho g$. This pressure and associated upward force on the bottom of the cylinder are greater than the downward force on the top of the cylinder. Their difference is the buoyant force F_B . (Horizontal forces cancel.)

Just how great is this buoyant force? To answer this question, think about what happens when a submerged object is removed from a fluid, as in [Figure 11.19](#).

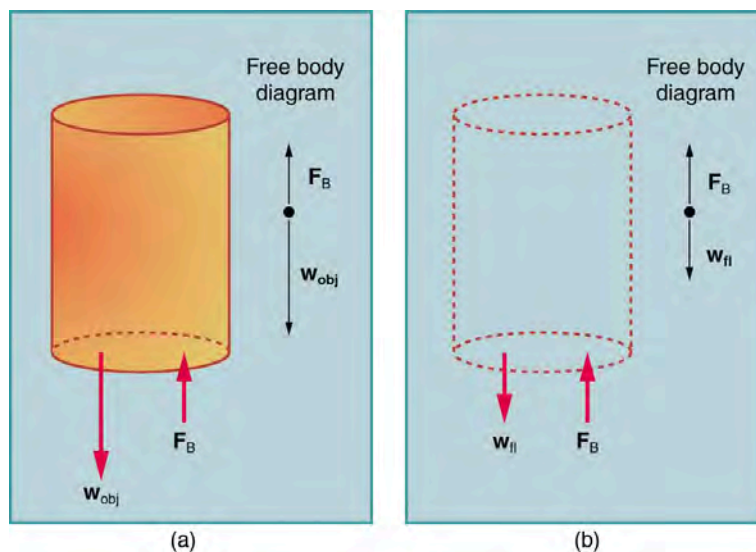


FIGURE 11.19 (a) An object submerged in a fluid experiences a buoyant force F_B . If F_B is greater than the weight of the object, the object will rise. If F_B is less than the weight of the object, the object will sink. (b) If the object is removed, it is replaced by fluid having weight w_{fl} . Since this weight is supported by surrounding fluid, the buoyant force must equal the weight of the fluid displaced. That is, $F_B = w_{fl}$, a statement of Archimedes' principle.

The space it occupied is filled by fluid having a weight w_{fl} . This weight is supported by the surrounding fluid, and so the buoyant force must equal w_{fl} , the weight of the fluid displaced by the object. It is a tribute to the genius of the

Greek mathematician and inventor Archimedes (ca. 287–212 B.C.) that he stated this principle long before concepts of force were well established. Stated in words, **Archimedes' principle** is as follows: The buoyant force on an object equals the weight of the fluid it displaces. In equation form, Archimedes' principle is

$$F_B = w_{fl}, \quad 11.30$$

where F_B is the buoyant force and w_{fl} is the weight of the fluid displaced by the object. Archimedes' principle is valid in general, for any object in any fluid, whether partially or totally submerged.

ARCHIMEDES' PRINCIPLE

According to this principle the buoyant force on an object equals the weight of the fluid it displaces. In equation form, Archimedes' principle is

$$F_B = w_{fl}, \quad 11.31$$

where F_B is the buoyant force and w_{fl} is the weight of the fluid displaced by the object.

Humm ... High-tech body swimsuits were introduced in 2008 in preparation for the Beijing Olympics. One concern (and international rule) was that these suits should not provide any buoyancy advantage. How do you think that this rule could be verified?

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME INVESTIGATION

The density of aluminum foil is 2.7 times the density of water. Take a piece of foil, roll it up into a ball and drop it into water. Does it sink? Why or why not? Can you make it sink?

Floating and Sinking

Drop a lump of clay in water. It will sink. Then mold the lump of clay into the shape of a boat, and it will float. Because of its shape, the boat displaces more water than the lump and experiences a greater buoyant force. The same is true of steel ships.



EXAMPLE 11.8

Calculating buoyant force: dependency on shape

(a) Calculate the buoyant force on 10,000 metric tons (1.00×10^7 kg) of solid steel completely submerged in water, and compare this with the steel's weight. (b) What is the maximum buoyant force that water could exert on this same steel if it were shaped into a boat that could displace 1.00×10^5 m³ of water?

Strategy for (a)

To find the buoyant force, we must find the weight of water displaced. We can do this by using the densities of water and steel given in [Table 11.1](#). We note that, since the steel is completely submerged, its volume and the water's volume are the same. Once we know the volume of water, we can find its mass and weight.

Solution for (a)

First, we use the definition of density $\rho = \frac{m}{V}$ to find the steel's volume, and then we substitute values for mass and density. This gives

$$V_{st} = \frac{m_{st}}{\rho_{st}} = \frac{1.00 \times 10^7 \text{ kg}}{7.8 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3} = 1.28 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^3. \quad 11.32$$

Because the steel is completely submerged, this is also the volume of water displaced, V_w . We can now find the mass of water displaced from the relationship between its volume and density, both of which are known. This gives

$$\begin{aligned}
 m_w &= \rho_w V_w = (1.000 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3)(1.28 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^3) \\
 &= 1.28 \times 10^6 \text{ kg.}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{11.33}$$

By Archimedes' principle, the weight of water displaced is $m_w g$, so the buoyant force is

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_B &= w_w = m_w g = (1.28 \times 10^6 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) \\
 &= 1.3 \times 10^7 \text{ N.}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{11.34}$$

The steel's weight is $m_w g = 9.80 \times 10^7 \text{ N}$, which is much greater than the buoyant force, so the steel will remain submerged. Note that the buoyant force is rounded to two digits because the density of steel is given to only two digits.

Strategy for (b)

Here we are given the maximum volume of water the steel boat can displace. The buoyant force is the weight of this volume of water.

Solution for (b)

The mass of water displaced is found from its relationship to density and volume, both of which are known. That is,

$$\begin{aligned}
 m_w &= \rho_w V_w = (1.000 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3)(1.00 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^3) \\
 &= 1.00 \times 10^8 \text{ kg.}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{11.35}$$

The maximum buoyant force is the weight of this much water, or

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_B &= w_w = m_w g = (1.00 \times 10^8 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) \\
 &= 9.80 \times 10^8 \text{ N.}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{11.36}$$

Discussion

The maximum buoyant force is ten times the weight of the steel, meaning the ship can carry a load nine times its own weight without sinking.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME INVESTIGATION

A piece of household aluminum foil is 0.016 mm thick. Use a piece of foil that measures 10 cm by 15 cm. (a) What is the mass of this amount of foil? (b) If the foil is folded to give it four sides, and paper clips or washers are added to this "boat," what shape of the boat would allow it to hold the most "cargo" when placed in water? Test your prediction.

Density and Archimedes' Principle

Density plays a crucial role in Archimedes' principle. The average density of an object is what ultimately determines whether it floats. If its average density is less than that of the surrounding fluid, it will float. This is because the fluid, having a higher density, contains more mass and hence more weight in the same volume. The buoyant force, which equals the weight of the fluid displaced, is thus greater than the weight of the object. Likewise, an object denser than the fluid will sink.

The extent to which a floating object is submerged depends on how the object's density is related to that of the fluid. In [Figure 11.20](#), for example, the unloaded ship has a lower density and less of it is submerged compared with the same ship loaded. We can derive a quantitative expression for the fraction submerged by considering density. The fraction submerged is the ratio of the volume submerged to the volume of the object, or

$$\text{fraction submerged} = \frac{V_{\text{sub}}}{V_{\text{obj}}} = \frac{V_{\text{fl}}}{V_{\text{obj}}}.
 \tag{11.37}$$

The volume submerged equals the volume of fluid displaced, which we call V_{fl} . Now we can obtain the relationship

between the densities by substituting $\rho = \frac{m}{V}$ into the expression. This gives

$$\frac{V_{\text{fl}}}{V_{\text{obj}}} = \frac{m_{\text{fl}}/\rho_{\text{fl}}}{m_{\text{obj}}/\bar{\rho}_{\text{obj}}}, \quad 11.38$$

where $\bar{\rho}_{\text{obj}}$ is the average density of the object and ρ_{fl} is the density of the fluid. Since the object floats, its mass and that of the displaced fluid are equal, and so they cancel from the equation, leaving

$$\text{fraction submerged} = \frac{\bar{\rho}_{\text{obj}}}{\rho_{\text{fl}}}. \quad 11.39$$

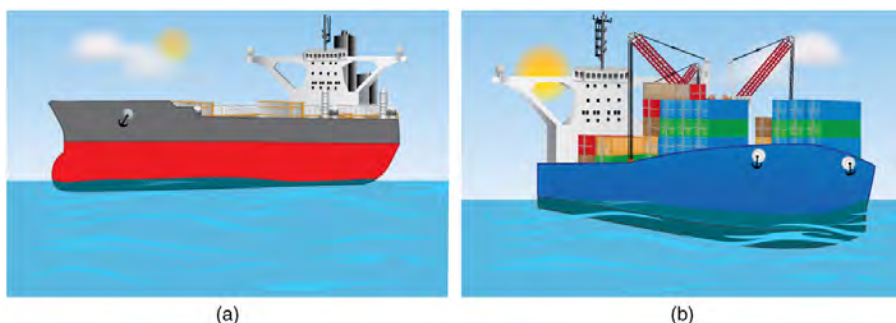


FIGURE 11.20 An unloaded ship (a) floats higher in the water than a loaded ship (b).

We use this last relationship to measure densities. This is done by measuring the fraction of a floating object that is submerged—for example, with a hydrometer. It is useful to define the ratio of the density of an object to a fluid (usually water) as **specific gravity**:

$$\text{specific gravity} = \frac{\bar{\rho}}{\rho_{\text{w}}}, \quad 11.40$$

where $\bar{\rho}$ is the average density of the object or substance and ρ_{w} is the density of water at 4.00°C. Specific gravity is dimensionless, independent of whatever units are used for ρ . If an object floats, its specific gravity is less than one. If it sinks, its specific gravity is greater than one. Moreover, the fraction of a floating object that is submerged equals its specific gravity. If an object's specific gravity is exactly 1, then it will remain suspended in the fluid, neither sinking nor floating. Scuba divers try to obtain this state so that they can hover in the water. We measure the specific gravity of fluids, such as battery acid, radiator fluid, and urine, as an indicator of their condition. One device for measuring specific gravity is shown in [Figure 11.21](#).

SPECIFIC GRAVITY

Specific gravity is the ratio of the density of an object to a fluid (usually water).

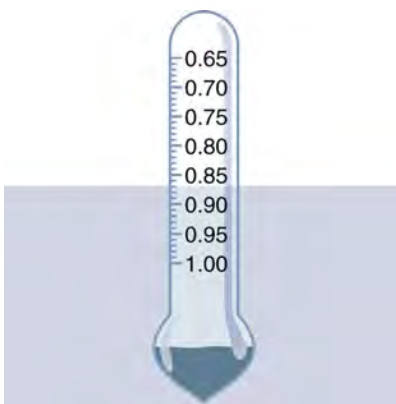


FIGURE 11.21 This hydrometer is floating in a fluid of specific gravity 0.87. The glass hydrometer is filled with air and weighted with lead at the bottom. It floats highest in the densest fluids and has been calibrated and labeled so that specific gravity can be read from it directly.

EXAMPLE 11.9

Calculating Average Density: Floating Woman

Suppose a 60.0-kg woman floats in freshwater with 97.0% of her volume submerged when her lungs are full of air. What is her average density?

Strategy

We can find the woman's density by solving the equation

$$\text{fraction submerged} = \frac{\bar{\rho}_{\text{obj}}}{\rho_{\text{fl}}} \quad 11.41$$

for the density of the object. This yields

$$\bar{\rho}_{\text{obj}} = \bar{\rho}_{\text{person}} = (\text{fraction submerged}) \cdot \rho_{\text{fl}}. \quad 11.42$$

We know both the fraction submerged and the density of water, and so we can calculate the woman's density.

Solution

Entering the known values into the expression for her density, we obtain

$$\bar{\rho}_{\text{person}} = 0.970 \cdot \left(10^3 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} \right) = 970 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3}. \quad 11.43$$

Discussion

Her density is less than the fluid density. We expect this because she floats. Body density is one indicator of a person's percent body fat, of interest in medical diagnostics and athletic training. (See [Figure 11.22](#).)

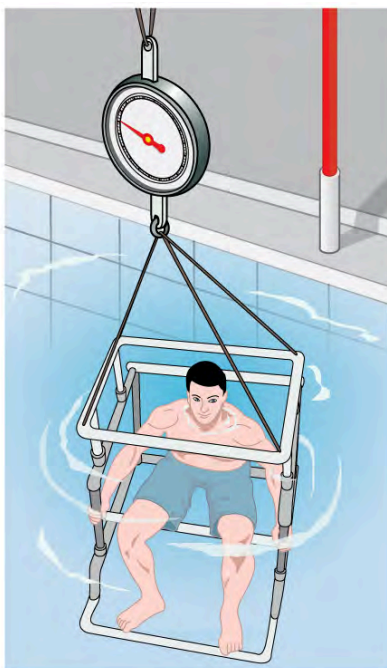


FIGURE 11.22 Subject in a hydrostatic weighing device, where they are weighed while completely submerged as part of a body density determination. The subject must completely empty their lungs and hold a metal weight in order to sink. Corrections are made for the residual air in the lungs (measured separately) and the metal weight. Their corrected submerged weight, their weight in air, and pinch tests of strategic fatty areas are used to calculate the percent body fat.

There are many obvious examples of lower-density objects or substances floating in higher-density fluids—oil on water, a hot-air balloon, a bit of cork in wine, an iceberg, and hot wax in a “lava lamp,” to name a few. Less obvious

examples include lava rising in a volcano and mountain ranges floating on the higher-density crust and mantle beneath them. Even seemingly solid Earth has fluid characteristics.

More Density Measurements

One of the most common techniques for determining density is shown in [Figure 11.23](#).

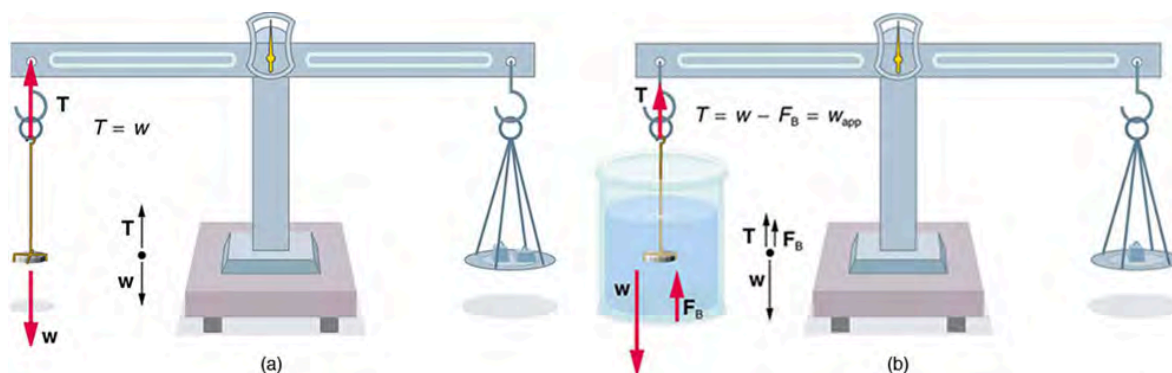


FIGURE 11.23 (a) A coin is weighed in air. (b) The apparent weight of the coin is determined while it is completely submerged in a fluid of known density. These two measurements are used to calculate the density of the coin.

An object, here a coin, is weighed in air and then weighed again while submerged in a liquid. The density of the coin, an indication of its authenticity, can be calculated if the fluid density is known. This same technique can also be used to determine the density of the fluid if the density of the coin is known. All of these calculations are based on Archimedes' principle.

Archimedes' principle states that the buoyant force on the object equals the weight of the fluid displaced. This, in turn, means that the object *appears* to weigh less when submerged; we call this measurement the object's *apparent weight*. The object suffers an *apparent weight loss* equal to the weight of the fluid displaced. Alternatively, on balances that measure mass, the object suffers an *apparent mass loss* equal to the mass of fluid displaced. That is

$$\text{apparent weight loss} = \text{weight of fluid displaced} \quad 11.44$$

or

$$\text{apparent mass loss} = \text{mass of fluid displaced.} \quad 11.45$$

The next example illustrates the use of this technique.



EXAMPLE 11.10

Calculating Density: Is the Coin Authentic?

The mass of an ancient Greek coin is determined in air to be 8.630 g. When the coin is submerged in water as shown in [Figure 11.23](#), its apparent mass is 7.800 g. Calculate its density, given that water has a density of 1.000 g/cm^3 and that effects caused by the wire suspending the coin are negligible.

Strategy

To calculate the coin's density, we need its mass (which is given) and its volume. The volume of the coin equals the volume of water displaced. The volume of water displaced V_w can be found by solving the equation for density $\rho = \frac{m}{V}$ for V .

Solution

The volume of water is $V_w = \frac{m_w}{\rho_w}$ where m_w is the mass of water displaced. As noted, the mass of the water displaced equals the apparent mass loss, which is $m_w = 8.630 \text{ g} - 7.800 \text{ g} = 0.830 \text{ g}$. Thus the volume of water is $V_w = \frac{0.830 \text{ g}}{1.000 \text{ g/cm}^3} = 0.830 \text{ cm}^3$. This is also the volume of the coin, since it is completely submerged. We can now find the density of the coin using the definition of density:

$$\rho_c = \frac{m_c}{V_c} = \frac{8.630 \text{ g}}{0.830 \text{ cm}^3} = 10.4 \text{ g/cm}^3. \quad 11.46$$

Discussion

You can see from [Table 11.1](#) that this density is very close to that of pure silver, appropriate for this type of ancient coin. Most modern counterfeits are not pure silver.

This brings us back to Archimedes' principle and how it came into being. As the story goes, the king of Syracuse gave Archimedes the task of determining whether the royal crown maker was supplying a crown of pure gold. The purity of gold is difficult to determine by color (it can be diluted with other metals and still look as yellow as pure gold), and other analytical techniques had not yet been conceived. Even ancient peoples, however, realized that the density of gold was greater than that of any other then-known substance. Archimedes purportedly agonized over his task and had his inspiration one day while at the public baths, pondering the support the water gave his body. He came up with his now-famous principle, saw how to apply it to determine density, and ran naked down the streets of Syracuse crying "Eureka!" (Greek for "I have found it"). Similar behavior can be observed in contemporary physicists from time to time!

11.8 Cohesion and Adhesion in Liquids: Surface Tension and Capillary Action

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Understand cohesive and adhesive forces.
- Define surface tension.
- Understand capillary action.

Cohesion and Adhesion in Liquids

Children blow soap bubbles and play in the spray of a sprinkler on a hot summer day. (See [Figure 11.24](#).) An underwater spider keeps his air supply in a shiny bubble he carries wrapped around him. A technician draws blood into a small-diameter tube just by touching it to a drop on a pricked finger. A premature infant struggles to inflate her lungs. What is the common thread? All these activities are dominated by the attractive forces between atoms and molecules in liquids—both within a liquid and between the liquid and its surroundings.

Attractive forces between molecules of the same type are called **cohesive forces**. Liquids can, for example, be held in open containers because cohesive forces hold the molecules together. Attractive forces between molecules of different types are called **adhesive forces**. Such forces cause liquid drops to cling to window panes, for example. In this section we examine effects directly attributable to cohesive and adhesive forces in liquids.

COHESIVE FORCES

Attractive forces between molecules of the same type are called cohesive forces.

ADHESIVE FORCES

Attractive forces between molecules of different types are called adhesive forces.



FIGURE 11.24 The soap bubbles in this photograph are caused by cohesive forces among molecules in liquids. (credit: Steve Ford Elliott)

Surface Tension

Cohesive forces between molecules cause the surface of a liquid to contract to the smallest possible surface area. This general effect is called **surface tension**. Molecules on the surface are pulled inward by cohesive forces, reducing the surface area. Molecules inside the liquid experience zero net force, since they have neighbors on all sides.

SURFACE TENSION

Cohesive forces between molecules cause the surface of a liquid to contract to the smallest possible surface area. This general effect is called surface tension.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: SURFACE TENSION

Forces between atoms and molecules underlie the macroscopic effect called surface tension. These attractive forces pull the molecules closer together and tend to minimize the surface area. This is another example of a submicroscopic explanation for a macroscopic phenomenon.

The model of a liquid surface acting like a stretched elastic sheet can effectively explain surface tension effects. For example, some insects can walk on water (as opposed to floating in it) as we would walk on a trampoline—they dent the surface as shown in [Figure 11.25\(a\)](#). [Figure 11.25\(b\)](#) shows another example, where a needle rests on a water surface. The iron needle cannot, and does not, float, because its density is greater than that of water. Rather, its weight is supported by forces in the stretched surface that try to make the surface smaller or flatter. If the needle were placed point down on the surface, its weight acting on a smaller area would break the surface, and it would sink.

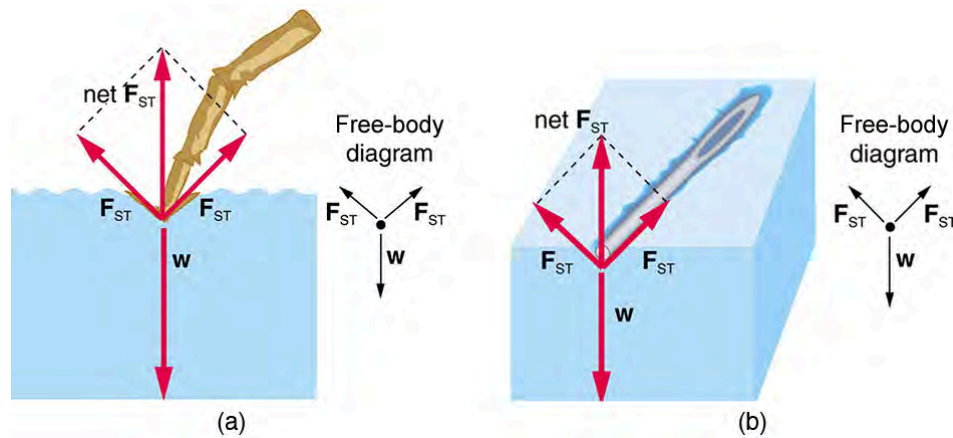


FIGURE 11.25 Surface tension supporting the weight of an insect and an iron needle, both of which rest on the surface without penetrating it. They are not floating; rather, they are supported by the surface of the liquid. (a) An insect leg dents the water surface. F_{ST} is a restoring force (surface tension) parallel to the surface. (b) An iron needle similarly dents a water surface until the restoring force (surface tension) grows to equal its weight.

Surface tension is proportional to the strength of the cohesive force, which varies with the type of liquid. Surface tension γ is defined to be the force F per unit length L exerted by a stretched liquid membrane:

$$\gamma = \frac{F}{L}. \quad 11.47$$

Table 11.3 lists values of γ for some liquids. For the insect of Figure 11.25(a), its weight w is supported by the upward components of the surface tension force: $w = \gamma L \sin \theta$, where L is the circumference of the insect's foot in contact with the water. Figure 11.26 shows one way to measure surface tension. The liquid film exerts a force on the movable wire in an attempt to reduce its surface area. The magnitude of this force depends on the surface tension of the liquid and can be measured accurately.

Surface tension is the reason why liquids form bubbles and droplets. The inward surface tension force causes bubbles to be approximately spherical and raises the pressure of the gas trapped inside relative to atmospheric pressure outside. It can be shown that the gauge pressure P inside a spherical bubble is given by

$$P = \frac{4\gamma}{r}, \quad 11.48$$

where r is the radius of the bubble. Thus the pressure inside a bubble is greatest when the bubble is the smallest. Another bit of evidence for this is illustrated in Figure 11.27. When air is allowed to flow between two balloons of unequal size, the smaller balloon tends to collapse, filling the larger balloon.

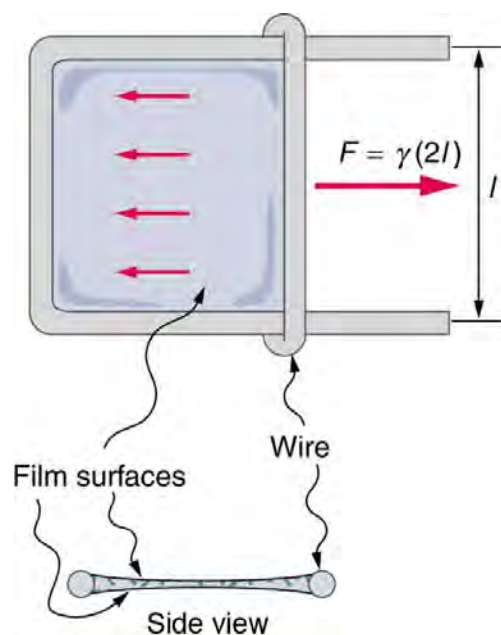


FIGURE 11.26 Sliding wire device used for measuring surface tension; the device exerts a force to reduce the film's surface area. The force needed to hold the wire in place is $F = \gamma L = \gamma(2l)$, since there are two liquid surfaces attached to the wire. This force remains nearly constant as the film is stretched, until the film approaches its breaking point.

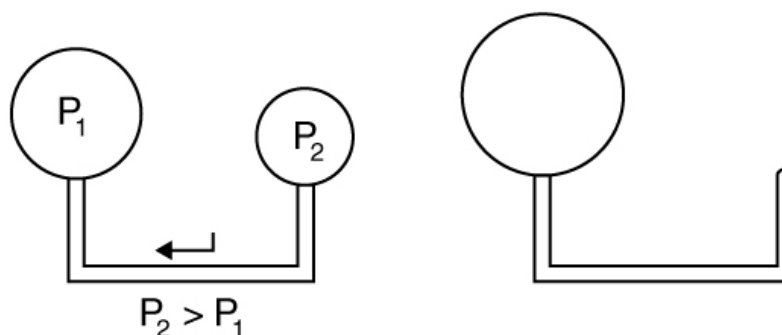


FIGURE 11.27 With the valve closed, two balloons of different sizes are attached to each end of a tube. Upon opening the valve, the smaller balloon decreases in size with the air moving to fill the larger balloon. The pressure in a spherical balloon is inversely proportional to its radius, so that the smaller balloon has a greater internal pressure than the larger balloon, resulting in this flow.

Liquid	Surface tension γ (N/m)
Water at 0°C	0.0756
Water at 20°C	0.0728
Water at 100°C	0.0589
Soapy water (typical)	0.0370
Ethyl alcohol	0.0223
Glycerin	0.0631
Mercury	0.465

TABLE 11.3 Surface Tension of Some Liquids¹

¹ At 20°C unless otherwise stated.

Liquid	Surface tension γ (N/m)
Olive oil	0.032
Tissue fluids (typical)	0.050
Blood, whole at 37°C	0.058
Blood plasma at 37°C	0.073
Gold at 1070°C	1.000
Oxygen at –193°C	0.0157
Helium at –269°C	0.00012

TABLE 11.3 Surface Tension of Some Liquids¹**EXAMPLE 11.11****Surface Tension: Pressure Inside a Bubble**

Calculate the gauge pressure inside a soap bubble 2.00×10^{-4} m in radius using the surface tension for soapy water in [Table 11.3](#). Convert this pressure to mm Hg.

Strategy

The radius is given and the surface tension can be found in [Table 11.3](#), and so P can be found directly from the equation $P = \frac{4\gamma}{r}$.

Solution

Substituting r and γ into the equation $P = \frac{4\gamma}{r}$, we obtain

$$P = \frac{4\gamma}{r} = \frac{4(0.037 \text{ N/m})}{2.00 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}} = 740 \text{ N/m}^2 = 740 \text{ Pa.} \quad 11.49$$

We use a conversion factor to get this into units of mm Hg:

$$P = (740 \text{ N/m}^2) \frac{1.00 \text{ mm Hg}}{133 \text{ N/m}^2} = 5.56 \text{ mm Hg.} \quad 11.50$$

Discussion

Note that if a hole were to be made in the bubble, the air would be forced out, the bubble would decrease in radius, and the gauge pressure would reduce to zero, and the absolute pressure inside would *decrease* to atmospheric pressure (760 mm Hg).

Our lungs contain hundreds of millions of mucus-lined sacs called *alveoli*, which are very similar in size, and about 0.1 mm in diameter. (See [Figure 11.28](#).) You can exhale without muscle action by allowing surface tension to contract these sacs. Medical patients whose breathing is aided by a positive pressure respirator have air blown into the lungs, but are generally allowed to exhale on their own. Even if there is paralysis, surface tension in the alveoli will expel air from the lungs. Since pressure increases as the radii of the alveoli decrease, an occasional deep cleansing breath is needed to fully reinflate the alveoli. Respirators are programmed to do this and we find it natural, as do our companion dogs and cats, to take a cleansing breath before settling into a nap.

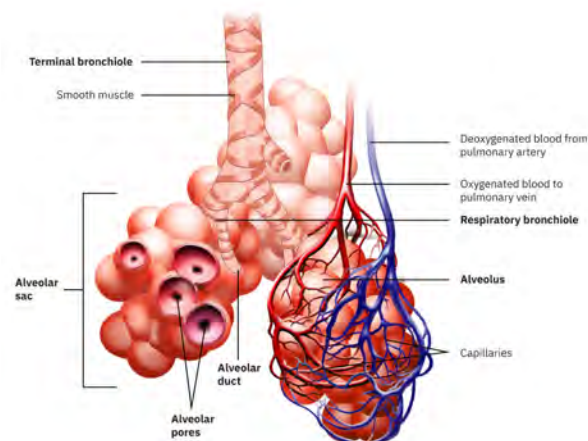


FIGURE 11.28 Bronchial tubes in the lungs branch into ever-smaller structures, finally ending in alveoli. The alveoli act like tiny bubbles. The surface tension of their mucous lining aids in exhalation and can prevent inhalation if too great.

The tension in the walls of the alveoli results from the membrane tissue and a liquid on the walls of the alveoli containing a long lipoprotein that acts as a surfactant (a surface-tension reducing substance). The need for the surfactant results from the tendency of small alveoli to collapse and the air to fill into the larger alveoli making them even larger (as demonstrated in [Figure 11.27](#)). During inhalation, the lipoprotein molecules are pulled apart and the wall tension increases as the radius increases (increased surface tension). During exhalation, the molecules slide back together and the surface tension decreases, helping to prevent a collapse of the alveoli. The surfactant therefore serves to change the wall tension so that small alveoli don't collapse and large alveoli are prevented from expanding too much. This tension change is a unique property of these surfactants, and is not shared by detergents (which simply lower surface tension). (See [Figure 11.29](#).)

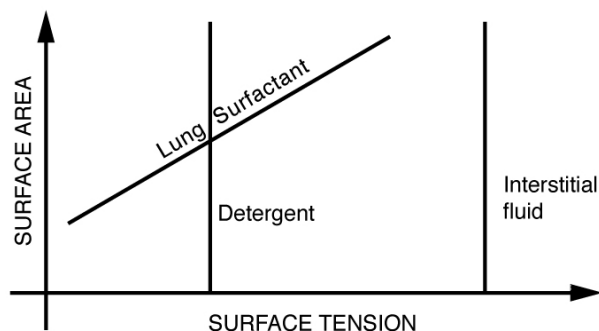


FIGURE 11.29 Surface tension as a function of surface area. The surface tension for lung surfactant decreases with decreasing area. This ensures that small alveoli don't collapse and large alveoli are not able to over expand.

If water gets into the lungs, the surface tension is too great and you cannot inhale. This is a severe problem in resuscitating drowning victims. A similar problem occurs in newborn infants who are born without this surfactant—their lungs are very difficult to inflate. This condition is known as *hyaline membrane disease* and is a leading cause of death for infants, particularly in premature births. Some success has been achieved in treating hyaline membrane disease by spraying a surfactant into the infant's breathing passages. Emphysema produces the opposite problem with alveoli. Alveolar walls of emphysema victims deteriorate, and the sacs combine to form larger sacs. Because pressure produced by surface tension decreases with increasing radius, these larger sacs produce smaller pressure, reducing the ability of emphysema victims to exhale. A common test for emphysema is to measure the pressure and volume of air that can be exhaled.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME INVESTIGATION

(1) Try floating a sewing needle on water. In order for this activity to work, the needle needs to be very clean as even the oil from your fingers can be sufficient to affect the surface properties of the needle. (2) Place the bristles of a paint brush into water. Pull the brush out and notice that for a short while, the bristles will stick

together. The surface tension of the water surrounding the bristles is sufficient to hold the bristles together. As the bristles dry out, the surface tension effect dissipates. (3) Place a loop of thread on the surface of still water in such a way that all of the thread is in contact with the water. Note the shape of the loop. Now place a drop of detergent into the middle of the loop. What happens to the shape of the loop? Why? (4) Sprinkle pepper onto the surface of water. Add a drop of detergent. What happens? Why? (5) Float two matches parallel to each other and add a drop of detergent between them. What happens? Note: For each new experiment, the water needs to be replaced and the bowl washed to free it of any residual detergent.

Adhesion and Capillary Action

Why is it that water beads up on a waxed car but does not on bare paint? The answer is that the adhesive forces between water and wax are much smaller than those between water and paint. Competition between the forces of adhesion and cohesion are important in the macroscopic behavior of liquids. An important factor in studying the roles of these two forces is the angle θ between the tangent to the liquid surface and the surface. (See [Figure 11.30](#).) The **contact angle** θ is directly related to the relative strength of the cohesive and adhesive forces. The larger the strength of the cohesive force relative to the adhesive force, the larger θ is, and the more the liquid tends to form a droplet. The smaller θ is, the smaller the relative strength, so that the adhesive force is able to flatten the drop. [Table 11.4](#) lists contact angles for several combinations of liquids and solids.

CONTACT ANGLE

The angle θ between the tangent to the liquid surface and the surface is called the contact angle.

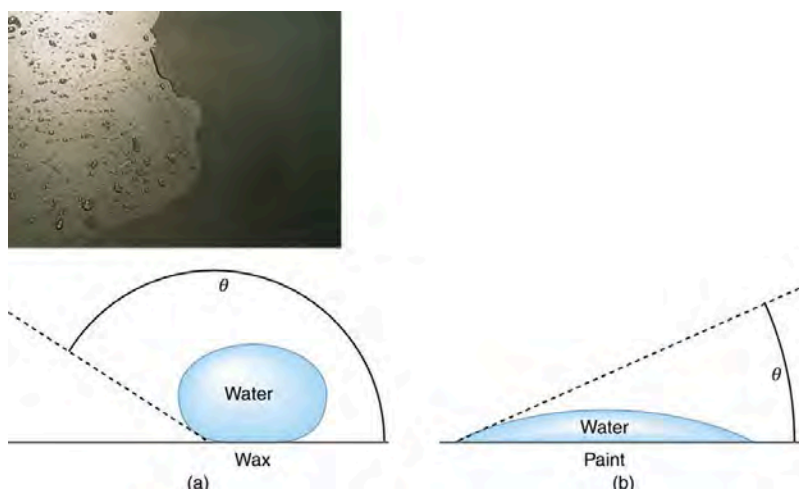


FIGURE 11.30 In the photograph, water beads on the waxed car paint and flattens on the unwaxed paint. (a) Water forms beads on the waxed surface because the cohesive forces responsible for surface tension are larger than the adhesive forces, which tend to flatten the drop. (b) Water beads on bare paint are flattened considerably because the adhesive forces between water and paint are strong, overcoming surface tension. The contact angle θ is directly related to the relative strengths of the cohesive and adhesive forces. The larger θ is, the larger the ratio of cohesive to adhesive forces. (credit: P. P. Urone)

One important phenomenon related to the relative strength of cohesive and adhesive forces is **capillary action**—the tendency of a fluid to be raised or suppressed in a narrow tube, or *capillary tube*. This action causes blood to be drawn into a small-diameter tube when the tube touches a drop.

CAPILLARY ACTION

The tendency of a fluid to be raised or suppressed in a narrow tube, or capillary tube, is called capillary action.

If a capillary tube is placed vertically into a liquid, as shown in [Figure 11.31](#), capillary action will raise or suppress the liquid inside the tube depending on the combination of substances. The actual effect depends on the relative strength of the cohesive and adhesive forces and, thus, the contact angle θ given in the table. If θ is less than 90° ,

then the fluid will be raised; if θ is greater than 90° , it will be suppressed. Mercury, for example, has a very large surface tension and a large contact angle with glass. When placed in a tube, the surface of a column of mercury curves downward, somewhat like a drop. The curved surface of a fluid in a tube is called a **meniscus**. The tendency of surface tension is always to reduce the surface area. Surface tension thus flattens the curved liquid surface in a capillary tube. This results in a downward force in mercury and an upward force in water, as seen in [Figure 11.31](#).

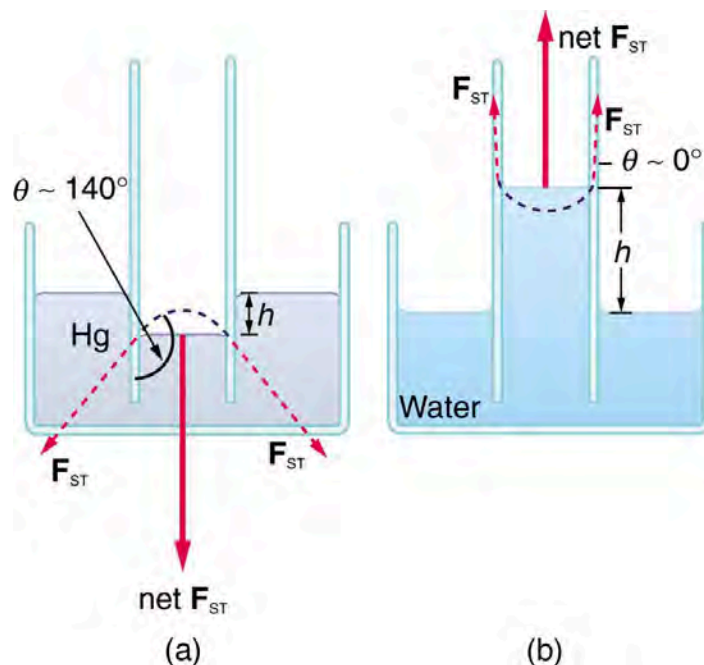


FIGURE 11.31 (a) Mercury is suppressed in a glass tube because its contact angle is greater than 90° . Surface tension exerts a downward force as it flattens the mercury, suppressing it in the tube. The dashed line shows the shape the mercury surface would have without the flattening effect of surface tension. (b) Water is raised in a glass tube because its contact angle is nearly 0° . Surface tension therefore exerts an upward force when it flattens the surface to reduce its area.

Interface	Contact angle θ
Mercury–glass	140°
Water–glass	0°
Water–paraffin	107°
Water–silver	90°
Organic liquids (most)–glass	0°
Ethyl alcohol–glass	0°
Kerosene–glass	26°

TABLE 11.4 Contact Angles of Some Substances

Capillary action can move liquids horizontally over very large distances, but the height to which it can raise or suppress a liquid in a tube is limited by its weight. It can be shown that this height h is given by

$$h = \frac{2\gamma \cos \theta}{\rho g r}. \quad 11.51$$

If we look at the different factors in this expression, we might see how it makes good sense. The height is directly

proportional to the surface tension γ , which is its direct cause. Furthermore, the height is inversely proportional to tube radius—the smaller the radius r , the higher the fluid can be raised, since a smaller tube holds less mass. The height is also inversely proportional to fluid density ρ , since a larger density means a greater mass in the same volume. (See [Figure 11.32](#).)

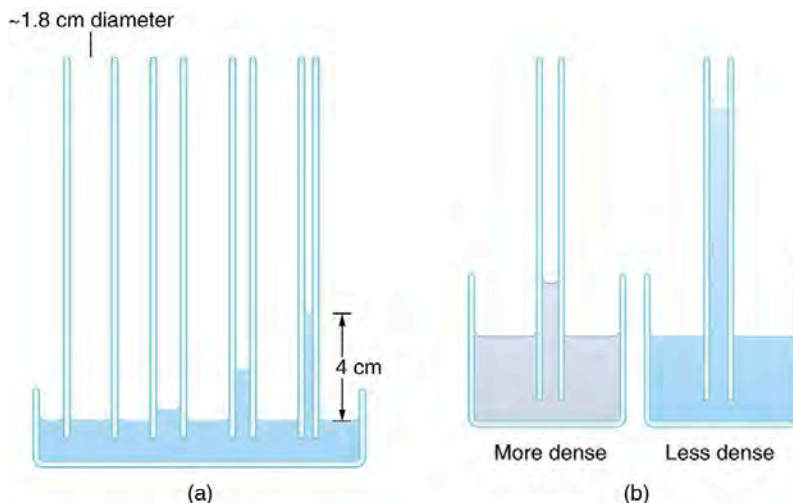


FIGURE 11.32 (a) Capillary action depends on the radius of a tube. The smaller the tube, the greater the height reached. The height is negligible for large-radius tubes. (b) A denser fluid in the same tube rises to a smaller height, all other factors being the same.



EXAMPLE 11.12

Calculating Radius of a Capillary Tube: Capillary Action: Tree Sap

Can capillary action be solely responsible for sap rising in trees? To answer this question, calculate the radius of a capillary tube that would raise sap 100 m to the top of a giant redwood, assuming that sap's density is 1050 kg/m^3 , its contact angle is zero, and its surface tension is the same as that of water at 20.0°C .

Strategy

The height to which a liquid will rise as a result of capillary action is given by $h = \frac{2\gamma \cos \theta}{\rho g r}$, and every quantity is known except for r .

Solution

Solving for r and substituting known values produces

$$\begin{aligned} r &= \frac{2\gamma \cos \theta}{\rho g h} = \frac{2(0.0728 \text{ N/m})\cos(0^\circ)}{(1050 \text{ kg/m}^3)(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(100 \text{ m})} \\ &= 1.41 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m.} \end{aligned} \quad 11.52$$

Discussion

This result is unreasonable. Sap in trees moves through the *xylem*, which forms tubes with radii as small as $2.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}$. This value is about 180 times as large as the radius found necessary here to raise sap 100 m. This means that capillary action alone cannot be solely responsible for sap getting to the tops of trees.

How *does* sap get to the tops of tall trees? (Recall that a column of water can only rise to a height of 10 m when there is a vacuum at the top—see [Example 11.5](#).) The question has not been completely resolved, but it appears that it is pulled up like a chain held together by cohesive forces. As each molecule of sap enters a leaf and evaporates (a process called transpiration), the entire chain is pulled up a notch. So a negative pressure created by water evaporation must be present to pull the sap up through the xylem vessels. In most situations, *fluids can push but can exert only negligible pull*, because the cohesive forces seem to be too small to hold the molecules tightly together. But in this case, the cohesive force of water molecules provides a very strong pull. [Figure 11.33](#) shows one

device for studying negative pressure. Some experiments have demonstrated that negative pressures sufficient to pull sap to the tops of the tallest trees *can* be achieved.

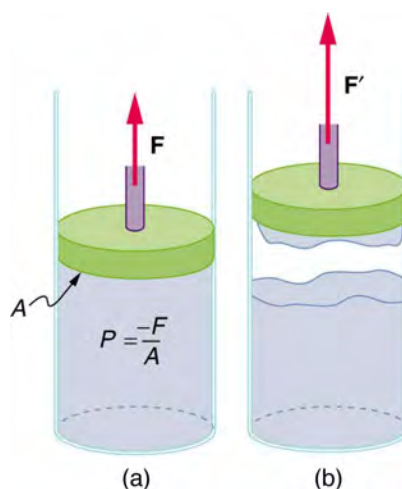


FIGURE 11.33 (a) When the piston is raised, it stretches the liquid slightly, putting it under tension and creating a negative absolute pressure $P = -F/A$. (b) The liquid eventually separates, giving an experimental limit to negative pressure in this liquid.

11.9 Pressures in the Body

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain the concept of pressure the in human body.
- Explain systolic and diastolic blood pressures.
- Describe pressures in the eye, lungs, spinal column, bladder, and skeletal system.

Pressure in the Body

Next to taking a person's temperature and weight, measuring blood pressure is the most common of all medical examinations. Control of high blood pressure is largely responsible for the significant decreases in heart attack and stroke fatalities achieved in the last three decades. The pressures in various parts of the body can be measured and often provide valuable medical indicators. In this section, we consider a few examples together with some of the physics that accompanies them.

[Table 11.5](#) lists some of the measured pressures in mm Hg, the units most commonly quoted.

Body system	Gauge pressure in mm Hg
Blood pressures in large arteries (resting)	
<i>Maximum (systolic)</i>	100–140
<i>Minimum (diastolic)</i>	60–90
Blood pressure in large veins	4–15
Eye	12–24
Brain and spinal fluid (lying down)	5–12
Bladder	

TABLE 11.5 Typical Pressures in Humans

Body system	Gauge pressure in mm Hg
<i>While filling</i>	0–25
<i>When full</i>	100–150
Chest cavity between lungs and ribs	–8 to –4
Inside lungs	–2 to +3
Digestive tract	
<i>Esophagus</i>	–2
<i>Stomach</i>	0–20
<i>Intestines</i>	10–20
Middle ear	<1

TABLE 11.5 Typical Pressures in Humans

Blood Pressure

Common arterial blood pressure measurements typically produce values of 120 mm Hg and 80 mm Hg, respectively, for systolic and diastolic pressures. Both pressures have health implications. When systolic pressure is chronically high, the risk of stroke and heart attack is increased. If, however, it is too low, fainting is a problem.

Systolic pressure increases dramatically during exercise to increase blood flow and returns to normal afterward. This change produces no ill effects and, in fact, may be beneficial to the tone of the circulatory system. **Diastolic pressure** can be an indicator of fluid balance. When low, it may indicate that a person is hemorrhaging internally and needs a transfusion. Conversely, high diastolic pressure indicates a ballooning of the blood vessels, which may be due to the transfusion of too much fluid into the circulatory system. High diastolic pressure is also an indication that blood vessels are not dilating properly to pass blood through. This can seriously strain the heart in its attempt to pump blood.

Blood leaves the heart at about 120 mm Hg but its pressure continues to decrease (to almost 0) as it goes from the aorta to smaller arteries to small veins (see [Figure 11.34](#)). The pressure differences in the circulation system are caused by blood flow through the system as well as the position of the person. For a person standing up, the pressure in the feet will be larger than at the heart due to the weight of the blood ($P = h\rho g$). If we assume that the distance between the heart and the feet of a person in an upright position is 1.4 m, then the increase in pressure in the feet relative to that in the heart (for a static column of blood) is given by

$$\Delta P = \Delta h\rho g = (1.4 \text{ m})(1050 \text{ kg/m}^3)(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) = 1.4 \times 10^4 \text{ Pa} = 108 \text{ mm Hg.} \quad 11.53$$

INCREASE IN PRESSURE IN THE FEET OF A PERSON

$$\Delta P = \Delta h\rho g = (1.4 \text{ m})(1050 \text{ kg/m}^3)(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) = 1.4 \times 10^4 \text{ Pa} = 108 \text{ mm Hg.} \quad 11.54$$

Standing a long time can lead to an accumulation of blood in the legs and swelling. This is the reason why soldiers who are required to stand still for long periods of time have been known to faint. Elastic bandages around the calf can help prevent this accumulation and can also help provide increased pressure to enable the veins to send blood back up to the heart. For similar reasons, doctors recommend tight stockings for long-haul flights.

Blood pressure may also be measured in the major veins, the heart chambers, arteries to the brain, and the lungs.

But these pressures are usually only monitored during surgery or for patients in intensive care since the measurements are invasive. To obtain these pressure measurements, qualified health care workers thread thin tubes, called catheters, into appropriate locations to transmit pressures to external measuring devices.

The heart consists of two pumps—the right side forcing blood through the lungs and the left causing blood to flow through the rest of the body ([Figure 11.34](#)). Right-heart failure, for example, results in a rise in the pressure in the vena cavae and a drop in pressure in the arteries to the lungs. Left-heart failure results in a rise in the pressure entering the left side of the heart and a drop in aortal pressure. Implications of these and other pressures on flow in the circulatory system will be discussed in more detail in [Fluid Dynamics and Its Biological and Medical Applications](#).

TWO PUMPS OF THE HEART

The heart consists of two pumps—the right side forcing blood through the lungs and the left causing blood to flow through the rest of the body.

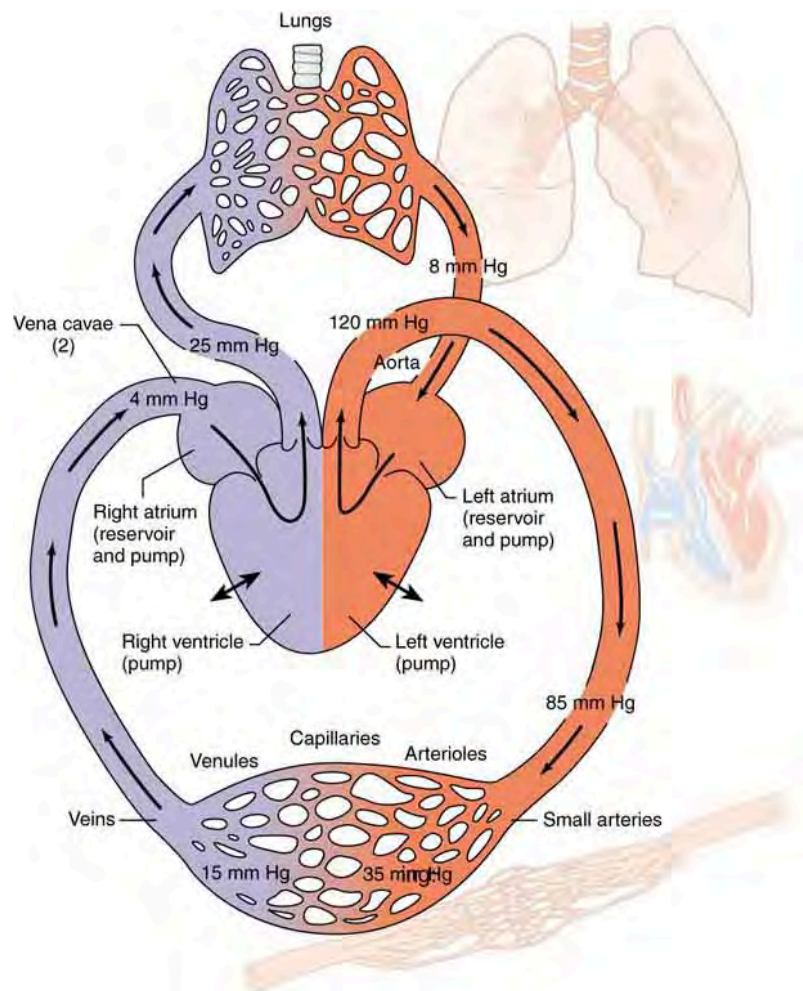


FIGURE 11.34 Schematic of the circulatory system showing typical pressures. The two pumps in the heart increase pressure and that pressure is reduced as the blood flows through the body. Long-term deviations from these pressures have medical implications discussed in some detail in the [Fluid Dynamics and Its Biological and Medical Applications](#). Only aortal or arterial blood pressure can be measured noninvasively.

Pressure in the Eye

The shape of the eye is maintained by fluid pressure, called **intraocular pressure**, which is normally in the range of 12.0 to 24.0 mm Hg. When the circulation of fluid in the eye is blocked, it can lead to a buildup in pressure, a condition called **glaucoma**. The net pressure can become as great as 85.0 mm Hg, an abnormally large pressure

that can permanently damage the optic nerve. To get an idea of the force involved, suppose the back of the eye has an area of 6.0 cm^2 , and the net pressure is 85.0 mm Hg . Force is given by $F = PA$. To get F in newtons, we convert the area to m^2 ($1 \text{ m}^2 = 10^4 \text{ cm}^2$). Then we calculate as follows:

$$F = h\rho gA = (85.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m})(13.6 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3)(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(6.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2) = 6.8 \text{ N.} \quad 11.55$$

EYE PRESSURE

The shape of the eye is maintained by fluid pressure, called intraocular pressure. When the circulation of fluid in the eye is blocked, it can lead to a buildup in pressure, a condition called glaucoma. The force is calculated as

$$F = h\rho gA = (85.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m})(13.6 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3)(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(6.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2) = 6.8 \text{ N.} \quad 11.56$$

This force is the weight of about a 680-g mass. A mass of 680 g resting on the eye (imagine 1.5 lb resting on your eye) would be sufficient to cause it damage. (A normal force here would be the weight of about 120 g, less than one-quarter of our initial value.)

People over 40 years of age are at greatest risk of developing glaucoma and should have their intraocular pressure tested routinely. Most measurements involve exerting a force on the (anesthetized) eye over some area (a pressure) and observing the eye's response. A noncontact approach uses a puff of air and a measurement is made of the force needed to indent the eye (Figure 11.35). If the intraocular pressure is high, the eye will deform less and rebound more vigorously than normal. Excessive intraocular pressures can be detected reliably and sometimes controlled effectively.

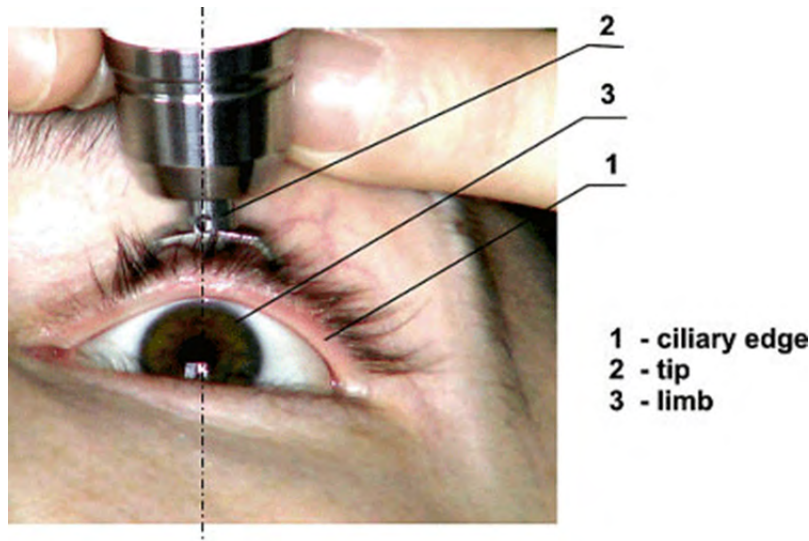


FIGURE 11.35 The intraocular eye pressure can be read with a tonometer. (credit: DevelopAll at the Wikipedia Project.)



EXAMPLE 11.13

Calculating Gauge Pressure and Depth: Damage to the Eardrum

Suppose a 3.00-N force can rupture an eardrum. (a) If the eardrum has an area of 1.00 cm^2 , calculate the maximum tolerable gauge pressure on the eardrum in newtons per meter squared and convert it to millimeters of mercury. (b) At what depth in freshwater would this person's eardrum rupture, assuming the gauge pressure in the middle ear is zero?

Strategy for (a)

The pressure can be found directly from its definition since we know the force and area. We are looking for the gauge pressure.

Solution for (a)

$$P_g = F/A = 3.00 \text{ N}/(1.00 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2) = 3.00 \times 10^4 \text{ N/m}^2. \quad 11.57$$

We now need to convert this to units of mm Hg:

$$P_g = 3.0 \times 10^4 \text{ N/m}^2 \left(\frac{1.0 \text{ mm Hg}}{133 \text{ N/m}^2} \right) = 226 \text{ mm Hg}. \quad 11.58$$

Strategy for (b)

Here we will use the fact that the water pressure varies linearly with depth h below the surface.

Solution for (b)

$P = h\rho g$ and therefore $h = P/\rho g$. Using the value above for P , we have

$$h = \frac{3.0 \times 10^4 \text{ N/m}^2}{(1.00 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3)(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)} = 3.06 \text{ m}. \quad 11.59$$

Discussion

Similarly, increased pressure exerted upon the eardrum from the middle ear can arise when an infection causes a fluid buildup.

Pressure Associated with the Lungs

The pressure inside the lungs increases and decreases with each breath. The pressure drops to below atmospheric pressure (negative gauge pressure) when you inhale, causing air to flow into the lungs. It increases above atmospheric pressure (positive gauge pressure) when you exhale, forcing air out.

Lung pressure is controlled by several mechanisms. Muscle action in the diaphragm and rib cage is necessary for inhalation; this muscle action increases the volume of the lungs thereby reducing the pressure within them [Figure 11.36](#). Surface tension in the alveoli creates a positive pressure opposing inhalation. (See [Cohesion and Adhesion in Liquids: Surface Tension and Capillary Action](#).) You can exhale without muscle action by letting surface tension in the alveoli create its own positive pressure. Muscle action can add to this positive pressure to produce forced exhalation, such as when you blow up a balloon, blow out a candle, or cough.

The lungs, in fact, would collapse due to the surface tension in the alveoli, if they were not attached to the inside of the chest wall by liquid adhesion. The gauge pressure in the liquid attaching the lungs to the inside of the chest wall is thus negative, ranging from -4 to -8 mm Hg during exhalation and inhalation, respectively. If air is allowed to enter the chest cavity, it breaks the attachment, and one or both lungs may collapse. Suction is applied to the chest cavity of surgery patients and trauma victims to reestablish negative pressure and inflate the lungs.

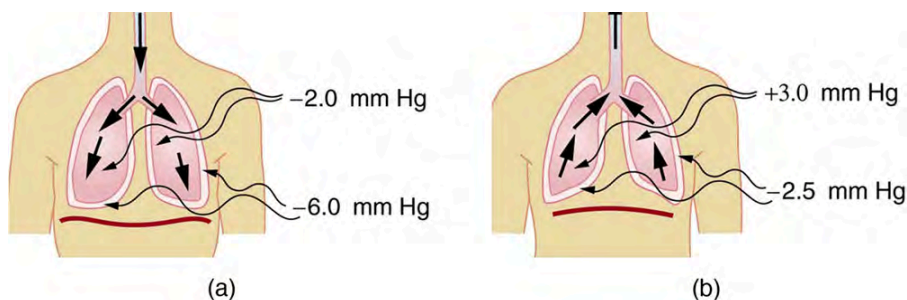


FIGURE 11.36 (a) During inhalation, muscles expand the chest, and the diaphragm moves downward, reducing pressure inside the lungs to less than atmospheric (negative gauge pressure). Pressure between the lungs and chest wall is even lower to overcome the positive pressure created by surface tension in the lungs. (b) During gentle exhalation, the muscles simply relax and surface tension in the alveoli creates a positive pressure inside the lungs, forcing air out. Pressure between the chest wall and lungs remains negative to keep them attached to the chest wall, but it is less negative than during inhalation.

Other Pressures in the Body

Spinal Column and Skull

Normally, there is a 5- to 12-mm Hg pressure in the fluid surrounding the brain and filling the spinal column. This cerebrospinal fluid serves many purposes, one of which is to supply flotation to the brain. The buoyant force supplied by the fluid nearly equals the weight of the brain, since their densities are nearly equal. If there is a loss of fluid, the brain rests on the inside of the skull, causing severe headaches, constricted blood flow, and serious damage. Spinal fluid pressure is measured by means of a needle inserted between vertebrae that transmits the pressure to a suitable measuring device.

Bladder Pressure

This bodily pressure is one of which we are often aware. In fact, there is a relationship between our awareness of this pressure and a subsequent increase in it. Bladder pressure climbs steadily from zero to about 25 mm Hg as the bladder fills to its normal capacity of 500 cm³. This pressure triggers the **micturition reflex**, which stimulates the feeling of needing to urinate. What is more, it also causes muscles around the bladder to contract, raising the pressure to over 100 mm Hg, accentuating the sensation. Coughing, straining, tensing in cold weather, wearing tight clothes, and experiencing simple nervous tension all can increase bladder pressure and trigger this reflex. So can the weight of a pregnant woman's fetus, especially if it is kicking vigorously or pushing down with its head! Bladder pressure can be measured by a catheter or by inserting a needle through the bladder wall and transmitting the pressure to an appropriate measuring device. One hazard of high bladder pressure (sometimes created by an obstruction), is that such pressure can force urine back into the kidneys, causing potentially severe damage.

Pressures in the Skeletal System

These pressures are the largest in the body, due both to the high values of initial force, and the small areas to which this force is applied, such as in the joints.. For example, when a person lifts an object improperly, a force of 5000 N may be created between vertebrae in the spine, and this may be applied to an area as small as 10 cm². The pressure created is $P = F/A = (5000 \text{ N}) / (10^{-3} \text{ m}^2) = 5.0 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$ or about 50 atm! This pressure can damage both the spinal discs (the cartilage between vertebrae), as well as the bony vertebrae themselves. Even under normal circumstances, forces between vertebrae in the spine are large enough to create pressures of several atmospheres. Most causes of excessive pressure in the skeletal system can be avoided by lifting properly and avoiding extreme physical activity. (See [Forces and Torques in Muscles and Joints](#).)

There are many other interesting and medically significant pressures in the body. For example, pressure caused by various muscle actions drives food and waste through the digestive system. Stomach pressure behaves much like bladder pressure and is tied to the sensation of hunger. Pressure in the relaxed esophagus is normally negative because pressure in the chest cavity is normally negative. Positive pressure in the stomach may thus force acid into the esophagus, causing "heartburn." Pressure in the middle ear can result in significant force on the eardrum if it differs greatly from atmospheric pressure, such as while scuba diving. The decrease in external pressure is also noticeable during plane flights (due to a decrease in the weight of air above relative to that at the Earth's surface). The Eustachian tubes connect the middle ear to the throat and allow us to equalize pressure in the middle ear to avoid an imbalance of force on the eardrum.

Many pressures in the human body are associated with the flow of fluids. Fluid flow will be discussed in detail in the [Fluid Dynamics and Its Biological and Medical Applications](#).

Glossary

absolute pressure the sum of gauge pressure and atmospheric pressure

adhesive forces the attractive forces between molecules of different types

Archimedes' principle the buoyant force on an object equals the weight of the fluid it displaces

buoyant force the net upward force on any object in any fluid

capillary action the tendency of a fluid to be raised or lowered in a narrow tube

cohesive forces the attractive forces between molecules of the same type

contact angle the angle θ between the tangent to the liquid surface and the surface

density the mass per unit volume of a substance or object

diastolic pressure minimum arterial blood pressure; indicator for the fluid balance

diastolic pressure the minimum blood pressure in the artery

fluids liquids and gases; a fluid is a state of matter that yields to shearing forces

gauge pressure the pressure relative to atmospheric

pressure

glaucoma condition caused by the buildup of fluid pressure in the eye

intraocular pressure fluid pressure in the eye

micturition reflex stimulates the feeling of needing to urinate, triggered by bladder pressure

Pascal's Principle a change in pressure applied to an enclosed fluid is transmitted undiminished to all portions of the fluid and to the walls of its container

pressure the force per unit area perpendicular to the force, over which the force acts

pressure the weight of the fluid divided by the area supporting it

specific gravity the ratio of the density of an object to a fluid (usually water)

surface tension the cohesive forces between molecules which cause the surface of a liquid to contract to the smallest possible surface area

systolic pressure maximum arterial blood pressure; indicator for the blood flow

systolic pressure the maximum blood pressure in the artery

Section Summary

11.1 What Is a Fluid?

- A fluid is a state of matter that yields to sideways or shearing forces. Liquids and gases are both fluids. Fluid statics is the physics of stationary fluids.

11.2 Density

- Density is the mass per unit volume of a substance or object. In equation form, density is defined as $\rho = \frac{m}{V}$.
- The SI unit of density is kg/m^3 .

11.3 Pressure

- Pressure is the force per unit perpendicular area over which the force is applied. In equation form, pressure is defined as $P = \frac{F}{A}$.
- The SI unit of pressure is pascal and $1 \text{ Pa} = 1 \text{ N/m}^2$.

11.4 Variation of Pressure with Depth in a Fluid

- Pressure is the weight of the fluid mg divided by the area A supporting it (the area of the bottom of

the container):

$$P = \frac{mg}{A}.$$

- Pressure due to the weight of a liquid is given by $P = h\rho g$, where P is the pressure, h is the height of the liquid, ρ is the density of the liquid, and g is the acceleration due to gravity.

11.5 Pascal's Principle

- Pressure is force per unit area.
- A change in pressure applied to an enclosed fluid is transmitted undiminished to all portions of the fluid and to the walls of its container.
- A hydraulic system is an enclosed fluid system used to exert forces.

11.6 Gauge Pressure, Absolute Pressure, and Pressure Measurement

- Gauge pressure is the pressure relative to atmospheric pressure.
- Absolute pressure is the sum of gauge pressure and atmospheric pressure.
- Aneroid gauge measures pressure using a bellows-and-spring arrangement connected to the pointer of a calibrated scale.
- Open-tube manometers have U-shaped tubes and

one end is always open. It is used to measure pressure.

- A mercury barometer is a device that measures atmospheric pressure.

11.7 Archimedes' Principle

- Buoyant force is the net upward force on any object in any fluid. If the buoyant force is greater than the object's weight, the object will rise to the surface and float. If the buoyant force is less than the object's weight, the object will sink. If the buoyant force equals the object's weight, the object will remain suspended at that depth. The buoyant force is always present whether the object floats, sinks, or is suspended in a fluid.
- Archimedes' principle states that the buoyant force on an object equals the weight of the fluid it displaces.
- Specific gravity is the ratio of the density of an object to a fluid (usually water).

11.8 Cohesion and Adhesion in Liquids: Surface Tension and Capillary Action

- Attractive forces between molecules of the same type are called cohesive forces.

Conceptual Questions

11.1 What Is a Fluid?

1. What physical characteristic distinguishes a fluid from a solid?
2. Which of the following substances are fluids at room temperature: air, mercury, water, glass?
3. Why are gases easier to compress than liquids and solids?
4. How do gases differ from liquids?

11.2 Density

5. Approximately how does the density of air vary with altitude?
6. Give an example in which density is used to identify the substance composing an object. Would information in addition to average density be needed to identify the substances in an object composed of more than one material?
7. [Figure 11.37](#) shows a glass of ice water filled to the brim. Will the water overflow when the ice melts? Explain your answer.

- Attractive forces between molecules of different types are called adhesive forces.
- Cohesive forces between molecules cause the surface of a liquid to contract to the smallest possible surface area. This general effect is called surface tension.
- Capillary action is the tendency of a fluid to be raised or suppressed in a narrow tube, or capillary tube which is due to the relative strength of cohesive and adhesive forces.

11.9 Pressures in the Body

- Measuring blood pressure is among the most common of all medical examinations.
- The pressures in various parts of the body can be measured and often provide valuable medical indicators.
- The shape of the eye is maintained by fluid pressure, called intraocular pressure.
- When the circulation of fluid in the eye is blocked, it can lead to a buildup in pressure, a condition called glaucoma.
- Some of the other pressures in the body are spinal and skull pressures, bladder pressure, pressures in the skeletal system.



FIGURE 11.37

11.3 Pressure

8. How is pressure related to the sharpness of a knife and its ability to cut?
9. Why does a dull hypodermic needle hurt more than a sharp one?
10. The outward force on one end of an air tank was calculated in [Example 11.2](#). How is this force balanced? (The tank does not accelerate, so the force must be balanced.)
11. Why is force exerted by static fluids always perpendicular to a surface?

12. In a remote location near the North Pole, an iceberg floats in a lake. Next to the lake (assume it is not frozen) sits a comparably sized glacier sitting on land. If both chunks of ice should melt due to rising global temperatures (and the melted ice all goes into the lake), which ice chunk would give the greatest increase in the level of the lake water, if any?
13. How do jogging on soft ground and wearing padded shoes reduce the pressures to which the feet and legs are subjected?
14. Toe dancing (as in ballet) is much harder on toes than normal dancing or walking. Explain in terms of pressure.
15. How do you convert pressure units like millimeters of mercury, centimeters of water, and inches of mercury into units like newtons per meter squared without resorting to a table of pressure conversion factors?

11.4 Variation of Pressure with Depth in a Fluid

16. Atmospheric pressure exerts a large force (equal to the weight of the atmosphere above your body—about 10 tons) on the top of your body when you are lying on the beach sunbathing. Why are you able to get up?
17. Why does atmospheric pressure decrease more rapidly than linearly with altitude?
18. What are two reasons why mercury rather than water is used in barometers?
19. [Figure 11.38](#) shows how sandbags placed around a leak outside a river levee can effectively stop the flow of water under the levee. Explain how the small amount of water inside the column formed by the sandbags is able to balance the much larger body of water behind the levee.

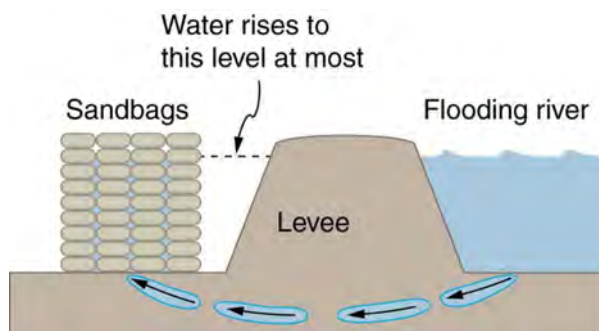


FIGURE 11.38 Because the river level is very high, it has started to leak under the levee. Sandbags are placed around the leak, and the water held by them rises until it is the same level as the river,

at which point the water there stops rising.

20. Why is it difficult to swim under water in the Great Salt Lake?
21. Is there a net force on a dam due to atmospheric pressure? Explain your answer.
22. Does atmospheric pressure add to the gas pressure in a rigid tank? In a toy balloon? When, in general, does atmospheric pressure *not* affect the total pressure in a fluid?
23. You can break a strong wine bottle by pounding a cork into it with your fist, but the cork must press directly against the liquid filling the bottle—there can be no air between the cork and liquid. Explain why the bottle breaks, and why it will not if there is air between the cork and liquid.

11.5 Pascal's Principle

24. Suppose the pedal cylinder in a hydraulic system is at a greater height than the wheel cylinder. Explain how this will affect the force produced at the wheel cylinder.

11.6 Gauge Pressure, Absolute Pressure, and Pressure Measurement

25. Explain why the fluid reaches equal levels on either side of a manometer if both sides are open to the atmosphere, even if the tubes are of different diameters.
26. [Figure 11.15](#) shows how a common measurement of arterial blood pressure is made. Is there any effect on the measured pressure if the manometer is lowered? What is the effect of raising the arm above the shoulder? What is the effect of placing the cuff on the upper leg with the person standing? Explain your answers in terms of pressure created by the weight of a fluid.
27. Considering the magnitude of typical arterial blood pressures, why are mercury rather than water manometers used for these measurements?

11.7 Archimedes' Principle

28. More force is required to pull the plug in a full bathtub than when it is empty. Does this contradict Archimedes' principle? Explain your answer.
29. Do fluids exert buoyant forces in a "weightless" environment, such as in the space shuttle? Explain your answer.
30. Will the same ship float higher in salt water than in

freshwater? Explain your answer.

- 31.** Marbles dropped into a partially filled bathtub sink to the bottom. Part of their weight is supported by buoyant force, yet the downward force on the bottom of the tub increases by exactly the weight of the marbles. Explain why.

11.8 Cohesion and Adhesion in Liquids: Surface Tension and Capillary Action

- 32.** The density of oil is less than that of water, yet a loaded oil tanker sits lower in the water than an empty one. Why?
- 33.** Is surface tension due to cohesive or adhesive forces, or both?
- 34.** Is capillary action due to cohesive or adhesive forces, or both?
- 35.** Birds such as ducks, geese, and swans have greater densities than water, yet they are able to

sit on its surface. Explain this ability, noting that water does not wet their feathers and that they cannot sit on soapy water.

- 36.** Water beads up on an oily sunbather, but not on her neighbor, whose skin is not oiled. Explain in terms of cohesive and adhesive forces.
- 37.** Could capillary action be used to move fluids in a “weightless” environment, such as in an orbiting space probe?
- 38.** What effect does capillary action have on the reading of a manometer with uniform diameter? Explain your answer.
- 39.** Pressure between the inside chest wall and the outside of the lungs normally remains negative. Explain how pressure inside the lungs can become positive (to cause exhalation) without muscle action.

Problems & Exercises

11.2 Density

- 1.** Gold is sold by the troy ounce (31.103 g). What is the volume of 1 troy ounce of pure gold?
- 2.** Mercury is commonly supplied in flasks containing 34.5 kg (about 76 lb). What is the volume in liters of this much mercury?
- 3.** (a) What is the mass of a deep breath of air having a volume of 2.00 L? (b) Discuss the effect taking such a breath has on your body’s volume and density.
- 4.** A straightforward method of finding the density of an object is to measure its mass and then measure its volume by submerging it in a graduated cylinder. What is the density of a 240-g rock that displaces 89.0 cm³ of water? (Note that the accuracy and practical applications of this technique are more limited than a variety of others that are based on Archimedes’ principle.)
- 5.** Suppose you have a coffee mug with a circular cross section and vertical sides (uniform radius). What is its inside radius if it holds 375 g of coffee when filled to a depth of 7.50 cm? Assume coffee has the same density as water.
- 6.** (a) A rectangular gasoline tank can hold 50.0 kg of gasoline when full. What is the depth of the tank if it is 0.500-m wide by 0.900-m long? (b) Discuss whether this gas tank has a reasonable volume for a passenger car.

- 7.** A trash compactor can reduce the volume of its contents to 0.350 their original value. Neglecting the mass of air expelled, by what factor is the density of the rubbish increased?
- 8.** A 2.50-kg steel gasoline can holds 20.0 L of gasoline when full. What is the average density of the full gas can, taking into account the volume occupied by steel as well as by gasoline?
- 9.** What is the density of 18.0-karat gold that is a mixture of 18 parts gold, 5 parts silver, and 1 part copper? (These values are parts by mass, not volume.) Assume that this is a simple mixture having an average density equal to the weighted densities of its constituents.
- 10.** There is relatively little empty space between atoms in solids and liquids, so that the average density of an atom is about the same as matter on a macroscopic scale—approximately 10³ kg/m³. The nucleus of an atom has a radius about 10^{−5} that of the atom and contains nearly all the mass of the entire atom. (a) What is the approximate density of a nucleus? (b) One remnant of a supernova, called a neutron star, can have the density of a nucleus. What would be the radius of a neutron star with a mass 10 times that of our Sun (the radius of the Sun is 7 × 10⁸ m)?

11.3 Pressure

- 11.** As a woman walks, her entire weight is

momentarily placed on one heel of her high-heeled shoes. Calculate the pressure exerted on the floor by the heel if it has an area of 1.50 cm^2 and the woman's mass is 55.0 kg . Express the pressure in Pa. (In the early days of commercial flight, women were not allowed to wear high-heeled shoes because aircraft floors were too thin to withstand such large pressures.)

12. The pressure exerted by a phonograph needle on a record is surprisingly large. If the equivalent of 1.00 g is supported by a needle, the tip of which is a circle 0.200 mm in radius, what pressure is exerted on the record in N/m^2 ?
13. Nail tips exert tremendous pressures when they are hit by hammers because they exert a large force over a small area. What force must be exerted on a nail with a circular tip of 1.00 mm diameter to create a pressure of $3.00 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^2$? (This high pressure is possible because the hammer striking the nail is brought to rest in such a short distance.)

11.4 Variation of Pressure with Depth in a Fluid

14. What depth of mercury creates a pressure of 1.00 atm ?
15. The greatest ocean depths on the Earth are found in the Marianas Trench near the Philippines. Calculate the pressure due to the ocean at the bottom of this trench, given its depth is 11.0 km and assuming the density of seawater is constant all the way down.
16. Verify that the SI unit of $h\rho g$ is N/m^2 .
17. Water towers store water above the level of consumers for times of heavy use, eliminating the need for high-speed pumps. How high above a user must the water level be to create a gauge pressure of $3.00 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2$?
18. The aqueous humor in a person's eye is exerting a force of 0.300 N on the 1.10-cm^2 area of the cornea. (a) What pressure is this in mm Hg ? (b) Is this value within the normal range for pressures in the eye?
19. How much force is exerted on one side of an 8.50 cm by 11.0 cm sheet of paper by the atmosphere? How can the paper withstand such a force?
20. What pressure is exerted on the bottom of a 0.500-m -wide by 0.900-m -long gas tank that can hold 50.0 kg of gasoline by the weight of the

gasoline in it when it is full?

21. Calculate the average pressure exerted on the palm of a shot-putter's hand by the shot if the area of contact is 50.0 cm^2 and he exerts a force of 800 N on it. Express the pressure in N/m^2 and compare it with the $1.00 \times 10^6 \text{ Pa}$ pressures sometimes encountered in the skeletal system.
22. The left side of the heart creates a pressure of 120 mm Hg by exerting a force directly on the blood over an effective area of 15.0 cm^2 . What force does it exert to accomplish this?
23. Show that the total force on a rectangular dam due to the water behind it increases with the *square* of the water depth. In particular, show that this force is given by $F = \rho g h^2 L/2$, where ρ is the density of water, h is its depth at the dam, and L is the length of the dam. You may assume the face of the dam is vertical. (Hint: Calculate the average pressure exerted and multiply this by the area in contact with the water. (See [Figure 11.39](#).)

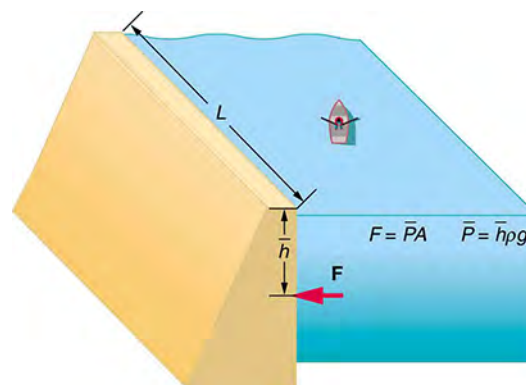


FIGURE 11.39

11.5 Pascal's Principle

24. How much pressure is transmitted in the hydraulic system considered in [Example 11.6](#)? Express your answer in pascals and in atmospheres.
25. What force must be exerted on the pedal cylinder of a hydraulic lift to support the weight of a 2000-kg car (a large car) resting on the wheel cylinder? The pedal cylinder has a 2.00-cm diameter and the wheel has a 24.0-cm diameter.
26. A crass host pours the remnants of several bottles of wine into a jug after a party. He then inserts a cork with a 2.00-cm diameter into the bottle, placing it in direct contact with the wine. He is amazed when he pounds the cork into place and the bottom of the jug (with a 14.0-cm diameter) breaks away. Calculate the extra force exerted

against the bottom if he pounded the cork with a 120-N force.

- 27.** A certain hydraulic system is designed to exert a force 100 times as large as the one put into it. (a) What must be the ratio of the area of the wheel cylinder to the area of the pedal cylinder? (b) What must be the ratio of their diameters? (c) By what factor is the distance through which the output force moves reduced relative to the distance through which the input force moves? Assume no losses to friction.
- 28.** (a) Verify that work input equals work output for a hydraulic system assuming no losses to friction. Do this by showing that the distance the output force moves is reduced by the same factor that the output force is increased. Assume the volume of the fluid is constant. (b) What effect would friction within the fluid and between components in the system have on the output force? How would this depend on whether or not the fluid is moving?

11.6 Gauge Pressure, Absolute Pressure, and Pressure Measurement

- 29.** Find the gauge and absolute pressures in the balloon and peanut jar shown in [Figure 11.14](#), assuming the manometer connected to the balloon uses water whereas the manometer connected to the jar contains mercury. Express in units of centimeters of water for the balloon and millimeters of mercury for the jar, taking $h = 0.0500$ m for each.
- 30.** (a) Convert normal blood pressure readings of 120 over 80 mm Hg to newtons per meter squared using the relationship for pressure due to the weight of a fluid ($P = h\rho g$) rather than a conversion factor. (b) Discuss why blood pressures for an infant could be smaller than those for an adult. Specifically, consider the smaller height to which blood must be pumped.
- 31.** How tall must a water-filled manometer be to measure blood pressures as high as 300 mm Hg?
- 32.** Pressure cookers have been around for more than 300 years, although their use has strongly declined in recent years (early models had a nasty habit of exploding). How much force must the latches holding the lid onto a pressure cooker be able to withstand if the circular lid is 25.0 cm in diameter and the gauge pressure inside is 300 atm? Neglect the weight of the lid.
- 33.** Suppose you measure a standing person's blood pressure by placing the cuff on his leg 0.500 m below the heart. Calculate the pressure you would observe (in units of mm Hg) if the pressure at the heart were 120 over 80 mm Hg. Assume that there is no loss of pressure due to resistance in the circulatory system (a reasonable assumption, since major arteries are large).
- 34.** A submarine is stranded on the bottom of the ocean with its hatch 25.0 m below the surface. Calculate the force needed to open the hatch from the inside, given it is circular and 0.450 m in diameter. Air pressure inside the submarine is 1.00 atm.
- 35.** Assuming bicycle tires are perfectly flexible and support the weight of bicycle and rider by pressure alone, calculate the total area of the tires in contact with the ground. The bicycle plus rider has a mass of 80.0 kg, and the gauge pressure in the tires is 3.50×10^5 Pa.

11.7 Archimedes' Principle

- 36.** What fraction of ice is submerged when it floats in freshwater, given the density of water at 0°C is very close to 1000 kg/m³?
- 37.** Logs sometimes float vertically in a lake because one end has become water-logged and denser than the other. What is the average density of a uniform-diameter log that floats with 20.0% of its length above water?
- 38.** Find the density of a fluid in which a hydrometer having a density of 0.750 g/mL floats with 92.0% of its volume submerged.
- 39.** If your body has a density of 995 kg/m³, what fraction of you will be submerged when floating gently in: (a) freshwater? (b) salt water, which has a density of 1027 kg/m³?
- 40.** Bird bones have air pockets in them to reduce their weight—this also gives them an average density significantly less than that of the bones of other animals. Suppose an ornithologist weighs a bird bone in air and in water and finds its mass is 45.0 g and its apparent mass when submerged is 3.60 g (the bone is watertight). (a) What mass of water is displaced? (b) What is the volume of the bone? (c) What is its average density?
- 41.** A rock with a mass of 540 g in air is found to have an apparent mass of 342 g when submerged in water. (a) What mass of water is displaced? (b)

- What is the volume of the rock? (c) What is its average density? Is this consistent with the value for granite?
42. Archimedes' principle can be used to calculate the density of a fluid as well as that of a solid. Suppose a chunk of iron with a mass of 390.0 g in air is found to have an apparent mass of 350.5 g when completely submerged in an unknown liquid. (a) What mass of fluid does the iron displace? (b) What is the volume of iron, using its density as given in [Table 11.1](#) (c) Calculate the fluid's density and identify it.
 43. In an immersion measurement of a woman's density, she is found to have a mass of 62.0 kg in air and an apparent mass of 0.0850 kg when completely submerged with lungs empty. (a) What mass of water does she displace? (b) What is her volume? (c) Calculate her density. (d) If her lung capacity is 1.75 L, is she able to float without treading water with her lungs filled with air?
 44. Some fish have a density slightly less than that of water and must exert a force (swim) to stay submerged. What force must an 85.0-kg grouper exert to stay submerged in salt water if its body density is 1015 kg/m^3 ?
 45. (a) Calculate the buoyant force on a 2.00-L helium balloon. (b) Given the mass of the rubber in the balloon is 1.50 g, what is the net vertical force on the balloon if it is let go? You can neglect the volume of the rubber.
 46. (a) What is the density of a woman who floats in freshwater with 4.00% of her volume above the surface? This could be measured by placing her in a tank with marks on the side to measure how much water she displaces when floating and when held under water (briefly). (b) What percent of her volume is above the surface when she floats in seawater?
 47. A certain man has a mass of 80 kg and a density of 955 kg/m^3 (excluding the air in his lungs). (a) Calculate his volume. (b) Find the buoyant force air exerts on him. (c) What is the ratio of the buoyant force to his weight?
 48. A simple compass can be made by placing a small bar magnet on a cork floating in water. (a) What fraction of a plain cork will be submerged when floating in water? (b) If the cork has a mass of 10.0 g and a 20.0-g magnet is placed on it, what fraction of the cork will be submerged? (c) Will the bar magnet and cork float in ethyl alcohol?
 49. What fraction of an iron anchor's weight will be supported by buoyant force when submerged in saltwater?
 50. Scurrilous con artists have been known to represent gold-plated tungsten ingots as pure gold and sell them at prices much below gold value but deservedly far above the cost of tungsten. With what accuracy must you be able to measure the mass of such an ingot in and out of water to tell that it is almost pure tungsten rather than pure gold?
 51. A twin-sized air mattress used for camping has dimensions of 100 cm by 200 cm by 15 cm when blown up. The weight of the mattress is 2 kg. How heavy a person could the air mattress hold if it is placed in freshwater?
 52. Referring to [Figure 11.19](#), prove that the buoyant force on the cylinder is equal to the weight of the fluid displaced (Archimedes' principle). You may assume that the buoyant force is $F_2 - F_1$ and that the ends of the cylinder have equal areas A . Note that the volume of the cylinder (and that of the fluid it displaces) equals $(h_2 - h_1)A$.
 53. (a) A 75.0-kg man floats in freshwater with 3.00% of his volume above water when his lungs are empty, and 5.00% of his volume above water when his lungs are full. Calculate the volume of air he inhales—called his lung capacity—in liters. (b) Does this lung volume seem reasonable?

11.8 Cohesion and Adhesion in Liquids: Surface Tension and Capillary Action

54. What is the pressure inside an alveolus having a radius of $2.50 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}$ if the surface tension of the fluid-lined wall is the same as for soapy water? You may assume the pressure is the same as that created by a spherical bubble.
55. (a) The pressure inside an alveolus with a 2.00×10^{-4} -m radius is $1.40 \times 10^3 \text{ Pa}$, due to its fluid-lined walls. Assuming the alveolus acts like a spherical bubble, what is the surface tension of the fluid? (b) Identify the likely fluid. (You may need to extrapolate between values in [Table 11.3](#).)
56. What is the gauge pressure in millimeters of mercury inside a soap bubble 0.100 m in diameter?
57. Calculate the force on the slide wire in [Figure 11.26](#) if it is 3.50 cm long and the fluid is ethyl

alcohol.

58. [Figure 11.32](#)(a) shows the effect of tube radius on the height to which capillary action can raise a fluid. (a) Calculate the height h for water in a glass tube with a radius of 0.900 cm—a rather large tube like the one on the left. (b) What is the radius of the glass tube on the right if it raises water to 4.00 cm?
59. We stated in [Example 11.12](#) that a xylem tube is of radius 2.50×10^{-5} m. Verify that such a tube raises sap less than a meter by finding h for it, making the same assumptions that sap's density is 1050 kg/m^3 , its contact angle is zero, and its surface tension is the same as that of water at 20.0°C .
60. What fluid is in the device shown in [Figure 11.26](#) if the force is $3.16 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N}$ and the length of the wire is 2.50 cm? Calculate the surface tension γ and find a likely match from [Table 11.3](#).
61. If the gauge pressure inside a rubber balloon with a 10.0-cm radius is 1.50 cm of water, what is the effective surface tension of the balloon?
62. Calculate the gauge pressures inside 2.00-cm-radius bubbles of water, alcohol, and soapy water. Which liquid forms the most stable bubbles, neglecting any effects of evaporation?
63. Suppose water is raised by capillary action to a height of 5.00 cm in a glass tube. (a) To what height will it be raised in a paraffin tube of the same radius? (b) In a silver tube of the same radius?
64. Calculate the contact angle θ for olive oil if capillary action raises it to a height of 7.07 cm in a glass tube with a radius of 0.100 mm. Is this value consistent with that for most organic liquids?
65. When two soap bubbles touch, the larger is inflated by the smaller until they form a single bubble. (a) What is the gauge pressure inside a soap bubble with a 1.50-cm radius? (b) Inside a 4.00-cm-radius soap bubble? (c) Inside the single bubble they form if no air is lost when they touch?
66. Calculate the ratio of the heights to which water and mercury are raised by capillary action in the same glass tube.
67. What is the ratio of heights to which ethyl alcohol and water are raised by capillary action in the same glass tube?

11.9 Pressures in the Body

68. During forced exhalation, such as when blowing up a balloon, the diaphragm and chest muscles create a pressure of 60.0 mm Hg between the lungs and chest wall. What force in newtons does this pressure create on the 600 cm^2 surface area of the diaphragm?
69. You can chew through very tough objects with your incisors because they exert a large force on the small area of a pointed tooth. What pressure in pascals can you create by exerting a force of 500 N with your tooth on an area of 1.00 mm^2 ?
70. One way to force air into an unconscious person's lungs is to squeeze on a balloon appropriately connected to the subject. What force must you exert on the balloon with your hands to create a gauge pressure of 4.00 cm water, assuming you squeeze on an effective area of 50.0 cm^2 ?
71. Heroes in movies hide beneath water and breathe through a hollow reed (villains never catch on to this trick). In practice, you cannot inhale in this manner if your lungs are more than 60.0 cm below the surface. What is the maximum negative gauge pressure you can create in your lungs on dry land, assuming you can achieve -3.00 cm water pressure with your lungs 60.0 cm below the surface?
72. Gauge pressure in the fluid surrounding an infant's brain may rise as high as 85.0 mm Hg (5 to 12 mm Hg is normal), creating an outward force large enough to make the skull grow abnormally large. (a) Calculate this outward force in newtons on each side of an infant's skull if the effective area of each side is 70.0 cm^2 . (b) What is the net force acting on the skull?
73. A full-term fetus typically has a mass of 3.50 kg. (a) What pressure does the weight of such a fetus create if it rests on the mother's bladder, supported on an area of 90.0 cm^2 ? (b) Convert this pressure to millimeters of mercury and determine if it alone is great enough to trigger the micturition reflex (it will add to any pressure already existing in the bladder).
74. If the pressure in the esophagus is -2.00 mm Hg while that in the stomach is $+20.0 \text{ mm Hg}$, to what height could stomach fluid rise in the esophagus, assuming a density of 1.10 g/mL ? (This movement will not occur if the muscle closing the lower end of the esophagus is working

properly.)

- 75.** Pressure in the spinal fluid is measured as shown in [Figure 11.40](#). If the pressure in the spinal fluid is 10.0 mm Hg: (a) What is the reading of the water manometer in cm water? (b) What is the reading if the person sits up, placing the top of the fluid 60 cm above the tap? The fluid density is 1.05 g/mL.

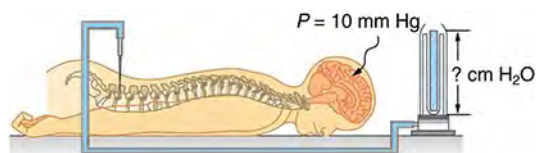


FIGURE 11.40 A water manometer used to measure pressure in the spinal fluid. The height of the fluid in the manometer is measured relative to the spinal column, and the manometer is open to the atmosphere. The measured pressure will be considerably greater if the person sits up.

- 76.** Calculate the maximum force in newtons exerted by the blood on an aneurysm, or ballooning, in a major artery, given the maximum blood pressure for this person is 150 mm Hg and the effective area of the aneurysm is 20.0 cm^2 . Note that this force is great enough to cause further enlargement and subsequently greater force on the ever-thinner vessel wall.
- 77.** During heavy lifting, a disk between spinal vertebrae is subjected to a 5000-N compressional force. (a) What pressure is created, assuming that the disk has a uniform circular cross section 2.00 cm in radius? (b) What deformation is produced if the disk is 0.800 cm thick and has a Young's modulus of $1.5 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^2$?
- 78.** When a person sits erect, increasing the vertical position of their brain by 36.0 cm, the heart must continue to pump blood to the brain at the same rate. (a) What is the gain in gravitational potential energy for 100 mL of blood raised 36.0 cm? (b) What is the drop in pressure, neglecting any losses due to friction? (c) Discuss how the gain in gravitational potential energy and the decrease in pressure are related.
- 79.** (a) How high will water rise in a glass capillary tube with a 0.500-mm radius? (b) How much gravitational potential energy does the water gain? (c) Discuss possible sources of this energy.
- 80.** A negative pressure of 25.0 atm can sometimes be achieved with the device in [Figure 11.41](#) before the water separates. (a) To what height could such a negative gauge pressure raise water? (b) How

much would a steel wire of the same diameter and length as this capillary stretch if suspended from above?

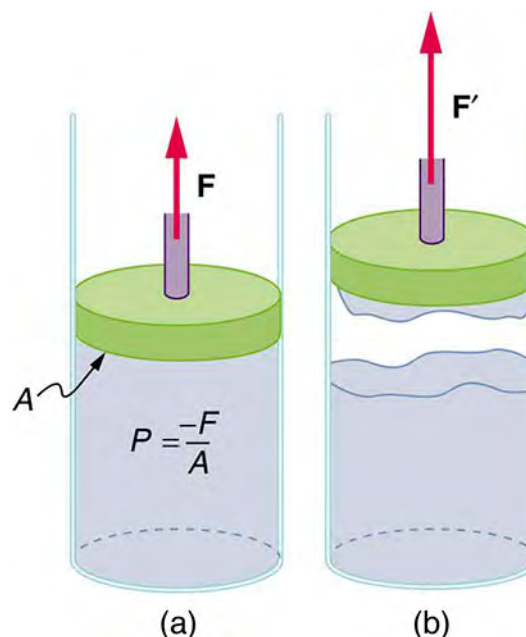


FIGURE 11.41 (a) When the piston is raised, it stretches the liquid slightly, putting it under tension and creating a negative absolute pressure $P = -F/A$. (b) The liquid eventually separates, giving an experimental limit to negative pressure in this liquid.

- 81.** Suppose you hit a steel nail with a 0.500-kg hammer, initially moving at 15.0 m/s and brought to rest in 2.80 mm. (a) What average force is exerted on the nail? (b) How much is the nail compressed if it is 2.50 mm in diameter and 6.00-cm long? (c) What pressure is created on the 1.00-mm-diameter tip of the nail?
- 82.** Calculate the pressure due to the ocean at the bottom of the Marianas Trench near the Philippines, given its depth is 11.0 km and assuming the density of sea water is constant all the way down. (b) Calculate the percent decrease in volume of sea water due to such a pressure, assuming its bulk modulus is the same as water and is constant. (c) What would be the percent increase in its density? Is the assumption of constant density valid? Will the actual pressure be greater or smaller than that calculated under this assumption?
- 83.** The hydraulic system of a backhoe is used to lift a load as shown in [Figure 11.42](#). (a) Calculate the force F the secondary cylinder must exert to support the 400-kg load and the 150-kg brace and shovel. (b) What is the pressure in the hydraulic fluid if the secondary cylinder is 2.50 cm in

diameter? (c) What force would you have to exert on a lever with a mechanical advantage of 5.00 acting on a primary cylinder 0.800 cm in diameter to create this pressure?

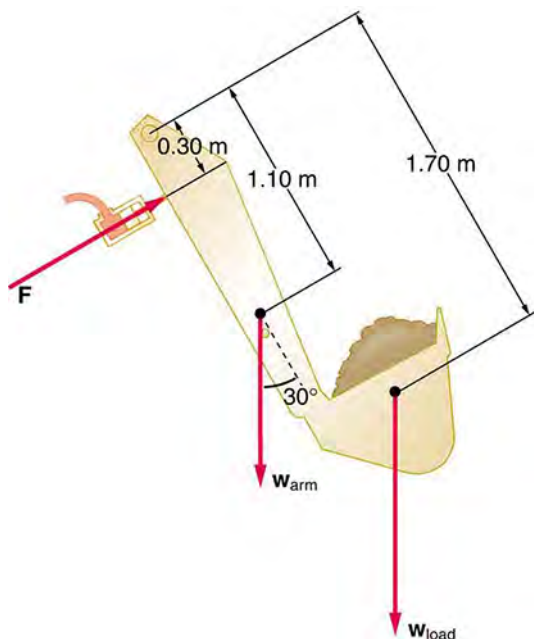


FIGURE 11.42 Hydraulic and mechanical lever systems are used in heavy machinery such as this back hoe.

- 84.** Some miners wish to remove water from a mine shaft. A pipe is lowered to the water 90 m below, and a negative pressure is applied to raise the water. (a) Calculate the pressure needed to raise

the water. (b) What is unreasonable about this pressure? (c) What is unreasonable about the premise?

- 85.** You are pumping up a bicycle tire with a hand pump, the piston of which has a 2.00-cm radius. (a) What force in newtons must you exert to create a pressure of 6.90×10^5 Pa (b) What is unreasonable about this (a) result? (c) Which premises are unreasonable or inconsistent?
- 86.** Consider a group of people trying to stay afloat after their boat strikes a log in a lake. Construct a problem in which you calculate the number of people that can cling to the log and keep their heads out of the water. Among the variables to be considered are the size and density of the log, and what is needed to keep a person's head and arms above water without swimming or treading water.
- 87.** The alveoli in emphysema victims are damaged and effectively form larger sacs. Construct a problem in which you calculate the loss of pressure due to surface tension in the alveoli because of their larger average diameters. (Part of the lung's ability to expel air results from pressure created by surface tension in the alveoli.) Among the things to consider are the normal surface tension of the fluid lining the alveoli, the average alveolar radius in normal individuals and its average in emphysema sufferers.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

11.2 Density

- An under-inflated volleyball is pumped full of air so that its radius increases by 10%. Ignoring the mass of the air inserted into the ball, what will happen to the volleyball's density?
 - The density of the volleyball will increase by approximately 25%.
 - The density of the volleyball will increase by approximately 10%.
 - The density of the volleyball will decrease by approximately 10%.
 - The density of the volleyball will decrease by approximately 17%.
 - The density of the volleyball will decrease by approximately 25%.
- A piece of aluminum foil has a known surface density of 15 g/cm^2 . If a 100-gram hollow cube were constructed using this foil, determine the approximate side length of this cube.
 - 1.05 cm
 - 1.10 cm
 - 2.6 cm
 - 6.67 cm
 - 15 cm
- A cube of polystyrene measuring 10 cm per side lies partially submerged in a large container of water.
 - If 90% of the polystyrene floats above the surface of the water, what is the density of the polystyrene? (Note: The density of water is 1000 kg/m^3 .)
 - A 0.5 kg mass is placed on the block of polystyrene. What percentage of the block now remains above water?
 - The water is poured out of the container and replaced with ethyl alcohol (density = 790 kg/m^3).
 - Will the block be able to remain partially

- submerged in this new fluid? Explain.
- ii. Will the block be able to remain partially submerged in this new fluid with the 0.5 kg mass placed on top? Explain.
- d. Without using a container of water, explain how you could determine the density of the polystyrene mentioned above if the material instead were spherical.
4. Four spheres are hung from a variety of different springs. The table below describes the characteristics of both the spheres and the springs from which they are hung. Use this information to rank the density of each sphere from least to greatest. Show work supporting your ranking.

Material Type	Radius of Sphere	Stretch of Spring (from equilibrium)	Spring Constant
A	10 cm	5 cm	2 N/m
B	5 cm	8 cm	8 N/m
C	8 cm	10 cm	6 N/m
D	8 cm	12 cm	10 N/m

TABLE 11.6

Rank the densities of the objects listed above, from greatest to least. Show work supporting your ranking.

11.3 Pressure

5. A cylindrical drum of radius 0.5 m is used to hold 400 liters of petroleum ether (density = .68 g/mL or 680 kg/m³).
- (Note: 1 liter = 0.001 m³)
- Determine the amount of pressure applied to the walls of the drum if the petroleum ether fills the drum to its top.
 - Determine the amount of pressure applied to the floor of the drum if the petroleum ether fills the drum to its top.
 - If the drum were redesigned to hold 800 liters of petroleum ether:
 - How would the pressure on the walls change?
Would it increase, decrease, or stay the same?
 - How would the pressure on the floor change?
Would it increase, decrease, or stay the same?

CHAPTER 12

Fluid Dynamics and Its Biological and Medical Applications



FIGURE 12.1 Many fluids are flowing in this scene. Water from the hose and smoke from the fire are visible flows. Less visible are the flow of air and the flow of fluids on the ground and within the people fighting the fire. (credit: Andrew Magill, Flickr)

CHAPTER OUTLINE

12.1 Flow Rate and Its Relation to Velocity

12.2 Bernoulli's Equation

12.3 The Most General Applications of Bernoulli's Equation

12.4 Viscosity and Laminar Flow; Poiseuille's Law

12.5 The Onset of Turbulence

12.6 Motion of an Object in a Viscous Fluid

12.7 Molecular Transport Phenomena: Diffusion, Osmosis, and Related Processes

CONNECTION FOR AP® COURSES How do planes fly? How do we model blood flow? How do sprayers work for paints or aerosols? What is the purpose of a water tower? To answer these questions, we will examine fluid dynamics. The equations governing fluid dynamics are derived from the same equations that represent energy conservation. One of the most powerful equations in fluid dynamics is Bernoulli's equation, which governs the relationship between fluid pressure, kinetic energy, and potential energy (Essential Knowledge 5.B.10). We will see how Bernoulli's equation explains the pressure difference that provides lift for airplanes and provides the means for fluids (like water or paint or perfume) to move in useful ways.

The content in this chapter supports:

Big Idea 5 Changes that occur as a result of interactions are constrained by conservation laws.

Enduring Understanding 5.B The energy of a system is conserved.

Essential Knowledge 5.B.10 Bernoulli's equation describes the conservation of energy in a fluid flow.

Enduring Understanding 5.F Classically, the mass of a system is conserved.

Essential Knowledge 5.F.1 The continuity equation describes conservation of mass flow rate in fluids.

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12.1 Flow Rate and Its Relation to Velocity

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Calculate flow rate.
- Define units of volume.
- Describe incompressible fluids.
- Explain the consequences of the equation of continuity.

Flow rate Q is defined to be the volume of fluid passing by some location through an area during a period of time, as seen in [Figure 12.2](#). In symbols, this can be written as

$$Q = \frac{V}{t}, \quad 12.1$$

where V is the volume and t is the elapsed time.

The SI unit for flow rate is m^3/s , but a number of other units for Q are in common use. For example, the heart of a resting adult pumps blood at a rate of 5.00 liters per minute (L/min). Note that a **liter** (L) is 1/1000 of a cubic meter or 1000 cubic centimeters (10^{-3} m^3 or 10^3 cm^3). In this text we shall use whatever metric units are most convenient for a given situation.

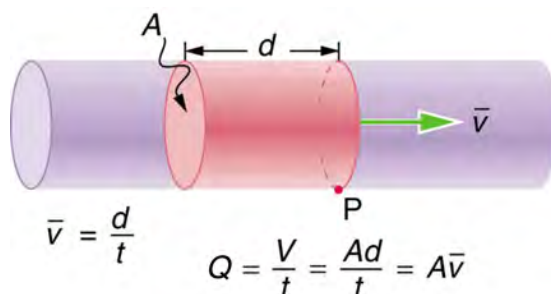


FIGURE 12.2 Flow rate is the volume of fluid per unit time flowing past a point through the area A . Here the shaded cylinder of fluid flows past point P in a uniform pipe in time t . The volume of the cylinder is Ad and the average velocity is $\bar{v} = d/t$ so that the flow rate is $Q = Ad/t = A\bar{v}$.



EXAMPLE 12.1

Calculating Volume from Flow Rate: The Heart Pumps a Lot of Blood in a Lifetime

How many cubic meters of blood does the heart pump in a 75-year lifetime, assuming the average flow rate is 5.00 L/min?

Strategy

Time and flow rate Q are given, and so the volume V can be calculated from the definition of flow rate.

Solution

Solving $Q = V/t$ for volume gives

$$V = Qt. \quad 12.2$$

Substituting known values yields

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \left(\frac{5.00 \text{ L}}{1 \text{ min}} \right) (75 \text{ y}) \left(\frac{1 \text{ m}^3}{10^3 \text{ L}} \right) \left(5.26 \times 10^5 \frac{\text{min}}{\text{y}} \right) \\ &= 2.0 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^3. \end{aligned} \quad 12.3$$

Discussion

This amount is about 200,000 tons of blood. For comparison, this value is equivalent to about 200 times the volume of water contained in a 6-lane 50-m lap pool.

Flow rate and velocity are related, but quite different, physical quantities. To make the distinction clear, think about the flow rate of a river. The greater the velocity of the water, the greater the flow rate of the river. But flow rate also depends on the size of the river. A rapid mountain stream carries far less water than the Amazon River in Brazil, for example. The precise relationship between flow rate Q and velocity $\bar{v}$ is

$$Q = A\bar{v}, \quad 12.4$$

where A is the cross-sectional area and $\bar{v}$ is the average velocity. This equation seems logical enough. The relationship tells us that flow rate is directly proportional to both the magnitude of the average velocity (hereafter referred to as the speed) and the size of a river, pipe, or other conduit. The larger the conduit, the greater its cross-sectional area. [Figure 12.2](#) illustrates how this relationship is obtained. The shaded cylinder has a volume

$$V = Ad, \quad 12.5$$

which flows past the point P in a time t . Dividing both sides of this relationship by t gives

$$\frac{V}{t} = \frac{Ad}{t}. \quad 12.6$$

We note that $Q = V/t$ and the average speed is $\bar{v} = d/t$. Thus the equation becomes $Q = A\bar{v}$.

[Figure 12.3](#) shows an incompressible fluid flowing along a pipe of decreasing radius. Because the fluid is incompressible, the same amount of fluid must flow past any point in the tube in a given time to ensure continuity of flow. In this case, because the cross-sectional area of the pipe decreases, the velocity must necessarily increase. This logic can be extended to say that the flow rate must be the same at all points along the pipe. In particular, for points 1 and 2,

$$\left. \begin{aligned} Q_1 &= Q_2 \\ A_1 \bar{v}_1 &= A_2 \bar{v}_2 \end{aligned} \right\}. \quad 12.7$$

This is called the equation of continuity and is valid for any incompressible fluid. The consequences of the equation of continuity can be observed when water flows from a hose into a narrow spray nozzle: it emerges with a large speed—that is the purpose of the nozzle. Conversely, when a river empties into one end of a reservoir, the water slows considerably, perhaps picking up speed again when it leaves the other end of the reservoir. In other words, speed increases when cross-sectional area decreases, and speed decreases when cross-sectional area increases.

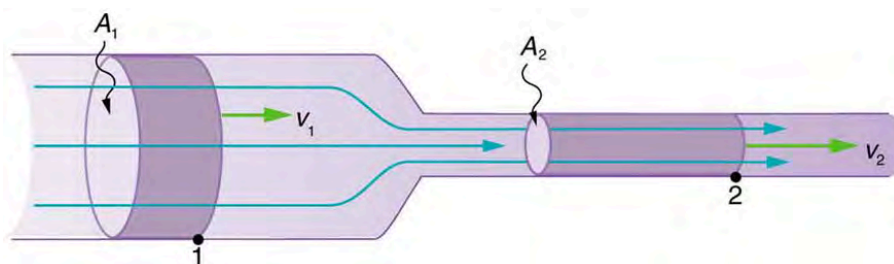


FIGURE 12.3 When a tube narrows, the same volume occupies a greater length. For the same volume to pass points 1 and 2 in a given time, the speed must be greater at point 2. The process is exactly reversible. If the fluid flows in the opposite direction, its speed will decrease when the tube widens. (Note that the relative volumes of the two cylinders and the corresponding velocity vector arrows are not drawn to scale.)

Since liquids are essentially incompressible, the equation of continuity is valid for all liquids. However, gases are compressible, and so the equation must be applied with caution to gases if they are subjected to compression or expansion.



EXAMPLE 12.2

Calculating Fluid Speed: Speed Increases When a Tube Narrows

A nozzle with a radius of 0.250 cm is attached to a garden hose with a radius of 0.900 cm. The flow rate through hose and nozzle is 0.500 L/s. Calculate the speed of the water (a) in the hose and (b) in the nozzle.

Strategy

We can use the relationship between flow rate and speed to find both velocities. We will use the subscript 1 for the hose and 2 for the nozzle.

Solution for (a)

First, we solve $Q = A\bar{v}$ for v_1 and note that the cross-sectional area is $A = \pi r^2$, yielding

$$\bar{v}_1 = \frac{Q}{A_1} = \frac{Q}{\pi r_1^2}. \quad 12.8$$

Substituting known values and making appropriate unit conversions yields

$$\bar{v}_1 = \frac{(0.500 \text{ L/s})(10^{-3} \text{ m}^3/\text{L})}{\pi(9.00 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m})^2} = 1.96 \text{ m/s}. \quad 12.9$$

Solution for (b)

We could repeat this calculation to find the speed in the nozzle $\bar{v}_2$, but we will use the equation of continuity to give a somewhat different insight. Using the equation which states

$$A_1 \bar{v}_1 = A_2 \bar{v}_2, \quad 12.10$$

solving for $\bar{v}_2$ and substituting πr^2 for the cross-sectional area yields

$$\bar{v}_2 = \frac{A_1}{A_2} \bar{v}_1 = \frac{\pi r_1^2}{\pi r_2^2} \bar{v}_1 = \frac{r_1^2}{r_2^2} \bar{v}_1. \quad 12.11$$

Substituting known values,

$$\bar{v}_2 = \frac{(0.900 \text{ cm})^2}{(0.250 \text{ cm})^2} 1.96 \text{ m/s} = 25.5 \text{ m/s}. \quad 12.12$$

Discussion

A speed of 1.96 m/s is about right for water emerging from a nozzleless hose. The nozzle produces a considerably faster stream merely by constricting the flow to a narrower tube.

The solution to the last part of the example shows that speed is inversely proportional to the *square* of the radius of the tube, making for large effects when radius varies. We can blow out a candle at quite a distance, for example, by pursing our lips, whereas blowing on a candle with our mouth wide open is quite ineffective.

In many situations, including in the cardiovascular system, branching of the flow occurs. The blood is pumped from the heart into arteries that subdivide into smaller arteries (arterioles) which branch into very fine vessels called capillaries. In this situation, continuity of flow is maintained but it is the *sum* of the flow rates in each of the branches in any portion along the tube that is maintained. The equation of continuity in a more general form becomes

$$n_1 A_1 \bar{v}_1 = n_2 A_2 \bar{v}_2, \quad 12.13$$

where n_1 and n_2 are the number of branches in each of the sections along the tube.



EXAMPLE 12.3

Calculating Flow Speed and Vessel Diameter: Branching in the Cardiovascular System

The aorta is the principal blood vessel through which blood leaves the heart in order to circulate around the body. (a) Calculate the average speed of the blood in the aorta if the flow rate is 5.0 L/min. The aorta has a radius of 10 mm. (b) Blood also flows through smaller blood vessels known as capillaries. When the rate of blood flow in the aorta is 5.0 L/min, the speed of blood in the capillaries is about 0.33 mm/s. Given that the average diameter of a capillary is 8.0 μm , calculate the number of capillaries in the blood circulatory system.

Strategy

We can use $Q = A\bar{v}$ to calculate the speed of flow in the aorta and then use the general form of the equation of continuity to calculate the number of capillaries as all of the other variables are known.

Solution for (a)

The flow rate is given by $Q = A\bar{v}$ or $\bar{v} = \frac{Q}{\pi r^2}$ for a cylindrical vessel.

Substituting the known values (converted to units of meters and seconds) gives

$$\bar{v} = \frac{(5.0 \text{ L/min})(10^{-3} \text{ m}^3/\text{L})(1 \text{ min}/60 \text{ s})}{\pi(0.010 \text{ m})^2} = 0.27 \text{ m/s.} \quad 12.14$$

Solution for (b)

Using $n_1 A_1 \bar{v}_1 = n_2 A_2 \bar{v}_2$, assigning the subscript 1 to the aorta and 2 to the capillaries, and solving for n_2 (the number of capillaries) gives $n_2 = \frac{n_1 A_1 \bar{v}_1}{A_2 \bar{v}_2}$. Converting all quantities to units of meters and seconds and substituting into the equation above gives

$$n_2 = \frac{(1)(\pi)(10 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m})^2(0.27 \text{ m/s})}{(\pi)(4.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m})^2(0.33 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m/s})} = 5.0 \times 10^9 \text{ capillaries.} \quad 12.15$$

Discussion

Note that the speed of flow in the capillaries is considerably reduced relative to the speed in the aorta due to the significant increase in the total cross-sectional area at the capillaries. This low speed is to allow sufficient time for effective exchange to occur although it is equally important for the flow not to become stationary in order to avoid the possibility of clotting. Does this large number of capillaries in the body seem reasonable? In active muscle, one finds about 200 capillaries per mm^3 , or about 200×10^6 per 1 kg of muscle. For 20 kg of muscle, this amounts to about 4×10^9 capillaries.

12.2 Bernoulli's Equation

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain the terms in Bernoulli's equation.
- Explain how Bernoulli's equation is related to conservation of energy.
- Explain how to derive Bernoulli's principle from Bernoulli's equation.
- Calculate with Bernoulli's principle.
- List some applications of Bernoulli's principle.

When a fluid flows into a narrower channel, its speed increases. That means its kinetic energy also increases. Where does that change in kinetic energy come from? The increased kinetic energy comes from the net work done on the fluid to push it into the channel and the work done on the fluid by the gravitational force, if the fluid changes vertical

position. Recall the work-energy theorem,

$$W_{\text{net}} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{1}{2}mv_0^2. \quad 12.16$$

There is a pressure difference when the channel narrows. This pressure difference results in a net force on the fluid: recall that pressure times area equals force. The net work done increases the fluid's kinetic energy. As a result, the *pressure will drop in a rapidly-moving fluid*, whether or not the fluid is confined to a tube.

There are a number of common examples of pressure dropping in rapidly-moving fluids. Shower curtains have a disagreeable habit of bulging into the shower stall when the shower is on. The high-velocity stream of water and air creates a region of lower pressure inside the shower, and standard atmospheric pressure on the other side. The pressure difference results in a net force inward pushing the curtain in. You may also have noticed that when passing a truck on the highway, your car tends to veer toward it. The reason is the same—the high velocity of the air between the car and the truck creates a region of lower pressure, and the vehicles are pushed together by greater pressure on the outside. (See [Figure 12.4](#).) This effect was observed as far back as the mid-1800s, when it was found that trains passing in opposite directions tipped precariously toward one another.

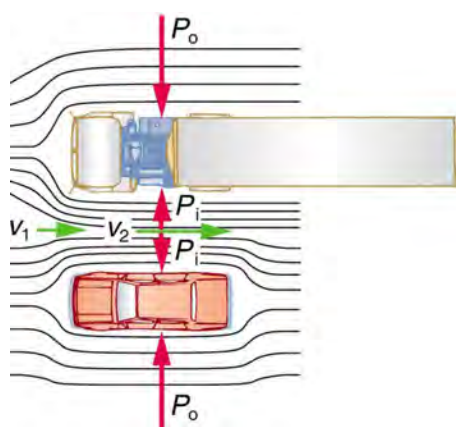


FIGURE 12.4 An overhead view of a car passing a truck on a highway. Air passing between the vehicles flows in a narrower channel and must increase its speed (v_2 is greater than v_1), causing the pressure between them to drop (P_i is less than P_o). Greater pressure on the outside pushes the car and truck together.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME INVESTIGATION WITH A SHEET OF PAPER

Hold the short edge of a sheet of paper parallel to your mouth with one hand on each side of your mouth. The page should slant downward over your hands. Blow over the top of the page. Describe what happens and explain the reason for this behavior.

Bernoulli's Equation

The relationship between pressure and velocity in fluids is described quantitatively by **Bernoulli's equation**, named after its discoverer, the Swiss scientist Daniel Bernoulli (1700–1782). Bernoulli's equation states that for an incompressible, frictionless fluid, the following sum is constant:

$$P + \frac{1}{2}\rho v^2 + \rho gh = \text{constant}, \quad 12.17$$

where P is the absolute pressure, ρ is the fluid density, v is the velocity of the fluid, h is the height above some reference point, and g is the acceleration due to gravity. If we follow a small volume of fluid along its path, various quantities in the sum may change, but the total remains constant. Let the subscripts 1 and 2 refer to any two points along the path that the bit of fluid follows; Bernoulli's equation becomes

$$P_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 + \rho gh_1 = P_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 + \rho gh_2. \quad 12.18$$

Bernoulli's equation is a form of the conservation of energy principle. Note that the second and third terms are the

kinetic and potential energy with m replaced by ρ . In fact, each term in the equation has units of energy per unit volume. We can prove this for the second term by substituting $\rho = m/V$ into it and gathering terms:

$$\frac{1}{2}\rho v^2 = \frac{\frac{1}{2}mv^2}{V} = \frac{\text{KE}}{V}. \quad 12.19$$

So $\frac{1}{2}\rho v^2$ is the kinetic energy per unit volume. Making the same substitution into the third term in the equation, we find

$$\rho gh = \frac{mgh}{V} = \frac{\text{PE}_g}{V}, \quad 12.20$$

so ρgh is the gravitational potential energy per unit volume. Note that pressure P has units of energy per unit volume, too. Since $P = F/A$, its units are N/m^2 . If we multiply these by m/m , we obtain $\text{N} \cdot \text{m/m}^3 = \text{J/m}^3$, or energy per unit volume. Bernoulli's equation is, in fact, just a convenient statement of conservation of energy for an incompressible fluid in the absence of friction.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: CONSERVATION OF ENERGY

Conservation of energy applied to fluid flow produces Bernoulli's equation. The net work done by the fluid's pressure results in changes in the fluid's KE and PE_g per unit volume. If other forms of energy are involved in fluid flow, Bernoulli's equation can be modified to take these forms into account. Such forms of energy include thermal energy dissipated because of fluid viscosity.

The general form of Bernoulli's equation has three terms in it, and it is broadly applicable. To understand it better, we will look at a number of specific situations that simplify and illustrate its use and meaning.

Bernoulli's Equation for Static Fluids

Let us first consider the very simple situation where the fluid is static—that is, $v_1 = v_2 = 0$. Bernoulli's equation in that case is

$$P_1 + \rho gh_1 = P_2 + \rho gh_2. \quad 12.21$$

We can further simplify the equation by taking $h_2 = 0$ (we can always choose some height to be zero, just as we often have done for other situations involving the gravitational force, and take all other heights to be relative to this). In that case, we get

$$P_2 = P_1 + \rho gh_1. \quad 12.22$$

This equation tells us that, in static fluids, pressure increases with depth. As we go from point 1 to point 2 in the fluid, the depth increases by h_1 , and consequently, P_2 is greater than P_1 by an amount ρgh_1 . In the very simplest case, P_1 is zero at the top of the fluid, and we get the familiar relationship $P = \rho gh$. (Recall that $P = \rho gh$ and $\Delta\text{PE}_g = mgh$.) Bernoulli's equation includes the fact that the pressure due to the weight of a fluid is ρgh . Although we introduce Bernoulli's equation for fluid flow, it includes much of what we studied for static fluids in the preceding chapter.

Bernoulli's Principle—Bernoulli's Equation at Constant Depth

Another important situation is one in which the fluid moves but its depth is constant—that is, $h_1 = h_2$. Under that condition, Bernoulli's equation becomes

$$P_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 = P_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2. \quad 12.23$$

Situations in which fluid flows at a constant depth are so important that this equation is often called **Bernoulli's principle**. It is Bernoulli's equation for fluids at constant depth. (Note again that this applies to a small volume of fluid as we follow it along its path.) As we have just discussed, pressure drops as speed increases in a moving fluid. We can see this from Bernoulli's principle. For example, if v_2 is greater than v_1 in the equation, then P_2 must be less than P_1 for the equality to hold.

EXAMPLE 12.4

Calculating Pressure: Pressure Drops as a Fluid Speeds Up

In [Example 12.2](#), we found that the speed of water in a hose increased from 1.96 m/s to 25.5 m/s going from the hose to the nozzle. Calculate the pressure in the hose, given that the absolute pressure in the nozzle is $1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2$ (atmospheric, as it must be) and assuming level, frictionless flow.

Strategy

Level flow means constant depth, so Bernoulli's principle applies. We use the subscript 1 for values in the hose and 2 for those in the nozzle. We are thus asked to find P_1 .

Solution

Solving Bernoulli's principle for P_1 yields

$$P_1 = P_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 - \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 = P_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho(v_2^2 - v_1^2). \quad 12.24$$

Substituting known values,

$$\begin{aligned} P_1 &= 1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2 \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2}(10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3)[(25.5 \text{ m/s})^2 - (1.96 \text{ m/s})^2] \\ &= 4.24 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2. \end{aligned} \quad 12.25$$

Discussion

This absolute pressure in the hose is greater than in the nozzle, as expected since v is greater in the nozzle. The pressure P_2 in the nozzle must be atmospheric since it emerges into the atmosphere without other changes in conditions.

Applications of Bernoulli's Principle

There are a number of devices and situations in which fluid flows at a constant height and, thus, can be analyzed with Bernoulli's principle.

Entrainment

People have long put the Bernoulli principle to work by using reduced pressure in high-velocity fluids to move things about. With a higher pressure on the outside, the high-velocity fluid forces other fluids into the stream. This process is called *entrainment*. Entrainment devices have been in use since ancient times, particularly as pumps to raise water small heights, as in draining swamps, fields, or other low-lying areas. Some other devices that use the concept of entrainment are shown in [Figure 12.5](#).

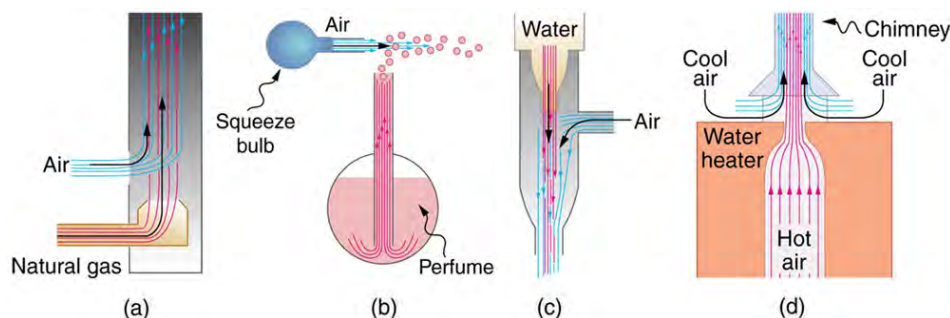


FIGURE 12.5 Examples of entrainment devices that use increased fluid speed to create low pressures, which then entrain one fluid into another. (a) A Bunsen burner uses an adjustable gas nozzle, entraining air for proper combustion. (b) An atomizer uses a squeeze bulb to create a jet of air that entrains drops of perfume. Paint sprayers and carburetors use very similar techniques to move their respective liquids. (c) A common aspirator uses a high-speed stream of water to create a region of lower pressure. Aspirators may be used as suction pumps in dental and surgical situations or for draining a flooded basement or producing a reduced pressure in a vessel. (d) The chimney of a water heater is designed to entrain air into the pipe leading through the ceiling.

Wings and Sails

The airplane wing is a beautiful example of Bernoulli's principle in action. [Figure 12.6\(a\)](#) shows the characteristic shape of a wing. The wing is tilted upward at a small angle and the upper surface is longer, causing air to flow faster over it. The pressure on top of the wing is therefore reduced, creating a net upward force or lift. (Wings can also gain lift by pushing air downward, utilizing the conservation of momentum principle. The deflected air molecules result in an upward force on the wing — Newton's third law.) Sails also have the characteristic shape of a wing. (See [Figure 12.6\(b\)](#).) The pressure on the front side of the sail, P_{front} , is lower than the pressure on the back of the sail, P_{back} . This results in a forward force and even allows you to sail into the wind.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME INVESTIGATION WITH TWO STRIPS OF PAPER

For a good illustration of Bernoulli's principle, make two strips of paper, each about 15 cm long and 4 cm wide. Hold the small end of one strip up to your lips and let it drape over your finger. Blow across the paper. What happens? Now hold two strips of paper up to your lips, separated by your fingers. Blow between the strips. What happens?

Velocity measurement

[Figure 12.7](#) shows two devices that measure fluid velocity based on Bernoulli's principle. The manometer in [Figure 12.7\(a\)](#) is connected to two tubes that are small enough not to appreciably disturb the flow. The tube facing the oncoming fluid creates a dead spot having zero velocity ($v_1 = 0$) in front of it, while fluid passing the other tube has velocity v_2 . This means that Bernoulli's principle as stated in $P_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 = P_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2$ becomes

$$P_1 = P_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2. \quad 12.26$$

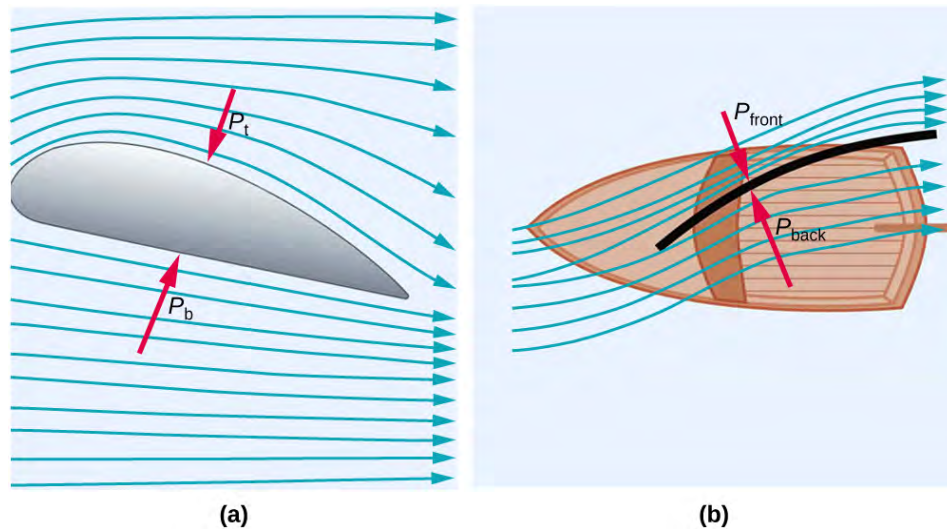


FIGURE 12.6 (a) The Bernoulli principle helps explain lift generated by a wing. (b) Sails use the same technique to generate part of their thrust.

Thus pressure P_2 over the second opening is reduced by $\frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2$, and so the fluid in the manometer rises by h on the side connected to the second opening, where

$$h \propto \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2. \quad 12.27$$

(Recall that the symbol $\propto$ means “proportional to.”) Solving for v_2 , we see that

$$v_2 \propto \sqrt{h}. \quad 12.28$$

[Figure 12.7\(b\)](#) shows a version of this device that is in common use for measuring various fluid velocities; such devices are frequently used as air speed indicators in aircraft.

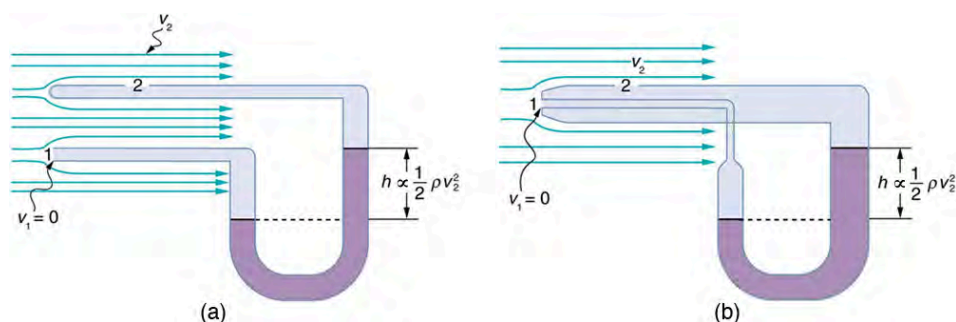


FIGURE 12.7 Measurement of fluid speed based on Bernoulli's principle. (a) A manometer is connected to two tubes that are close together and small enough not to disturb the flow. Tube 1 is open at the end facing the flow. A dead spot having zero speed is created there. Tube 2 has an opening on the side, and so the fluid has a speed v across the opening; thus, pressure there drops. The difference in pressure at the manometer is $\frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2$, and so h is proportional to $\frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2$. (b) This type of velocity measuring device is a Prandtl tube, also known as a pitot tube.

12.3 The Most General Applications of Bernoulli's Equation

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Calculate using Torricelli's theorem.
- Calculate power in fluid flow.

Torricelli's Theorem

[Figure 12.8](#) shows water gushing from a large tube through a dam. What is its speed as it emerges? Interestingly, if resistance is negligible, the speed is just what it would be if the water fell a distance h from the surface of the reservoir; the water's speed is independent of the size of the opening. Let us check this out. Bernoulli's equation must be used since the depth is not constant. We consider water flowing from the surface (point 1) to the tube's outlet (point 2). Bernoulli's equation as stated in previously is

$$P_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 + \rho gh_1 = P_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 + \rho gh_2. \quad 12.29$$

Both P_1 and P_2 equal atmospheric pressure (P_1 is atmospheric pressure because it is the pressure at the top of the reservoir. P_2 must be atmospheric pressure, since the emerging water is surrounded by the atmosphere and cannot have a pressure different from atmospheric pressure.) and subtract out of the equation, leaving

$$\frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 + \rho gh_1 = \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 + \rho gh_2. \quad 12.30$$

Solving this equation for v_2^2 , noting that the density ρ cancels (because the fluid is incompressible), yields

$$v_2^2 = v_1^2 + 2g(h_1 - h_2). \quad 12.31$$

We let $h = h_1 - h_2$; the equation then becomes

$$v_2^2 = v_1^2 + 2gh \quad 12.32$$

where h is the height dropped by the water. This is simply a kinematic equation for any object falling a distance h with negligible resistance. In fluids, this last equation is called *Torricelli's theorem*. Note that the result is independent of the velocity's direction, just as we found when applying conservation of energy to falling objects.

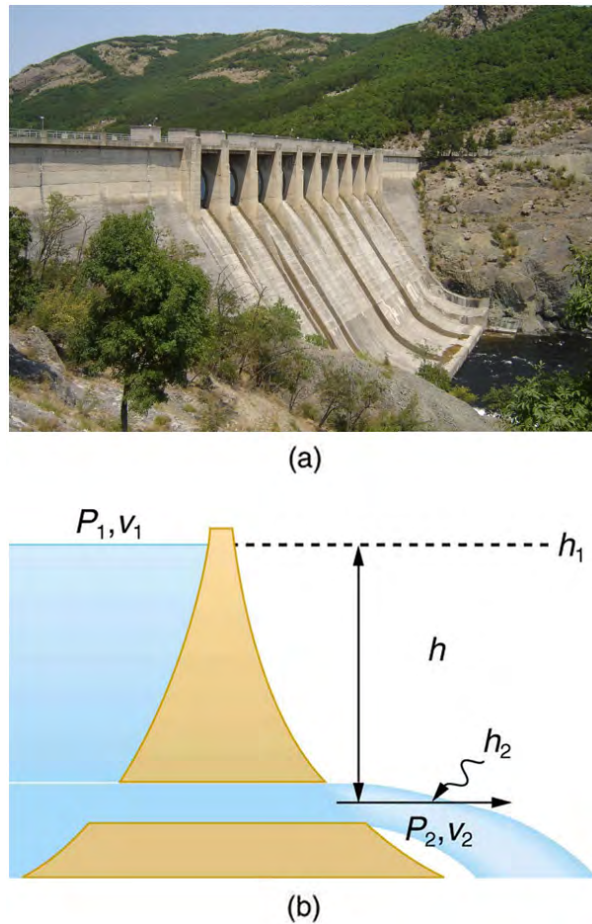


FIGURE 12.8 (a) Water gushes from the base of the Studen Kladenetz dam in Bulgaria. (credit: Kiril Kapustin; <http://www.ImagesFromBulgaria.com>) (b) In the absence of significant resistance, water flows from the reservoir with the same speed it would have if it fell the distance h without friction. This is an example of Torricelli's theorem.

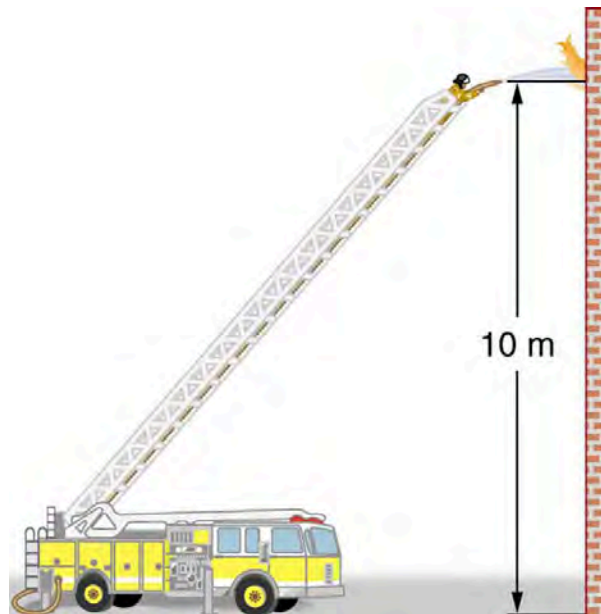


FIGURE 12.9 Pressure in the nozzle of this fire hose is less than at ground level for two reasons: the water has to go uphill to get to the nozzle, and speed increases in the nozzle. In spite of its lowered pressure, the water can exert a large force on anything it strikes, by virtue of its kinetic energy. Pressure in the water stream becomes equal to atmospheric pressure once it emerges into the air.

All preceding applications of Bernoulli's equation involved simplifying conditions, such as constant height or constant pressure. The next example is a more general application of Bernoulli's equation in which pressure,

velocity, and height all change. (See [Figure 12.9](#).)



EXAMPLE 12.5

Calculating Pressure: A Fire Hose Nozzle

Fire hoses used in major structure fires have inside diameters of 6.40 cm. Suppose such a hose carries a flow of 40.0 L/s starting at a gauge pressure of $1.62 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$. The hose goes 10.0 m up a ladder to a nozzle having an inside diameter of 3.00 cm. Assuming negligible resistance, what is the pressure in the nozzle?

Strategy

Here we must use Bernoulli's equation to solve for the pressure, since depth is not constant.

Solution

Bernoulli's equation states

$$P_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 + \rho gh_1 = P_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 + \rho gh_2, \quad 12.33$$

where the subscripts 1 and 2 refer to the initial conditions at ground level and the final conditions inside the nozzle, respectively. We must first find the speeds v_1 and v_2 . Since $Q = A_1 v_1$, we get

$$v_1 = \frac{Q}{A_1} = \frac{40.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3/\text{s}}{\pi(3.20 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m})^2} = 12.434 \text{ m/s}. \quad 12.34$$

Similarly, we find

$$v_2 = 56.588 \text{ m/s}. \quad 12.35$$

(This rather large speed is helpful in reaching the fire.) Now, taking h_1 to be zero, we solve Bernoulli's equation for P_2 :

$$P_2 = P_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho(v_1^2 - v_2^2) - \rho gh_2. \quad 12.36$$

Substituting known values yields

$$\begin{aligned} P_2 &= \\ 1.62 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2 + \frac{1}{2}(1000 \text{ kg/m}^3)[(12.434 \text{ m/s})^2 - (56.588 \text{ m/s})^2] - (1000 \text{ kg/m}^3)(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(10.0 \text{ m}) \\ &\approx 1800 \text{ N/m}^2. \end{aligned} \quad 12.37$$

Discussion

This value is a gauge pressure, since the initial pressure was given as a gauge pressure. Thus the nozzle pressure is very close to atmospheric pressure, as it must because the water exits into the atmosphere without changes in its conditions.

Power in Fluid Flow

Power is the *rate* at which work is done or energy in any form is used or supplied. To see the relationship of power to fluid flow, consider Bernoulli's equation:

$$P + \frac{1}{2}\rho v^2 + \rho gh = \text{constant}. \quad 12.38$$

All three terms have units of energy per unit volume, as discussed in the previous section. Now, considering units, if we multiply energy per unit volume by flow rate (volume per unit time), we get units of power. That is, $(E/V)(V/t) = E/t$. This means that if we multiply Bernoulli's equation by flow rate Q , we get power. In equation form, this is

$$\left(P + \frac{1}{2}\rho v^2 + \rho gh\right)Q = \text{power.} \quad 12.39$$

Each term has a clear physical meaning. For example, PQ is the power supplied to a fluid, perhaps by a pump, to give it its pressure P . Similarly, $\frac{1}{2}\rho v^2 Q$ is the power supplied to a fluid to give it its kinetic energy. And ρghQ is the power going to gravitational potential energy.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: POWER

Power is defined as the rate of energy transferred, or E/t . Fluid flow involves several types of power. Each type of power is identified with a specific type of energy being expended or changed in form.



EXAMPLE 12.6

Calculating Power in a Moving Fluid

Suppose the fire hose in the previous example is fed by a pump that receives water through a hose with a 6.40-cm diameter coming from a hydrant with a pressure of $0.700 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$. What power does the pump supply to the water?

Strategy

Here we must consider energy forms as well as how they relate to fluid flow. Since the input and output hoses have the same diameters and are at the same height, the pump does not change the speed of the water nor its height, and so the water's kinetic energy and gravitational potential energy are unchanged. That means the pump only supplies power to increase water pressure by $0.92 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$ (from $0.700 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$ to $1.62 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$).

Solution

As discussed above, the power associated with pressure is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{power} &= PQ \\ &= (0.920 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2)(40.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3/\text{s}) \dots \\ &= 3.68 \times 10^4 \text{ W} = 36.8 \text{ kW} \end{aligned} \quad 12.40$$

Discussion

Such a substantial amount of power requires a large pump, such as is found on some fire trucks. (This kilowatt value converts to about 50 hp.) The pump in this example increases only the water's pressure. If a pump—such as the heart—directly increases velocity and height as well as pressure, we would have to calculate all three terms to find the power it supplies.

12.4 Viscosity and Laminar Flow; Poiseuille's Law

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define laminar flow and turbulent flow.
- Explain what viscosity is.
- Calculate flow and resistance with Poiseuille's law.
- Explain how pressure drops due to resistance.

Laminar Flow and Viscosity

When you pour yourself a glass of juice, the liquid flows freely and quickly. But when you pour syrup on your pancakes, that liquid flows slowly and sticks to the pitcher. The difference is fluid friction, both within the fluid itself and between the fluid and its surroundings. We call this property of fluids *viscosity*. Juice has low viscosity, whereas

syrup has high viscosity. In the previous sections we have considered ideal fluids with little or no viscosity. In this section, we will investigate what factors, including viscosity, affect the rate of fluid flow.

The precise definition of viscosity is based on *laminar*, or nonturbulent, flow. Before we can define viscosity, then, we need to define laminar flow and turbulent flow. [Figure 12.10](#) shows both types of flow. **Laminar** flow is characterized by the smooth flow of the fluid in layers that do not mix. Turbulent flow, or **turbulence**, is characterized by eddies and swirls that mix layers of fluid together.



FIGURE 12.10 Smoke rises smoothly for a while and then begins to form swirls and eddies. The smooth flow is called laminar flow, whereas the swirls and eddies typify turbulent flow. If you watch the smoke (being careful not to breathe on it), you will notice that it rises more rapidly when flowing smoothly than after it becomes turbulent, implying that turbulence poses more resistance to flow. (credit: Creativity103)

[Figure 12.11](#) shows schematically how laminar and turbulent flow differ. Layers flow without mixing when flow is laminar. When there is turbulence, the layers mix, and there are significant velocities in directions other than the overall direction of flow. The lines that are shown in many illustrations are the paths followed by small volumes of fluids. These are called *streamlines*. Streamlines are smooth and continuous when flow is laminar, but break up and mix when flow is turbulent. Turbulence has two main causes. First, any obstruction or sharp corner, such as in a faucet, creates turbulence by imparting velocities perpendicular to the flow. Second, high speeds cause turbulence. The drag both between adjacent layers of fluid and between the fluid and its surroundings forms swirls and eddies, if the speed is great enough. We shall concentrate on laminar flow for the remainder of this section, leaving certain aspects of turbulence for later sections.

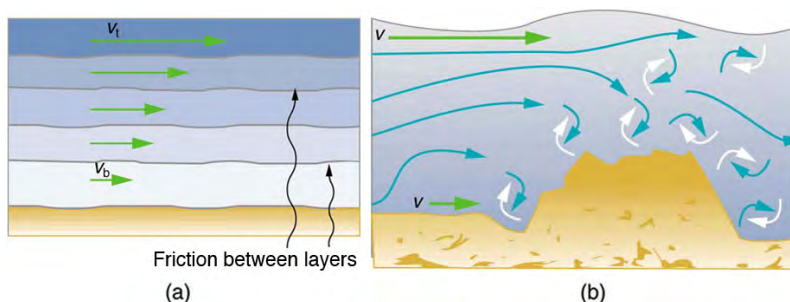


FIGURE 12.11 (a) Laminar flow occurs in layers without mixing. Notice that viscosity causes drag between layers as well as with the fixed surface. (b) An obstruction in the vessel produces turbulence. Turbulent flow mixes the fluid. There is more interaction, greater heating, and more resistance than in laminar flow.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT: GO DOWN TO THE RIVER

Try dropping simultaneously two sticks into a flowing river, one near the edge of the river and one near the middle. Which one travels faster? Why?

Figure 12.12 shows how viscosity is measured for a fluid. Two parallel plates have the specific fluid between them. The bottom plate is held fixed, while the top plate is moved to the right, dragging fluid with it. The layer (or lamina) of fluid in contact with either plate does not move relative to the plate, and so the top layer moves at v while the bottom layer remains at rest. Each successive layer from the top down exerts a force on the one below it, trying to drag it along, producing a continuous variation in speed from v to 0 as shown. Care is taken to insure that the flow is laminar; that is, the layers do not mix. The motion in Figure 12.12 is like a continuous shearing motion. Fluids have zero shear strength, but the *rate* at which they are sheared is related to the same geometrical factors A and L as is shear deformation for solids.

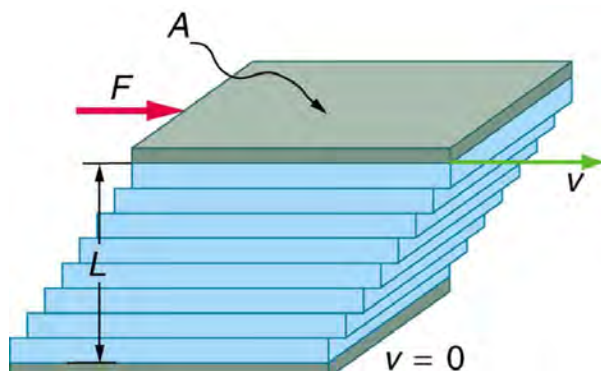


FIGURE 12.12 The graphic shows laminar flow of fluid between two plates of area A . The bottom plate is fixed. When the top plate is pushed to the right, it drags the fluid along with it.

A force F is required to keep the top plate in Figure 12.12 moving at a constant velocity v , and experiments have shown that this force depends on four factors. First, F is directly proportional to v (until the speed is so high that turbulence occurs—then a much larger force is needed, and it has a more complicated dependence on v). Second, F is proportional to the area A of the plate. This relationship seems reasonable, since A is directly proportional to the amount of fluid being moved. Third, F is inversely proportional to the distance between the plates L . This relationship is also reasonable; L is like a lever arm, and the greater the lever arm, the less force that is needed. Fourth, F is directly proportional to the *coefficient of viscosity*, η . The greater the viscosity, the greater the force required. These dependencies are combined into the equation

$$F = \eta \frac{vA}{L}, \quad 12.41$$

which gives us a working definition of fluid **viscosity** η . Solving for η gives

$$\eta = \frac{FL}{vA}, \quad 12.42$$

which defines viscosity in terms of how it is measured. The SI unit of viscosity is $\text{N} \cdot \text{m}/[(\text{m/s})\text{m}^2] = (\text{N}/\text{m}^2)\text{s}$ or $\text{Pa} \cdot \text{s}$. Table 12.1 lists the coefficients of viscosity for various fluids.

Viscosity varies from one fluid to another by several orders of magnitude. As you might expect, the viscosities of gases are much less than those of liquids, and these viscosities are often temperature dependent. The viscosity of blood can be reduced by aspirin consumption, allowing it to flow more easily around the body. (When used over the long term in low doses, aspirin can help prevent heart attacks, and reduce the risk of blood clotting.)

Laminar Flow Confined to Tubes—Poiseuille's Law

What causes flow? The answer, not surprisingly, is pressure difference. In fact, there is a very simple relationship between horizontal flow and pressure. Flow rate Q is in the direction from high to low pressure. The greater the pressure differential between two points, the greater the flow rate. This relationship can be stated as

$$Q = \frac{P_2 - P_1}{R}, \quad 12.43$$

where P_1 and P_2 are the pressures at two points, such as at either end of a tube, and R is the resistance to flow. The resistance R includes everything, except pressure, that affects flow rate. For example, R is greater for a long tube than for a short one. The greater the viscosity of a fluid, the greater the value of R . Turbulence greatly increases R , whereas increasing the diameter of a tube decreases R .

If viscosity is zero, the fluid is frictionless and the resistance to flow is also zero. Comparing frictionless flow in a tube to viscous flow, as in [Figure 12.13](#), we see that for a viscous fluid, speed is greatest at midstream because of drag at the boundaries. We can see the effect of viscosity in a Bunsen burner flame, even though the viscosity of natural gas is small.

The resistance R to laminar flow of an incompressible fluid having viscosity η through a horizontal tube of uniform radius r and length l , such as the one in [Figure 12.14](#), is given by

$$R = \frac{8\eta l}{\pi r^4}. \quad 12.44$$

This equation is called **Poiseuille's law for resistance** after the French scientist J. L. Poiseuille (1799–1869), who derived it in an attempt to understand the flow of blood, an often turbulent fluid.

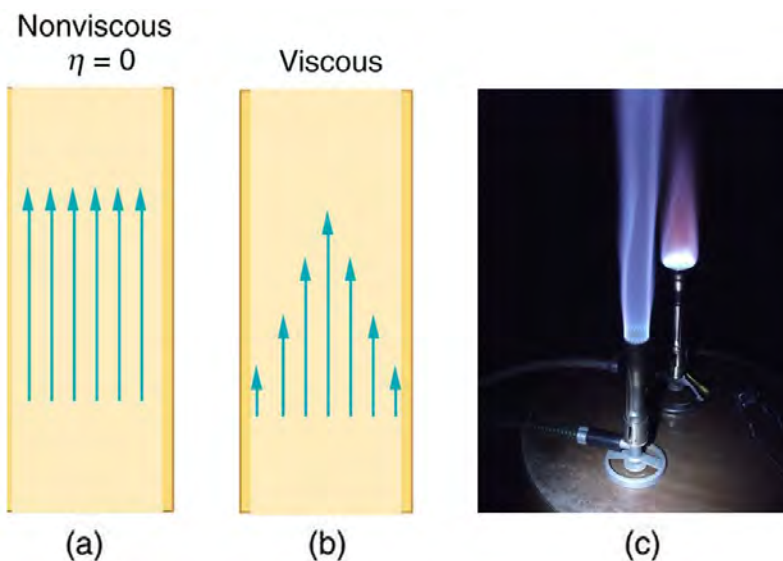


FIGURE 12.13 (a) If fluid flow in a tube has negligible resistance, the speed is the same all across the tube. (b) When a viscous fluid flows through a tube, its speed at the walls is zero, increasing steadily to its maximum at the center of the tube. (c) The shape of the Bunsen burner flame is due to the velocity profile across the tube. (credit: Jason Woodhead)

Let us examine Poiseuille's expression for R to see if it makes good intuitive sense. We see that resistance is directly proportional to both fluid viscosity η and the length l of a tube. After all, both of these directly affect the amount of friction encountered—the greater either is, the greater the resistance and the smaller the flow. The radius r of a tube affects the resistance, which again makes sense, because the greater the radius, the greater the flow (all other factors remaining the same). But it is surprising that r is raised to the *fourth* power in Poiseuille's law. This exponent means that any change in the radius of a tube has a very large effect on resistance. For example, doubling the radius of a tube decreases resistance by a factor of $2^4 = 16$.

Taken together, $Q = \frac{P_2 - P_1}{R}$ and $R = \frac{8\eta l}{\pi r^4}$ give the following expression for flow rate:

$$Q = \frac{(P_2 - P_1)\pi r^4}{8\eta l}. \quad 12.45$$

This equation describes laminar flow through a tube. It is sometimes called Poiseuille's law for laminar flow, or simply **Poiseuille's law**.



EXAMPLE 12.7

Using Flow Rate: Plaque Deposits Reduce Blood Flow

Suppose the flow rate of blood in a coronary artery has been reduced to half its normal value by plaque deposits. By what factor has the radius of the artery been reduced, assuming no turbulence occurs?

Strategy

Assuming laminar flow, Poiseuille's law states that

$$Q = \frac{(P_2 - P_1)\pi r^4}{8\eta l}. \quad 12.46$$

We need to compare the artery radius before and after the flow rate reduction.

Solution

With a constant pressure difference assumed and the same length and viscosity, along the artery we have

$$\frac{Q_1}{r_1^4} = \frac{Q_2}{r_2^4}. \quad 12.47$$

So, given that $Q_2 = 0.5Q_1$, we find that $r_2^4 = 0.5r_1^4$.

Therefore, $r_2 = (0.5)^{0.25}r_1 = 0.841r_1$, a decrease in the artery radius of 16%.

Discussion

This decrease in radius is surprisingly small for this situation. To restore the blood flow in spite of this buildup would require an increase in the pressure difference ($P_2 - P_1$) of a factor of two, with subsequent strain on the heart.

Fluid	Temperature (°C)	Viscosity η (mPa·s)
Gases		
Air	0	0.0171
	20	0.0181
	40	0.0190
	100	0.0218
Ammonia	20	0.00974
Carbon dioxide	20	0.0147
Helium	20	0.0196
Hydrogen	0	0.0090
Mercury	20	0.0450
Oxygen	20	0.0203

TABLE 12.1 Coefficients of Viscosity of Various Fluids

Fluid	Temperature (°C)	Viscosity η (mPa·s)
Steam	100	0.0130
Liquids		
Water	0	1.792
	20	1.002
	37	0.6947
	40	0.653
	100	0.282
Whole blood ¹	20	3.015
	37	2.084
Blood plasma ²	20	1.810
	37	1.257
Ethyl alcohol	20	1.20
Methanol	20	0.584
Oil (heavy machine)	20	660
Oil (motor, SAE 10)	30	200
Oil (olive)	20	138
Glycerin	20	1500
Honey	20	2000–10000
Maple Syrup	20	2000–3000
Milk	20	3.0
Oil (Corn)	20	65

TABLE 12.1 Coefficients of Viscosity of Various Fluids

The circulatory system provides many examples of Poiseuille's law in action—with blood flow regulated by changes in vessel size and blood pressure. Blood vessels are not rigid but elastic. Adjustments to blood flow are primarily made by varying the size of the vessels, since the resistance is so sensitive to the radius. During vigorous exercise, blood vessels are selectively dilated to important muscles and organs and blood pressure increases. This creates both greater overall blood flow and increased flow to specific areas. Conversely, decreases in vessel radii, perhaps

1 The ratios of the viscosities of blood to water are nearly constant between 0°C and 37°C.

2 See note on Whole Blood.

from plaques in the arteries, can greatly reduce blood flow. If a vessel's radius is reduced by only 5% (to 0.95 of its original value), the flow rate is reduced to about $(0.95)^4 = 0.81$ of its original value. A 19% decrease in flow is caused by a 5% decrease in radius. The body may compensate by increasing blood pressure by 19%, but this presents hazards to the heart and any vessel that has weakened walls. Another example comes from automobile engine oil. If you have a car with an oil pressure gauge, you may notice that oil pressure is high when the engine is cold. Motor oil has greater viscosity when cold than when warm, and so pressure must be greater to pump the same amount of cold oil.

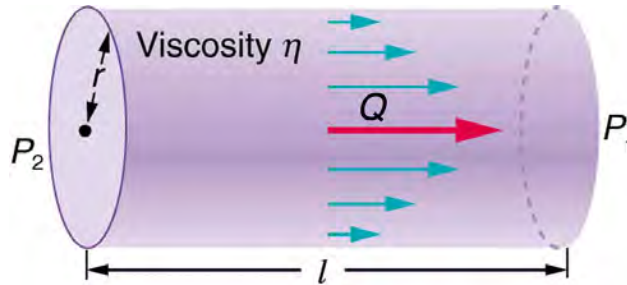


FIGURE 12.14 Poiseuille's law applies to laminar flow of an incompressible fluid of viscosity η through a tube of length l and radius r . The direction of flow is from greater to lower pressure. Flow rate Q is directly proportional to the pressure difference $P_2 - P_1$, and inversely proportional to the length l of the tube and viscosity η of the fluid. Flow rate increases with r^4 , the fourth power of the radius.

EXAMPLE 12.8

What Pressure Produces This Flow Rate?

An intravenous (IV) system is supplying saline solution to a patient at the rate of $0.120 \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$ through a needle of radius 0.150 mm and length 2.50 cm . What pressure is needed at the entrance of the needle to cause this flow, assuming the viscosity of the saline solution to be the same as that of water? The gauge pressure of the blood in the patient's vein is 8.00 mm Hg . (Assume that the temperature is 20°C .)

Strategy

Assuming laminar flow, Poiseuille's law applies. This is given by

$$Q = \frac{(P_2 - P_1)\pi r^4}{8\eta l}, \quad 12.48$$

where P_2 is the pressure at the entrance of the needle and P_1 is the pressure in the vein. The only unknown is P_2 .

Solution

Solving for P_2 yields

$$P_2 = \frac{8\eta l}{\pi r^4} Q + P_1. \quad 12.49$$

P_1 is given as 8.00 mm Hg , which converts to $1.066 \times 10^3 \text{ N/m}^2$. Substituting this and the other known values yields

$$\begin{aligned} P_2 &= \left[\frac{8(1.00 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N}\cdot\text{s/m}^2)(2.50 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m})}{\pi(0.150 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m})^4} \right] (1.20 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}^3/\text{s}) + 1.066 \times 10^3 \text{ N/m}^2 \\ &= 1.62 \times 10^4 \text{ N/m}^2. \end{aligned} \quad 12.50$$

Discussion

This pressure could be supplied by an IV bottle with the surface of the saline solution 1.61 m above the entrance to the needle (this is left for you to solve in this chapter's Problems and Exercises), assuming that there is negligible pressure drop in the tubing leading to the needle.

Flow and Resistance as Causes of Pressure Drops

You may have noticed that water pressure in your home might be lower than normal on hot summer days when there is more use. This pressure drop occurs in the water main before it reaches your home. Let us consider flow through the water main as illustrated in [Figure 12.15](#). We can understand why the pressure P_1 to the home drops during times of heavy use by rearranging

$$Q = \frac{P_2 - P_1}{R} \quad 12.51$$

to

$$P_2 - P_1 = RQ, \quad 12.52$$

where, in this case, P_2 is the pressure at the water works and R is the resistance of the water main. During times of heavy use, the flow rate Q is large. This means that $P_2 - P_1$ must also be large. Thus P_1 must decrease. It is correct to think of flow and resistance as causing the pressure to drop from P_2 to P_1 . $P_2 - P_1 = RQ$ is valid for both laminar and turbulent flows.

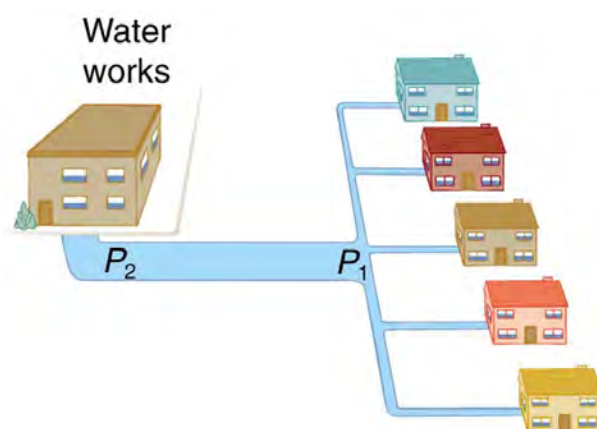


FIGURE 12.15 During times of heavy use, there is a significant pressure drop in a water main, and P_1 supplied to users is significantly less than P_2 created at the water works. If the flow is very small, then the pressure drop is negligible, and $P_2 \approx P_1$.

We can use $P_2 - P_1 = RQ$ to analyze pressure drops occurring in more complex systems in which the tube radius is not the same everywhere. Resistance will be much greater in narrow places, such as an obstructed coronary artery. For a given flow rate Q , the pressure drop will be greatest where the tube is most narrow. This is how water faucets control flow. Additionally, R is greatly increased by turbulence, and a constriction that creates turbulence greatly reduces the pressure downstream. Plaque in an artery reduces pressure and hence flow, both by its resistance and by the turbulence it creates.

[Figure 12.16](#) is a schematic of the human circulatory system, showing average blood pressures in its major parts for an adult at rest. Pressure created by the heart's two pumps, the right and left ventricles, is reduced by the resistance of the blood vessels as the blood flows through them. The left ventricle increases arterial blood pressure that drives the flow of blood through all parts of the body except the lungs. The right ventricle receives the lower pressure blood from two major veins and pumps it through the lungs for gas exchange with atmospheric gases – the disposal of carbon dioxide from the blood and the replenishment of oxygen. Only one major organ is shown schematically, with typical branching of arteries to ever smaller vessels, the smallest of which are the capillaries, and rejoining of small veins into larger ones. Similar branching takes place in a variety of organs in the body, and the circulatory system has considerable flexibility in flow regulation to these organs by the dilation and constriction of the arteries leading to them and the capillaries within them. The sensitivity of flow to tube radius makes this flexibility possible over a large range of flow rates.

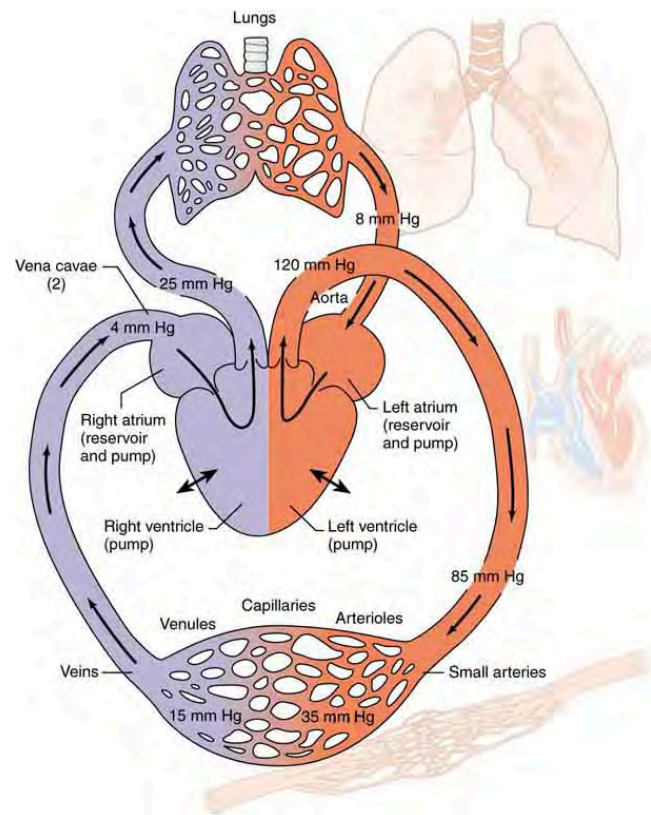


FIGURE 12.16 Schematic of the circulatory system. Pressure difference is created by the two pumps in the heart and is reduced by resistance in the vessels. Branching of vessels into capillaries allows blood to reach individual cells and exchange substances, such as oxygen and waste products, with them. The system has an impressive ability to regulate flow to individual organs, accomplished largely by varying vessel diameters.

Each branching of larger vessels into smaller vessels increases the total cross-sectional area of the tubes through which the blood flows. For example, an artery with a cross section of 1 cm^2 may branch into 20 smaller arteries, each with cross sections of 0.5 cm^2 , with a total of 10 cm^2 . In that manner, the resistance of the branchings is reduced so that pressure is not entirely lost. Moreover, because $Q = A\bar{v}$ and A increases through branching, the average velocity of the blood in the smaller vessels is reduced. The blood velocity in the aorta (diameter = 1 cm) is about 25 cm/s , while in the capillaries ($20 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter) the velocity is about 1 mm/s . This reduced velocity allows the blood to exchange substances with the cells in the capillaries and alveoli in particular.

12.5 The Onset of Turbulence

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Calculate Reynolds number.
- Use the Reynolds number for a system to determine whether it is laminar or turbulent.

Sometimes we can predict if flow will be laminar or turbulent. We know that flow in a very smooth tube or around a smooth, streamlined object will be laminar at low velocity. We also know that at high velocity, even flow in a smooth tube or around a smooth object will experience turbulence. In between, it is more difficult to predict. In fact, at intermediate velocities, flow may oscillate back and forth indefinitely between laminar and turbulent.

An occlusion, or narrowing, of an artery, such as shown in [Figure 12.17](#), is likely to cause turbulence because of the irregularity of the blockage, as well as the complexity of blood as a fluid. Turbulence in the circulatory system is noisy and can sometimes be detected with a stethoscope, such as when measuring diastolic pressure in the upper arm's partially collapsed brachial artery. These turbulent sounds, at the onset of blood flow when the cuff pressure becomes sufficiently small, are called *Korotkoff sounds*. Aneurysms, or ballooning of arteries, create significant turbulence and can sometimes be detected with a stethoscope. Heart murmurs, consistent with their name, are sounds produced by turbulent flow around damaged and insufficiently closed heart valves. Ultrasound can also be

used to detect turbulence as a medical indicator in a process analogous to Doppler-shift radar used to detect storms.

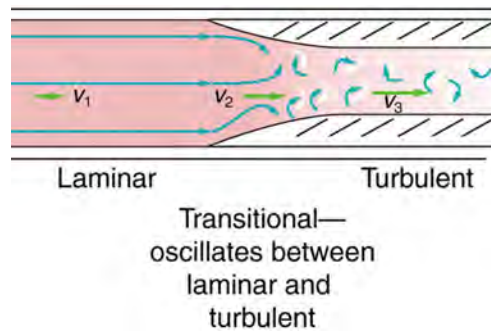


FIGURE 12.17 Flow is laminar in the large part of this blood vessel and turbulent in the part narrowed by plaque, where velocity is high. In the transition region, the flow can oscillate chaotically between laminar and turbulent flow.

An indicator called the **Reynolds number** N_R can reveal whether flow is laminar or turbulent. For flow in a tube of uniform diameter, the Reynolds number is defined as

$$N_R = \frac{2\rho vr}{\eta} (\text{flow in tube}), \quad 12.53$$

where ρ is the fluid density, v its speed, η its viscosity, and r the tube radius. The Reynolds number is a unitless quantity. Experiments have revealed that N_R is related to the onset of turbulence. For N_R below about 2000, flow is laminar. For N_R above about 3000, flow is turbulent. For values of N_R between about 2000 and 3000, flow is unstable—that is, it can be laminar, but small obstructions and surface roughness can make it turbulent, and it may oscillate randomly between being laminar and turbulent. The blood flow through most of the body is a quiet, laminar flow. The exception is in the aorta, where the speed of the blood flow rises above a critical value of 35 m/s and becomes turbulent.



EXAMPLE 12.9

Is This Flow Laminar or Turbulent?

Calculate the Reynolds number for flow in the needle considered in [Example 12.8](#) to verify the assumption that the flow is laminar. Assume that the density of the saline solution is 1025 kg/m^3 .

Strategy

We have all of the information needed, except the fluid speed v , which can be calculated from $\bar{v} = Q/A = 1.70 \text{ m/s}$ (verification of this is in this chapter's Problems and Exercises).

Solution

Entering the known values into $N_R = \frac{2\rho vr}{\eta}$ gives

$$\begin{aligned} N_R &= \frac{2\rho vr}{\eta} \\ &= \frac{2(1025 \text{ kg/m}^3)(1.70 \text{ m/s})(0.150 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m})}{1.00 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N}\cdot\text{s/m}^2} \\ &= 523. \end{aligned} \quad 12.54$$

Discussion

Since N_R is well below 2000, the flow should indeed be laminar.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT: INHALATION

Under the conditions of normal activity, an adult inhales about 1 L of air during each inhalation. With the aid of a watch, determine the time for one of your own inhalations by timing several breaths and dividing the total length by the number of breaths. Calculate the average flow rate Q of air traveling through the trachea during each inhalation.

The topic of chaos has become quite popular over the last few decades. A system is defined to be *chaotic* when its behavior is so sensitive to some factor that it is extremely difficult to predict. The field of *chaos* is the study of chaotic behavior. A good example of chaotic behavior is the flow of a fluid with a Reynolds number between 2000 and 3000. Whether or not the flow is turbulent is difficult, but not impossible, to predict—the difficulty lies in the extremely sensitive dependence on factors like roughness and obstructions on the nature of the flow. A tiny variation in one factor has an exaggerated (or nonlinear) effect on the flow. Phenomena as disparate as turbulence, the orbit of Pluto, and the onset of irregular heartbeats are chaotic and can be analyzed with similar techniques.

12.6 Motion of an Object in a Viscous Fluid

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Calculate the Reynolds number for an object moving through a fluid.
- Explain whether the Reynolds number indicates laminar or turbulent flow.
- Describe the conditions under which an object has a terminal speed.

A moving object in a viscous fluid is equivalent to a stationary object in a flowing fluid stream. (For example, when you ride a bicycle at 10 m/s in still air, you feel the air in your face exactly as if you were stationary in a 10-m/s wind.) Flow of the stationary fluid around a moving object may be laminar, turbulent, or a combination of the two. Just as with flow in tubes, it is possible to predict when a moving object creates turbulence. We use another form of the Reynolds number N'_R , defined for an object moving in a fluid to be

$$N'_R = \frac{\rho v L}{\eta} (\text{object in fluid}), \quad 12.55$$

where L is a characteristic length of the object (a sphere's diameter, for example), ρ the fluid density, η its viscosity, and v the object's speed in the fluid. If N'_R is less than about 1, flow around the object can be laminar, particularly if the object has a smooth shape. The transition to turbulent flow occurs for N'_R between 1 and about 10, depending on surface roughness and so on. Depending on the surface, there can be a *turbulent wake* behind the object with some laminar flow over its surface. For an N'_R between 10 and 10^6 , the flow may be either laminar or turbulent and may oscillate between the two. For N'_R greater than about 10^6 , the flow is entirely turbulent, even at the surface of the object. (See [Figure 12.18](#).) Laminar flow occurs mostly when the objects in the fluid are small, such as raindrops, pollen, and blood cells in plasma.



EXAMPLE 12.10

Does a Ball Have a Turbulent Wake?

Calculate the Reynolds number N'_R for a ball with a 7.40-cm diameter thrown at 40.0 m/s.

Strategy

We can use $N'_R = \frac{\rho v L}{\eta}$ to calculate N'_R , since all values in it are either given or can be found in tables of density and viscosity.

Solution

Substituting values into the equation for N'_R yields

$$\begin{aligned}
 N'_R &= \frac{\rho v L}{\eta} = \frac{(1.29 \text{ kg/m}^3)(40.0 \text{ m/s})(0.0740 \text{ m})}{1.81 \times 10^{-5} \text{ Pa}\cdot\text{s}} \\
 &= 2.11 \times 10^5.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{12.56}$$

Discussion

This value is sufficiently high to imply a turbulent wake. Most large objects, such as airplanes and sailboats, create significant turbulence as they move. As noted before, the Bernoulli principle gives only qualitatively-correct results in such situations.

One of the consequences of viscosity is a resistance force called **viscous drag** F_V that is exerted on a moving object. This force typically depends on the object's speed (in contrast with simple friction). Experiments have shown that for laminar flow (N'_R less than about one) viscous drag is proportional to speed, whereas for N'_R between about 10 and 10^6 , viscous drag is proportional to speed squared. (This relationship is a strong dependence and is pertinent to bicycle racing, where even a small headwind causes significantly increased drag on the racer. Cyclists take turns being the leader in the pack for this reason.) For N'_R greater than 10^6 , drag increases dramatically and behaves with greater complexity. For laminar flow around a sphere, F_V is proportional to fluid viscosity η , the object's characteristic size L , and its speed v . All of which makes sense—the more viscous the fluid and the larger the object, the more drag we expect. Recall Stoke's law $F_S = 6\pi r\eta v$. For the special case of a small sphere of radius R moving slowly in a fluid of viscosity η , the drag force F_S is given by

$$F_S = 6\pi R\eta v. \tag{12.57}$$

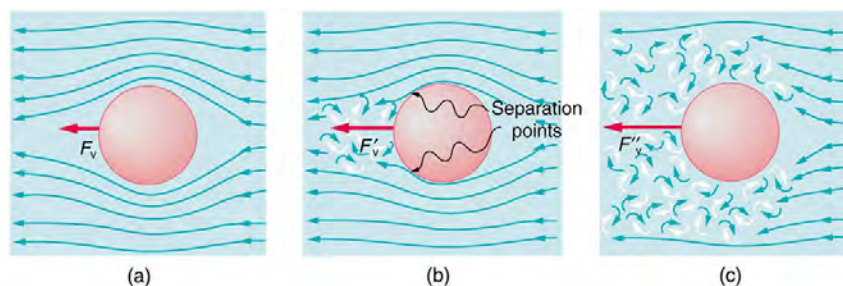


FIGURE 12.18 (a) Motion of this sphere to the right is equivalent to fluid flow to the left. Here the flow is laminar with N'_R less than 1. There is a force, called viscous drag F_V , to the left on the ball due to the fluid's viscosity. (b) At a higher speed, the flow becomes partially turbulent, creating a wake starting where the flow lines separate from the surface. Pressure in the wake is less than in front of the sphere, because fluid speed is less, creating a net force to the left F'_V that is significantly greater than for laminar flow. Here N'_R is greater than 10. (c) At much higher speeds, where N'_R is greater than 10^6 , flow becomes turbulent everywhere on the surface and behind the sphere. Drag increases dramatically.

An interesting consequence of the increase in F_V with speed is that an object falling through a fluid will not continue to accelerate indefinitely (as it would if we neglect air resistance, for example). Instead, viscous drag increases, slowing acceleration, until a critical speed, called the **terminal speed**, is reached and the acceleration of the object becomes zero. Once this happens, the object continues to fall at constant speed (the terminal speed). This is the case for particles of sand falling in the ocean, cells falling in a centrifuge, and sky divers falling through the air. [Figure 12.19](#) shows some of the factors that affect terminal speed. There is a viscous drag on the object that depends on the viscosity of the fluid and the size of the object. But there is also a buoyant force that depends on the density of the object relative to the fluid. Terminal speed will be greatest for low-viscosity fluids and objects with high densities and small sizes. Thus a skydiver falls more slowly with outspread limbs than when they are in a pike position—head first with hands at their side and legs together.

TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT: DON'T LOSE YOUR MARBLES

By measuring the terminal speed of a slowly moving sphere in a viscous fluid, one can find the viscosity of that fluid (at that temperature). It can be difficult to find small ball bearings around the house, but a small marble will do. Gather two or three fluids (syrup, motor oil, honey, olive oil, etc.) and a thick, tall clear glass or vase. Drop the marble into the center of the fluid and time its fall (after letting it drop a little to reach its terminal speed).

Compare your values for the terminal speed and see if they are inversely proportional to the viscosities as listed in [Table 12.1](#). Does it make a difference if the marble is dropped near the side of the glass?

Knowledge of terminal speed is useful for estimating sedimentation rates of small particles. We know from watching mud settle out of dirty water that sedimentation is usually a slow process. Centrifuges are used to speed sedimentation by creating accelerated frames in which gravitational acceleration is replaced by centripetal acceleration, which can be much greater, increasing the terminal speed.

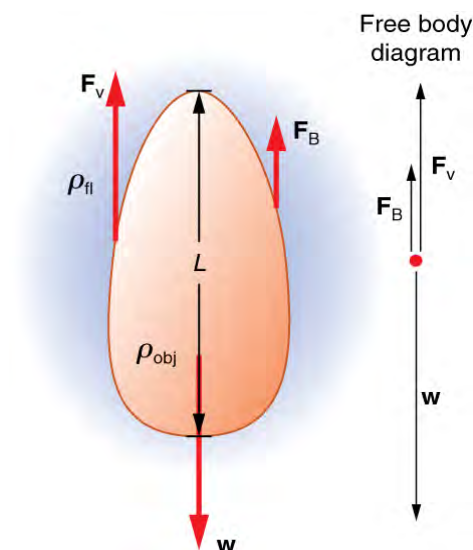


FIGURE 12.19 There are three forces acting on an object falling through a viscous fluid: its weight w , the viscous drag F_v , and the buoyant force F_B .

12.7 Molecular Transport Phenomena: Diffusion, Osmosis, and Related Processes

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define diffusion, osmosis, dialysis, and active transport.
- Calculate diffusion rates.

Diffusion

There is something fishy about the ice cube from your freezer—how did it pick up those food odors? How does soaking a sprained ankle in Epsom salt reduce swelling? The answer to these questions are related to atomic and molecular transport phenomena—another mode of fluid motion. Atoms and molecules are in constant motion at any temperature. In fluids they move about randomly even in the absence of macroscopic flow. This motion is called a random walk and is illustrated in [Figure 12.20](#). **Diffusion** is the movement of substances due to random thermal molecular motion. Fluids, like fish fumes or odors entering ice cubes, can even diffuse through solids.

Diffusion is a slow process over macroscopic distances. The densities of common materials are great enough that molecules cannot travel very far before having a collision that can scatter them in any direction, including straight backward. It can be shown that the average distance x_{rms} that a molecule travels is proportional to the square root of time:

$$x_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{2Dt}, \quad 12.58$$

where x_{rms} stands for the **root-mean-square distance** and is the statistical average for the process. The quantity D is the diffusion constant for the particular molecule in a specific medium. [Table 12.2](#) lists representative values of D for various substances, in units of m^2/s .

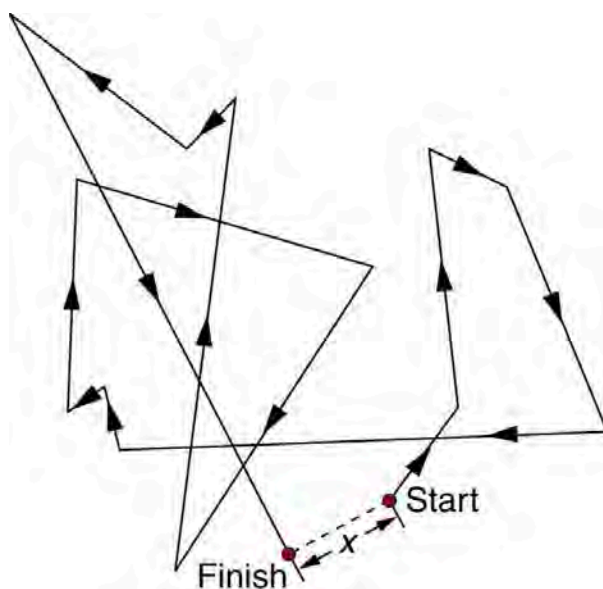


FIGURE 12.20 The random thermal motion of a molecule in a fluid in time t . This type of motion is called a random walk.

Diffusing molecule	Medium	D (m^2/s)
Hydrogen (H_2)	Air	6.4×10^{-5}
Oxygen (O_2)	Air	1.8×10^{-5}
Oxygen (O_2)	Water	1.0×10^{-9}
Glucose ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$)	Water	6.7×10^{-10}
Hemoglobin	Water	6.9×10^{-11}
DNA	Water	1.3×10^{-12}

TABLE 12.2 Diffusion Constants for Various Molecules³

Note that D gets progressively smaller for more massive molecules. This decrease is because the average molecular speed at a given temperature is inversely proportional to molecular mass. Thus the more massive molecules diffuse more slowly. Another interesting point is that D for oxygen in air is much greater than D for oxygen in water. In water, an oxygen molecule makes many more collisions in its random walk and is slowed considerably. In water, an oxygen molecule moves only about $40 \mu\text{m}$ in 1 s. (Each molecule actually collides about 10^{10} times per second!). Finally, note that diffusion constants increase with temperature, because average molecular speed increases with temperature. This is because the average kinetic energy of molecules, $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$, is proportional to absolute temperature.



EXAMPLE 12.11

Calculating Diffusion: How Long Does Glucose Diffusion Take?

Calculate the average time it takes a glucose molecule to move 1.0 cm in water.

³ At 20°C and 1 atm

Strategy

We can use $x_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{2Dt}$, the expression for the average distance moved in time t , and solve it for t . All other quantities are known.

Solution

Solving for t and substituting known values yields

$$\begin{aligned} t &= \frac{x_{\text{rms}}^2}{2D} = \frac{(0.010 \text{ m})^2}{2(6.7 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}^2/\text{s})} \\ &= 7.5 \times 10^4 \text{ s} = 21 \text{ h.} \end{aligned} \quad 12.59$$

Discussion

This is a remarkably long time for glucose to move a mere centimeter! For this reason, we stir sugar into water rather than waiting for it to diffuse.

Because diffusion is typically very slow, its most important effects occur over small distances. For example, the cornea of the eye gets most of its oxygen by diffusion through the thin tear layer covering it.

The Rate and Direction of Diffusion

If you very carefully place a drop of food coloring in a still glass of water, it will slowly diffuse into the colorless surroundings until its concentration is the same everywhere. This type of diffusion is called free diffusion, because there are no barriers inhibiting it. Let us examine its direction and rate. Molecular motion is random in direction, and so simple chance dictates that more molecules will move out of a region of high concentration than into it. The net rate of diffusion is higher initially than after the process is partially completed. (See [Figure 12.21](#).)

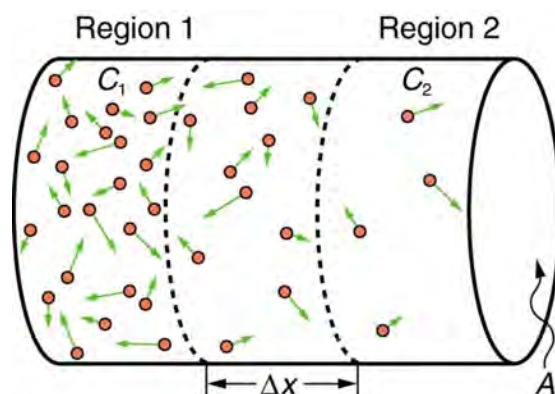


FIGURE 12.21 Diffusion proceeds from a region of higher concentration to a lower one. The net rate of movement is proportional to the difference in concentration.

The net rate of diffusion is proportional to the concentration difference. Many more molecules will leave a region of high concentration than will enter it from a region of low concentration. In fact, if the concentrations were the same, there would be *no* net movement. The net rate of diffusion is also proportional to the diffusion constant D , which is determined experimentally. The farther a molecule can diffuse in a given time, the more likely it is to leave the region of high concentration. Many of the factors that affect the rate are hidden in the diffusion constant D . For example, temperature and cohesive and adhesive forces all affect values of D .

Diffusion is the dominant mechanism by which the exchange of nutrients and waste products occur between the blood and tissue, and between air and blood in the lungs. In the evolutionary process, as organisms became larger, they needed quicker methods of transportation than net diffusion, because of the larger distances involved in the transport, leading to the development of circulatory systems. Less sophisticated, single-celled organisms still rely totally on diffusion for the removal of waste products and the uptake of nutrients.

Osmosis and Dialysis—Diffusion across Membranes

Some of the most interesting examples of diffusion occur through barriers that affect the rates of diffusion. For example, when you soak a swollen ankle in Epsom salt, water diffuses through your skin. Many substances regularly move through cell membranes; oxygen moves in, carbon dioxide moves out, nutrients go in, and wastes go out, for example. Because membranes are thin structures (typically 6.5×10^{-9} to 10×10^{-9} m across) diffusion rates through them can be high. Diffusion through membranes is an important method of transport.

Membranes are generally selectively permeable, or **semipermeable**. (See [Figure 12.22](#).) One type of semipermeable membrane has small pores that allow only small molecules to pass through. In other types of membranes, the molecules may actually dissolve in the membrane or react with molecules in the membrane while moving across. Membrane function, in fact, is the subject of much current research, involving not only physiology but also chemistry and physics.

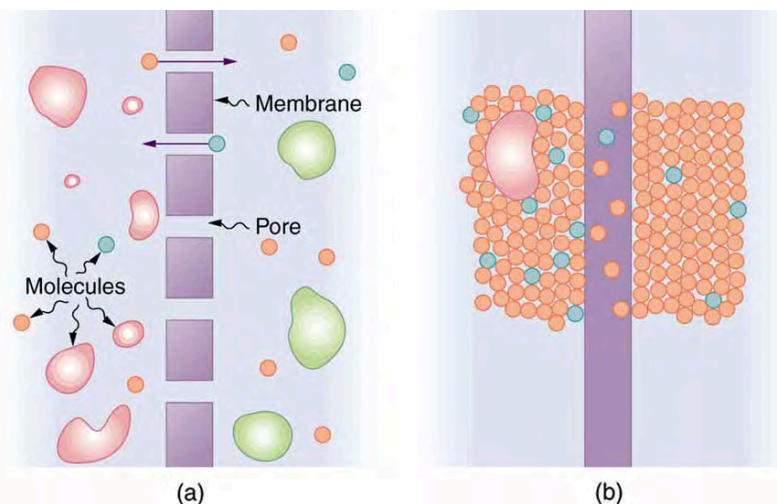


FIGURE 12.22 (a) A semipermeable membrane with small pores that allow only small molecules to pass through. (b) Certain molecules dissolve in this membrane and diffuse across it.

Osmosis is the transport of water through a semipermeable membrane from a region of high concentration to a region of low concentration. Osmosis is driven by the imbalance in water concentration. For example, water is more concentrated in your body than in Epsom salt. When you soak a swollen ankle in Epsom salt, the water moves out of your body into the lower-concentration region in the salt. Similarly, **dialysis** is the transport of any other molecule through a semipermeable membrane due to its concentration difference. Both osmosis and dialysis are used by the kidneys to cleanse the blood.

Osmosis can create a substantial pressure. Consider what happens if osmosis continues for some time, as illustrated in [Figure 12.23](#). Water moves by osmosis from the left into the region on the right, where it is less concentrated, causing the solution on the right to rise. This movement will continue until the pressure ρgh created by the extra height of fluid on the right is large enough to stop further osmosis. This pressure is called a **back pressure**. The back pressure ρgh that stops osmosis is also called the **relative osmotic pressure** if neither solution is pure water, and it is called the **osmotic pressure** if one solution is pure water. Osmotic pressure can be large, depending on the size of the concentration difference. For example, if pure water and sea water are separated by a semipermeable membrane that passes no salt, osmotic pressure will be 25.9 atm. This value means that water will diffuse through the membrane until the salt water surface rises 268 m above the pure-water surface! One example of pressure created by osmosis is turgor in plants (many wilt when too dry). Turgor describes the condition of a plant in which the fluid in a cell exerts a pressure against the cell wall. This pressure gives the plant support. Dialysis can similarly cause substantial pressures.

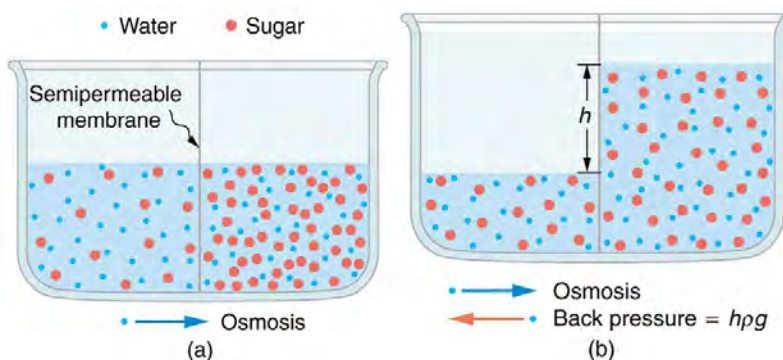


FIGURE 12.23 (a) Two sugar-water solutions of different concentrations, separated by a semipermeable membrane that passes water but not sugar. Osmosis will be to the right, since water is less concentrated there. (b) The fluid level rises until the back pressure ρgh equals the relative osmotic pressure; then, the net transfer of water is zero.

Reverse osmosis and **reverse dialysis** (also called filtration) are processes that occur when back pressure is sufficient to reverse the normal direction of substances through membranes. Back pressure can be created naturally as on the right side of [Figure 12.23](#). (A piston can also create this pressure.) Reverse osmosis can be used to desalinate water by simply forcing it through a membrane that will not pass salt. Similarly, reverse dialysis can be used to filter out any substance that a given membrane will not pass.

One further example of the movement of substances through membranes deserves mention. We sometimes find that substances pass in the direction opposite to what we expect. Cypress tree roots, for example, extract pure water from salt water, although osmosis would move it in the opposite direction. This is not reverse osmosis, because there is no back pressure to cause it. What is happening is called **active transport**, a process in which a living membrane expends energy to move substances across it. Many living membranes move water and other substances by active transport. The kidneys, for example, not only use osmosis and dialysis—they also employ significant active transport to move substances into and out of blood. In fact, it is estimated that at least 25% of the body's energy is expended on active transport of substances at the cellular level. The study of active transport carries us into the realms of microbiology, biophysics, and biochemistry and it is a fascinating application of the laws of nature to living structures.

Glossary

active transport the process in which a living membrane expends energy to move substances across

Bernoulli's equation the equation resulting from applying conservation of energy to an incompressible frictionless fluid: $P + 1/2\rho v^2 + \rho gh = \text{constant}$, through the fluid

Bernoulli's principle Bernoulli's equation applied at constant depth: $P_1 + 1/2\rho v_1^2 = P_2 + 1/2\rho v_2^2$

dialysis the transport of any molecule other than water through a semipermeable membrane from a region of high concentration to one of low concentration

diffusion the movement of substances due to random thermal molecular motion

flow rate abbreviated Q , it is the volume V that flows past a particular point during a time t , or $Q = V/t$

fluid dynamics the physics of fluids in motion

laminar a type of fluid flow in which layers do not mix

liter a unit of volume, equal to 10^{-3} m^3

osmosis the transport of water through a semipermeable membrane from a region of high concentration to one of low concentration

osmotic pressure the back pressure which stops the osmotic process if one solution is pure water

Poiseuille's law the rate of laminar flow of an incompressible fluid in a tube: $Q = (P_2 - P_1)\pi r^4/8\eta l$

Poiseuille's law for resistance the resistance to laminar flow of an incompressible fluid in a tube: $R = 8\eta l/\pi r^4$

relative osmotic pressure the back pressure which stops the osmotic process if neither solution is pure water

reverse dialysis the process that occurs when back pressure is sufficient to reverse the normal direction of dialysis through membranes

reverse osmosis the process that occurs when back pressure is sufficient to reverse the normal direction of osmosis through membranes

Reynolds number a dimensionless parameter that can reveal whether a particular flow is laminar or turbulent

semipermeable a type of membrane that allows only certain small molecules to pass through

terminal speed the speed at which the viscous drag of an object falling in a viscous fluid is equal to the other forces acting on the object (such as gravity), so that the acceleration of the object is zero

turbulence fluid flow in which layers mix together via eddies and swirls

viscosity the friction in a fluid, defined in terms of the friction between layers

viscous drag a resistance force exerted on a moving object, with a nontrivial dependence on velocity

Section Summary

12.1 Flow Rate and Its Relation to Velocity

- Flow rate Q is defined to be the volume V flowing past a point in time t , or $Q = \frac{V}{t}$ where V is volume and t is time.
- The SI unit of volume is m^3 .
- Another common unit is the liter (L), which is 10^{-3} m^3 .
- Flow rate and velocity are related by $Q = A\bar{v}$ where A is the cross-sectional area of the flow and $\bar{v}$ is its average velocity.
- For incompressible fluids, flow rate at various points is constant. That is,

$$\left. \begin{aligned} Q_1 &= Q_2 \\ A_1 \bar{v}_1 &= A_2 \bar{v}_2 \\ n_1 A_1 \bar{v}_1 &= n_2 A_2 \bar{v}_2 \end{aligned} \right\}.$$

12.2 Bernoulli's Equation

- Bernoulli's equation states that the sum on each side of the following equation is constant, or the same at any two points in an incompressible frictionless fluid:

$$P_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 + \rho gh_1 = P_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 + \rho gh_2.$$

- Bernoulli's principle is Bernoulli's equation applied to situations in which depth is constant. The terms involving depth (or height h) subtract out, yielding $P_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 = P_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2$.
- Bernoulli's principle has many applications, including entrainment, wings and sails, and velocity measurement.

12.3 The Most General Applications of Bernoulli's Equation

- Power in fluid flow is given by the equation $(P_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v^2 + \rho gh)Q = \text{power}$, where the first term is power associated with pressure, the second is power associated with velocity, and the third is power associated with height.

12.4 Viscosity and Laminar Flow: Poiseuille's Law

- Laminar flow is characterized by smooth flow of

the fluid in layers that do not mix.

- Turbulence is characterized by eddies and swirls that mix layers of fluid together.
- Fluid viscosity η is due to friction within a fluid. Representative values are given in [Table 12.1](#). Viscosity has units of $(\text{N/m}^2)\text{s}$ or $\text{Pa} \cdot \text{s}$.
- Flow is proportional to pressure difference and inversely proportional to resistance:

$$Q = \frac{P_2 - P_1}{R}.$$

- For laminar flow in a tube, Poiseuille's law for resistance states that

$$R = \frac{8\eta l}{\pi r^4}.$$

- Poiseuille's law for flow in a tube is

$$Q = \frac{(P_2 - P_1)\pi r^4}{8\eta l}.$$

- The pressure drop caused by flow and resistance is given by

$$P_2 - P_1 = RQ.$$

12.5 The Onset of Turbulence

- The Reynolds number N_R can reveal whether flow is laminar or turbulent. It is

$$N_R = \frac{2\rho vr}{\eta}.$$

- For N_R below about 2000, flow is laminar. For N_R above about 3000, flow is turbulent. For values of N_R between 2000 and 3000, it may be either or both.

Conceptual Questions

12.1 Flow Rate and Its Relation to Velocity

1. What is the difference between flow rate and fluid velocity? How are they related?
2. Many figures in the text show streamlines. Explain why fluid velocity is greatest where streamlines are closest together. (Hint: Consider the relationship between fluid velocity and the cross-sectional area through which it flows.)
3. Identify some substances that are incompressible and some that are not.

12.2 Bernoulli's Equation

4. You can squirt water a considerably greater distance by placing your thumb over the end of a garden hose and then releasing, than by leaving it completely uncovered. Explain how this works.
5. Water is shot nearly vertically upward in a decorative fountain and the stream is observed to broaden as it rises. Conversely, a stream of water

12.6 Motion of an Object in a Viscous Fluid

- When an object moves in a fluid, there is a different form of the Reynolds number $N'_R = \frac{\rho v L}{\eta}$ (object in fluid), which indicates whether flow is laminar or turbulent.
- For N'_R less than about one, flow is laminar.
- For N'_R greater than 10^6 , flow is entirely turbulent.

12.7 Molecular Transport Phenomena: Diffusion, Osmosis, and Related Processes

- Diffusion is the movement of substances due to random thermal molecular motion.
- The average distance x_{rms} a molecule travels by diffusion in a given amount of time is given by $x_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{2Dt}$, where D is the diffusion constant, representative values of which are found in [Table 12.2](#).
- Osmosis is the transport of water through a semipermeable membrane from a region of high concentration to a region of low concentration.
- Dialysis is the transport of any other molecule through a semipermeable membrane due to its concentration difference.
- Both processes can be reversed by back pressure.
- Active transport is a process in which a living membrane expends energy to move substances across it.

falling straight down from a faucet narrows. Explain why, and discuss whether surface tension enhances or reduces the effect in each case.

6. Look back to [Figure 12.4](#). Answer the following two questions. Why is P_0 less than atmospheric? Why is P_0 greater than P_1 ?
7. Give an example of entrainment not mentioned in the text.
8. Many entrainment devices have a constriction, called a Venturi, such as shown in [Figure 12.24](#). How does this bolster entrainment?

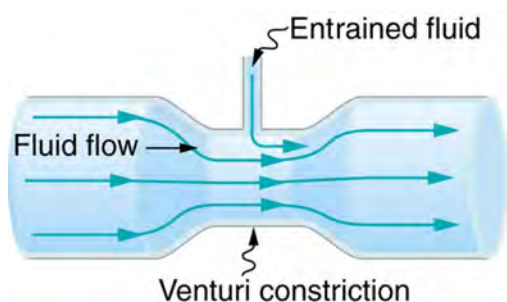


FIGURE 12.24 A tube with a narrow segment designed to enhance entrainment is called a Venturi. These are very commonly used in carburetors and aspirators.

9. Some chimney pipes have a T-shape, with a crosspiece on top that helps draw up gases whenever there is even a slight breeze. Explain how this works in terms of Bernoulli's principle.
10. Is there a limit to the height to which an entrainment device can raise a fluid? Explain your answer.
11. Why is it preferable for airplanes to take off into the wind rather than with the wind?
12. Roofs are sometimes pushed off vertically during a tropical cyclone, and buildings sometimes explode outward when hit by a tornado. Use Bernoulli's principle to explain these phenomena.
13. Why does a sailboat need a keel?
14. It is dangerous to stand close to railroad tracks when a rapidly moving commuter train passes. Explain why atmospheric pressure would push you toward the moving train.
15. Water pressure inside a hose nozzle can be less than atmospheric pressure due to the Bernoulli effect. Explain in terms of energy how the water can emerge from the nozzle against the opposing atmospheric pressure.
16. A perfume bottle or atomizer sprays a fluid that is in the bottle. ([Figure 12.25](#).) How does the fluid rise up in the vertical tube in the bottle?



FIGURE 12.25 Atomizer: perfume bottle with tube to carry perfume up through the bottle. (credit: Antonia Foy, Flickr)

17. If you lower the window on a car while moving, an empty plastic bag can sometimes fly out the window. Why does this happen?

[12.3 The Most General Applications of Bernoulli's Equation](#)

18. Based on Bernoulli's equation, what are three forms of energy in a fluid? (Note that these forms are conservative, unlike heat transfer and other dissipative forms not included in Bernoulli's equation.)
19. Water that has emerged from a hose into the atmosphere has a gauge pressure of zero. Why? When you put your hand in front of the emerging stream you feel a force, yet the water's gauge pressure is zero. Explain where the force comes from in terms of energy.
20. The old rubber boot shown in [Figure 12.26](#) has two leaks. To what maximum height can the water squirt from Leak 1? How does the velocity of water emerging from Leak 2 differ from that of leak 1? Explain your responses in terms of energy.



FIGURE 12.26 Water emerges from two leaks in an old boot.

21. Water pressure inside a hose nozzle can be less than atmospheric pressure due to the Bernoulli effect. Explain in terms of energy how the water can emerge from the nozzle against the opposing atmospheric pressure.

12.4 Viscosity and Laminar Flow: Poiseuille's Law

22. Explain why the viscosity of a liquid decreases with temperature—that is, how might increased temperature reduce the effects of cohesive forces in a liquid? Also explain why the viscosity of a gas increases with temperature—that is, how does increased gas temperature create more collisions between atoms and molecules?
23. When paddling a canoe upstream, it is wisest to travel as near to the shore as possible. When canoeing downstream, it may be best to stay near the middle. Explain why.
24. Why does flow decrease in your shower when someone flushes the toilet?
25. Plumbing usually includes air-filled tubes near water faucets, as shown in Figure 12.27. Explain why they are needed and how they work.

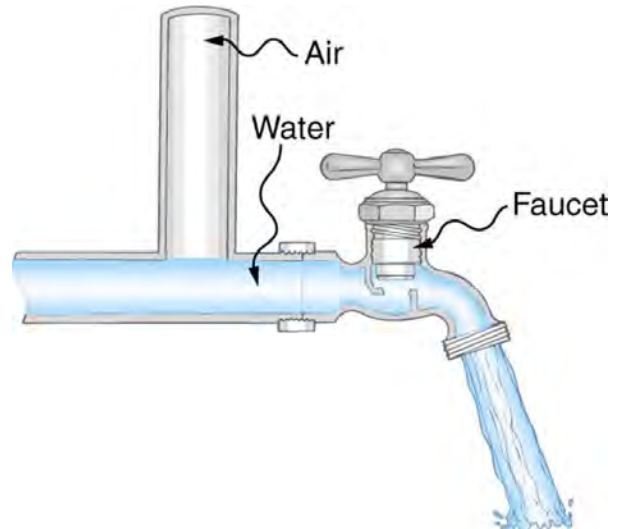


FIGURE 12.27 The vertical tube near the water tap remains full of air and serves a useful purpose.

12.5 The Onset of Turbulence

26. Doppler ultrasound can be used to measure the speed of blood in the body. If there is a partial constriction of an artery, where would you expect blood speed to be greatest, at or nearby the constriction? What are the two distinct causes of higher resistance in the constriction?
27. Sink drains often have a device such as that shown in Figure 12.28 to help speed the flow of water. How does this work?

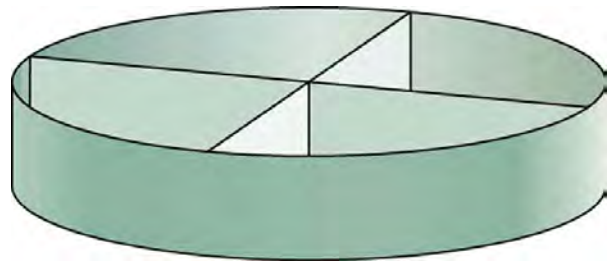


FIGURE 12.28 You will find devices such as this in many drains. They significantly increase flow rate.

28. Some ceiling fans have decorative wicker reeds on their blades. Discuss whether these fans are as quiet and efficient as those with smooth blades.

12.6 Motion of an Object in a Viscous Fluid

29. What direction will a helium balloon move inside a car that is slowing down—toward the front or back? Explain your answer.
30. Will identical raindrops fall more rapidly in 5°C air or 25°C air, neglecting any differences in air density? Explain your answer.

31. If you took two marbles of different sizes, what would you expect to observe about the relative magnitudes of their terminal velocities?

12.7 Molecular Transport Phenomena: Diffusion, Osmosis, and Related Processes

32. Why would you expect the rate of diffusion to

Problems & Exercises

12.1 Flow Rate and Its Relation to Velocity

1. What is the average flow rate in cm^3/s of gasoline to the engine of a car traveling at 100 km/h if it averages 10.0 km/L?
2. The heart of a resting adult pumps blood at a rate of 5.00 L/min. (a) Convert this to cm^3/s . (b) What is this rate in m^3/s ?
3. Blood is pumped from the heart at a rate of 5.0 L/min into the aorta (of radius 1.0 cm). Determine the speed of blood through the aorta.
4. Blood is flowing through an artery of radius 2 mm at a rate of 40 cm/s. Determine the flow rate and the volume that passes through the artery in a period of 30 s.
5. The Huka Falls on the Waikato River is one of New Zealand's most visited natural tourist attractions (see Figure 12.29). On average the river has a flow rate of about 300,000 L/s. At the gorge, the river narrows to 20 m wide and averages 20 m deep. (a) What is the average speed of the river in the gorge? (b) What is the average speed of the water in the river downstream of the falls when it widens to 60 m and its depth increases to an average of 40 m?

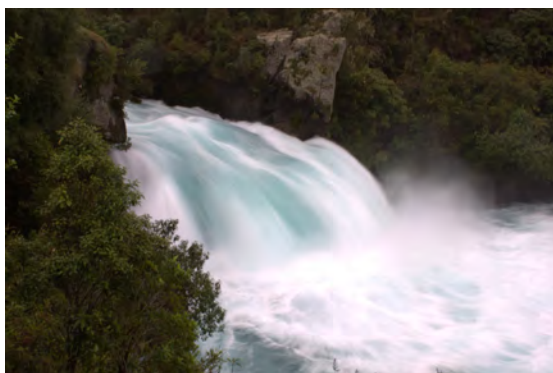


FIGURE 12.29 The Huka Falls in Taupo, New Zealand, demonstrate flow rate. (credit: RaviGogna, Flickr)

6. A major artery with a cross-sectional area of 1.00 cm^2 branches into 18 smaller arteries, each with an average cross-sectional area of 0.400 cm^2 . By what factor is the average velocity of the blood

increase with temperature? Can you give an example, such as the fact that you can dissolve sugar more rapidly in hot water?

33. How are osmosis and dialysis similar? How do they differ?

reduced when it passes into these branches?

7. (a) As blood passes through the capillary bed in an organ, the capillaries join to form venules (small veins). If the blood speed increases by a factor of 4.00 and the total cross-sectional area of the venules is 10.0 cm^2 , what is the total cross-sectional area of the capillaries feeding these venules? (b) How many capillaries are involved if their average diameter is $10.0 \mu\text{m}$?
8. The human circulation system has approximately 1×10^9 capillary vessels. Each vessel has a diameter of about $8 \mu\text{m}$. Assuming cardiac output is 5 L/min, determine the average velocity of blood flow through each capillary vessel.
9. (a) Estimate the time it would take to fill a private swimming pool with a capacity of 80,000 L using a garden hose delivering 60 L/min. (b) How long would it take to fill if you could divert a moderate size river, flowing at $5000 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, into it?
10. The flow rate of blood through a 2.00×10^{-6} -m-radius capillary is $3.80 \times 10^{-9} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$. (a) What is the speed of the blood flow? (This small speed allows time for diffusion of materials to and from the blood.) (b) Assuming all the blood in the body passes through capillaries, how many of them must there be to carry a total flow of $90.0 \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$? (The large number obtained is an overestimate, but it is still reasonable.)
11. (a) What is the fluid speed in a fire hose with a 9.00-cm diameter carrying 80.0 L of water per second? (b) What is the flow rate in cubic meters per second? (c) Would your answers be different if salt water replaced the fresh water in the fire hose?
12. The main uptake air duct of a forced air gas heater is 0.300 m in diameter. What is the average speed of air in the duct if it carries a volume equal to that of the house's interior every 15 min? The inside volume of the house is equivalent to a rectangular solid 13.0 m wide by 20.0 m long by 2.75 m high.

- 13.** Water is moving at a velocity of 2.00 m/s through a hose with an internal diameter of 1.60 cm. (a) What is the flow rate in liters per second? (b) The fluid velocity in this hose's nozzle is 15.0 m/s. What is the nozzle's inside diameter?
- 14.** Prove that the speed of an incompressible fluid through a constriction, such as in a Venturi tube, increases by a factor equal to the square of the factor by which the diameter decreases. (The converse applies for flow out of a constriction into a larger-diameter region.)
- 15.** Water emerges straight down from a faucet with a 1.80-cm diameter at a speed of 0.500 m/s. (Because of the construction of the faucet, there is no variation in speed across the stream.) (a) What is the flow rate in cm^3/s ? (b) What is the diameter of the stream 0.200 m below the faucet? Neglect any effects due to surface tension.
- 16. Unreasonable Results**
A mountain stream is 10.0 m wide and averages 2.00 m in depth. During the spring runoff, the flow in the stream reaches $100,000 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$. (a) What is the average velocity of the stream under these conditions? (b) What is unreasonable about this velocity? (c) What is unreasonable or inconsistent about the premises?

12.2 Bernoulli's Equation

- 17.** Verify that pressure has units of energy per unit volume.
- 18.** Suppose you have a wind speed gauge like the pitot tube shown in [Example 12.2\(b\)](#). By what factor must wind speed increase to double the value of h in the manometer? Is this independent of the moving fluid and the fluid in the manometer?
- 19.** If the pressure reading of your pitot tube is 15.0 mm Hg at a speed of 200 km/h, what will it be at 700 km/h at the same altitude?
- 20.** Calculate the maximum height to which water could be squirted with the hose in [Example 12.2](#) example if it: (a) Emerges from the nozzle. (b) Emerges with the nozzle removed, assuming the same flow rate.
- 21.** Every few years, winds in Boulder, Colorado, attain sustained speeds of 45.0 m/s (about 100 mi/h) when the jet stream descends during early spring. Approximately what is the force due to the Bernoulli effect on a roof having an area of 220 m^2 ? Typical air density in Boulder is 1.14 kg/m^3 , and the corresponding atmospheric pressure is $8.89 \times 10^4 \text{ N/m}^2$. (Bernoulli's principle as stated in the text assumes laminar flow. Using the principle here produces only an approximate result, because there is significant turbulence.)
- 22.** (a) Calculate the approximate force on a square meter of sail, given the horizontal velocity of the wind is 6.00 m/s parallel to its front surface and 3.50 m/s along its back surface. Take the density of air to be 1.29 kg/m^3 . (The calculation, based on Bernoulli's principle, is approximate due to the effects of turbulence.) (b) Discuss whether this force is great enough to be effective for propelling a sailboat.
- 23.** (a) What is the pressure drop due to the Bernoulli effect as water goes into a 3.00-cm-diameter nozzle from a 9.00-cm-diameter fire hose while carrying a flow of 40.0 L/s? (b) To what maximum height above the nozzle can this water rise? (The actual height will be significantly smaller due to air resistance.)
- 24.** (a) Using Bernoulli's equation, show that the measured fluid speed v for a pitot tube, like the one in [Figure 12.7\(b\)](#), is given by $v = \left(\frac{2\rho'gh}{\rho} \right)^{1/2}$, where h is the height of the manometer fluid, ρ' is the density of the manometer fluid, ρ is the density of the moving fluid, and g is the acceleration due to gravity. (Note that v is indeed proportional to the square root of h , as stated in the text.) (b) Calculate v for moving air if a mercury manometer's h is 0.200 m.

12.3 The Most General Applications of Bernoulli's Equation

- 25.** Hoover Dam on the Colorado River is the highest dam in the United States at 221 m, with an output of 1300 MW. The dam generates electricity with water taken from a depth of 150 m and an average flow rate of $650 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$. (a) Calculate the power in this flow. (b) What is the ratio of this power to the facility's average of 680 MW?
- 26.** A frequently quoted rule of thumb in aircraft design is that wings should produce about 1000 N of lift per square meter of wing. (The fact that a wing has a top and bottom surface does not double its area.) (a) At takeoff, an aircraft travels at 60.0 m/s, so that the air speed relative to the bottom of the wing is 60.0 m/s. Given the sea level density of air to be 1.29 kg/m^3 , how fast must it

move over the upper surface to create the ideal lift? (b) How fast must air move over the upper surface at a cruising speed of 245 m/s and at an altitude where air density is one-fourth that at sea level? (Note that this is not all of the aircraft's lift—some comes from the body of the plane, some from engine thrust, and so on. Furthermore, Bernoulli's principle gives an approximate answer because flow over the wing creates turbulence.)

- 27.** The left ventricle of a resting adult's heart pumps blood at a flow rate of $83.0 \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$, increasing its pressure by 110 mm Hg, its speed from zero to 30.0 cm/s, and its height by 5.00 cm. (All numbers are averaged over the entire heartbeat.) Calculate the total power output of the left ventricle. Note that most of the power is used to increase blood pressure.
- 28.** A sump pump (used to drain water from the basement of houses built below the water table) is draining a flooded basement at the rate of 0.750 L/s, with an output pressure of $3.00 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2$. (a) The water enters a hose with a 3.00-cm inside diameter and rises 2.50 m above the pump. What is its pressure at this point? (b) The hose goes over the foundation wall, losing 0.500 m in height, and widens to 4.00 cm in diameter. What is the pressure now? You may neglect frictional losses in both parts of the problem.

12.4 Viscosity and Laminar Flow: Poiseuille's Law

- 29.** (a) Calculate the retarding force due to the viscosity of the air layer between a cart and a level air track given the following information—air temperature is 20°C , the cart is moving at 0.400 m/s, its surface area is $2.50 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2$, and the thickness of the air layer is $6.00 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}$. (b) What is the ratio of this force to the weight of the 0.300-kg cart?
- 30.** What force is needed to pull one microscope slide over another at a speed of 1.00 cm/s, if there is a 0.500-mm-thick layer of 20°C water between them and the contact area is 8.00 cm^2 ?
- 31.** A glucose solution being administered with an IV has a flow rate of $4.00 \text{ cm}^3/\text{min}$. What will the new flow rate be if the glucose is replaced by whole blood having the same density but a viscosity 2.50 times that of the glucose? All other factors remain constant.
- 32.** The pressure drop along a length of artery is 100 Pa, the radius is 10 mm, and the flow is laminar. The average speed of the blood is 15 mm/s. (a) What is the net force on the blood in this section of artery? (b) What is the power expended maintaining the flow?
- 33.** A small artery has a length of $1.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$ and a radius of $2.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}$. If the pressure drop across the artery is 1.3 kPa, what is the flow rate through the artery? (Assume that the temperature is 37°C .)
- 34.** Fluid originally flows through a tube at a rate of $100 \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$. To illustrate the sensitivity of flow rate to various factors, calculate the new flow rate for the following changes with all other factors remaining the same as in the original conditions. (a) Pressure difference increases by a factor of 1.50. (b) A new fluid with 3.00 times greater viscosity is substituted. (c) The tube is replaced by one having 4.00 times the length. (d) Another tube is used with a radius 0.100 times the original. (e) Yet another tube is substituted with a radius 0.100 times the original and half the length, *and* the pressure difference is increased by a factor of 1.50.
- 35.** The arterioles (small arteries) leading to an organ, constrict in order to decrease flow to the organ. To shut down an organ, blood flow is reduced naturally to 1.00% of its original value. By what factor did the radii of the arterioles constrict? Penguins do this when they stand on ice to reduce the blood flow to their feet.
- 36.** Angioplasty is a technique in which arteries partially blocked with plaque are dilated to increase blood flow. By what factor must the radius of an artery be increased in order to increase blood flow by a factor of 10?
- 37.** (a) Suppose a blood vessel's radius is decreased to 90.0% of its original value by plaque deposits and the body compensates by increasing the pressure difference along the vessel to keep the flow rate constant. By what factor must the pressure difference increase? (b) If turbulence is created by the obstruction, what additional effect would it have on the flow rate?
- 38.** A spherical particle falling at a terminal speed in a liquid must have the gravitational force balanced by the drag force and the buoyant force. The buoyant force is equal to the weight of the displaced fluid, while the drag force is assumed to be given by Stokes Law, $F_s = 6\pi r\eta v$. Show that

the terminal speed is given by

$v = \frac{2R^2g}{9\eta}(\rho_s - \rho_l)$, where R is the radius of the sphere, ρ_s is its density, and ρ_l is the density of the fluid and η the coefficient of viscosity.

39. Using the equation of the previous problem, find the viscosity of motor oil in which a steel ball of radius 0.8 mm falls with a terminal speed of 4.32 cm/s. The densities of the ball and the oil are 7.86 and 0.88 g/mL, respectively.
40. A skydiver will reach a terminal velocity when the air drag equals their weight. For a skydiver with high speed and a large body, turbulence is a factor. The drag force then is approximately proportional to the square of the velocity. Taking the drag force to be $F_D = \frac{1}{2}\rho Av^2$ and setting this equal to the person's weight, find the terminal speed for a person falling "spread eagle." Find both a formula and a number for v_t , with assumptions as to size.
41. A layer of oil 1.50 mm thick is placed between two microscope slides. Researchers find that a force of 5.50×10^{-4} N is required to glide one over the other at a speed of 1.00 cm/s when their contact area is 6.00 cm². What is the oil's viscosity? What type of oil might it be?
42. (a) Verify that a 19.0% decrease in laminar flow through a tube is caused by a 5.00% decrease in radius, assuming that all other factors remain constant, as stated in the text. (b) What increase in flow is obtained from a 5.00% increase in radius, again assuming all other factors remain constant?
43. [Example 12.8](#) dealt with the flow of saline solution in an IV system. (a) Verify that a pressure of 1.62×10^4 N/m² is created at a depth of 1.61 m in a saline solution, assuming its density to be that of sea water. (b) Calculate the new flow rate if the height of the saline solution is decreased to 1.50 m. (c) At what height would the direction of flow be reversed? (This reversal can be a problem when patients stand up.)
44. When physicians diagnose arterial blockages, they quote the reduction in flow rate. If the flow rate in an artery has been reduced to 10.0% of its normal value by a blood clot and the average pressure difference has increased by 20.0%, by what factor has the clot reduced the radius of the artery?
45. During a marathon race, a runner's blood flow increases to 10.0 times her resting rate. Her blood's viscosity has dropped to 95.0% of its normal value, and the blood pressure difference across the circulatory system has increased by 50.0%. By what factor has the average radii of her blood vessels increased?
46. Water supplied to a house by a water main has a pressure of 3.00×10^5 N/m² early on a summer day when neighborhood use is low. This pressure produces a flow of 20.0 L/min through a garden hose. Later in the day, pressure at the exit of the water main and entrance to the house drops, and a flow of only 8.00 L/min is obtained through the same hose. (a) What pressure is now being supplied to the house, assuming resistance is constant? (b) By what factor did the flow rate in the water main increase in order to cause this decrease in delivered pressure? The pressure at the entrance of the water main is 5.00×10^5 N/m², and the original flow rate was 200 L/min. (c) How many more users are there, assuming each would consume 20.0 L/min in the morning?
47. An oil gusher shoots crude oil 25.0 m into the air through a pipe with a 0.100-m diameter. Neglecting air resistance but not the resistance of the pipe, and assuming laminar flow, calculate the gauge pressure at the entrance of the 50.0-m-long vertical pipe. Take the density of the oil to be 900 kg/m³ and its viscosity to be 1.00 (N/m²)·s (or 1.00 Pa·s). Note that you must take into account the pressure due to the 50.0-m column of oil in the pipe.
48. Concrete is pumped from a cement mixer to the place it is being laid, instead of being carried in wheelbarrows. The flow rate is 200.0 L/min through a 50.0-m-long, 8.00-cm-diameter hose, and the pressure at the pump is 8.00×10^6 N/m². (a) Calculate the resistance of the hose. (b) What is the viscosity of the concrete, assuming the flow is laminar? (c) How much power is being supplied, assuming the point of use is at the same level as the pump? You may neglect the power supplied to increase the concrete's velocity.
49. **Construct Your Own Problem**
Consider a coronary artery constricted by arteriosclerosis. Construct a problem in which you calculate the amount by which the diameter of the artery is decreased, based on an assessment of the decrease in flow rate.
50. Consider a river that spreads out in a delta region on its way to the sea. Construct a problem in

which you calculate the average speed at which water moves in the delta region, based on the speed at which it was moving up river. Among the things to consider are the size and flow rate of the river before it spreads out and its size once it has spread out. You can construct the problem for the river spreading out into one large river or into multiple smaller rivers.

12.5 The Onset of Turbulence

51. Verify that the flow of oil is laminar (barely) for an oil gusher that shoots crude oil 25.0 m into the air through a pipe with a 0.100-m diameter. The vertical pipe is 50 m long. Take the density of the oil to be 900 kg/m^3 and its viscosity to be $1.00 \text{ (N/m}^2\text{)} \cdot \text{s}$ (or $1.00 \text{ Pa} \cdot \text{s}$).
52. Show that the Reynolds number N_R is unitless by substituting units for all the quantities in its definition and cancelling.
53. Calculate the Reynolds numbers for the flow of water through (a) a nozzle with a radius of 0.250 cm and (b) a garden hose with a radius of 0.900 cm, when the nozzle is attached to the hose. The flow rate through hose and nozzle is 0.500 L/s. Can the flow in either possibly be laminar?
54. A fire hose has an inside diameter of 6.40 cm. Suppose such a hose carries a flow of 40.0 L/s starting at a gauge pressure of $1.62 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$. The hose goes 10.0 m up a ladder to a nozzle having an inside diameter of 3.00 cm. Calculate the Reynolds numbers for flow in the fire hose and nozzle to show that the flow in each must be turbulent.
55. Concrete is pumped from a cement mixer to the place it is being laid, instead of being carried in wheelbarrows. The flow rate is 200.0 L/min through a 50.0-m-long, 8.00-cm-diameter hose, and the pressure at the pump is $8.00 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$. Verify that the flow of concrete is laminar taking concrete's viscosity to be $48.0 \text{ (N/m}^2\text{)} \cdot \text{s}$, and given its density is 2300 kg/m^3 .
56. At what flow rate might turbulence begin to develop in a water main with a 0.200-m diameter? Assume a 20°C temperature.
57. What is the greatest average speed of blood flow at 37°C in an artery of radius 2.00 mm if the flow is to remain laminar? What is the corresponding flow rate? Take the density of blood to be 1025 kg/m^3 .
58. In [Take-Home Experiment: Inhalation](#), we measured the average flow rate Q of air traveling through the trachea during each inhalation. Now calculate the average air speed in meters per second through your trachea during each inhalation. The radius of the trachea in adult humans is approximately 10^{-2} m . From the data above, calculate the Reynolds number for the air flow in the trachea during inhalation. Do you expect the air flow to be laminar or turbulent?
59. Gasoline is piped underground from refineries to major users. The flow rate is $3.00 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ (about 500 gal/min), the viscosity of gasoline is $1.00 \times 10^{-3} \text{ (N/m}^2\text{)} \cdot \text{s}$, and its density is 680 kg/m^3 . (a) What minimum diameter must the pipe have if the Reynolds number is to be less than 2000? (b) What pressure difference must be maintained along each kilometer of the pipe to maintain this flow rate?
60. Assuming that blood is an ideal fluid, calculate the critical flow rate at which turbulence is a certainty in the aorta. Take the diameter of the aorta to be 2.50 cm. (Turbulence will actually occur at lower average flow rates, because blood is not an ideal fluid. Furthermore, since blood flow pulses, turbulence may occur during only the high-velocity part of each heartbeat.)
61. **Unreasonable Results**
A fairly large garden hose has an internal radius of 0.600 cm and a length of 23.0 m. The nozzleless horizontal hose is attached to a faucet, and it delivers 50.0 L/s. (a) What water pressure is supplied by the faucet? (b) What is unreasonable about this pressure? (c) What is unreasonable about the premise? (d) What is the Reynolds number for the given flow? (Take the viscosity of water as $1.005 \times 10^{-3} \text{ (N/m}^2\text{)} \cdot \text{s}$.)

12.7 Molecular Transport Phenomena: Diffusion, Osmosis, and Related Processes

62. You can smell perfume very shortly after opening the bottle. To show that it is not reaching your nose by diffusion, calculate the average distance a perfume molecule moves in one second in air, given its diffusion constant D to be $1.00 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$.
63. What is the ratio of the average distances that oxygen will diffuse in a given time in air and water? Why is this distance less in water (equivalently, why is D less in water)?

64. Oxygen reaches the veinless cornea of the eye by diffusing through its tear layer, which is 0.500-mm thick. How long does it take the average oxygen molecule to do this?
65. (a) Find the average time required for an oxygen molecule to diffuse through a 0.200-mm-thick tear layer on the cornea. (b) How much time is required to diffuse 0.500 cm^3 of oxygen to the

cornea if its surface area is 1.00 cm^2 ?

66. Suppose hydrogen and oxygen are diffusing through air. A small amount of each is released simultaneously. How much time passes before the hydrogen is 1.00 s ahead of the oxygen? Such differences in arrival times are used as an analytical tool in gas chromatography.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

12.1 Flow Rate and Its Relation to Velocity

- Water flows through a small horizontal pipe with a speed of 12 m/s into a larger part of the pipe for which the diameter of the pipe is doubled. What is the speed of the water in the larger part of the pipe?
 - 0.75 m/s
 - 3.0 m/s
 - 6.0 m/s
 - 12 m/s
- A popular pool toy allows the user to push a plunger to compress water in a barrel with a diameter of 3.0 cm. The water is compressed with a speed of 1.2 m/s and emerges from a small opening with a speed of 15 m/s. What is the diameter of the opening? Assume the toy is oriented horizontally.

12.2 Bernoulli's Equation

- At what depth beneath the surface of the lake is the pressure in the water equal to twice atmospheric pressure?
 - 10 m
 - 100 m
 - 1000 m
 - 10,000 m
- A pump provides pressure to the lower end of a long pipeline that supplies water from a reservoir to a house located on a hill 150 m vertically upward from the lower end of the pipe (where the water is initially at rest before being pumped). The pipeline has a constant diameter of 3.5 cm, and the upper end of the pipeline is open to the atmosphere. What pressure must the pump provide for water to flow from the upper end of the pipeline at a rate of 5.0 m/s?
- According to Bernoulli's equation, if the pressure in a given fluid is constant and the kinetic energy per unit volume of a fluid increases, which of the following is true?
 - The potential energy per unit volume of the

fluid decreases.

- The potential energy per unit volume of the fluid increases.
 - The fluid must no longer be considered incompressible.
 - The flow rate of the fluid increases.
6. Consider the following circumstances within a fluid, and determine the answer using Bernoulli's equation. (a) The pressure and kinetic energy per unit volume along a fluid path increases. What must be true about the potential energy per unit volume of the fluid along the fluid path? Explain. (b) The pressure along a fluid path increases, and the kinetic energy per unit volume remains constant. What must be true about the potential energy per unit volume of the fluid along the fluid path? Explain.

12.3 The Most General Applications of Bernoulli's Equation

- A horizontally oriented pipe has a diameter of 5.6 cm and is filled with water. The pipe draws water from a reservoir that is initially at rest. A manually operated plunger provides a force of 440 N in the pipe. Assuming that the other end of the pipe is open to the air, with what speed does the water emerge from the pipe?
 - 12 m/s
 - 19 m/s
 - 150 m/s
 - 190 m/s
- A 3.5-cm-diameter pipe contains a pumping mechanism that provides a force of 320 N to push water up into a tall building. Upon entering the piston mechanism, the water is flowing at a rate of 2.5 m/s. The water is then pumped to a level 21 m higher where the other end of the pipe is open to the air. With what speed does water leave the pipe?
- A large container of water is open to the air, and it develops a hole of area 10 cm^2 at a point 5 m below

the surface of the water. What is the flow rate (m^3/s) of the water emerging from this hole?

- a. $99 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$
- b. $9.9 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$
- c. $0.099 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$
- d. $0.0099 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$

10. A pipe is tapered so that the large end has a

diameter twice as large as the small end. What must be the gauge pressure (the difference between pressure at the large end and pressure at the small end) in order for water to emerge from the small end with a speed of 12 m/s if the small end is elevated 8 m above the large end of the pipe?

CHAPTER 13

Temperature, Kinetic Theory, and the Gas Laws



FIGURE 13.1 Molecules dissolved in surfaces undergo a process of outgassing, or release into the space around them. In a car, this leads to the famous "new car smell." In precision instruments like telescopes, this leads to major distortions due to contamination. NASA engineer Nithin Abraham created a coating to absorb these contaminants. Here she is pictured securing a coated panel beneath the Johnson Space Center's Chamber A, where it was used during testing of the James Webb Space Telescope. (credit: NASA, Chris Gunn/Flickr)

CHAPTER OUTLINE

13.1 Temperature

13.2 Thermal Expansion of Solids and Liquids

13.3 The Ideal Gas Law

13.4 Kinetic Theory: Atomic and Molecular Explanation of Pressure and Temperature

13.5 Phase Changes

13.6 Humidity, Evaporation, and Boiling

CONNECTION FOR AP® COURSES Heat is something familiar to each of us. We feel the warmth of the summer sun, the chill of a clear summer night, the heat of coffee after a winter stroll, and the cooling effect of our sweat. Heat transfer is maintained by temperature differences. Manifestations of heat transfer—the movement of heat energy from one place or material to another—are apparent throughout the universe. Heat from beneath Earth's surface is brought to the surface in flows of incandescent lava. The Sun warms Earth's surface and is the source of much of the energy we find on it. Rising levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide threaten to trap more of the Sun's energy, perhaps fundamentally altering the ecosphere. In space, supernovas explode, briefly radiating more heat than an entire galaxy does.

In this chapter several concepts related to heat are discussed – what is heat, how is it related to temperature, what are heat's effects, and how is it related to other forms of energy and to work. We will find that, in spite of the richness of the phenomena, there is a small set of underlying physical principles that unite the subjects and tie them to other fields.

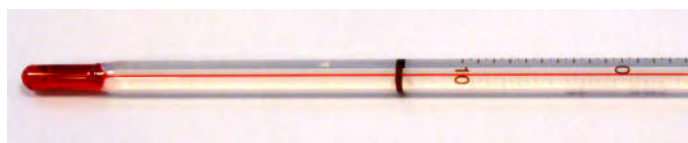


FIGURE 13.2 Alcohol thermometer with red dye. (credit: Chemical Engineer, Wikimedia Commons).

In a typical thermometer like this one, the alcohol, with a red dye, expands more rapidly than the glass containing it. When the thermometer's temperature increases, the liquid from the bulb is forced into the narrow tube, producing a large change in the length of the column for a small change in temperature.

The learning objectives covered under Big Idea 7 of the AP Physics Curriculum Framework are supported in this chapter through descriptive, algebraic, and graphical representations. Complex systems with internal structure can be described by both microscopic and macroscopic quantities. Big Idea 7 corresponds to the use of probability to describe the behavior of such systems by reducing large number of microscopic quantities to a small number of macroscopic quantities. The macroscopic quantities for an ideal gas, including temperature and pressure, are explained in this chapter (Enduring Understanding 7.A). The temperature represents average kinetic energy of gas molecules (Essential Knowledge 7.A.2). The pressure of a system determines the force that the system exerts on the walls of its container and is a measure of the average change in the momentum or impulse of the molecules colliding with the walls of the container (Essential Knowledge 7.A.1). The pressure also exists inside the system itself, not just at the walls of the container. This chapter discussed the “ideal gas law” which relates the temperature, pressure, and volume of an ideal gas using a simple equation (Essential Knowledge 7.A.3).

Big Idea 7 The mathematics of probability can be used to describe the behavior of complex systems and to interpret the behavior of quantum mechanical systems.

Enduring Understanding 7.A The properties of an ideal gas can be explained in terms of a small number of macroscopic variables including temperature and pressure.

Essential Knowledge 7.A.1 The pressure of a system determines the force that the system exerts on the walls of its container and is a measure of the average change in the momentum or impulse of the molecules colliding with the walls of the container. The pressure also exists inside the system itself, not just at the walls of the container.

Essential Knowledge 7.A.2 The temperature of a system characterizes the average kinetic energy of its molecules.

Essential Knowledge 7.A.3 In an ideal gas, the macroscopic (average) pressure (P), temperature (T), and volume (V), are related by the equation $PV = nRT$.

13.1 Temperature

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define temperature.
- Convert temperatures between the Celsius, Fahrenheit, and Kelvin scales.
- Define thermal equilibrium.
- State the zeroth law of thermodynamics.

The concept of temperature has evolved from the common concepts of hot and cold. Human perception of what feels hot or cold is a relative one. For example, if you place one hand in hot water and the other in cold water, and then place both hands in tepid water, the tepid water will feel cool to the hand that was in hot water, and warm to the one that was in cold water. The scientific definition of temperature is less ambiguous than your senses of hot and cold. **Temperature** is operationally defined to be what we measure with a thermometer. (Many physical quantities are defined solely in terms of how they are measured. We shall see later how temperature is related to the kinetic energies of atoms and molecules, a more physical explanation.) Two accurate thermometers, one placed in hot water and the other in cold water, will show the hot water to have a higher temperature. If they are then placed in the tepid water, both will give identical readings (within measurement uncertainties). In this section, we discuss temperature, its measurement by thermometers, and its relationship to thermal equilibrium. Again, temperature is the quantity measured by a thermometer.

MISCONCEPTION ALERT: HUMAN PERCEPTION VS. REALITY

On a cold winter morning, the wood on a porch feels warmer than the metal of your bike. The wood and bicycle are in thermal equilibrium with the outside air, and are thus the same temperature. They *feel* different because of the difference in the way that they conduct heat away from your skin. The metal conducts heat away from your body faster than the wood does (see more about conductivity in [Conduction](#)). This is just one example demonstrating that the human sense of hot and cold is not determined by temperature alone.

Another factor that affects our perception of temperature is humidity. Most people feel much hotter on hot, humid days than on hot, dry days. This is because on humid days, sweat does not evaporate from the skin as efficiently as it does on dry days. It is the evaporation of sweat (or water from a sprinkler or pool) that cools us off.

Any physical property that depends on temperature, and whose response to temperature is reproducible, can be used as the basis of a thermometer. Because many physical properties depend on temperature, the variety of thermometers is remarkable. For example, volume increases with temperature for most substances. This property is the basis for the common alcohol thermometer, the old mercury thermometer, and the bimetallic strip ([Figure 13.3](#)). Other properties used to measure temperature include electrical resistance and color, as shown in [Figure 13.4](#), and the emission of infrared radiation, as shown in [Figure 13.5](#).

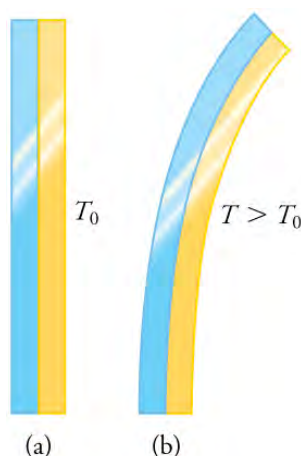


FIGURE 13.3 The curvature of a bimetallic strip depends on temperature. (a) The strip is straight at the starting temperature, where its two components have the same length. (b) At a higher temperature, this strip bends to the right, because the metal on the left has expanded more than the metal on the right.



FIGURE 13.4 Each of the six squares on this plastic (liquid crystal) thermometer contains a film of a different heat-sensitive liquid crystal material. Below 95°F, all six squares are black. When the plastic thermometer is exposed to temperature that increases to 95°F, the first liquid crystal square changes color. When the temperature increases above 96.8°F the second liquid crystal square also changes color, and so forth. (credit: Arkrishna, Wikimedia Commons)



FIGURE 13.5 Fireman Jason Ormand uses a pyrometer to check the temperature of an aircraft carrier's ventilation system. Infrared radiation (whose emission varies with temperature) from the vent is measured and a temperature readout is quickly produced. Infrared measurements are also frequently used as a measure of body temperature. These modern thermometers, placed in the ear canal, are more accurate than alcohol thermometers placed under the tongue or in the armpit. (credit: Lamel J. Hinton/U.S. Navy)

Temperature Scales

Thermometers are used to measure temperature according to well-defined scales of measurement, which use pre-defined reference points to help compare quantities. The three most common temperature scales are the Fahrenheit, Celsius, and Kelvin scales. A temperature scale can be created by identifying two easily reproducible temperatures. The freezing and boiling temperatures of water at standard atmospheric pressure are commonly used.

The **Celsius** scale (which replaced the slightly different *centigrade* scale) has the freezing point of water at 0°C and the boiling point at 100°C . Its unit is the **degree Celsius** ($^{\circ}\text{C}$). On the **Fahrenheit** scale (still the most frequently used in the United States), the freezing point of water is at 32°F and the boiling point is at 212°F . The unit of temperature on this scale is the **degree Fahrenheit** ($^{\circ}\text{F}$). Note that a temperature difference of one degree Celsius is greater than a temperature difference of one degree Fahrenheit. Only 100 Celsius degrees span the same range as 180 Fahrenheit degrees, thus one degree on the Celsius scale is 1.8 times larger than one degree on the Fahrenheit scale $180/100 = 9/5$.

The **Kelvin** scale is the temperature scale that is commonly used in science. It is an *absolute temperature* scale defined to have 0 K at the lowest possible temperature, called **absolute zero**. The official temperature unit on this scale is the *kelvin*, which is abbreviated K, and is not accompanied by a degree sign. The freezing and boiling points of water are 273.15 K and 373.15 K, respectively. Thus, the magnitude of temperature differences is the same in units of kelvins and degrees Celsius. Unlike other temperature scales, the Kelvin scale is an absolute scale. It is used extensively in scientific work because a number of physical quantities, such as the volume of an ideal gas, are directly related to absolute temperature. The kelvin is the SI unit used in scientific work.

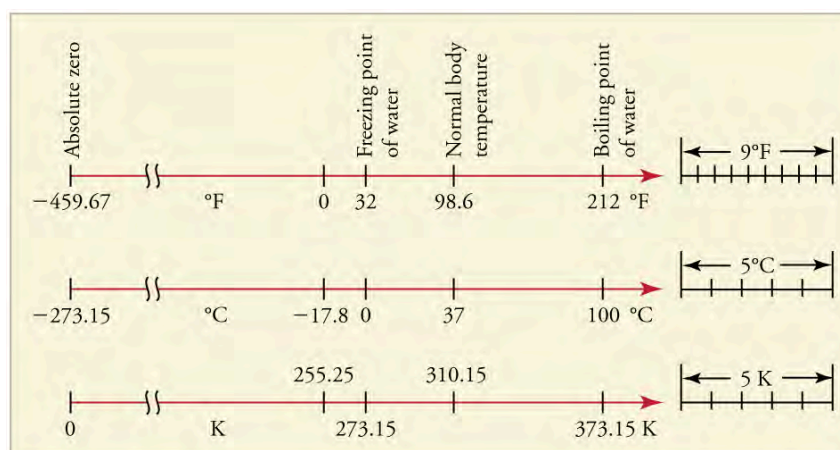


FIGURE 13.6 Relationships between the Fahrenheit, Celsius, and Kelvin temperature scales, rounded to the nearest degree. The relative sizes of the scales are also shown.

The relationships between the three common temperature scales is shown in [Figure 13.6](#). Temperatures on these scales can be converted using the equations in [Table 13.1](#).

To convert from . . .	Use this equation . . .	Also written as . . .
Celsius to Fahrenheit	$T(^{\circ}\text{F}) = \frac{9}{5}T(^{\circ}\text{C}) + 32$	$T_{\text{F}} = \frac{9}{5}T_{\text{C}} + 32$
Fahrenheit to Celsius	$T(^{\circ}\text{C}) = \frac{5}{9}(T(^{\circ}\text{F}) - 32)$	$T_{\text{C}} = \frac{5}{9}(T_{\text{F}} - 32)$
Celsius to Kelvin	$T(\text{K}) = T(^{\circ}\text{C}) + 273.15$	$T_{\text{K}} = T_{\text{C}} + 273.15$
Kelvin to Celsius	$T(^{\circ}\text{C}) = T(\text{K}) - 273.15$	$T_{\text{C}} = T_{\text{K}} - 273.15$
Fahrenheit to Kelvin	$T(\text{K}) = \frac{5}{9}(T(^{\circ}\text{F}) - 32) + 273.15$	$T_{\text{K}} = \frac{5}{9}(T_{\text{F}} - 32) + 273.15$
Kelvin to Fahrenheit	$T(^{\circ}\text{F}) = \frac{9}{5}(T(\text{K}) - 273.15) + 32$	$T_{\text{F}} = \frac{9}{5}(T_{\text{K}} - 273.15) + 32$

TABLE 13.1 Temperature Conversions

Notice that the conversions between Fahrenheit and Kelvin look quite complicated. In fact, they are simple combinations of the conversions between Fahrenheit and Celsius, and the conversions between Celsius and Kelvin.



EXAMPLE 13.1

Converting between Temperature Scales: Room Temperature

“Room temperature” is generally defined to be 25°C . (a) What is room temperature in $^{\circ}\text{F}$? (b) What is it in K?

Strategy

To answer these questions, all we need to do is choose the correct conversion equations and plug in the known values.

Solution for (a)

1. Choose the right equation. To convert from $^{\circ}\text{C}$ to $^{\circ}\text{F}$, use the equation

$$T_{\text{F}} = \frac{9}{5}T_{\text{C}} + 32. \quad 13.1$$

2. Plug the known value into the equation and solve:

$$T_{\text{F}} = \frac{9}{5}25^{\circ}\text{C} + 32 = 77^{\circ}\text{F}. \quad 13.2$$

Solution for (b)

1. Choose the right equation. To convert from $^{\circ}\text{C}$ to K, use the equation

$$T_{\text{K}} = T_{\text{C}} + 273.15. \quad 13.3$$

2. Plug the known value into the equation and solve:

$$T_{\text{K}} = 25^{\circ}\text{C} + 273.15 = 298 \text{ K}. \quad 13.4$$



EXAMPLE 13.2

Converting between Temperature Scales: the Reaumur Scale

The Reaumur scale is a temperature scale that was used widely in Europe in the 18th and 19th centuries. On the Reaumur temperature scale, the freezing point of water is 0°R and the boiling temperature is 80°R . If “room temperature” is 25°C on the Celsius scale, what is it on the Reaumur scale?

Strategy

To answer this question, we must compare the Reaumur scale to the Celsius scale. The difference between the freezing point and boiling point of water on the Reaumur scale is 80°R . On the Celsius scale it is 100°C . Therefore $100^{\circ}\text{C} = 80^{\circ}\text{R}$. Both scales start at 0° for freezing, so we can derive a simple formula to convert between temperatures on the two scales.

Solution

1. Derive a formula to convert from one scale to the other:

$$T_{\text{R}} = \frac{0.8^{\circ}\text{R}}{^{\circ}\text{C}} \times T_{\text{C}}. \quad 13.5$$

2. Plug the known value into the equation and solve:

$$T_{\text{R}} = \frac{0.8^{\circ}\text{R}}{^{\circ}\text{C}} \times 25^{\circ}\text{C} = 20^{\circ}\text{R}. \quad 13.6$$

Temperature Ranges in the Universe

[Figure 13.8](#) shows the wide range of temperatures found in the universe. Human beings have been known to survive with body temperatures within a small range, from 24°C to 44°C (75°F to 111°F). The average normal body temperature is usually given as 37.0°C (98.6°F), and variations in this temperature can indicate a medical condition: a fever, an infection, a tumor, or circulatory problems (see [Figure 13.7](#)).

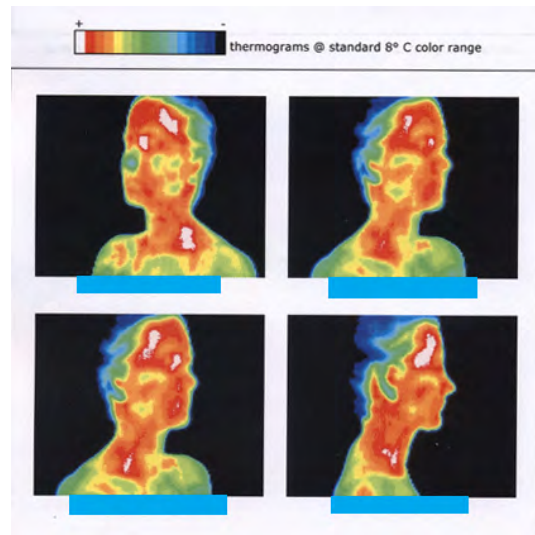


FIGURE 13.7 This image of radiation from a person's body (an infrared thermograph) shows the location of temperature abnormalities in the upper body. Dark blue corresponds to cold areas and red to white corresponds to hot areas. An elevated temperature might be an indication of malignant tissue (a cancerous tumor in the breast, for example), while a depressed temperature might be due to a decline in blood flow from a clot. In this case, the abnormalities are caused by a condition called hyperhidrosis. (credit: Porcelina81, Wikimedia Commons)

The lowest temperatures ever recorded have been measured during laboratory experiments: 4.5×10^{-10} K at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (USA), and 1.0×10^{-10} K at Helsinki University of Technology (Finland). In comparison, the coldest recorded place on Earth's surface is Vostok, Antarctica at 183 K (-89°C), and the coldest place (outside the lab) known in the universe is the Boomerang Nebula, with a temperature of 1 K.

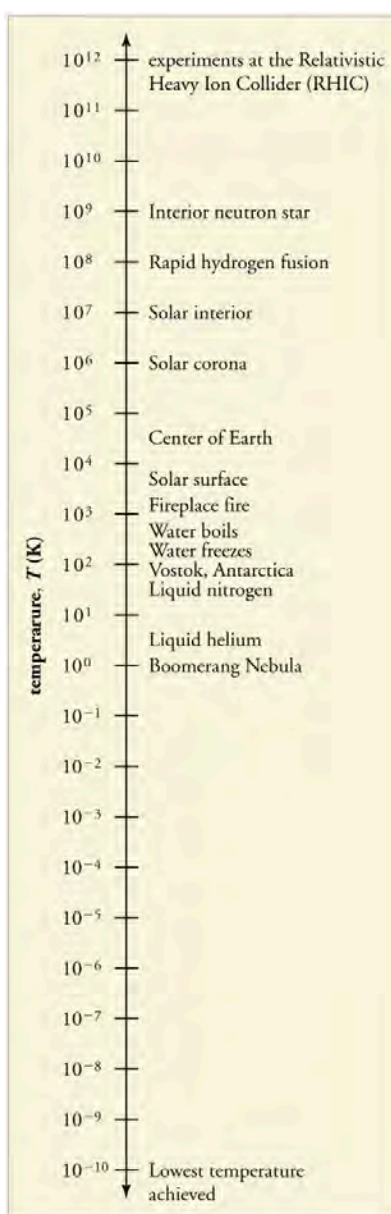


FIGURE 13.8 Each increment on this logarithmic scale indicates an increase by a factor of ten, and thus illustrates the tremendous range of temperatures in nature. Note that zero on a logarithmic scale would occur off the bottom of the page at infinity.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: ABSOLUTE ZERO

What is absolute zero? Absolute zero is the temperature at which all molecular motion has ceased. The concept of absolute zero arises from the behavior of gases. [Figure 13.9](#) shows how the pressure of gases at a constant volume decreases as temperature decreases. Various scientists have noted that the pressures of gases extrapolate to zero at the same temperature, -273.15°C . This extrapolation implies that there is a lowest temperature. This temperature is called *absolute zero*. Today we know that most gases first liquefy and then freeze, and it is not actually possible to reach absolute zero. The numerical value of absolute zero temperature is -273.15°C or 0 K .

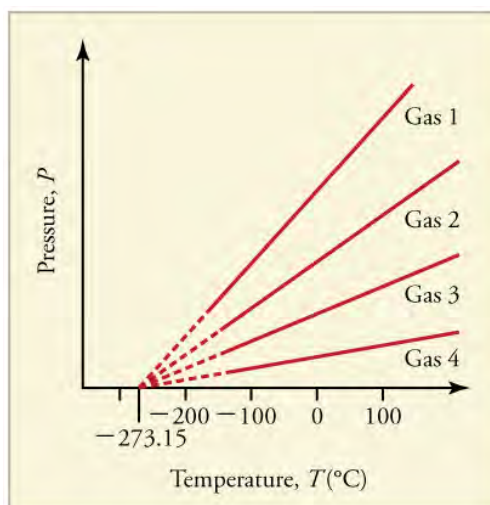


FIGURE 13.9 Graph of pressure versus temperature for various gases kept at a constant volume. Note that all of the graphs extrapolate to zero pressure at the same temperature.

Thermal Equilibrium and the Zeroth Law of Thermodynamics

Thermometers actually take their *own* temperature, not the temperature of the object they are measuring. This raises the question of how we can be certain that a thermometer measures the temperature of the object with which it is in contact. It is based on the fact that any two systems placed in *thermal contact* (meaning heat transfer can occur between them) will reach the same temperature. That is, heat will flow from the hotter object to the cooler one until they have exactly the same temperature. The objects are then in **thermal equilibrium**, and no further changes will occur. The systems interact and change because their temperatures differ, and the changes stop once their temperatures are the same. Thus, if enough time is allowed for this transfer of heat to run its course, the temperature a thermometer registers *does* represent the system with which it is in thermal equilibrium. Thermal equilibrium is established when two bodies are in contact with each other and can freely exchange energy.

Furthermore, experimentation has shown that if two systems, A and B, are in thermal equilibrium with each other, and B is in thermal equilibrium with a third system C, then A is also in thermal equilibrium with C. This conclusion may seem obvious, because all three have the same temperature, but it is basic to thermodynamics. It is called the **zeroth law of thermodynamics**.

THE ZEROTH LAW OF THERMODYNAMICS

If two systems, A and B, are in thermal equilibrium with each other, and B is in thermal equilibrium with a third system, C, then A is also in thermal equilibrium with C.

This law was postulated in the 1930s, after the first and second laws of thermodynamics had been developed and named. It is called the *zeroth law* because it comes logically before the first and second laws (discussed in [Thermodynamics](#)). Suppose, for example, a cold metal block and a hot metal block are both placed on a metal plate at room temperature. Eventually the cold block and the plate will be in thermal equilibrium. In addition, the hot block and the plate will be in thermal equilibrium. By the zeroth law, we can conclude that the cold block and the hot block are also in thermal equilibrium.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Does the temperature of a body depend on its size?

Solution

No, the system can be divided into smaller parts each of which is at the same temperature. We say that the temperature is an *intensive* quantity. Intensive quantities are independent of size.

13.2 Thermal Expansion of Solids and Liquids

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define and describe thermal expansion.
- Calculate the linear expansion of an object given its initial length, change in temperature, and coefficient of linear expansion.
- Calculate the volume expansion of an object given its initial volume, change in temperature, and coefficient of volume expansion.
- Calculate thermal stress on an object given its original volume, temperature change, volume change, and bulk modulus.



FIGURE 13.10 Thermal expansion joints like these in the Auckland Harbour Bridge in New Zealand allow bridges to change length without buckling. (credit: Ingolfson, Wikimedia Commons)

The expansion of alcohol in a thermometer is one of many commonly encountered examples of **thermal expansion**, the change in size or volume of a given mass with temperature. Hot air rises because its volume increases, which causes the hot air's density to be smaller than the density of surrounding air, causing a buoyant (upward) force on the hot air. The same happens in all liquids and gases, driving natural heat transfer upwards in homes, oceans, and weather systems. Solids also undergo thermal expansion. Railroad tracks and bridges, for example, have expansion joints to allow them to freely expand and contract with temperature changes.

What are the basic properties of thermal expansion? First, thermal expansion is clearly related to temperature change. The greater the temperature change, the more a bimetallic strip will bend. Second, it depends on the material. In a thermometer, for example, the expansion of alcohol is much greater than the expansion of the glass containing it.

What is the underlying cause of thermal expansion? As is discussed in [Kinetic Theory: Atomic and Molecular Explanation of Pressure and Temperature](#), an increase in temperature implies an increase in the kinetic energy of the individual atoms. In a solid, unlike in a gas, the atoms or molecules are closely packed together, but their kinetic energy (in the form of small, rapid vibrations) pushes neighboring atoms or molecules apart from each other. This neighbor-to-neighbor pushing results in a slightly greater distance, on average, between neighbors, and adds up to a larger size for the whole body. For most substances under ordinary conditions, there is no preferred direction, and an increase in temperature will increase the solid's size by a certain fraction in each dimension.

LINEAR THERMAL EXPANSION—THERMAL EXPANSION IN ONE DIMENSION

The change in length ΔL is proportional to length L . The dependence of thermal expansion on temperature, substance, and length is summarized in the equation

$$\Delta L = \alpha L \Delta T,$$

13.7

where ΔL is the change in length L , ΔT is the change in temperature, and α is the **coefficient of linear expansion**, which varies slightly with temperature.

Table 13.2 lists representative values of the coefficient of linear expansion, which may have units of $1/^{\circ}\text{C}$ or $1/\text{K}$. Because the size of a kelvin and a degree Celsius are the same, both α and ΔT can be expressed in units of kelvins or degrees Celsius. The equation $\Delta L = \alpha L \Delta T$ is accurate for small changes in temperature and can be used for large changes in temperature if an average value of α is used.

Material	Coefficient of linear expansion $\alpha(1/^{\circ}\text{C})$	Coefficient of volume expansion $\beta(1/^{\circ}\text{C})$
Solids		
Aluminum	25×10^{-6}	75×10^{-6}
Brass	19×10^{-6}	56×10^{-6}
Copper	17×10^{-6}	51×10^{-6}
Gold	14×10^{-6}	42×10^{-6}
Iron or Steel	12×10^{-6}	35×10^{-6}
Invar (Nickel-iron alloy)	0.9×10^{-6}	2.7×10^{-6}
Lead	29×10^{-6}	87×10^{-6}
Silver	18×10^{-6}	54×10^{-6}
Glass (ordinary)	9×10^{-6}	27×10^{-6}
Glass (Pyrex®)	3×10^{-6}	9×10^{-6}
Quartz	0.4×10^{-6}	1×10^{-6}
Concrete, Brick	$\sim 12 \times 10^{-6}$	$\sim 36 \times 10^{-6}$
Marble (average)	7×10^{-6}	2.1×10^{-5}
Liquids		
Ether		1650×10^{-6}
Ethyl alcohol		1100×10^{-6}
Petrol		950×10^{-6}

TABLE 13.2 Thermal Expansion Coefficients at 20°C ¹

¹ Values for liquids and gases are approximate.

Material	Coefficient of linear expansion $\alpha(1/^{\circ}\text{C})$	Coefficient of volume expansion $\beta(1/^{\circ}\text{C})$
Glycerin		500×10^{-6}
Mercury		180×10^{-6}
Water		210×10^{-6}
Gases		
Air and most other gases at atmospheric pressure		3400×10^{-6}

TABLE 13.2 Thermal Expansion Coefficients at 20°C ¹



EXAMPLE 13.3

Calculating Linear Thermal Expansion: The Golden Gate Bridge

The main span of San Francisco's Golden Gate Bridge is 1275 m long at its coldest. The bridge is exposed to temperatures ranging from -15°C to 40°C . What is its change in length between these temperatures? Assume that the bridge is made entirely of steel.

Strategy

Use the equation for linear thermal expansion $\Delta L = \alpha L \Delta T$ to calculate the change in length, ΔL . Use the coefficient of linear expansion, α , for steel from [Table 13.2](#), and note that the change in temperature, ΔT , is 55°C .

Solution

Plug all of the known values into the equation to solve for ΔL .

$$\Delta L = \alpha L \Delta T = \left(\frac{12 \times 10^{-6}}{^{\circ}\text{C}} \right) (1275 \text{ m})(55^{\circ}\text{C}) = 0.84 \text{ m.} \quad 13.8$$

Discussion

Although not large compared with the length of the bridge, this change in length is observable. It is generally spread over many expansion joints so that the expansion at each joint is small.

Thermal Expansion in Two and Three Dimensions

Objects expand in all dimensions, as illustrated in [Figure 13.11](#). That is, their areas and volumes, as well as their lengths, increase with temperature. Holes also get larger with temperature. If you cut a hole in a metal plate, the remaining material will expand exactly as it would if the plug was still in place. The plug would get bigger, and so the hole must get bigger too. (Think of the ring of neighboring atoms or molecules on the wall of the hole as pushing each other farther apart as temperature increases. Obviously, the ring of neighbors must get slightly larger, so the hole gets slightly larger).

THERMAL EXPANSION IN TWO DIMENSIONS

For small temperature changes, the change in area ΔA is given by

$$\Delta A = 2\alpha A \Delta T, \quad 13.9$$

where ΔA is the change in area A , ΔT is the change in temperature, and α is the coefficient of linear expansion, which varies slightly with temperature.

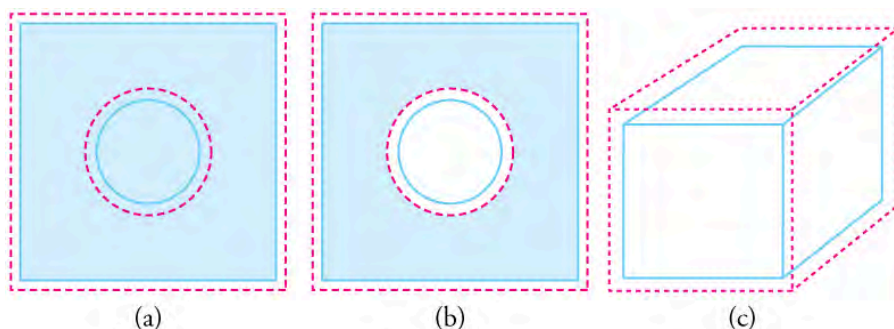


FIGURE 13.11 In general, objects expand in all directions as temperature increases. In these drawings, the original boundaries of the objects are shown with solid lines, and the expanded boundaries with dashed lines. (a) Area increases because both length and width increase. The area of a circular plug also increases. (b) If the plug is removed, the hole it leaves becomes larger with increasing temperature, just as if the expanding plug were still in place. (c) Volume also increases, because all three dimensions increase.

THERMAL EXPANSION IN THREE DIMENSIONS

The change in volume ΔV is very nearly $\Delta V = 3\alpha V \Delta T$. This equation is usually written as

$$\Delta V = \beta V \Delta T, \quad 13.10$$

where β is the **coefficient of volume expansion** and $\beta \approx 3\alpha$. Note that the values of β in [Table 13.2](#) are almost exactly equal to 3α .

In general, objects will expand with increasing temperature. Water is the most important exception to this rule. Water expands with increasing temperature (its density *decreases*) when it is at temperatures greater than 4°C (40°F). However, it expands with *decreasing* temperature when it is between $+4^\circ\text{C}$ and 0°C (40°F to 32°F). Water is densest at $+4^\circ\text{C}$. (See [Figure 13.12](#).) Perhaps the most striking effect of this phenomenon is the freezing of water in a pond. When water near the surface cools down to 4°C it is denser than the remaining water and thus will sink to the bottom. This “turnover” results in a layer of warmer water near the surface, which is then cooled. Eventually the pond has a uniform temperature of 4°C . If the temperature in the surface layer drops below 4°C , the water is less dense than the water below, and thus stays near the top. As a result, the pond surface can completely freeze over. The ice on top of liquid water provides an insulating layer from winter’s harsh exterior air temperatures. Fish and other aquatic life can survive in 4°C water beneath ice, due to this unusual characteristic of water. It also produces circulation of water in the pond that is necessary for a healthy ecosystem of the body of water.

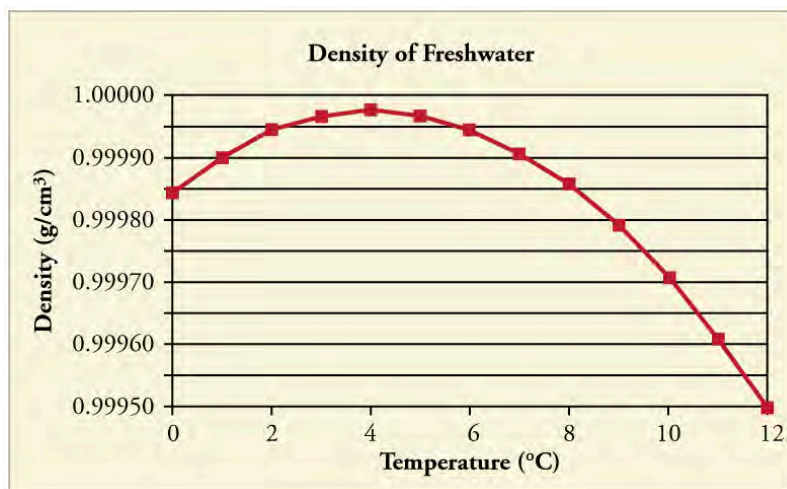


FIGURE 13.12 The density of water as a function of temperature. Note that the thermal expansion is actually very small. The maximum density at $+4^\circ\text{C}$ is only 0.0075% greater than the density at 2°C , and 0.012% greater than that at 0°C .

MAKING CONNECTIONS: REAL-WORLD CONNECTIONS—FILLING THE TANK

Differences in the thermal expansion of materials can lead to interesting effects at the gas station. One example is the dripping of gasoline from a freshly filled tank on a hot day. Gasoline starts out at the temperature of the ground under the gas station, which is cooler than the air temperature above. The gasoline cools the steel tank when it is filled. Both gasoline and steel tank expand as they warm to air temperature, but gasoline expands much more than steel, and so it may overflow.

This difference in expansion can also cause problems when interpreting the gasoline gauge. The actual amount (mass) of gasoline left in the tank when the gauge hits “empty” is a lot less in the summer than in the winter. The gasoline has the same volume as it does in the winter when the “add fuel” light goes on, but because the gasoline has expanded, there is less mass. If you are used to getting another 40 miles on “empty” in the winter, beware—you will probably run out much more quickly in the summer.



FIGURE 13.13 Because the gas expands more than the gas tank with increasing temperature, you can't drive as many miles on “empty” in the summer as you can in the winter. (credit: Hector Alejandro, Flickr)

EXAMPLE 13.4

Calculating Thermal Expansion: Gas vs. Gas Tank

Suppose your 60.0-L (15.9-gal) steel gasoline tank is full of gas, so both the tank and the gasoline have a temperature of 15.0°C. How much gasoline has spilled by the time they warm to 35.0°C?

Strategy

The tank and gasoline increase in volume, but the gasoline increases more, so the amount spilled is the difference in their volume changes. (The gasoline tank can be treated as solid steel.) We can use the equation for volume expansion to calculate the change in volume of the gasoline and of the tank.

Solution

1. Use the equation for volume expansion to calculate the increase in volume of the steel tank:

$$\Delta V_s = \beta_s V_s \Delta T. \quad 13.11$$

2. The increase in volume of the gasoline is given by this equation:

$$\Delta V_{\text{gas}} = \beta_{\text{gas}} V_{\text{gas}} \Delta T. \quad 13.12$$

3. Find the difference in volume to determine the amount spilled as

$$V_{\text{spill}} = \Delta V_{\text{gas}} - \Delta V_s. \quad 13.13$$

Alternatively, we can combine these three equations into a single equation. (Note that the original volumes are equal.)

$$\begin{aligned}
 V_{\text{spill}} &= (\beta_{\text{gas}} - \beta_s) V \Delta T \\
 &= [(950 - 35) \times 10^{-6} / ^\circ\text{C}] (60.0 \text{ L}) (20.0^\circ\text{C}) \\
 &= 1.10 \text{ L.}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{13.14}$$

Discussion

This amount is significant, particularly for a 60.0-L tank. The effect is so striking because the gasoline and steel expand quickly. The rate of change in thermal properties is discussed in [Heat and Heat Transfer Methods](#).

If you try to cap the tank tightly to prevent overflow, you will find that it leaks anyway, either around the cap or by bursting the tank. Tightly constricting the expanding gas is equivalent to compressing it, and both liquids and solids resist being compressed with extremely large forces. To avoid rupturing rigid containers, these containers have air gaps, which allow them to expand and contract without stressing them.

Thermal Stress

Thermal stress is created by thermal expansion or contraction (see [Elasticity: Stress and Strain](#) for a discussion of stress and strain). Thermal stress can be destructive, such as when expanding gasoline ruptures a tank. It can also be useful, for example, when two parts are joined together by heating one in manufacturing, then slipping it over the other and allowing the combination to cool. Thermal stress can explain many phenomena, such as the weathering of rocks and pavement by the expansion of ice when it freezes.



EXAMPLE 13.5

Calculating Thermal Stress: Gas Pressure

What pressure would be created in the gasoline tank considered in [Example 13.4](#), if the gasoline increases in temperature from 15.0°C to 35.0°C without being allowed to expand? Assume that the bulk modulus B for gasoline is $1.00 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^2$. (For more on bulk modulus, see [Elasticity: Stress and Strain](#).)

Strategy

To solve this problem, we must use the following equation, which relates a change in volume ΔV to pressure:

$$\Delta V = \frac{1}{B} \frac{F}{A} V_0, \tag{13.15}$$

where F/A is pressure, V_0 is the original volume, and B is the bulk modulus of the material involved. We will use the amount spilled in [Example 13.4](#) as the change in volume, ΔV .

Solution

1. Rearrange the equation for calculating pressure:

$$P = \frac{F}{A} = \frac{\Delta V}{V_0} B. \tag{13.16}$$

2. Insert the known values. The bulk modulus for gasoline is $B = 1.00 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^2$. In the previous example, the change in volume $\Delta V = 1.10 \text{ L}$ is the amount that would spill. Here, $V_0 = 60.0 \text{ L}$ is the original volume of the gasoline. Substituting these values into the equation, we obtain

$$P = \frac{1.10 \text{ L}}{60.0 \text{ L}} (1.00 \times 10^9 \text{ Pa}) = 1.83 \times 10^7 \text{ Pa.} \tag{13.17}$$

Discussion

This pressure is about 2500 lb/in^2 , *much* more than a gasoline tank can handle.

Forces and pressures created by thermal stress are typically as great as that in the example above. Railroad tracks

and roadways can buckle on hot days if they lack sufficient expansion joints. (See [Figure 13.14](#).) Power lines sag more in the summer than in the winter, and will snap in cold weather if there is insufficient slack. Cracks open and close in plaster walls as a house warms and cools. Glass cooking pans will crack if cooled rapidly or unevenly, because of differential contraction and the stresses it creates. (Pyrex® is less susceptible because of its small coefficient of thermal expansion.) Nuclear reactor pressure vessels are threatened by overly rapid cooling, and although none have failed, several have been cooled faster than considered desirable. Biological cells are ruptured when foods are frozen, detracting from their taste. Repeated thawing and freezing accentuate the damage. Even the oceans can be affected. A significant portion of the rise in sea level that is resulting from global warming is due to the thermal expansion of sea water.



FIGURE 13.14 Thermal stress contributes to the formation of potholes. (credit: Editor5807, Wikimedia Commons)

Metal is regularly used in the human body for hip and knee implants. Most implants need to be replaced over time because, among other things, metal does not bond with bone. Researchers are trying to find better metal coatings that would allow metal-to-bone bonding. One challenge is to find a coating that has an expansion coefficient similar to that of metal. If the expansion coefficients are too different, the thermal stresses during the manufacturing process lead to cracks at the coating-metal interface.

Another example of thermal stress is found in the mouth. Dental fillings can expand differently from tooth enamel. It can give pain when eating ice cream or having a hot drink. Cracks might occur in the filling. Metal fillings (gold, silver, etc.) are being replaced by composite fillings (porcelain), which have smaller coefficients of expansion, and are closer to those of teeth.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Two blocks, A and B, are made of the same material. Block A has dimensions $l \times w \times h = L \times 2L \times L$ and Block B has dimensions $2L \times 2L \times 2L$. If the temperature changes, what is (a) the change in the volume of the two blocks, (b) the change in the cross-sectional area $l \times w$, and (c) the change in the height h of the two blocks?

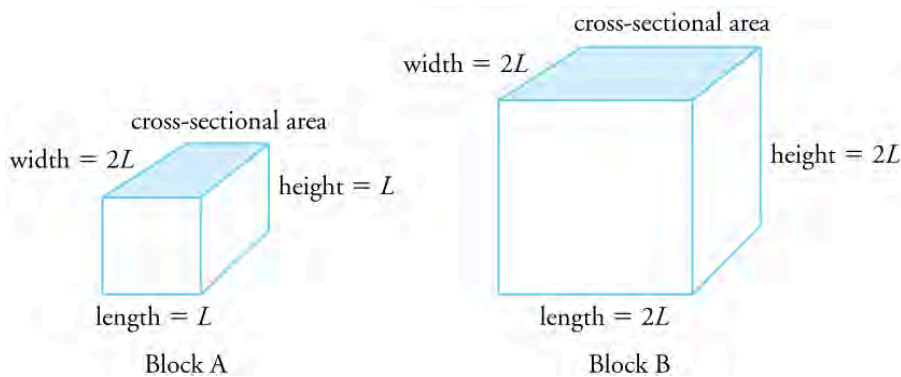


FIGURE 13.15

Solution

(a) The change in volume is proportional to the original volume. Block A has a volume of $L \times 2L \times L = 2L^3$. Block B has a volume of $2L \times 2L \times 2L = 8L^3$, which is 4 times that of Block A. Thus the change in volume of Block B should be 4 times the change in volume of Block A.

(b) The change in area is proportional to the area. The cross-sectional area of Block A is $L \times 2L = 2L^2$, while that of Block B is $2L \times 2L = 4L^2$. Because cross-sectional area of Block B is twice that of Block A, the change in the cross-sectional area of Block B is twice that of Block A.

(c) The change in height is proportional to the original height. Because the original height of Block B is twice that of A, the change in the height of Block B is twice that of Block A.

13.3 The Ideal Gas Law

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- State the ideal gas law in terms of molecules and in terms of moles.
- Use the ideal gas law to calculate pressure change, temperature change, volume change, or the number of molecules or moles in a given volume.
- Use Avogadro's number to convert between number of molecules and number of moles.



FIGURE 13.16 The air inside this hot air balloon flying over Putrajaya, Malaysia, is hotter than the ambient air. As a result, the balloon experiences a buoyant force pushing it upward. (credit: Kevin Poh, Flickr)

In this section, we continue to explore the thermal behavior of gases. In particular, we examine the characteristics of atoms and molecules that compose gases. (Most gases, for example nitrogen, N_2 , and oxygen, O_2 , are composed of two or more atoms. We will primarily use the term “molecule” in discussing a gas because the term can also be applied to monatomic gases, such as helium.)

Gases are easily compressed. We can see evidence of this in [Table 13.2](#), where you will note that gases have the *largest* coefficients of volume expansion. The large coefficients mean that gases expand and contract very rapidly with temperature changes. In addition, you will note that most gases expand at the *same* rate, or have the same β . This raises the question as to why gases should all act in nearly the same way, when liquids and solids have widely varying expansion rates.

The answer lies in the large separation of atoms and molecules in gases, compared to their sizes, as illustrated in [Figure 13.17](#). Because atoms and molecules have large separations, forces between them can be ignored, except when they collide with each other during collisions. The motion of atoms and molecules (at temperatures well above the boiling temperature) is fast, such that the gas occupies all of the accessible volume and the expansion of gases is rapid. In contrast, in liquids and solids, atoms and molecules are closer together and are quite sensitive to the

forces between them.



FIGURE 13.17 Atoms and molecules in a gas are typically widely separated, as shown. Because the forces between them are quite weak at these distances, the properties of a gas depend more on the number of atoms per unit volume and on temperature than on the type of atom.

To get some idea of how pressure, temperature, and volume of a gas are related to one another, consider what happens when you pump air into an initially deflated tire. The tire's volume first increases in direct proportion to the amount of air injected, without much increase in the tire pressure. Once the tire has expanded to nearly its full size, the walls limit volume expansion. If we continue to pump air into it, the pressure increases. The pressure will further increase when the car is driven and the tires move. Most manufacturers specify optimal tire pressure for cold tires. (See [Figure 13.18](#).)

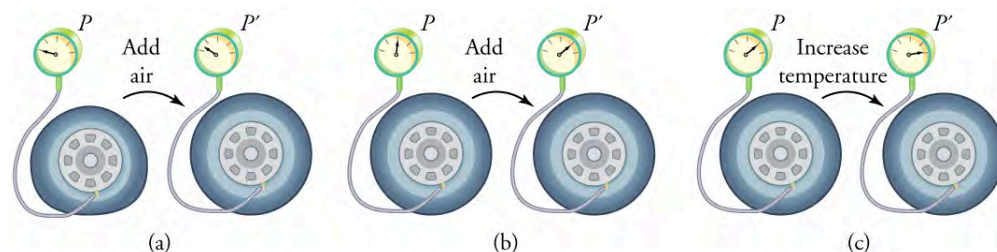


FIGURE 13.18 (a) When air is pumped into a deflated tire, its volume first increases without much increase in pressure. (b) When the tire is filled to a certain point, the tire walls resist further expansion and the pressure increases with more air. (c) Once the tire is inflated, its pressure increases with temperature.

At room temperatures, collisions between atoms and molecules can be ignored. In this case, the gas is called an **ideal gas**, in which case the relationship between the pressure, volume, and temperature is given by the equation of state called the **ideal gas law**.

IDEAL GAS LAW

The **ideal gas law** states that

$$PV = NkT, \quad 13.18$$

where P is the absolute pressure of a gas, V is the volume it occupies, N is the number of atoms and molecules in the gas, and T is its absolute temperature. The constant k is called the **Boltzmann constant** in honor of Austrian physicist Ludwig Boltzmann (1844–1906) and has the value

$$k = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}. \quad 13.19$$

The ideal gas law can be derived from basic principles, but was originally deduced from experimental measurements of Charles' law (that volume occupied by a gas is proportional to temperature at a fixed pressure) and from Boyle's law (that for a fixed temperature, the product PV is a constant). In the ideal gas model, the volume occupied by its atoms and molecules is a negligible fraction of V . The ideal gas law describes the behavior of real gases under most conditions. (Note, for example, that N is the total number of atoms and molecules, independent of the type of gas.)

Let us see how the ideal gas law is consistent with the behavior of filling the tire when it is pumped slowly and the temperature is constant. At first, the pressure P is essentially equal to atmospheric pressure, and the volume V increases in direct proportion to the number of atoms and molecules N put into the tire. Once the volume of the tire is constant, the equation $PV = NkT$ predicts that the pressure should increase in proportion to the number N of

atoms and molecules.



EXAMPLE 13.6

Calculating Pressure Changes Due to Temperature Changes: Tire Pressure

Suppose your bicycle tire is fully inflated, with an absolute pressure of 7.00×10^5 Pa (a gauge pressure of just under 90.0 lb/in^2) at a temperature of 18.0°C . What is the pressure after its temperature has risen to 35.0°C ? Assume that there are no appreciable leaks or changes in volume.

Strategy

The pressure in the tire is changing only because of changes in temperature. First we need to identify what we know and what we want to know, and then identify an equation to solve for the unknown.

We know the initial pressure $P_0 = 7.00 \times 10^5$ Pa, the initial temperature $T_0 = 18.0^\circ\text{C}$, and the final temperature $T_f = 35.0^\circ\text{C}$. We must find the final pressure P_f . How can we use the equation $PV = NkT$? At first, it may seem that not enough information is given, because the volume V and number of atoms N are not specified. What we can do is use the equation twice: $P_0V_0 = NkT_0$ and $P_fV_f = NkT_f$. If we divide P_fV_f by P_0V_0 we can come up with an equation that allows us to solve for P_f .

$$\frac{P_f V_f}{P_0 V_0} = \frac{N_f k T_f}{N_0 k T_0} \quad 13.20$$

Since the volume is constant, V_f and V_0 are the same and they cancel out. The same is true for N_f and N_0 , and k , which is a constant. Therefore,

$$\frac{P_f}{P_0} = \frac{T_f}{T_0}. \quad 13.21$$

We can then rearrange this to solve for P_f :

$$P_f = P_0 \frac{T_f}{T_0}, \quad 13.22$$

where the temperature must be in units of kelvins, because T_0 and T_f are absolute temperatures.

Solution

1. Convert temperatures from Celsius to Kelvin.

$$\begin{aligned} T_0 &= (18.0 + 273)\text{K} = 291 \text{ K} \\ T_f &= (35.0 + 273)\text{K} = 308 \text{ K} \end{aligned} \quad 13.23$$

2. Substitute the known values into the equation.

$$P_f = P_0 \frac{T_f}{T_0} = 7.00 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa} \left(\frac{308 \text{ K}}{291 \text{ K}} \right) = 7.41 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa} \quad 13.24$$

Discussion

The final temperature is about 6% greater than the original temperature, so the final pressure is about 6% greater as well. Note that *absolute* pressure and *absolute* temperature must be used in the ideal gas law.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: TAKE-HOME EXPERIMENT—REFRIGERATING A BALLOON

Inflate a balloon at room temperature. Leave the inflated balloon in the refrigerator overnight. What happens to the balloon, and why?



EXAMPLE 13.7

Calculating the Number of Molecules in a Cubic Meter of Gas

How many molecules are in a typical object, such as gas in a tire or water in a drink? We can use the ideal gas law to give us an idea of how large N typically is.

Calculate the number of molecules in a cubic meter of gas at standard temperature and pressure (STP), which is defined to be 0°C and atmospheric pressure.

Strategy

Because pressure, volume, and temperature are all specified, we can use the ideal gas law $PV = NkT$, to find N .

Solution

1. Identify the knowns.

$$\begin{aligned} T &= 0^\circ\text{C} = 273 \text{ K} \\ P &= 1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa} \\ V &= 1.00 \text{ m}^3 \\ k &= 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K} \end{aligned} \quad 13.25$$

2. Identify the unknown: number of molecules, N .

3. Rearrange the ideal gas law to solve for N .

$$\begin{aligned} PV &= NkT \\ N &= \frac{PV}{kT} \end{aligned} \quad 13.26$$

4. Substitute the known values into the equation and solve for N .

$$N = \frac{PV}{kT} = \frac{(1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa})(1.00 \text{ m}^3)}{(1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K})(273 \text{ K})} = 2.68 \times 10^{25} \text{ molecules} \quad 13.27$$

Discussion

This number is undeniably large, considering that a gas is mostly empty space. N is huge, even in small volumes. For example, 1 cm^3 of a gas at STP has 2.68×10^{19} molecules in it. Once again, note that N is the same for all types or mixtures of gases.

Moles and Avogadro's Number

It is sometimes convenient to work with a unit other than molecules when measuring the amount of substance. A **mole** (abbreviated mol) is defined to be the amount of a substance that contains as many atoms or molecules as there are atoms in exactly 12 grams (0.012 kg) of carbon-12. The actual number of atoms or molecules in one mole is called **Avogadro's number** (N_A), in recognition of Italian scientist Amedeo Avogadro (1776–1856). He developed the concept of the mole, based on the hypothesis that equal volumes of gas, at the same pressure and temperature, contain equal numbers of molecules. That is, the number is independent of the type of gas. This hypothesis has been confirmed, and the value of Avogadro's number is

$$N_A = 6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}. \quad 13.28$$

AVOGADRO'S NUMBER

One mole always contains 6.02×10^{23} particles (atoms or molecules), independent of the element or substance. A mole of any substance has a mass in grams equal to its molecular mass, which can be calculated

from the atomic masses given in the periodic table of elements.

$$N_A = 6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

13.29

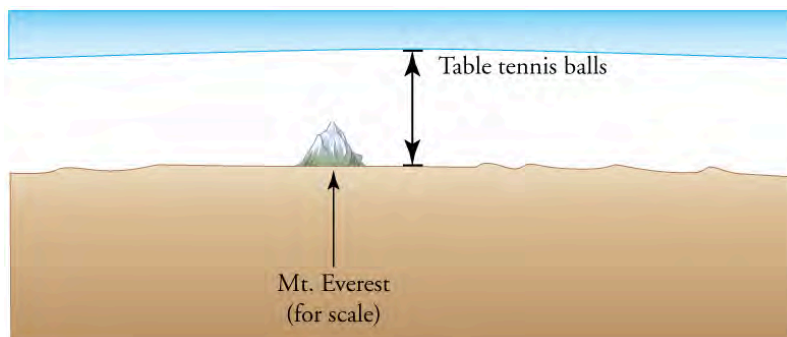


FIGURE 13.19 How big is a mole? On a macroscopic level, one mole of table tennis balls would cover the Earth to a depth of about 40 km.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

The active ingredient in a Tylenol pill is 325 mg of acetaminophen ($C_8H_9NO_2$). Find the number of active molecules of acetaminophen in a single pill.

Solution

We first need to calculate the molar mass (the mass of one mole) of acetaminophen. To do this, we need to multiply the number of atoms of each element by the element's atomic mass.

$$\begin{aligned} & (8 \text{ moles of carbon})(12 \text{ grams/mole}) + (9 \text{ moles hydrogen})(1 \text{ gram/mole}) \\ & + (1 \text{ mole nitrogen})(14 \text{ grams/mole}) + (2 \text{ moles oxygen})(16 \text{ grams/mole}) = 151 \text{ g} \end{aligned} \quad 13.30$$

Then we need to calculate the number of moles in 325 mg.

$$\left(\frac{325 \text{ mg}}{151 \text{ grams/mole}} \right) \left(\frac{1 \text{ gram}}{1000 \text{ mg}} \right) = 2.15 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles} \quad 13.31$$

Then use Avogadro's number to calculate the number of molecules.

$$N = (2.15 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}) (6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ molecules/mole}) = 1.30 \times 10^{21} \text{ molecules} \quad 13.32$$



EXAMPLE 13.8

Calculating Moles per Cubic Meter and Liters per Mole

Calculate: (a) the number of moles in 1.00 m^3 of gas at STP, and (b) the number of liters of gas per mole.

Strategy and Solution

(a) We are asked to find the number of moles per cubic meter, and we know from [Example 13.7](#) that the number of molecules per cubic meter at STP is 2.68×10^{25} . The number of moles can be found by dividing the number of molecules by Avogadro's number. We let n stand for the number of moles,

$$n \text{ mol/m}^3 = \frac{N \text{ molecules/m}^3}{6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ molecules/mol}} = \frac{2.68 \times 10^{25} \text{ molecules/m}^3}{6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ molecules/mol}} = 44.5 \text{ mol/m}^3. \quad 13.33$$

(b) Using the value obtained for the number of moles in a cubic meter, and converting cubic meters to liters, we obtain

$$\frac{(10^3 \text{ L/m}^3)}{44.5 \text{ mol/m}^3} = 22.5 \text{ L/mol}. \quad 13.34$$

Discussion

This value is very close to the accepted value of 22.4 L/mol. The slight difference is due to rounding errors caused by using three-digit input. Again this number is the same for all gases. In other words, it is independent of the gas.

The (average) molar weight of air (approximately 80% N_2 and 20% O_2) is $M = 28.8$ g. Thus the mass of one cubic meter of air is 1.28 kg. If a living room has dimensions $5\text{ m} \times 5\text{ m} \times 3\text{ m}$, the mass of air inside the room is 96 kg, which is the typical mass of a human.

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

The density of air at standard conditions ($P = 1$ atm and $T = 20^\circ\text{C}$) is 1.28 kg/m^3 . At what pressure is the density 0.64 kg/m^3 if the temperature and number of molecules are kept constant?

Solution

The best way to approach this question is to think about what is happening. If the density drops to half its original value and no molecules are lost, then the volume must double. If we look at the equation $PV = NkT$, we see that when the temperature is constant, the pressure is inversely proportional to volume. Therefore, if the volume doubles, the pressure must drop to half its original value, and $P_f = 0.50$ atm.

The Ideal Gas Law Restated Using Moles

A very common expression of the ideal gas law uses the number of moles, n , rather than the number of atoms and molecules, N . We start from the ideal gas law,

$$PV = NkT, \quad 13.35$$

and multiply and divide the equation by Avogadro's number N_A . This gives

$$PV = \frac{N}{N_A} N_A kT. \quad 13.36$$

Note that $n = N/N_A$ is the number of moles. We define the universal gas constant $R = N_A k$, and obtain the ideal gas law in terms of moles.

IDEAL GAS LAW (IN TERMS OF MOLES)

The ideal gas law (in terms of moles) is

$$PV = nRT. \quad 13.37$$

The numerical value of R in SI units is

$$R = N_A k = (6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}) (1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}) = 8.31 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K}. \quad 13.38$$

In other units,

$$\begin{aligned} R &= 1.99 \text{ cal/mol} \cdot \text{K} \\ R &= 0.0821 \text{ L} \cdot \text{atm/mol} \cdot \text{K}. \end{aligned} \quad 13.39$$

You can use whichever value of R is most convenient for a particular problem.



EXAMPLE 13.9

Calculating Number of Moles: Gas in a Bike Tire

How many moles of gas are in a bike tire with a volume of $2.00 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3$ (2.00 L), a pressure of 7.00×10^5 Pa (a gauge pressure of just under 90.0 lb/in²), and at a temperature of 18.0°C ?

Strategy

Identify the knowns and unknowns, and choose an equation to solve for the unknown. In this case, we solve the ideal gas law, $PV = nRT$, for the number of moles n .

Solution

1. Identify the knowns.

$$\begin{aligned} P &= 7.00 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa} \\ V &= 2.00 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3 \\ T &= 18.0^\circ\text{C} = 291 \text{ K} \\ R &= 8.31 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K} \end{aligned} \quad 13.40$$

2. Rearrange the equation to solve for n and substitute known values.

$$\begin{aligned} n &= \frac{PV}{RT} = \frac{(7.00 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa})(2.00 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3)}{(8.31 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K})(291 \text{ K})} \\ &= 0.579 \text{ mol} \end{aligned} \quad 13.41$$

Discussion

The most convenient choice for R in this case is $8.31 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K}$, because our known quantities are in SI units. The pressure and temperature are obtained from the initial conditions in [Example 13.6](#), but we would get the same answer if we used the final values.

The ideal gas law can be considered to be another manifestation of the law of conservation of energy (see [Conservation of Energy](#)). Work done on a gas results in an increase in its energy, increasing pressure and/or temperature, or decreasing volume. This increased energy can also be viewed as increased internal kinetic energy, given the gas's atoms and molecules.

The Ideal Gas Law and Energy

Let us now examine the role of energy in the behavior of gases. When you inflate a bike tire by hand, you do work by repeatedly exerting a force through a distance. This energy goes into increasing the pressure of air inside the tire and increasing the temperature of the pump and the air.

The ideal gas law is closely related to energy: the units on both sides are joules. The right-hand side of the ideal gas law in $PV = NkT$ is NkT . This term is roughly the amount of translational kinetic energy of N atoms or molecules at an absolute temperature T , as we shall see formally in [Kinetic Theory: Atomic and Molecular Explanation of Pressure and Temperature](#). The left-hand side of the ideal gas law is PV , which also has the units of joules. We know from our study of fluids that pressure is one type of potential energy per unit volume, so pressure multiplied by volume is energy. The important point is that there is energy in a gas related to both its pressure and its volume. The energy can be changed when the gas is doing work as it expands—something we explore in [Heat and Heat Transfer Methods](#)—similar to what occurs in gasoline or steam engines and turbines.

PROBLEM-SOLVING STRATEGY: THE IDEAL GAS LAW

Step 1 Examine the situation to determine that an ideal gas is involved. Most gases are nearly ideal.

Step 2 Make a list of what quantities are given, or can be inferred from the problem as stated (identify the known quantities). Convert known values into proper SI units (K for temperature, Pa for pressure, m^3 for volume, molecules for N , and moles for n).

Step 3 Identify exactly what needs to be determined in the problem (identify the unknown quantities). A written list is useful.

Step 4 Determine whether the number of molecules or the number of moles is known, in order to decide which form of the ideal gas law to use. The first form is $PV = NkT$ and involves N , the number of atoms or molecules. The second form is $PV = nRT$ and involves n , the number of moles.

Step 5 Solve the ideal gas law for the quantity to be determined (the unknown quantity). You may need to take a ratio of final states to initial states to eliminate the unknown quantities that are kept fixed.

Step 6 Substitute the known quantities, along with their units, into the appropriate equation, and obtain numerical solutions complete with units. Be certain to use absolute temperature and absolute pressure.

Step 7 Check the answer to see if it is reasonable: Does it make sense?

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Liquids and solids have densities about 1000 times greater than gases. Explain how this implies that the distances between atoms and molecules in gases are about 10 times greater than the size of their atoms and molecules.

Solution

Atoms and molecules are close together in solids and liquids. In gases they are separated by empty space. Thus gases have lower densities than liquids and solids. Density is mass per unit volume, and volume is related to the size of a body (such as a sphere) cubed. So if the distance between atoms and molecules increases by a factor of 10, then the volume occupied increases by a factor of 1000, and the density decreases by a factor of 1000.

13.4 Kinetic Theory: Atomic and Molecular Explanation of Pressure and Temperature

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Express the ideal gas law in terms of molecular mass and velocity.
- Define thermal energy.
- Calculate the kinetic energy of a gas molecule, given its temperature.
- Describe the relationship between the temperature of a gas and the kinetic energy of atoms and molecules.
- Describe the distribution of speeds of molecules in a gas.

We have developed macroscopic definitions of pressure and temperature. Pressure is the force divided by the area on which the force is exerted, and temperature is measured with a thermometer. We gain a better understanding of pressure and temperature from the kinetic theory of gases, which assumes that atoms and molecules are in continuous random motion.

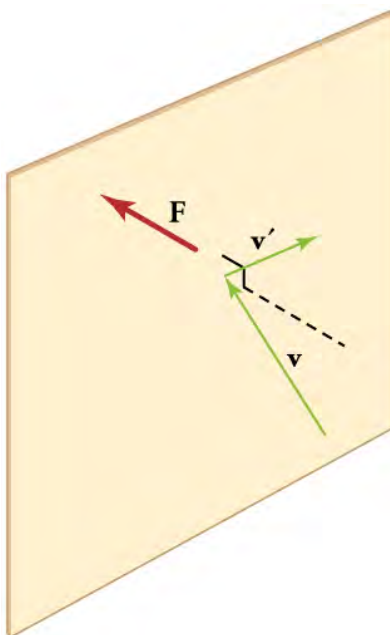


FIGURE 13.20 When a molecule collides with a rigid wall, the component of its momentum perpendicular to the wall is reversed. A force is thus exerted on the wall, creating pressure.

Figure 13.20 shows an elastic collision of a gas molecule with the wall of a container, so that it exerts a force on the wall (by Newton's third law). Because a huge number of molecules will collide with the wall in a short time, we observe an average force per unit area. These collisions are the source of pressure in a gas. As the number of molecules increases, the number of collisions and thus the pressure increase. Similarly, the gas pressure is higher if the average velocity of molecules is higher. The actual relationship is derived in the [Things Great and Small](#) feature below. The following relationship is found:

$$PV = \frac{1}{3} Nm\bar{v}^2, \quad 13.42$$

where P is the pressure (average force per unit area), V is the volume of gas in the container, N is the number of molecules in the container, m is the mass of a molecule, and $\bar{v}^2$ is the average of the molecular speed squared.

What can we learn from this atomic and molecular version of the ideal gas law? We can derive a relationship between temperature and the average translational kinetic energy of molecules in a gas. Recall the previous expression of the ideal gas law:

$$PV = NkT. \quad 13.43$$

Equating the right-hand side of this equation with the right-hand side of $PV = \frac{1}{3} Nm\bar{v}^2$ gives

$$\frac{1}{3} Nm\bar{v}^2 = NkT. \quad 13.44$$

MAKING CONNECTIONS: THINGS GREAT AND SMALL—ATOMIC AND MOLECULAR ORIGIN OF PRESSURE IN A GAS

Figure 13.21 shows a box filled with a gas. We know from our previous discussions that putting more gas into the box produces greater pressure, and that increasing the temperature of the gas also produces a greater pressure. But why should increasing the temperature of the gas increase the pressure in the box? A look at the atomic and molecular scale gives us some answers, and an alternative expression for the ideal gas law.

The figure shows an expanded view of an elastic collision of a gas molecule with the wall of a container. Calculating the average force exerted by such molecules will lead us to the ideal gas law, and to the connection between temperature and molecular kinetic energy. We assume that a molecule is small compared with the

separation of molecules in the gas, and that its interaction with other molecules can be ignored. We also assume the wall is rigid and that the molecule's direction changes, but that its speed remains constant (and hence its kinetic energy and the magnitude of its momentum remain constant as well). This assumption is not always valid, but the same result is obtained with a more detailed description of the molecule's exchange of energy and momentum with the wall.

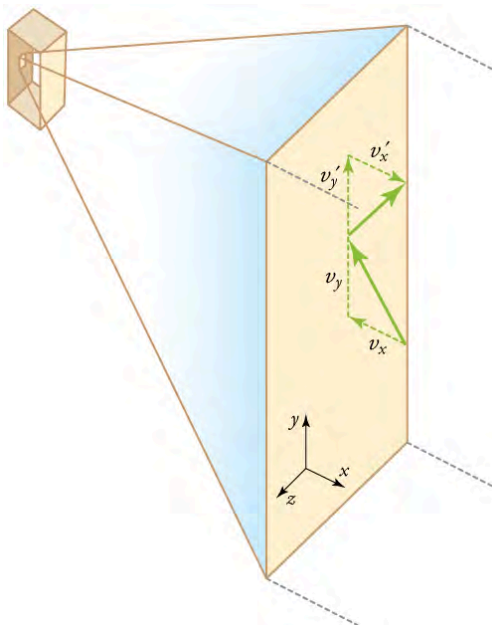


FIGURE 13.21 Gas in a box exerts an outward pressure on its walls. A molecule colliding with a rigid wall has the direction of its velocity and momentum in the x -direction reversed. This direction is perpendicular to the wall. The components of its velocity momentum in the y - and z -directions are not changed, which means there is no force parallel to the wall.

If the molecule's velocity changes in the x -direction, its momentum changes from $-mv_x$ to $+mv_x$. Thus, its change in momentum is $\Delta mv = +mv_x - (-mv_x) = 2mv_x$. The force exerted on the molecule is given by

$$F = \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t} = \frac{2mv_x}{\Delta t}. \quad 13.45$$

There is no force between the wall and the molecule until the molecule hits the wall. During the short time of the collision, the force between the molecule and wall is relatively large. We are looking for an average force; we take Δt to be the average time between collisions of the molecule with this wall. It is the time it would take the molecule to go across the box and back (a distance $2l$) at a speed of v_x . Thus $\Delta t = 2l/v_x$, and the expression for the force becomes

$$F = \frac{2mv_x}{2l/v_x} = \frac{mv_x^2}{l}. \quad 13.46$$

This force is due to *one* molecule. We multiply by the number of molecules N and use their average squared velocity to find the force

$$F = N \frac{m\bar{v}_x^2}{l}, \quad 13.47$$

where the bar over a quantity means its average value. We would like to have the force in terms of the speed v , rather than the x -component of the velocity. We note that the total velocity squared is the sum of the squares of its components, so that

$$\bar{v}^2 = \bar{v}_x^2 + \bar{v}_y^2 + \bar{v}_z^2. \quad 13.48$$

Because the velocities are random, their average components in all directions are the same:

$$\bar{v}_x^2 = \bar{v}_y^2 = \bar{v}_z^2. \quad 13.49$$

Thus,

$$\bar{v}^2 = 3\bar{v}_x^2, \quad 13.50$$

or

$$\bar{v}_x^2 = \frac{1}{3}\bar{v}^2. \quad 13.51$$

Substituting $\frac{1}{3}\bar{v}^2$ into the expression for F gives

$$F = N \frac{m\bar{v}^2}{3l}. \quad 13.52$$

The pressure is F/A , so that we obtain

$$P = \frac{F}{A} = N \frac{m\bar{v}^2}{3Al} = \frac{1}{3} \frac{Nm\bar{v}^2}{V}, \quad 13.53$$

where we used $V = Al$ for the volume. This gives the important result.

$$PV = \frac{1}{3} Nm\bar{v}^2 \quad 13.54$$

This equation is another expression of the ideal gas law.

We can get the average kinetic energy of a molecule, $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$, from the right-hand side of the equation by canceling N and multiplying by $3/2$. This calculation produces the result that the average kinetic energy of a molecule is directly related to absolute temperature.

$$\overline{\text{KE}} = \frac{1}{2}m\bar{v}^2 = \frac{3}{2}kT \quad 13.55$$

The average translational kinetic energy of a molecule, $\overline{\text{KE}}$, is called **thermal energy**. The equation $\overline{\text{KE}} = \frac{1}{2}m\bar{v}^2 = \frac{3}{2}kT$ is a molecular interpretation of temperature, and it has been found to be valid for gases and reasonably accurate in liquids and solids. It is another definition of temperature based on an expression of the molecular energy.

It is sometimes useful to rearrange $\overline{\text{KE}} = \frac{1}{2}m\bar{v}^2 = \frac{3}{2}kT$, and solve for the average speed of molecules in a gas in terms of temperature,

$$\sqrt{\bar{v}^2} = v_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{3kT}{m}}, \quad 13.56$$

where v_{rms} stands for root-mean-square (rms) speed.



EXAMPLE 13.10

Calculating Kinetic Energy and Speed of a Gas Molecule

(a) What is the average kinetic energy of a gas molecule at 20.0°C (room temperature)? (b) Find the rms speed of a nitrogen molecule (N_2) at this temperature.

Strategy for (a)

The known in the equation for the average kinetic energy is the temperature.

$$\overline{\text{KE}} = \frac{1}{2}m\bar{v}^2 = \frac{3}{2}kT \quad 13.57$$

Before substituting values into this equation, we must convert the given temperature to kelvins. This conversion gives $T = (20.0 + 273) \text{ K} = 293 \text{ K}$.

Solution for (a)

The temperature alone is sufficient to find the average translational kinetic energy. Substituting the temperature into the translational kinetic energy equation gives

$$\overline{\text{KE}} = \frac{3}{2}kT = \frac{3}{2}(1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K})(293 \text{ K}) = 6.07 \times 10^{-21} \text{ J.} \quad 13.58$$

Strategy for (b)

Finding the rms speed of a nitrogen molecule involves a straightforward calculation using the equation

$$\sqrt{\overline{v^2}} = v_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{3kT}{m}}, \quad 13.59$$

but we must first find the mass of a nitrogen molecule. Using the molecular mass of nitrogen N_2 from the periodic table,

$$m = \frac{2(14.0067) \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/mol}}{6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}} = 4.65 \times 10^{-26} \text{ kg.} \quad 13.60$$

Solution for (b)

Substituting this mass and the value for k into the equation for v_{rms} yields

$$v_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{3kT}{m}} = \sqrt{\frac{3(1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K})(293 \text{ K})}{4.65 \times 10^{-26} \text{ kg}}} = 511 \text{ m/s.} \quad 13.61$$

Discussion

Note that the average kinetic energy of the molecule is independent of the type of molecule. The average translational kinetic energy depends only on absolute temperature. The kinetic energy is very small compared to macroscopic energies, so that we do not feel when an air molecule is hitting our skin. The rms velocity of the nitrogen molecule is surprisingly large. These large molecular velocities do not yield macroscopic movement of air, since the molecules move in all directions with equal likelihood. The *mean free path* (the distance a molecule can move on average between collisions) of molecules in air is very small, and so the molecules move rapidly but do not get very far in a second. The high value for rms speed is reflected in the speed of sound, however, which is about 340 m/s at room temperature. The faster the rms speed of air molecules, the faster that sound vibrations can be transferred through the air. The speed of sound increases with temperature and is greater in gases with small molecular masses, such as helium. (See [Figure 13.22](#).)

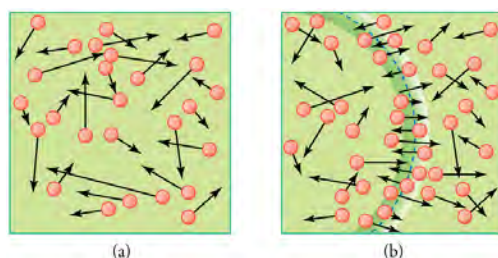


FIGURE 13.22 (a) There are many molecules moving so fast in an ordinary gas that they collide a billion times every second. (b) Individual molecules do not move very far in a small amount of time, but disturbances like sound waves are transmitted at speeds related to the molecular speeds.

MAKING CONNECTIONS: HISTORICAL NOTE—KINETIC THEORY OF GASES

The kinetic theory of gases was developed by Daniel Bernoulli (1700–1782), who is best known in physics for his work on fluid flow (hydrodynamics). Bernoulli's work predates the atomistic view of matter established by Dalton.

Distribution of Molecular Speeds

The motion of molecules in a gas is random in magnitude and direction for individual molecules, but a gas of many molecules has a predictable distribution of molecular speeds. This distribution is called the *Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution*, after its originators, who calculated it based on kinetic theory, and has since been confirmed experimentally. (See [Figure 13.23](#).) The distribution has a long tail, because a few molecules may go several times the rms speed. The most probable speed v_p is less than the rms speed v_{rms} . [Figure 13.24](#) shows that the curve is shifted to higher speeds at higher temperatures, with a broader range of speeds.

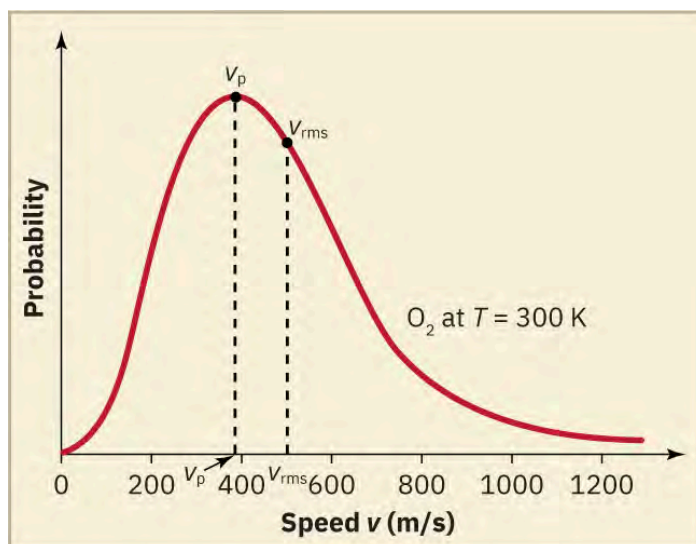


FIGURE 13.23 The Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution of molecular speeds in an ideal gas. The most likely speed v_p is less than the rms speed v_{rms} . Although very high speeds are possible, only a tiny fraction of the molecules have speeds that are an order of magnitude greater than v_{rms} .

The distribution of thermal speeds depends strongly on temperature. As temperature increases, the speeds are shifted to higher values and the distribution is broadened.

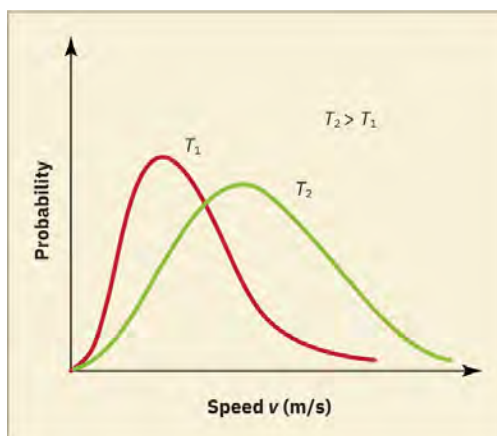


FIGURE 13.24 The Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution is shifted to higher speeds and is broadened at higher temperatures.

What is the implication of the change in distribution with temperature shown in [Figure 13.24](#) for humans? All other things being equal, if a person has a fever, they are likely to lose more water molecules, particularly from linings

along moist cavities such as the lungs and mouth, creating a dry sensation in the mouth.



EXAMPLE 13.11

Calculating Temperature: Escape Velocity of Helium Atoms

In order to escape Earth's gravity, an object near the top of the atmosphere (at an altitude of 100 km) must travel away from Earth at 11.1 km/s. This speed is called the *escape velocity*. At what temperature would helium atoms have an rms speed equal to the escape velocity?

Strategy

Identify the knowns and unknowns and determine which equations to use to solve the problem.

Solution

1. Identify the knowns: v is the escape velocity, 11.1 km/s.
2. Identify the unknowns: We need to solve for temperature, T . We also need to solve for the mass m of the helium atom.
3. Determine which equations are needed.

- To solve for mass m of the helium atom, we can use information from the periodic table:

$$m = \frac{\text{molar mass}}{\text{number of atoms per mole}} \quad 13.62$$

- To solve for temperature T , we can rearrange either

$$\overline{\text{KE}} = \frac{1}{2} m \overline{v^2} = \frac{3}{2} kT \quad 13.63$$

or

$$\sqrt{\overline{v^2}} = v_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{3kT}{m}} \quad 13.64$$

to yield

$$T = \frac{m \overline{v^2}}{3k}, \quad 13.65$$

where k is the Boltzmann constant and m is the mass of a helium atom.

4. Plug the known values into the equations and solve for the unknowns.

$$m = \frac{\text{molar mass}}{\text{number of atoms per mole}} = \frac{4.0026 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/mol}}{6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ mol}} = 6.65 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg} \quad 13.66$$

$$T = \frac{(6.65 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg})(11.1 \times 10^3 \text{ m/s})^2}{3(1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K})} = 1.98 \times 10^4 \text{ K} \quad 13.67$$

Discussion

This temperature is much higher than atmospheric temperature, which is approximately 250 K (−25°C or −10°F) at high altitude. Very few helium atoms are left in the atmosphere, but there were many when the atmosphere was formed. The reason for the loss of helium atoms is that there are a small number of helium atoms with speeds higher than Earth's escape velocity even at normal temperatures. The speed of a helium atom changes from one instant to the next, so that at any instant, there is a small, but nonzero chance that the speed is greater than the escape speed and the molecule escapes from Earth's gravitational pull. Heavier molecules, such as oxygen, nitrogen, and water (very little of which reach a very high altitude), have smaller rms speeds, and so it is much less likely that any of them will have speeds greater than the escape velocity. In fact, so few have speeds above the

escape velocity that billions of years are required to lose significant amounts of the atmosphere. [Figure 13.25](#) shows the impact of a lack of an atmosphere on the Moon. Because the gravitational pull of the Moon is much weaker, it has lost almost its entire atmosphere. The comparison between Earth and the Moon is discussed in this chapter's Problems and Exercises.



FIGURE 13.25 This photograph of Apollo 17 Commander Eugene Cernan driving the lunar rover on the Moon in 1972 looks as though it was taken at night with a large spotlight. In fact, the light is coming from the Sun. Because the acceleration due to gravity on the Moon is so low (about $1/6$ that of Earth), the Moon's escape velocity is much smaller. As a result, gas molecules escape very easily from the Moon, leaving it with virtually no atmosphere. Even during the daytime, the sky is black because there is no gas to scatter sunlight. (credit: Harrison H. Schmitt/NASA)

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

If you consider a very small object such as a grain of pollen, in a gas, then the number of atoms and molecules striking its surface would also be relatively small. Would the grain of pollen experience any fluctuations in pressure due to statistical fluctuations in the number of gas atoms and molecules striking it in a given amount of time?

Solution

Yes. Such fluctuations actually occur for a body of any size in a gas, but since the numbers of atoms and molecules are immense for macroscopic bodies, the fluctuations are a tiny percentage of the number of collisions, and the averages spoken of in this section vary imperceptibly. Roughly speaking the fluctuations are proportional to the inverse square root of the number of collisions, so for small bodies they can become significant. This was actually observed in the 19th century for pollen grains in water, and is known as the Brownian effect.

PHET EXPLORATIONS

Gas Properties

Pump gas molecules into a box and see what happens as you change the volume, add or remove heat, change gravity, and more. Measure the temperature and pressure, and discover how the properties of the gas vary in relation to each other.

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/13-4-kinetic-theory-atomic-and-molecular-explanation-of-pressure-and-temperature\)](https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/13-4-kinetic-theory-atomic-and-molecular-explanation-of-pressure-and-temperature)

13.5 Phase Changes

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Interpret a phase diagram.
- State Dalton's law.
- Identify and describe the triple point of a gas from its phase diagram.
- Describe the state of equilibrium between a liquid and a gas, a liquid and a solid, and a gas and a solid.

Up to now, we have considered the behavior of ideal gases. Real gases are like ideal gases at high temperatures. At lower temperatures, however, the interactions between the molecules and their volumes cannot be ignored. The molecules are very close (condensation occurs) and there is a dramatic decrease in volume, as seen in [Figure 13.26](#). The substance changes from a gas to a liquid. When a liquid is cooled to even lower temperatures, it becomes a solid. The volume never reaches zero because of the finite volume of the molecules.

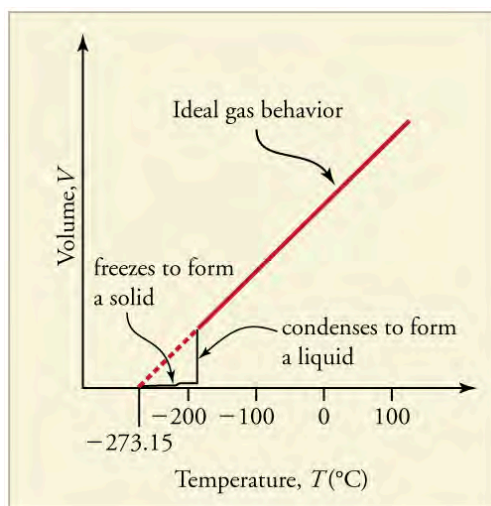


FIGURE 13.26 A sketch of volume versus temperature for a real gas at constant pressure. The linear (straight line) part of the graph represents ideal gas behavior—volume and temperature are directly and positively related and the line extrapolates to zero volume at -273.15°C , or absolute zero. When the gas becomes a liquid, however, the volume actually decreases precipitously at the liquefaction point. The volume decreases slightly once the substance is solid, but it never becomes zero.

High pressure may also cause a gas to change phase to a liquid. Carbon dioxide, for example, is a gas at room temperature and atmospheric pressure, but becomes a liquid under sufficiently high pressure. If the pressure is reduced, the temperature drops and the liquid carbon dioxide solidifies into a snow-like substance at the temperature -78°C . Solid CO_2 is called “dry ice.” Another example of a gas that can be in a liquid phase is liquid nitrogen (LN_2). LN_2 is made by liquefaction of atmospheric air (through compression and cooling). It boils at 77 K (-196°C) at atmospheric pressure. LN_2 is useful as a refrigerant and allows for the preservation of blood, sperm, and other biological materials. It is also used to reduce noise in electronic sensors and equipment, and to help cool down their current-carrying wires. In dermatology, LN_2 is used to freeze and painlessly remove warts and other growths from the skin.

PV Diagrams

We can examine aspects of the behavior of a substance by plotting a graph of pressure versus volume, called a **PV diagram**. When the substance behaves like an ideal gas, the ideal gas law describes the relationship between its pressure and volume. That is,

$$PV = NkT \text{ (ideal gas).} \quad 13.68$$

Now, assuming the number of molecules and the temperature are fixed,

$$PV = \text{constant (ideal gas, constant temperature).} \quad 13.69$$

For example, the volume of the gas will decrease as the pressure increases. If you plot the relationship $PV = \text{constant}$ on a PV diagram, you find a hyperbola. [Figure 13.27](#) shows a graph of pressure versus volume. The

hyperbolas represent ideal-gas behavior at various fixed temperatures, and are called *isotherms*. At lower temperatures, the curves begin to look less like hyperbolas—the gas is not behaving ideally and may even contain liquid. There is a **critical point**—that is, a **critical temperature**—above which liquid cannot exist. At sufficiently high pressure above the critical point, the gas will have the density of a liquid but will not condense. Carbon dioxide, for example, cannot be liquefied at a temperature above 31.0°C. **Critical pressure** is the minimum pressure needed for liquid to exist at the critical temperature. [Table 13.3](#) lists representative critical temperatures and pressures.

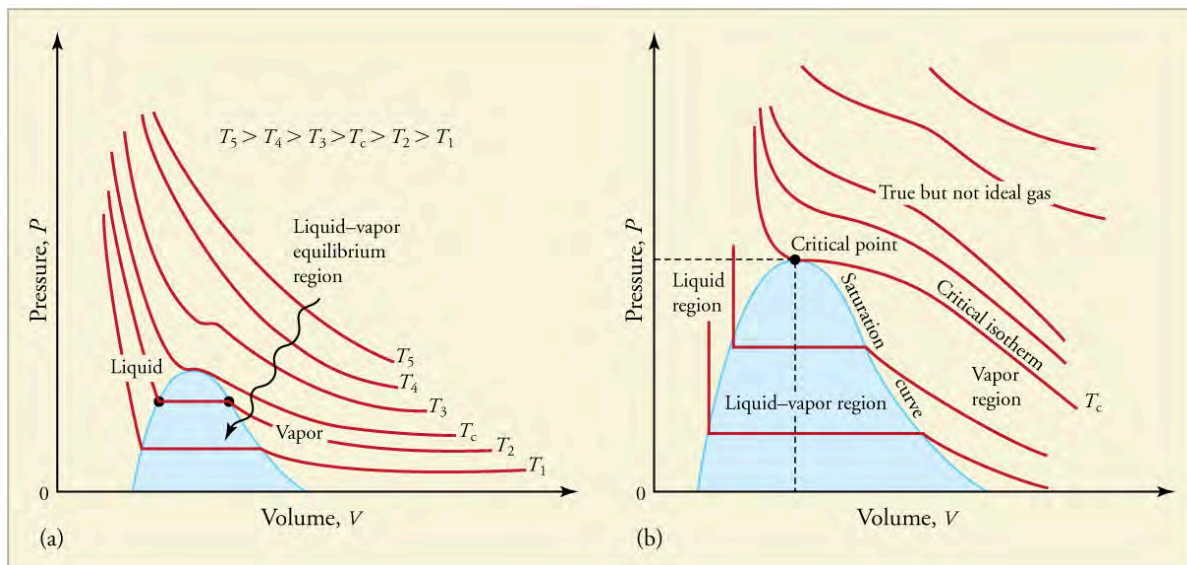


FIGURE 13.27 *PV* diagrams. (a) Each curve (isotherm) represents the relationship between *P* and *V* at a fixed temperature; the upper curves are at higher temperatures. The lower curves are not hyperbolas, because the gas is no longer an ideal gas. (b) An expanded portion of the *PV* diagram for low temperatures, where the phase can change from a gas to a liquid. The term “vapor” refers to the gas phase when it exists at a temperature below the boiling temperature.

Substance	Critical temperature		Critical pressure	
	K	°C	Pa	atm
Water	647.4	374.3	22.12×10^6	219.0
Sulfur dioxide	430.7	157.6	7.88×10^6	78.0
Ammonia	405.5	132.4	11.28×10^6	111.7
Carbon dioxide	304.2	31.1	7.39×10^6	73.2
Oxygen	154.8	−118.4	5.08×10^6	50.3
Nitrogen	126.2	−146.9	3.39×10^6	33.6
Hydrogen	33.3	−239.9	1.30×10^6	12.9
Helium	5.3	−267.9	0.229×10^6	2.27

TABLE 13.3 Critical Temperatures and Pressures

Phase Diagrams

The plots of pressure versus temperatures provide considerable insight into thermal properties of substances. There are well-defined regions on these graphs that correspond to various phases of matter, so *PT* graphs are called

phase diagrams. Figure 13.28 shows the phase diagram for water. Using the graph, if you know the pressure and temperature you can determine the phase of water. The solid lines—boundaries between phases—indicate temperatures and pressures at which the phases coexist (that is, they exist together in ratios, depending on pressure and temperature). For example, the boiling point of water is 100°C at 1.00 atm . As the pressure increases, the boiling temperature rises steadily to 374°C at a pressure of 218 atm . A pressure cooker (or even a covered pot) will cook food faster because the water can exist as a liquid at temperatures greater than 100°C without all boiling away. The curve ends at a point called the *critical point*, because at higher temperatures the liquid phase does not exist at any pressure. The critical point occurs at the critical temperature, as you can see for water from Table 13.3. The critical temperature for oxygen is -118°C , so oxygen cannot be liquefied above this temperature.

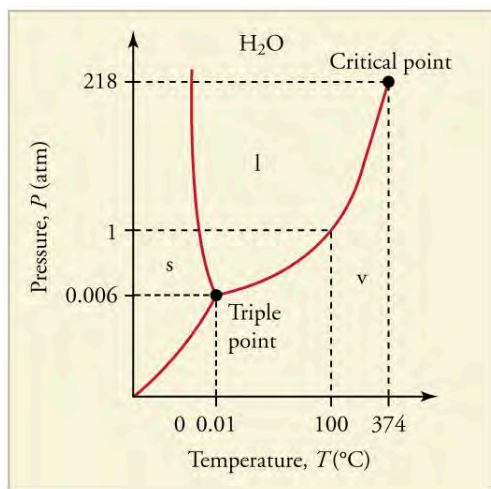


FIGURE 13.28 The phase diagram (PT graph) for water. Note that the axes are nonlinear and the graph is not to scale. This graph is simplified—there are several other exotic phases of ice at higher pressures.

Similarly, the curve between the solid and liquid regions in Figure 13.28 gives the melting temperature at various pressures. For example, the melting point is 0°C at 1.00 atm , as expected. Note that, at a fixed temperature, you can change the phase from solid (ice) to liquid (water) by increasing the pressure. Ice melts from pressure in the hands of a snowball maker. From the phase diagram, we can also say that the melting temperature of ice falls with increased pressure. When a car is driven over snow, the increased pressure from the tires melts the snowflakes; afterwards the water refreezes and forms an ice layer.

At sufficiently low pressures there is no liquid phase, but the substance can exist as either gas or solid. For water, there is no liquid phase at pressures below 0.00600 atm . The phase change from solid to gas is called **sublimation**. It accounts for large losses of snow pack that never make it into a river, the routine automatic defrosting of a freezer, and the freeze-drying process applied to many foods. Carbon dioxide, on the other hand, sublimates at standard atmospheric pressure of 1 atm . (The solid form of CO_2 is known as dry ice because it does not melt. Instead, it moves directly from the solid to the gas state.)

All three curves on the phase diagram meet at a single point, the **triple point**, where all three phases exist in equilibrium. For water, the triple point occurs at 273.16 K (0.01°C), and is a more accurate calibration temperature than the melting point of water at 1.00 atm , or 273.15 K (0.0°C). See Table 13.4 for the triple point values of other substances.

Equilibrium

Liquid and gas phases are in equilibrium at the boiling temperature. (See Figure 13.29.) If a substance is in a closed container at the boiling point, then the liquid is boiling and the gas is condensing at the same rate without net change in their relative amount. Molecules in the liquid escape as a gas at the same rate at which gas molecules stick to the liquid, or form droplets and become part of the liquid phase. The combination of temperature and pressure has to be “just right”; if the temperature and pressure are increased, equilibrium is maintained by the same increase of boiling and condensation rates.

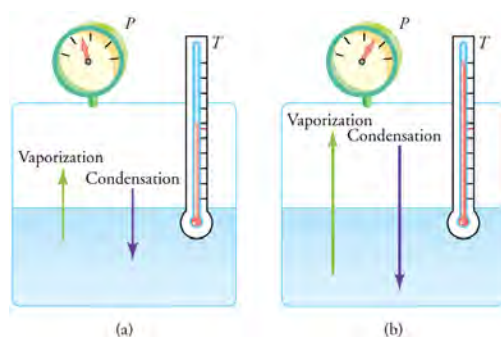


FIGURE 13.29 Equilibrium between liquid and gas at two different boiling points inside a closed container. (a) The rates of boiling and condensation are equal at this combination of temperature and pressure, so the liquid and gas phases are in equilibrium. (b) At a higher temperature, the boiling rate is faster and the rates at which molecules leave the liquid and enter the gas are also faster. Because there are more molecules in the gas, the gas pressure is higher and the rate at which gas molecules condense and enter the liquid is faster. As a result the gas and liquid are in equilibrium at this higher temperature.

Substance	Temperature		Pressure	
	K	°C	Pa	atm
Water	273.16	0.01	6.10×10^2	0.00600
Carbon dioxide	216.55	-56.60	5.16×10^5	5.11
Sulfur dioxide	197.68	-75.47	1.67×10^3	0.0167
Ammonia	195.40	-77.75	6.06×10^3	0.0600
Nitrogen	63.18	-210.0	1.25×10^4	0.124
Oxygen	54.36	-218.8	1.52×10^2	0.00151
Hydrogen	13.84	-259.3	7.04×10^3	0.0697

TABLE 13.4 Triple Point Temperatures and Pressures

One example of equilibrium between liquid and gas is that of water and steam at 100°C and 1.00 atm. This temperature is the boiling point at that pressure, so they should exist in equilibrium. Why does an open pot of water at 100°C boil completely away? The gas surrounding an open pot is not pure water: it is mixed with air. If pure water and steam are in a closed container at 100°C and 1.00 atm, they would coexist—but with air over the pot, there are fewer water molecules to condense, and water boils. What about water at 20.0°C and 1.00 atm? This temperature and pressure correspond to the liquid region, yet an open glass of water at this temperature will completely evaporate. Again, the gas around it is air and not pure water vapor, so that the reduced evaporation rate is greater than the condensation rate of water from dry air. If the glass is sealed, then the liquid phase remains. We call the gas phase a **vapor** when it exists, as it does for water at 20.0°C, at a temperature below the boiling temperature.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Explain why a cup of water (or soda) with ice cubes stays at 0°C, even on a hot summer day.

Solution

The ice and liquid water are in thermal equilibrium, so that the temperature stays at the freezing temperature as long as ice remains in the liquid. (Once all of the ice melts, the water temperature will start to rise.)

Vapor Pressure, Partial Pressure, and Dalton's Law

Vapor pressure is defined as the pressure at which a gas coexists with its solid or liquid phase. Vapor pressure is created by faster molecules that break away from the liquid or solid and enter the gas phase. The vapor pressure of a substance depends on both the substance and its temperature—an increase in temperature increases the vapor pressure.

Partial pressure is defined as the pressure a gas would create if it occupied the total volume available. In a mixture of gases, *the total pressure is the sum of partial pressures of the component gases*, assuming ideal gas behavior and no chemical reactions between the components. This law is known as **Dalton's law of partial pressures**, after the English scientist John Dalton (1766–1844), who proposed it. Dalton's law is based on kinetic theory, where each gas creates its pressure by molecular collisions, independent of other gases present. It is consistent with the fact that pressures add according to [Pascal's Principle](#). Thus water evaporates and ice sublimates when their vapor pressures exceed the partial pressure of water vapor in the surrounding mixture of gases. If their vapor pressures are less than the partial pressure of water vapor in the surrounding gas, liquid droplets or ice crystals (frost) form.

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Is energy transfer involved in a phase change? If so, will energy have to be supplied to change phase from solid to liquid and liquid to gas? What about gas to liquid and liquid to solid? Why do they spray the orange trees with water in Florida when the temperatures are near or just below freezing?

Solution

Yes, energy transfer is involved in a phase change. We know that atoms and molecules in solids and liquids are bound to each other because we know that force is required to separate them. So in a phase change from solid to liquid and liquid to gas, a force must be exerted, perhaps by collision, to separate atoms and molecules. Force exerted through a distance is work, and energy is needed to do work to go from solid to liquid and liquid to gas. This is intuitively consistent with the need for energy to melt ice or boil water. The converse is also true. Going from gas to liquid or liquid to solid involves atoms and molecules pushing together, doing work and releasing energy.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

States of Matter—Basics

Heat, cool, and compress atoms and molecules and watch as they change between solid, liquid, and gas phases.

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13.6 Humidity, Evaporation, and Boiling

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain the relationship between vapor pressure of water and the capacity of air to hold water vapor.
- Explain the relationship between relative humidity and partial pressure of water vapor in the air.
- Calculate vapor density using vapor pressure.
- Calculate humidity and dew point.

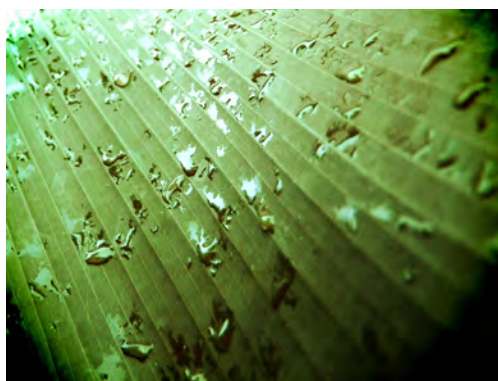


FIGURE 13.30 Dew drops like these, on a banana leaf photographed just after sunrise, form when the air temperature drops to or below the dew point. At the dew point, the rate at which water molecules join together is greater than the rate at which they separate, and some of the water condenses to form droplets. (credit: Aaron Escobar, Flickr)

The expression “it’s not the heat, it’s the humidity” makes a valid point. We keep cool in hot weather by evaporating sweat from our skin and water from our breathing passages. Because evaporation is inhibited by high humidity, we feel hotter at a given temperature when the humidity is high. Low humidity, on the other hand, can cause discomfort from excessive drying of mucous membranes and can lead to an increased risk of respiratory infections.

When we say humidity, we really mean **relative humidity**. Relative humidity tells us how much water vapor is in the air compared with the maximum possible. At its maximum, denoted as **saturation**, the relative humidity is 100%, and evaporation is inhibited. The amount of water vapor in the air depends on temperature. For example, relative humidity rises in the evening, as air temperature declines, sometimes reaching the **dew point**. At the dew point temperature, relative humidity is 100%, and fog may result from the condensation of water droplets if they are small enough to stay in suspension. Conversely, if you wish to dry something (perhaps your hair), it is more effective to blow hot air over it rather than cold air, because, among other things, the increase in temperature increases the energy of the molecules, so the rate of evaporation increases.

The amount of water vapor in the air depends on the vapor pressure of water. The liquid and solid phases are continuously giving off vapor because some of the molecules have high enough speeds to enter the gas phase; see [Figure 13.31\(a\)](#). If a lid is placed over the container, as in [Figure 13.31\(b\)](#), evaporation continues, increasing the pressure, until sufficient vapor has built up for condensation to balance evaporation. Then equilibrium has been achieved, and the vapor pressure is equal to the partial pressure of water in the container. Vapor pressure increases with temperature because molecular speeds are higher as temperature increases. [Table 13.5](#) gives representative values of water vapor pressure over a range of temperatures.

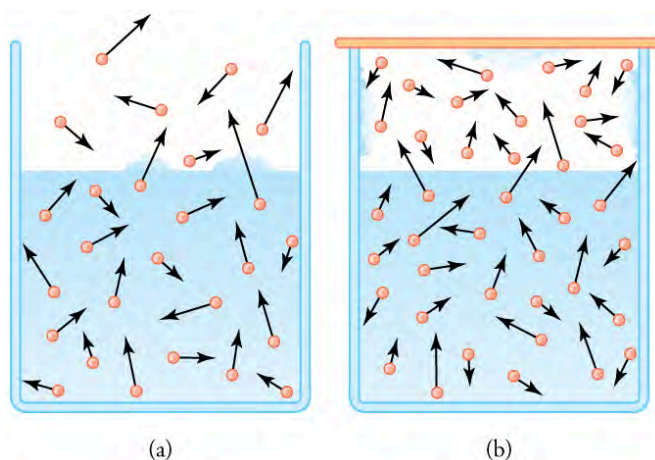


FIGURE 13.31 (a) Because of the distribution of speeds and kinetic energies, some water molecules can break away to the vapor phase even at temperatures below the ordinary boiling point. (b) If the container is sealed, evaporation will continue until there is enough vapor density for the condensation rate to equal the evaporation rate. This vapor density and the partial pressure it creates are the saturation values. They increase with temperature and are independent of the presence of other gases, such as air. They depend only on the vapor pressure of water.

Relative humidity is related to the partial pressure of water vapor in the air. At 100% humidity, the partial pressure is

equal to the vapor pressure, and no more water can enter the vapor phase. If the partial pressure is less than the vapor pressure, then evaporation will take place, as humidity is less than 100%. If the partial pressure is greater than the vapor pressure, condensation takes place. In everyday language, people sometimes refer to the capacity of air to “hold” water vapor, but this is not actually what happens. The water vapor is not held by the air. The amount of water in air is determined by the vapor pressure of water and has nothing to do with the properties of air.

Temperature (°C)	Vapor pressure (Pa)	Saturation vapor density (g/m ³)
-50	4.0	0.039
-20	1.04×10^2	0.89
-10	2.60×10^2	2.36
0	6.10×10^2	4.84
5	8.68×10^2	6.80
10	1.19×10^3	9.40
15	1.69×10^3	12.8
20	2.33×10^3	17.2
25	3.17×10^3	23.0
30	4.24×10^3	30.4
37	6.31×10^3	44.0
40	7.34×10^3	51.1
50	1.23×10^4	82.4
60	1.99×10^4	130
70	3.12×10^4	197
80	4.73×10^4	294
90	7.01×10^4	418
95	8.59×10^4	505
100	1.01×10^5	598
120	1.99×10^5	1095
150	4.76×10^5	2430

TABLE 13.5 Saturation Vapor Density of Water

Temperature (°C)	Vapor pressure (Pa)	Saturation vapor density (g/m ³)
200	1.55×10^6	7090
220	2.32×10^6	10,200

TABLE 13.5 Saturation Vapor Density of Water

**EXAMPLE 13.12****Calculating Density Using Vapor Pressure**

Table 13.5 gives the vapor pressure of water at 20.0°C as 2.33×10^3 Pa. Use the ideal gas law to calculate the density of water vapor in g/m³ that would create a partial pressure equal to this vapor pressure. Compare the result with the saturation vapor density given in the table.

Strategy

To solve this problem, we need to break it down into a two steps. The partial pressure follows the ideal gas law,

$$PV = nRT, \quad 13.70$$

where n is the number of moles. If we solve this equation for n/V to calculate the number of moles per cubic meter, we can then convert this quantity to grams per cubic meter as requested. To do this, we need to use the molecular mass of water, which is given in the periodic table.

Solution

1. Identify the knowns and convert them to the proper units:

- temperature $T = 20^\circ\text{C} = 293 \text{ K}$
- vapor pressure P of water at 20°C is $2.33 \times 10^3 \text{ Pa}$
- molecular mass of water is 18.0 g/mol

2. Solve the ideal gas law for n/V .

$$\frac{n}{V} = \frac{P}{RT} \quad 13.71$$

3. Substitute known values into the equation and solve for n/V .

$$\frac{n}{V} = \frac{P}{RT} = \frac{2.33 \times 10^3 \text{ Pa}}{(8.31 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K})(293 \text{ K})} = 0.957 \text{ mol/m}^3 \quad 13.72$$

4. Convert the density in moles per cubic meter to grams per cubic meter.

$$\rho = \left(0.957 \frac{\text{mol}}{\text{m}^3}\right) \left(\frac{18.0 \text{ g}}{\text{mol}}\right) = 17.2 \text{ g/m}^3 \quad 13.73$$

Discussion

The density is obtained by assuming a pressure equal to the vapor pressure of water at 20.0°C. The density found is identical to the value in Table 13.5, which means that a vapor density of 17.2 g/m^3 at 20.0°C creates a partial pressure of $2.33 \times 10^3 \text{ Pa}$, equal to the vapor pressure of water at that temperature. If the partial pressure is equal to the vapor pressure, then the liquid and vapor phases are in equilibrium, and the relative humidity is 100%. Thus, there can be no more than 17.2 g of water vapor per m^3 at 20.0°C , so that this value is the saturation vapor density at that temperature. This example illustrates how water vapor behaves like an ideal gas: the pressure and density are consistent with the ideal gas law (assuming the density in the table is correct). The saturation vapor densities listed in Table 13.5 are the maximum amounts of water vapor that air can hold at various temperatures.

PERCENT RELATIVE HUMIDITY

We define **percent relative humidity** as the ratio of vapor density to saturation vapor density, or

$$\text{percent relative humidity} = \frac{\text{vapor density}}{\text{saturation vapor density}} \times 100 \quad 13.74$$

We can use this and the data in [Table 13.5](#) to do a variety of interesting calculations, keeping in mind that relative humidity is based on the comparison of the partial pressure of water vapor in air and ice.



EXAMPLE 13.13

Calculating Humidity and Dew Point

(a) Calculate the percent relative humidity on a day when the temperature is 25.0°C and the air contains 9.40 g of water vapor per m³. (b) At what temperature will this air reach 100% relative humidity (the saturation density)? This temperature is the dew point. (c) What is the humidity when the air temperature is 25.0°C and the dew point is –10.0°C?

Strategy and Solution

(a) Percent relative humidity is defined as the ratio of vapor density to saturation vapor density.

$$\text{percent relative humidity} = \frac{\text{vapor density}}{\text{saturation vapor density}} \times 100 \quad 13.75$$

The first is given to be 9.40 g/m³, and the second is found in [Table 13.5](#) to be 23.0 g/m³. Thus,

$$\text{percent relative humidity} = \frac{9.40 \text{ g/m}^3}{23.0 \text{ g/m}^3} \times 100 = 40.9\% \quad 13.76$$

(b) The air contains 9.40 g/m³ of water vapor. The relative humidity will be 100% at a temperature where 9.40 g/m³ is the saturation density. Inspection of [Table 13.5](#) reveals this to be the case at 10.0°C, where the relative humidity will be 100%. That temperature is called the dew point for air with this concentration of water vapor.

(c) Here, the dew point temperature is given to be –10.0°C. Using [Table 13.5](#), we see that the vapor density is 2.36 g/m³, because this value is the saturation vapor density at –10.0°C. The saturation vapor density at 25.0°C is seen to be 23.0 g/m³. Thus, the relative humidity at 25.0°C is

$$\text{percent relative humidity} = \frac{2.36 \text{ g/m}^3}{23.0 \text{ g/m}^3} \times 100 = 10.3\% \quad 13.77$$

Discussion

The importance of dew point is that air temperature cannot drop below 10.0°C in part (b), or –10.0°C in part (c), without water vapor condensing out of the air. If condensation occurs, considerable transfer of heat occurs (discussed in [Heat and Heat Transfer Methods](#)), which prevents the temperature from further dropping. When dew points are below 0°C, freezing temperatures are a greater possibility, which explains why farmers keep track of the dew point. Low humidity in deserts means low dew-point temperatures. Thus condensation is unlikely. If the temperature drops, vapor does not condense in liquid drops. Because no heat is released into the air, the air temperature drops more rapidly compared to air with higher humidity. Likewise, at high temperatures, liquid droplets do not evaporate, so that no heat is removed from the gas to the liquid phase. This explains the large range of temperature in arid regions.

Why does water boil at 100°C? You will note from [Table 13.5](#) that the vapor pressure of water at 100°C is 1.01×10^5 Pa, or 1.00 atm. Thus, it can evaporate without limit at this temperature and pressure. But why does it

form bubbles when it boils? This is because water ordinarily contains significant amounts of dissolved air and other impurities, which are observed as small bubbles of air in a glass of water. If a bubble starts out at the bottom of the container at 20°C , it contains water vapor (about 2.30%). The pressure inside the bubble is fixed at 1.00 atm (we ignore the slight pressure exerted by the water around it). As the temperature rises, the amount of air in the bubble stays the same, but the water vapor increases; the bubble expands to keep the pressure at 1.00 atm. At 100°C , water vapor enters the bubble continuously since the partial pressure of water is equal to 1.00 atm in equilibrium. It cannot reach this pressure, however, since the bubble also contains air and total pressure is 1.00 atm. The bubble grows in size and thereby increases the buoyant force. The bubble breaks away and rises rapidly to the surface—we call this boiling! (See [Figure 13.32](#).)

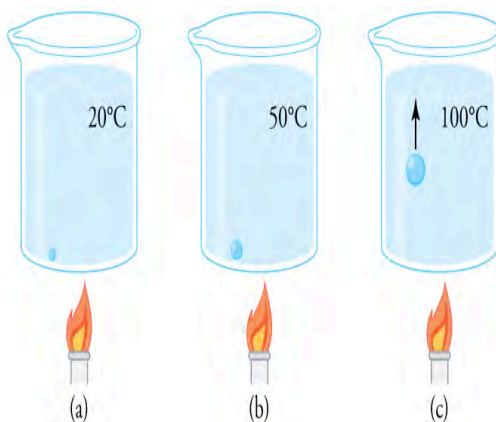


FIGURE 13.32 (a) An air bubble in water starts out saturated with water vapor at 20°C . (b) As the temperature rises, water vapor enters the bubble because its vapor pressure increases. The bubble expands to keep its pressure at 1.00 atm. (c) At 100°C , water vapor enters the bubble continuously because water's vapor pressure exceeds its partial pressure in the bubble, which must be less than 1.00 atm. The bubble grows and rises to the surface.

✓ CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Freeze drying is a process in which substances, such as foods, are dried by placing them in a vacuum chamber and lowering the atmospheric pressure around them. How does the lowered atmospheric pressure speed the drying process, and why does it cause the temperature of the food to drop?

Solution

Decreased the atmospheric pressure results in decreased partial pressure of water, hence a lower humidity. So evaporation of water from food, for example, will be enhanced. The molecules of water most likely to break away from the food will be those with the greatest velocities. Those remaining thus have a lower average velocity and a lower temperature. This can (and does) result in the freezing and drying of the food; hence the process is aptly named freeze drying.



PHET EXPLORATIONS

States of Matter

Watch different types of molecules form a solid, liquid, or gas. Add or remove heat and watch the phase change. Change the temperature or volume of a container and see a pressure-temperature diagram respond in real time. Relate the interaction potential to the forces between molecules.

[Click to view content \(https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/13-6-humidity-evaporation-and-boiling\)](https://openstax.org/books/college-physics-ap-courses-2e/pages/13-6-humidity-evaporation-and-boiling)

Glossary

absolute zero the lowest possible temperature; the temperature at which all molecular motion ceases

Avogadro's number N_A , the number of molecules or atoms in one mole of a substance;
 $N_A = 6.02 \times 10^{23}$ particles/mole

Boltzmann constant k , a physical constant that relates energy to temperature;
 $k = 1.38 \times 10^{-23}$ J/K

Celsius scale temperature scale in which the freezing point of water is 0°C and the boiling point of water is 100°C

coefficient of linear expansion α , the change in length, per unit length, per 1°C change in temperature; a constant used in the calculation of linear expansion; the coefficient of linear expansion depends on the material and to some degree on the temperature of the material

coefficient of volume expansion β , the change in volume, per unit volume, per 1°C change in temperature

critical point the temperature above which a liquid cannot exist

critical pressure the minimum pressure needed for a liquid to exist at the critical temperature

critical temperature the temperature above which a liquid cannot exist

Dalton's law of partial pressures the physical law that states that the total pressure of a gas is the sum of partial pressures of the component gases

degree Celsius unit on the Celsius temperature scale

degree Fahrenheit unit on the Fahrenheit temperature scale

dew point the temperature at which relative humidity is 100%; the temperature at which water starts to condense out of the air

Fahrenheit scale temperature scale in which the freezing point of water is 32°F and the boiling point of water is 212°F

ideal gas law the physical law that relates the pressure and volume of a gas to the number of gas molecules or number of moles of gas and the temperature of the gas

Kelvin scale temperature scale in which 0 K is the lowest possible temperature, representing absolute zero

mole the quantity of a substance whose mass (in grams) is equal to its molecular mass

partial pressure the pressure a gas would create if it occupied the total volume of space available

percent relative humidity the ratio of vapor density to saturation vapor density

phase diagram a graph of pressure vs. temperature of a particular substance, showing at which pressures and temperatures the three phases of the substance occur

PV diagram a graph of pressure vs. volume

relative humidity the amount of water in the air relative to the maximum amount the air can hold

saturation the condition of 100% relative humidity

sublimation the phase change from solid to gas

temperature the quantity measured by a thermometer

thermal energy $\overline{KE}$, the average translational kinetic energy of a molecule

thermal equilibrium the condition in which heat no longer flows between two objects that are in contact; the two objects have the same temperature

thermal expansion the change in size or volume of an object with change in temperature

thermal stress stress caused by thermal expansion or contraction

triple point the pressure and temperature at which a substance exists in equilibrium as a solid, liquid, and gas

vapor a gas at a temperature below the boiling temperature

vapor pressure the pressure at which a gas coexists with its solid or liquid phase

zeroth law of thermodynamics law that states that if two objects are in thermal equilibrium, and a third object is in thermal equilibrium with one of those objects, it is also in thermal equilibrium with the other object

Section Summary

13.1 Temperature

- Temperature is the quantity measured by a thermometer.
- Temperature is related to the average kinetic energy of atoms and molecules in a system.
- Absolute zero is the temperature at which there is no molecular motion.

- There are three main temperature scales: Celsius, Fahrenheit, and Kelvin.
- Temperatures on one scale can be converted to temperatures on another scale using the following equations:

$$T_{\text{°F}} = \frac{9}{5}T_{\text{°C}} + 32$$

$$T_{\text{C}} = \frac{5}{9}(T_{\text{F}} - 32)$$

$$T_{\text{K}} = T_{\text{C}} + 273.15$$

$$T_{\text{C}} = T_{\text{K}} - 273.15$$

- Systems are in thermal equilibrium when they have the same temperature.
- Thermal equilibrium occurs when two bodies are in contact with each other and can freely exchange energy.
- The zeroth law of thermodynamics states that when two systems, A and B, are in thermal equilibrium with each other, and B is in thermal equilibrium with a third system, C, then A is also in thermal equilibrium with C.

13.2 Thermal Expansion of Solids and Liquids

- Thermal expansion is the increase, or decrease, of the size (length, area, or volume) of a body due to a change in temperature.
- Thermal expansion is large for gases, and relatively small, but not negligible, for liquids and solids.
- Linear thermal expansion is $\Delta L = \alpha L \Delta T$, where ΔL is the change in length L , ΔT is the change in temperature, and α is the coefficient of linear expansion, which varies slightly with temperature.
- The change in area due to thermal expansion is $\Delta A = 2\alpha A \Delta T$, where ΔA is the change in area.
- The change in volume due to thermal expansion is $\Delta V = \beta V \Delta T$, where β is the coefficient of volume expansion and $\beta \approx 3\alpha$. Thermal stress is created when thermal expansion is constrained.

13.3 The Ideal Gas Law

- The ideal gas law relates the pressure and volume of a gas to the number of gas molecules and the temperature of the gas.
- The ideal gas law can be written in terms of the number of molecules of gas: $PV = NkT$, where P is pressure, V is volume, T is temperature, N is number of molecules, and k is the Boltzmann constant $k = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$.
- A mole is the number of atoms in a 12-g sample of carbon-12.
- The number of molecules in a mole is called Avogadro's number N_{A} ,

$$N_{\text{A}} = 6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}.$$

- A mole of any substance has a mass in grams equal to its molecular weight, which can be determined from the periodic table of elements.
- The ideal gas law can also be written and solved in terms of the number of moles of gas: $PV = nRT$, where n is number of moles and R is the universal gas constant, $R = 8.31 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K}$.
- The ideal gas law is generally valid at temperatures well above the boiling temperature.

13.4 Kinetic Theory: Atomic and Molecular Explanation of Pressure and Temperature

- Kinetic theory is the atomistic description of gases as well as liquids and solids.
- Kinetic theory models the properties of matter in terms of continuous random motion of atoms and molecules.
- The ideal gas law can also be expressed as $PV = \frac{1}{3}Nm\overline{v^2}$, where P is the pressure (average force per unit area), V is the volume of gas in the container, N is the number of molecules in the container, m is the mass of a molecule, and $\overline{v^2}$ is the average of the molecular speed squared.
- Thermal energy is defined to be the average translational kinetic energy $\overline{\text{KE}}$ of an atom or molecule.
- The temperature of gases is proportional to the average translational kinetic energy of atoms and molecules.

$$\overline{\text{KE}} = \frac{1}{2}m\overline{v^2} = \frac{3}{2}kT$$

or

$$\sqrt{\overline{v^2}} = v_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{3kT}{m}}.$$

- The motion of individual molecules in a gas is random in magnitude and direction. However, a gas of many molecules has a predictable distribution of molecular speeds, known as the *Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution*.

13.5 Phase Changes

- Most substances have three distinct phases: gas, liquid, and solid.
- Phase changes among the various phases of matter depend on temperature and pressure.
- The existence of the three phases with respect to pressure and temperature can be described in a phase diagram.

- Two phases coexist (i.e., they are in thermal equilibrium) at a set of pressures and temperatures. These are described as a line on a phase diagram.
- The three phases coexist at a single pressure and temperature. This is known as the triple point and is described by a single point on a phase diagram.
- A gas at a temperature below its boiling point is called a vapor.
- Vapor pressure is the pressure at which a gas coexists with its solid or liquid phase.
- Partial pressure is the pressure a gas would create if it existed alone.
- Dalton's law states that the total pressure is the

sum of the partial pressures of all of the gases present.

13.6 Humidity, Evaporation, and Boiling

- Relative humidity is the fraction of water vapor in a gas compared to the saturation value.
- The saturation vapor density can be determined from the vapor pressure for a given temperature.
- Percent relative humidity is defined to be

$$\frac{\text{vapor density}}{\text{saturation vapor density}} \times 100.$$
- The dew point is the temperature at which air reaches 100% relative humidity.

Conceptual Questions

13.1 Temperature

1. What does it mean to say that two systems are in thermal equilibrium?
2. Give an example of a physical property that varies with temperature and describe how it is used to measure temperature.
3. When a cold alcohol thermometer is placed in a hot liquid, the column of alcohol goes *down* slightly before going up. Explain why.
4. If you add boiling water to a cup at room temperature, what would you expect the final equilibrium temperature of the unit to be? You will need to include the surroundings as part of the system. Consider the zeroth law of thermodynamics.

13.2 Thermal Expansion of Solids and Liquids

5. Thermal stresses caused by uneven cooling can easily break glass cookware. Explain why Pyrex®, a glass with a small coefficient of linear expansion, is less susceptible.
6. Water expands significantly when it freezes: a volume increase of about 9% occurs. As a result of this expansion and because of the formation and growth of crystals as water freezes, anywhere from 10% to 30% of biological cells are burst when animal or plant material is frozen. Discuss the implications of this cell damage for the prospect of preserving human bodies by freezing so that they can be thawed at some future date when it is hoped that all diseases are curable.
7. One method of getting a tight fit, say of a metal peg in a hole in a metal block, is to manufacture the peg

slightly larger than the hole. The peg is then inserted when at a different temperature than the block. Should the block be hotter or colder than the peg during insertion? Explain your answer.

8. Does it really help to run hot water over a tight metal lid on a glass jar before trying to open it? Explain your answer.
9. Liquids and solids expand with increasing temperature, because the kinetic energy of a body's atoms and molecules increases. Explain why some materials *shrink* with increasing temperature.

13.3 The Ideal Gas Law

10. Find out the human population of Earth. Is there a mole of people inhabiting Earth? If the average mass of a person is 60 kg, calculate the mass of a mole of people. How does the mass of a mole of people compare with the mass of Earth?
11. Under what circumstances would you expect a gas to behave significantly differently than predicted by the ideal gas law?
12. A constant-volume gas thermometer contains a fixed amount of gas. What property of the gas is measured to indicate its temperature?

13.4 Kinetic Theory: Atomic and Molecular Explanation of Pressure and Temperature

13. How is momentum related to the pressure exerted by a gas? Explain on the atomic and molecular level, considering the behavior of atoms and molecules.

13.5 Phase Changes

14. A pressure cooker contains water and steam in equilibrium at a pressure greater than

atmospheric pressure. How does this greater pressure increase cooking speed?

15. Why does condensation form most rapidly on the coldest object in a room—for example, on a glass of ice water?
16. What is the vapor pressure of solid carbon dioxide (dry ice) at -78.5°C ?

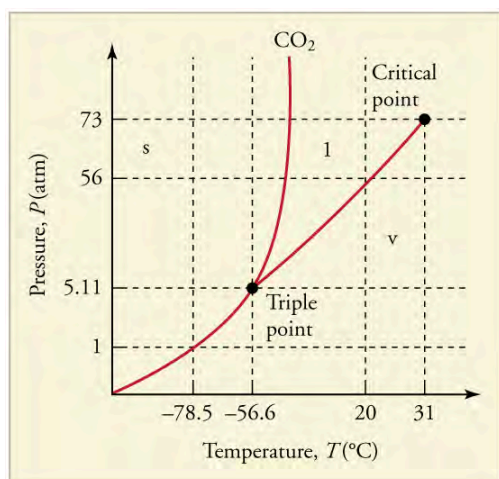


FIGURE 13.33 The phase diagram for carbon dioxide. The axes are nonlinear, and the graph is not to scale. Dry ice is solid carbon dioxide and has a sublimation temperature of -78.5°C .

17. Can carbon dioxide be liquefied at room temperature (20°C)? If so, how? If not, why not? (See [Figure 13.33](#).)
18. Oxygen cannot be liquefied at room temperature by placing it under a large enough pressure to force its molecules together. Explain why this is.
19. What is the distinction between gas and vapor?

13.6 Humidity, Evaporation, and Boiling

20. Because humidity depends only on water's vapor pressure and temperature, are the saturation vapor densities listed in [Table 13.5](#) valid in an atmosphere of helium at a pressure of $1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2$, rather than air? Are those values affected by altitude on Earth?
21. Why does a beaker of 40.0°C water placed in a vacuum chamber start to boil as the chamber is evacuated (air is pumped out of the chamber)? At what pressure does the boiling begin? Would food cook any faster in such a beaker?
22. Why does rubbing alcohol evaporate much more rapidly than water at STP (standard temperature and pressure)?

Problems & Exercises

13.1 Temperature

1. What is the Fahrenheit temperature of a person with a 39.0°C fever?
2. Frost damage to most plants occurs at temperatures of 28.0°F or lower. What is this temperature on the Kelvin scale?
3. To conserve energy, room temperatures are kept at 68.0°F in the winter and 78.0°F in the summer. What are these temperatures on the Celsius scale?
4. A tungsten light bulb filament may operate at 2900 K . What is its Fahrenheit temperature? What is this on the Celsius scale?
5. The surface temperature of the Sun is about 5750 K . What is this temperature on the Fahrenheit scale?
6. One of the hottest temperatures ever recorded on the surface of Earth was 134°F in Death Valley, CA. What is this temperature in Celsius degrees? What is this temperature in Kelvin?
7. (a) Suppose a cold front blows into your locale and drops the temperature by 40.0 Fahrenheit degrees.

How many degrees Celsius does the temperature decrease when there is a 40.0°F decrease in temperature? (b) Show that any change in temperature in Fahrenheit degrees is nine-fifths the change in Celsius degrees.

8. (a) At what temperature do the Fahrenheit and Celsius scales have the same numerical value? (b) At what temperature do the Fahrenheit and Kelvin scales have the same numerical value?

13.2 Thermal Expansion of Solids and Liquids

9. The height of the Washington Monument is measured to be 170 m on a day when the temperature is 35.0°C . What will its height be on a day when the temperature falls to -10.0°C ? Although the monument is made of limestone, assume that its thermal coefficient of expansion is the same as marble's.
10. How much taller does the Eiffel Tower become at the end of a day when the temperature has increased by 15°C ? Its original height is 321 m and you can assume it is made of steel.

11. What is the change in length of a 3.00-cm-long column of mercury if its temperature changes from 37.0°C to 40.0°C, assuming the mercury is unconstrained?
12. How large an expansion gap should be left between steel railroad rails if they may reach a maximum temperature 35.0°C greater than when they were laid? Their original length is 10.0 m.
13. You are looking to purchase a small piece of land in Hong Kong. The price is “only” \$60,000 per square meter! The land title says the dimensions are 20 m $\times$ 30 m. By how much would the total price change if you measured the parcel with a steel tape measure on a day when the temperature was 20°C above normal?
14. Global warming will produce rising sea levels partly due to melting ice caps but also due to the expansion of water as average ocean temperatures rise. To get some idea of the size of this effect, calculate the change in length of a column of water 1.00 km high for a temperature increase of 1.00°C. Note that this calculation is only approximate because ocean warming is not uniform with depth.
15. Show that 60.0 L of gasoline originally at 15.0°C will expand to 61.1 L when it warms to 35.0°C, as claimed in [Example 13.4](#).
16. (a) Suppose a meter stick made of steel and one made of invar (an alloy of iron and nickel) are the same length at 0°C. What is their difference in length at 22.0°C? (b) Repeat the calculation for two 30.0-m-long surveyor’s tapes.
17. (a) If a 500-mL glass beaker is filled to the brim with ethyl alcohol at a temperature of 5.00°C, how much will overflow when its temperature reaches 22.0°C? (b) How much less water would overflow under the same conditions?
18. Most automobiles have a coolant reservoir to catch radiator fluid that may overflow when the engine is hot. A radiator is made of copper and is filled to its 16.0-L capacity when at 10.0°C. What volume of radiator fluid will overflow when the radiator and fluid reach their 95.0°C operating temperature, given that the fluid’s volume coefficient of expansion is $\beta = 400 \times 10^{-6}/^\circ\text{C}$? Note that this coefficient is approximate, because most car radiators have operating temperatures of greater than 95.0°C.
19. A physicist makes a cup of instant coffee and notices that, as the coffee cools, its level drops 3.00 mm in the glass cup. Show that this decrease cannot be due to thermal contraction by calculating the decrease in level if the 350 cm³ of coffee is in a 7.00-cm-diameter cup and decreases in temperature from 95.0°C to 45.0°C. (Most of the drop in level is actually due to escaping bubbles of air.)
20. (a) The density of water at 0°C is very nearly 1000 kg/m³ (it is actually 999.84 kg/m³), whereas the density of ice at 0°C is 917 kg/m³. Calculate the pressure necessary to keep ice from expanding when it freezes, neglecting the effect such a large pressure would have on the freezing temperature. (This problem gives you only an indication of how large the forces associated with freezing water might be.) (b) What are the implications of this result for biological cells that are frozen?
21. Show that $\beta \approx 3\alpha$, by calculating the change in volume ΔV of a cube with sides of length L .

13.3 The Ideal Gas Law

22. The gauge pressure in your car tires is $2.50 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2$ at a temperature of 35.0°C when you drive it onto a ferry boat to Alaska. What is their gauge pressure later, when their temperature has dropped to -40.0°C ?
23. Convert an absolute pressure of $7.00 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2$ to gauge pressure in lb/in². (This value was stated to be just less than 90.0 lb/in² in [Example 13.9](#). Is it?)
24. Suppose a gas-filled incandescent light bulb is manufactured so that the gas inside the bulb is at atmospheric pressure when the bulb has a temperature of 20.0°C. (a) Find the gauge pressure inside such a bulb when it is hot, assuming its average temperature is 60.0°C (an approximation) and neglecting any change in volume due to thermal expansion or gas leaks. (b) The actual final pressure for the light bulb will be less than calculated in part (a) because the glass bulb will expand. What will the actual final pressure be, taking this into account? Is this a negligible difference?
25. To test a balloon, it is placed in a lab and filled with helium. The temperature of the helium is 10.0°C and the pressure is 1.00 atmosphere. The pressure in the lab is maintained. Assume the membrane of the balloon provides a negligible

- inward pressure, so it is not considered significant.
- (a) What is the pressure inside the balloon if the helium is replaced with helium that is at -50.0°C and the balloon is filled until it has a volume of 20.0 times its original volume? (b) What is the gauge pressure? (Assume the pressure in the lab remains at 1.00 atmosphere during the experiment.)
- 26.** Confirm that the units of nRT are those of energy for each value of R : (a) $8.31 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K}$, (b) $1.99 \text{ cal/mol} \cdot \text{K}$, and (c) $0.0821 \text{ L} \cdot \text{atm/mol} \cdot \text{K}$.
- 27.** In the text, it was shown that $N/V = 2.68 \times 10^{25} \text{ m}^{-3}$ for gas at STP. (a) Show that this quantity is equivalent to $N/V = 2.68 \times 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, as stated. (b) About how many atoms are there in one μm^3 (a cubic micrometer) at STP? (c) What does your answer to part (b) imply about the separation of atoms and molecules?
- 28.** Calculate the number of moles in the 2.00-L volume of air in the lungs of the average person. Note that the air is at 37.0°C (body temperature).
- 29.** An airplane passenger has 100 cm^3 of air in his stomach just before the plane takes off from a sea-level airport. What volume will the air have at cruising altitude if cabin pressure drops to $7.50 \times 10^4 \text{ N/m}^2$?
- 30.** (a) What is the volume (in km^3) of Avogadro's number of sand grains if each grain is a cube and has sides that are 1.0 mm long? (b) How many kilometers of beaches in length would this cover if the beach averages 100 m in width and 10.0 m in depth? Neglect air spaces between grains.
- 31.** An expensive vacuum system can achieve a pressure as low as $1.00 \times 10^{-7} \text{ N/m}^2$ at 20°C . How many atoms are there in a cubic centimeter at this pressure and temperature?
- 32.** The number density of gas atoms at a certain location in the space above our planet is about $1.00 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}^{-3}$, and the pressure is $2.75 \times 10^{-10} \text{ N/m}^2$ in this space. What is the temperature there?
- 33.** A bicycle tire has a pressure of $7.00 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2$ at a temperature of 18.0°C and contains 2.00 L of gas. What will its pressure be if you let out an amount of air that has a volume of 100 cm^3 at atmospheric pressure? Assume tire temperature and volume remain constant.
- 34.** A high-pressure gas cylinder contains 50.0 L of toxic gas at a pressure of $1.40 \times 10^7 \text{ N/m}^2$ and a temperature of 25.0°C . Its valve leaks after the cylinder is dropped. The cylinder is cooled to dry ice temperature (-78.5°C) to reduce the leak rate and pressure so that it can be safely repaired. (a) What is the final pressure in the tank, assuming a negligible amount of gas leaks while being cooled and that there is no phase change? (b) What is the final pressure if one-tenth of the gas escapes? (c) To what temperature must the tank be cooled to reduce the pressure to 1.00 atm (assuming the gas does not change phase and that there is no leakage during cooling)? (d) Does cooling the tank appear to be a practical solution?
- 35.** Find the number of moles in 2.00 L of gas at 35.0°C and under $7.41 \times 10^7 \text{ N/m}^2$ of pressure.
- 36.** Calculate the depth to which Avogadro's number of table tennis balls would cover Earth. Each ball has a diameter of 3.75 cm. Assume the space between balls adds an extra 25.0% to their volume and assume they are not crushed by their own weight.
- 37.** (a) What is the gauge pressure in a 25.0°C car tire containing 3.60 mol of gas in a 30.0 L volume? (b) What will its gauge pressure be if you add 1.00 L of gas originally at atmospheric pressure and 25.0°C ? Assume the temperature returns to 25.0°C and the volume remains constant.
- 38.** (a) In the deep space between galaxies, the density of atoms is as low as 10^6 atoms/m^3 , and the temperature is a frigid 2.7 K. What is the pressure? (b) What volume (in m^3) is occupied by 1 mol of gas? (c) If this volume is a cube, what is the length of its sides in kilometers?

13.4 Kinetic Theory: Atomic and Molecular Explanation of Pressure and Temperature

- 39.** Some incandescent light bulbs are filled with argon gas. What is v_{rms} for argon atoms near the filament, assuming their temperature is 2500 K?
- 40.** Average atomic and molecular speeds (v_{rms}) are large, even at low temperatures. What is v_{rms} for helium atoms at 5.00 K, just one degree above helium's liquefaction temperature?
- 41.** (a) What is the average kinetic energy in joules of hydrogen atoms on the 5500°C surface of the Sun? (b) What is the average kinetic energy of helium atoms in a region of the solar corona where the temperature is $6.00 \times 10^5 \text{ K}$?

- 42.** The escape velocity of any object from Earth is 11.2 km/s. (a) Express this speed in m/s and km/h. (b) At what temperature would oxygen molecules (molecular mass is equal to 32.0 g/mol) have an average velocity v_{rms} equal to Earth's escape velocity of 11.1 km/s?
- 43.** The escape velocity from the Moon is much smaller than from Earth and is only 2.38 km/s. At what temperature would hydrogen molecules (molecular mass is equal to 2.016 g/mol) have an average velocity v_{rms} equal to the Moon's escape velocity?
- 44.** Nuclear fusion, the energy source of the Sun, hydrogen bombs, and fusion reactors, occurs much more readily when the average kinetic energy of the atoms is high—that is, at high temperatures. Suppose you want the atoms in your fusion experiment to have average kinetic energies of 6.40×10^{-14} J. What temperature is needed?
- 45.** Suppose that the average velocity (v_{rms}) of carbon dioxide molecules (molecular mass is equal to 44.0 g/mol) in a flame is found to be 1.05×10^5 m/s. What temperature does this represent?
- 46.** Hydrogen molecules (molecular mass is equal to 2.016 g/mol) have an average velocity v_{rms} equal to 193 m/s. What is the temperature?
- 47.** Much of the gas near the Sun is atomic hydrogen. Its temperature would have to be 1.5×10^7 K for the average velocity v_{rms} to equal the escape velocity from the Sun. What is that velocity?
- 48.** There are two important isotopes of uranium— ^{235}U and ^{238}U ; these isotopes are nearly identical chemically but have different atomic masses. Only ^{235}U is very useful in nuclear reactors. One of the techniques for separating them (gas diffusion) is based on the different average velocities v_{rms} of uranium hexafluoride gas, UF_6 . (a) The molecular masses for $^{235}\text{U UF}_6$ and $^{238}\text{U UF}_6$ are 349.0 g/mol and 352.0 g/mol, respectively. What is the ratio of their average velocities? (b) At what temperature would their average velocities differ by 1.00 m/s? (c) Do your answers in this problem imply that this technique may be difficult?
- pressure is 1.01×10^5 N/m²?
- 50.** (a) What is the vapor pressure of water at 20.0°C? (b) What percentage of atmospheric pressure does this correspond to? (c) What percent of 20.0°C air is water vapor if it has 100% relative humidity? (The density of dry air at 20.0°C is 1.20 kg/m³.)
- 51.** Pressure cookers increase cooking speed by raising the boiling temperature of water above its value at atmospheric pressure. (a) What pressure is necessary to raise the boiling point to 120.0°C? (b) What gauge pressure does this correspond to?
- 52.** (a) At what temperature does water boil at an altitude of 1500 m (about 5000 ft) on a day when atmospheric pressure is 8.59×10^4 N/m²? (b) What about at an altitude of 3000 m (about 10,000 ft) when atmospheric pressure is 7.00×10^4 N/m²?
- 53.** What is the atmospheric pressure on top of Mt. Everest on a day when water boils there at a temperature of 70.0°C?
- 54.** At a spot in the high Andes, water boils at 80.0°C, greatly reducing the cooking speed of potatoes, for example. What is atmospheric pressure at this location?
- 55.** What is the relative humidity on a 25.0°C day when the air contains 18.0 g/m³ of water vapor?
- 56.** What is the density of water vapor in g/m³ on a hot dry day in the desert when the temperature is 40.0°C and the relative humidity is 6.00%?
- 57.** A deep-sea diver should breathe a gas mixture that has the same oxygen partial pressure as at sea level, where dry air contains 20.9% oxygen and has a total pressure of 1.01×10^5 N/m². (a) What is the partial pressure of oxygen at sea level? (b) If the diver breathes a gas mixture at a pressure of 2.00×10^6 N/m², what percent oxygen should it be to have the same oxygen partial pressure as at sea level?
- 58.** The vapor pressure of water at 40.0°C is 7.34×10^3 N/m². Using the ideal gas law, calculate the density of water vapor in g/m³ that creates a partial pressure equal to this vapor pressure. The result should be the same as the saturation vapor density at that temperature (51.1 g/m³).
- 59.** Air in human lungs has a temperature of 37.0°C and a saturation vapor density of 44.0 g/m³. (a) If

13.6 Humidity, Evaporation, and Boiling

- 49.** Dry air is 78.1% nitrogen. What is the partial pressure of nitrogen when the atmospheric

- 2.00 L of air is exhaled and very dry air inhaled, what is the maximum loss of water vapor by the person? (b) Calculate the partial pressure of water vapor having this density, and compare it with the vapor pressure of $6.31 \times 10^3 \text{ N/m}^2$.
- 60.** If the relative humidity is 90.0% on a muggy summer morning when the temperature is 20.0°C , what will it be later in the day when the temperature is 30.0°C , assuming the water vapor density remains constant?
- 61.** Late on an autumn day, the relative humidity is 45.0% and the temperature is 20.0°C . What will the relative humidity be that evening when the temperature has dropped to 10.0°C , assuming constant water vapor density?
- 62.** Atmospheric pressure atop Mt. Everest is $3.30 \times 10^4 \text{ N/m}^2$. (a) What is the partial pressure of oxygen there if it is 20.9% of the air? (b) What percent oxygen should a mountain climber breathe so that its partial pressure is the same as at sea level, where atmospheric pressure is $1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2$? (c) One of the most severe problems for those climbing very high mountains is the extreme drying of breathing passages. Why does this drying occur?
- 63.** What is the dew point (the temperature at which 100% relative humidity would occur) on a day when relative humidity is 39.0% at a temperature of 20.0°C ?
- 64.** On a certain day, the temperature is 25.0°C and the relative humidity is 90.0%. How many grams of water must condense out of each cubic meter of air if the temperature falls to 15.0°C ? Such a drop in temperature can, thus, produce heavy dew or fog.
- 65. Integrated Concepts**
The boiling point of water increases with depth because pressure increases with depth. At what depth will fresh water have a boiling point of 150°C , if the surface of the water is at sea level?
- 66. Integrated Concepts**
(a) At what depth in fresh water is the critical pressure of water reached, given that the surface is at sea level? (b) At what temperature will this water boil? (c) Is a significantly higher temperature needed to boil water at a greater depth?
- 67. Integrated Concepts**
To get an idea of the small effect that temperature has on Archimedes' principle, calculate the fraction of a copper block's weight that is supported by the buoyant force in 0°C water and compare this fraction with the fraction supported in 95.0°C water.
- 68. Integrated Concepts**
If you want to cook in water at 150°C , you need a pressure cooker that can withstand the necessary pressure. (a) What pressure is required for the boiling point of water to be this high? (b) If the lid of the pressure cooker is a disk 25.0 cm in diameter, what force must it be able to withstand at this pressure?
- 69. Unreasonable Results**
(a) How many moles per cubic meter of an ideal gas are there at a pressure of $1.00 \times 10^{14} \text{ N/m}^2$ and at 0°C ? (b) What is unreasonable about this result? (c) Which premise or assumption is responsible?
- 70. Unreasonable Results**
(a) An automobile mechanic claims that an aluminum rod fits loosely into its hole on an aluminum engine block because the engine is hot and the rod is cold. If the hole is 10.0% bigger in diameter than the 22.0°C rod, at what temperature will the rod be the same size as the hole? (b) What is unreasonable about this temperature? (c) Which premise is responsible?
- 71. Unreasonable Results**
The temperature inside a supernova explosion is said to be $2.00 \times 10^{13} \text{ K}$. (a) What would the average velocity v_{rms} of hydrogen atoms be? (b) What is unreasonable about this velocity? (c) Which premise or assumption is responsible?
- 72. Unreasonable Results**
Suppose the relative humidity is 80% on a day when the temperature is 30.0°C . (a) What will the relative humidity be if the air cools to 25.0°C and the vapor density remains constant? (b) What is unreasonable about this result? (c) Which premise is responsible?

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13.3 The Ideal Gas Law

- 1.** A fixed amount of ideal gas is kept in a container of

fixed volume. The absolute pressure P , in pascals, of the gas is plotted as a function of its temperature

T , in degrees Celsius. Which of the following are properties of a best fit curve to the data? Select *two* answers.

- Having a positive slope
- Passing through the origin
- Having zero pressure at a certain negative temperature
- Approaching zero pressure as temperature approaches infinity

2.

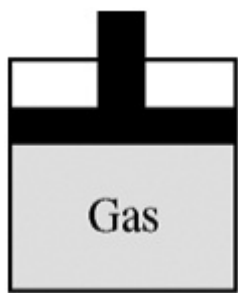


FIGURE 13.34

This figure shows a clear plastic container with a movable piston that contains a fixed amount of gas. A group of students is asked to determine whether the gas is ideal. The students design and conduct an experiment. They measure the three quantities recorded in the data table below.

Trial	Absolute Gas Pressure ($\times 10^5$ Pa)	Volume (m^3)	Temp. (K)		
1	1.1	0.020	270		
2	1.4	0.016	270		
3	1.9	0.012	270		
4	2.2	0.010	270		
5	2.8	0.008	270		
6	1.2	0.020	290		
7	1.5	0.016	290		
8	2.0	0.012	290		
9	2.4	0.010	290		

TABLE 13.6

Trial	Absolute Gas Pressure ($\times 10^5$ Pa)	Volume (m^3)	Temp. (K)		
10	3.0	0.008	290		
11	1.3	0.020	310		
12	1.6	0.016	310		
13	2.1	0.012	310		
14	2.6	0.010	310		
15	3.2	0.008	310		

TABLE 13.6

- Select a set of data points from the table and plot those points on a graph to determine whether the gas exhibits properties of an ideal gas. Fill in blank columns in the table for any quantities you graph other than the given data. Label the axes and indicate the scale for each. Draw a best-fit line or curve through your data points.
- Indicate whether the gas exhibits properties of an ideal gas, and explain what characteristic of your graph provides the evidence.
- The students repeat their experiment with an identical container that contains half as much gas. They take data for the same values of volume and temperature as in the table. Would the new data result in a different conclusion about whether the gas is ideal? Justify your answer in terms of interactions between the molecules of the gas and the container walls.

13.4 Kinetic Theory: Atomic and Molecular Explanation of Pressure and Temperature

- Two samples of ideal gas in separate containers have the same number of molecules and the same temperature, but the molecular mass of gas X is greater than that of gas Y. Which of the following correctly compares the average speed of the molecules of the gases and the average force the gases exert on their respective containers?

	Average Speed of Molecules	Average Force on Container
(a)	Greater for gas X	Greater for gas X
(b)	Greater for gas X	The forces cannot be compared without knowing the volumes of the gases.
(c)	Greater for gas Y	Greater for gas Y
(d)	Greater for gas Y	The forces cannot be compared without knowing the volumes of the gases.

TABLE 13.7

4. How will the average kinetic energy of a gas molecule change if its temperature is increased from 20°C to 313°C?
- It will become sixteen times its original value.
 - It will become four times its original value
 - It will become double its original value
 - It will remain unchanged.
5. This graph shows the Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution of molecular speeds in an ideal gas for two temperatures, T_1 and T_2 . Which of the following statements is false?
- T_1 is lower than T_2
 - The *rms* speed at T_1 is higher than that at T_2 .
 - The peak of each graph shows the most probable speed at the corresponding temperature.
 - None of the above.
6. Suppose you have gas in a cylinder with a movable piston which has an area of 0.40 m². The pressure of the gas is 150 Pa when the height of the piston is 0.02 m. Find the force exerted by the gas on the piston. How does this force change if the piston is moved to a height of 0.03 m? Assume temperature remains constant.
7. What is the average kinetic energy of a nitrogen molecule (N₂) if its *rms* speed is 560 m/s? At what temperature is this *rms* speed achieved?
8. What will be the ratio of kinetic energies and *rms* speeds of a nitrogen molecule and a helium atom at the same temperature?

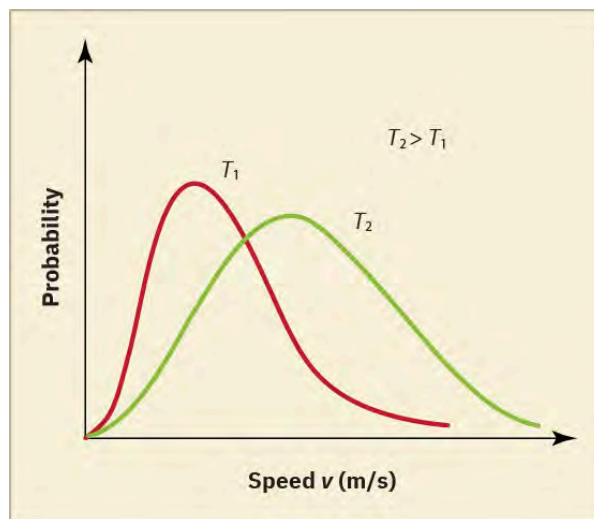


FIGURE 13.35

Glossary

axions a type of WIMPs having masses about 10^{-10} of an electron mass

Big Bang a gigantic explosion that threw out matter a few billion years ago

black holes objects having such large gravitational fields that things can fall in, but nothing, not even light, can escape

chaos word used to describe systems the outcomes of which are extremely sensitive to initial conditions

complexity an emerging field devoted to the study of complex systems

cosmic microwave background the spectrum of microwave radiation of cosmic origin

cosmological constant a theoretical construct intimately related to the expansion and closure of the universe

cosmological red shift the photon wavelength is stretched in transit from the source to the observer because of the expansion of space itself

cosmology the study of the character and evolution of the universe

critical density the density of matter needed to just halt universal expansion

critical temperature the temperature at which and below which a material becomes a superconductor

dark matter indirectly observed non-luminous matter

electroweak epoch the stage before 10^{-11} back to 10^{-34} after the Big Bang

escape velocity takeoff velocity when kinetic energy just cancels gravitational potential energy

event horizon the distance from the object at which the escape velocity is exactly the speed of light

flat (zero curvature) universe a universe that is infinite but not curved

general relativity Einstein's theory that describes all types of relative motion including accelerated motion and the effects of gravity

gravitational waves mass-created distortions in space that propagate at the speed of light and that are predicted by general relativity

GUT epoch the time period from 10^{-43} to 10^{-34} after the Big Bang, when Grand Unification Theory, in which all forces except gravity are identical, governed the universe

Hubble constant a central concept in cosmology

whose value is determined by taking the slope of a graph of velocity versus distance, obtained from red shift measurements

inflationary scenario the rapid expansion of the universe by an incredible factor of 10^{-50} for the brief time from 10^{-35} to about 10^{-32} s

MACHOs massive compact halo objects; microlensing objects of huge mass

microlensing a process in which light from a distant star is focused and the star appears to brighten in a characteristic manner, when a small body (smaller than about 1/1000 the mass of the Sun) passes between us and the star

negatively curved an open universe that expands forever

neutralinos a type of WIMPs having masses several orders of magnitude greater than nucleon masses

neutrino oscillations a process in which any type of neutrino could change spontaneously into any other

neutron stars literally a star composed of neutrons

positively curved a universe that is closed and eventually contracts

Quantum gravity the theory that deals with particle exchange of gravitons as the mechanism for the force

quasars the moderately distant galaxies that emit as much or more energy than a normal galaxy

Schwarzschild radius the radius of the event horizon

spontaneous symmetry breaking the transition from GUT to electroweak where the forces were no longer unified

Superconductors materials with resistivity of zero

superforce hypothetical unified force in TOE epoch

Superstring theory a theory to unify gravity with the other three forces in which the fundamental particles are considered to act like one-dimensional vibrating strings

thought experiment mental analysis of certain carefully and clearly defined situations to develop an idea

TOE epoch before 10^{-43} after the Big Bang

WIMPs weakly interacting massive particles; chargeless leptons (non-baryonic matter) interacting negligibly with normal matter

Section Summary

34.1 Cosmology and Particle Physics

- Cosmology is the study of the character and evolution of the universe.
- The two most important features of the universe

are the cosmological red shifts of its galaxies being proportional to distance and its cosmic microwave background (CMBR). Both support the notion that there was a gigantic explosion, known as the Big Bang that created the universe.

- Galaxies farther away than our local group have, on an average, a recessional velocity given by $v = H_0 d$, where d is the distance to the galaxy and H_0 is the Hubble constant, taken to have the average value $H_0 = 20 \text{ km/s} \cdot \text{Mly}$.
- Explanations of the large-scale characteristics of the universe are intimately tied to particle physics.
- The dominance of matter over antimatter and the smoothness of the CMBR are two characteristics that are tied to particle physics.
- The epochs of the universe are known back to very shortly after the Big Bang, based on known laws of physics.
- The earliest epochs are tied to the unification of forces, with the electroweak epoch being partially understood, the GUT epoch being speculative, and the TOE epoch being highly speculative since it involves an unknown single superforce.
- The transition from GUT to electroweak is called spontaneous symmetry breaking. It released energy that caused the inflationary scenario, which in turn explains the smoothness of the CMBR.

34.2 General Relativity and Quantum Gravity

- Einstein's theory of general relativity includes accelerated frames and, thus, encompasses special relativity and gravity. Created by use of careful thought experiments, it has been repeatedly verified by real experiments.
- One direct result of this behavior of nature is the gravitational lensing of light by massive objects, such as galaxies, also seen in the microlensing of light by smaller bodies in our galaxy.
- Another prediction is the existence of black holes, objects for which the escape velocity is greater than the speed of light and from which nothing can escape.
- The event horizon is the distance from the object at which the escape velocity equals the speed of light c . It is called the Schwarzschild radius R_S and is given by
$$R_S = \frac{2GM}{c^2},$$
 where G is the universal gravitational constant, and M is the mass of the body.
- Physics is unknown inside the event horizon, and the possibility of wormholes and time travel are being studied.
- Candidates for black holes may power the extremely energetic emissions of quasars, distant objects that seem to be early stages of galactic evolution.
- Neutron stars are stellar remnants, having the density of a nucleus, that hint that black holes could form from supernovas, too.
- Gravitational waves are wrinkles in space, predicted by general relativity but not yet observed, caused by changes in very massive objects.
- Quantum gravity is an incompletely developed theory that strives to include general relativity, quantum mechanics, and unification of forces (thus, a TOE).
- One unconfirmed connection between general relativity and quantum mechanics is the prediction of characteristic radiation from just outside black holes.

34.3 Superstrings

- Superstring theory holds that fundamental particles are one-dimensional vibrations analogous to those on strings and is an attempt at a theory of quantum gravity.

34.4 Dark Matter and Closure

- Dark matter is non-luminous matter detected in and around galaxies and galactic clusters.
- It may be 10 times the mass of the luminous matter in the universe, and its amount may determine whether the universe is open or closed (expands forever or eventually stops).
- The determining factor is the critical density of the universe and the cosmological constant, a theoretical construct intimately related to the expansion and closure of the universe.
- The critical density ρ_c is the density needed to just halt universal expansion. It is estimated to be approximately 10^{-26} kg/m^3 .
- An open universe is negatively curved, a closed universe is positively curved, whereas a universe with exactly the critical density is flat.
- Dark matter's composition is a major mystery, but it may be due to the suspected mass of neutrinos or a completely unknown type of leptonic matter.
- If neutrinos have mass, they will change families, a process known as neutrino oscillations, for which there is growing evidence.

34.5 Complexity and Chaos

- Complexity is an emerging field, rooted primarily in physics, that considers complex adaptive systems and their evolution, including self-organization.
- Complexity has applications in physics and many

- other disciplines, such as biological evolution.
- Chaos is a field that studies systems whose properties depend extremely sensitively on some variables and whose evolution is impossible to predict.
- Chaotic systems may be simple or complex.
- Studies of chaos have led to methods for understanding and predicting certain chaotic behaviors.

34.6 High-temperature Superconductors

- High-temperature superconductors are materials that become superconducting at temperatures well above a few kelvin.
- The critical temperature T_c is the temperature below which a material is superconducting.

Conceptual Questions

34.1 Cosmology and Particle Physics

- Explain why it only *appears* that we are at the center of expansion of the universe and why an observer in another galaxy would see the same relative motion of all but the closest galaxies away from her.
- If there is no observable edge to the universe, can we determine where its center of expansion is? Explain.
- If the universe is infinite, does it have a center? Discuss.
- Another known cause of red shift in light is the source being in a high gravitational field. Discuss how this can be eliminated as the source of galactic red shifts, given that the shifts are proportional to distance and not to the size of the galaxy.
- If some unknown cause of red shift—such as light becoming “tired” from traveling long distances through empty space—is discovered, what effect would there be on cosmology?
- Olbers’s paradox poses an interesting question: If the universe is infinite, then any line of sight should eventually fall on a star’s surface. Why then is the sky dark at night? Discuss the commonly accepted evolution of the universe as a solution to this paradox.
- If the cosmic microwave background radiation (CMBR) is the remnant of the Big Bang’s fireball, we expect to see hot and cold regions in it. What are two causes of these wrinkles in the CMBR? Are the observed temperature variations greater or less than originally expected?

- Some high-temperature superconductors have verified T_c ’s above 125 K, and there are reports of T_c ’s as high as 250 K.

34.7 Some Questions We Know to Ask

- On the largest scale, the questions which can be asked may be about dark matter, dark energy, black holes, quasars, and other aspects of the universe.
- On the intermediate scale, we can query about gravity, phase transitions, nonlinear phenomena, high- T_c superconductors, and magnetic effects on materials.
- On the smallest scale, questions may be about quarks and leptons, fundamental forces, stability of protons, and existence of monopoles.

- The decay of one type of K -meson is cited as evidence that nature favors matter over antimatter. Since mesons are composed of a quark and an antiquark, is it surprising that they would preferentially decay to one type over another? Is this an asymmetry in nature? Is the predominance of matter over antimatter an asymmetry?
- Distances to local galaxies are determined by measuring the brightness of stars, called Cepheid variables, that can be observed individually and that have absolute brightnesses at a standard distance that are well known. Explain how the measured brightness would vary with distance as compared with the absolute brightness.
- Distances to very remote galaxies are estimated based on their apparent type, which indicate the number of stars in the galaxy, and their measured brightness. Explain how the measured brightness would vary with distance. Would there be any correction necessary to compensate for the red shift of the galaxy (all distant galaxies have significant red shifts)? Discuss possible causes of uncertainties in these measurements.
- If the smallest meaningful time interval is greater than zero, will the lines in [Figure 34.9](#) ever meet?

34.2 General Relativity and Quantum Gravity

- Quantum gravity, if developed, would be an improvement on both general relativity and quantum mechanics, but more mathematically difficult. Under what circumstances would it be necessary to use quantum gravity? Similarly,

under what circumstances could general relativity be used? When could special relativity, quantum mechanics, or classical physics be used?

13. Does observed gravitational lensing correspond to a converging or diverging lens? Explain briefly.
14. Suppose you measure the red shifts of all the images produced by gravitational lensing, such as in [Figure 34.12](#). You find that the central image has a red shift less than the outer images, and those all have the same red shift. Discuss how this not only shows that the images are of the same object, but also implies that the red shift is not affected by taking different paths through space. Does it imply that cosmological red shifts are not caused by traveling through space (light getting tired, perhaps)?
15. What are gravitational waves, and have they yet been observed either directly or indirectly?
16. Is the event horizon of a black hole the actual physical surface of the object?
17. Suppose black holes radiate their mass away and the lifetime of a black hole created by a supernova is about 10^{67} years. How does this lifetime compare with the accepted age of the universe? Is it surprising that we do not observe the predicted characteristic radiation?

34.4 Dark Matter and Closure

18. Discuss the possibility that star velocities at the edges of galaxies being greater than expected is due to unknown properties of gravity rather than to the existence of dark matter. Would this mean, for example, that gravity is greater or smaller than expected at large distances? Are there other tests that could be made of gravity at large distances, such as observing the motions of neighboring galaxies?
19. How does relativistic time dilation prohibit neutrino oscillations if they are massless?
20. If neutrino oscillations do occur, will they violate conservation of the various lepton family numbers (L_e , L_μ , and L_τ)? Will neutrino oscillations violate conservation of the total number of leptons?

Problems & Exercises

34.1 Cosmology and Particle Physics

1. Find the approximate mass of the luminous matter in the Milky Way galaxy, given it has approximately

21. Lacking direct evidence of WIMPs as dark matter, why must we eliminate all other possible explanations based on the known forms of matter before we invoke their existence?

34.5 Complexity and Chaos

22. Must a complex system be adaptive to be of interest in the field of complexity? Give an example to support your answer.
23. State a necessary condition for a system to be chaotic.

34.6 High-temperature Superconductors

24. What is critical temperature T_c ? Do all materials have a critical temperature? Explain why or why not.
25. Explain how good thermal contact with liquid nitrogen can keep objects at a temperature of 77 K (liquid nitrogen's boiling point at atmospheric pressure).
26. Not only is liquid nitrogen a cheaper coolant than liquid helium, its boiling point is higher (77 K vs. 4.2 K). How does higher temperature help lower the cost of cooling a material? Explain in terms of the rate of heat transfer being related to the temperature difference between the sample and its surroundings.

34.7 Some Questions We Know to Ask

27. For experimental evidence, particularly of previously unobserved phenomena, to be taken seriously it must be reproducible or of sufficiently high quality that a single observation is meaningful. Supernova 1987A is not reproducible. How do we know observations of it were valid? The fifth force is not broadly accepted. Is this due to lack of reproducibility or poor-quality experiments (or both)? Discuss why forefront experiments are more subject to observational problems than those involving established phenomena.
28. Discuss whether you think there are limits to what humans can understand about the laws of physics. Support your arguments.

10^{11} stars of average mass 1.5 times that of our Sun.

2. Find the approximate mass of the dark and

luminous matter in the Milky Way galaxy. Assume the luminous matter is due to approximately 10^{11} stars of average mass 1.5 times that of our Sun, and take the dark matter to be 10 times as massive as the luminous matter.

3. (a) Estimate the mass of the luminous matter in the known universe, given there are 10^{11} galaxies, each containing 10^{11} stars of average mass 1.5 times that of our Sun. (b) How many protons (the most abundant nuclide) are there in this mass? (c) Estimate the total number of particles in the observable universe by multiplying the answer to (b) by two, since there is an electron for each proton, and then by 10^9 , since there are far more particles (such as photons and neutrinos) in space than in luminous matter.
4. If a galaxy is 500 Mly away from us, how fast do we expect it to be moving and in what direction?
5. On average, how far away are galaxies that are moving away from us at 2.0% of the speed of light?
6. Our solar system orbits the center of the Milky Way galaxy. Assuming a circular orbit 30,000 ly in radius and an orbital speed of 250 km/s, how many years does it take for one revolution? Note that this is approximate, assuming constant speed and circular orbit, but it is representative of the time for our system and local stars to make one revolution around the galaxy.
7. (a) What is the approximate speed relative to us of a galaxy near the edge of the known universe, some 10 Gly away? (b) What fraction of the speed of light is this? Note that we have observed galaxies moving away from us at greater than $0.9c$.
8. (a) Calculate the approximate age of the universe from the average value of the Hubble constant, $H_0 = 20 \text{ km/s} \cdot \text{Mly}$. To do this, calculate the time it would take to travel 1 Mly at a constant expansion rate of 20 km/s. (b) If deceleration is taken into account, would the actual age of the universe be greater or less than that found here? Explain.
9. Assuming a circular orbit for the Sun about the center of the Milky Way galaxy, calculate its orbital speed using the following information: The mass of the galaxy is equivalent to a single mass 1.5×10^{11} times that of the Sun (or $3 \times 10^{41} \text{ kg}$), located 30,000 ly away.
10. (a) What is the approximate force of gravity on a 70-kg person due to the Andromeda galaxy, assuming its total mass is 10^{13} that of our Sun

and acts like a single mass 2 Mly away? (b) What is the ratio of this force to the person's weight? Note that Andromeda is the closest large galaxy.

11. Andromeda galaxy is the closest large galaxy and is visible to the naked eye. Estimate its brightness relative to the Sun, assuming it has luminosity 10^{12} times that of the Sun and lies 2 Mly away.
12. (a) A particle and its antiparticle are at rest relative to an observer and annihilate (completely destroying both masses), creating two γ rays of equal energy. What is the characteristic γ -ray energy you would look for if searching for evidence of proton-antiproton annihilation? (The fact that such radiation is rarely observed is evidence that there is very little antimatter in the universe.) (b) How does this compare with the 0.511-MeV energy associated with electron-positron annihilation?
13. The average particle energy needed to observe unification of forces is estimated to be 10^{19} GeV . (a) What is the rest mass in kilograms of a particle that has a rest mass of $10^{19} \text{ GeV}/c^2$? (b) How many times the mass of a hydrogen atom is this?
14. The peak intensity of the CMBR occurs at a wavelength of 1.1 mm. (a) What is the energy in eV of a 1.1-mm photon? (b) There are approximately 10^9 photons for each massive particle in deep space. Calculate the energy of 10^9 such photons. (c) If the average massive particle in space has a mass half that of a proton, what energy would be created by converting its mass to energy? (d) Does this imply that space is "matter dominated"? Explain briefly.
15. (a) What Hubble constant corresponds to an approximate age of the universe of 10^{10} y ? To get an approximate value, assume the expansion rate is constant and calculate the speed at which two galaxies must move apart to be separated by 1 Mly (present average galactic separation) in a time of 10^{10} y . (b) Similarly, what Hubble constant corresponds to a universe approximately 2×10^{10} -y old?
16. Show that the velocity of a star orbiting its galaxy in a circular orbit is inversely proportional to the square root of its orbital radius, assuming the mass of the stars inside its orbit acts like a single mass at the center of the galaxy. You may use an equation from a previous chapter to support your conclusion, but you must justify its use and define all terms used.

- 17.** The core of a star collapses during a supernova, forming a neutron star. Angular momentum of the core is conserved, and so the neutron star spins rapidly. If the initial core radius is 5.0×10^5 km and it collapses to 10.0 km, find the neutron star's angular velocity in revolutions per second, given the core's angular velocity was originally 1 revolution per 30.0 days.
- 18.** Using data from the previous problem, find the increase in rotational kinetic energy, given the core's mass is 1.3 times that of our Sun. Where does this increase in kinetic energy come from?
- 19.** Distances to the nearest stars (up to 500 ly away) can be measured by a technique called parallax, as shown in [Figure 34.26](#). What are the angles θ_1 and θ_2 relative to the plane of the Earth's orbit for a star 4.0 ly directly above the Sun?
- 20.** (a) Use the Heisenberg uncertainty principle to calculate the uncertainty in energy for a corresponding time interval of 10^{-43} s. (b) Compare this energy with the 10^{19} GeV unification-of-forces energy and discuss why they are similar.
- 21. Construct Your Own Problem**
Consider a star moving in a circular orbit at the edge of a galaxy. Construct a problem in which you calculate the mass of that galaxy in kg and in multiples of the solar mass based on the velocity of the star and its distance from the center of the galaxy.

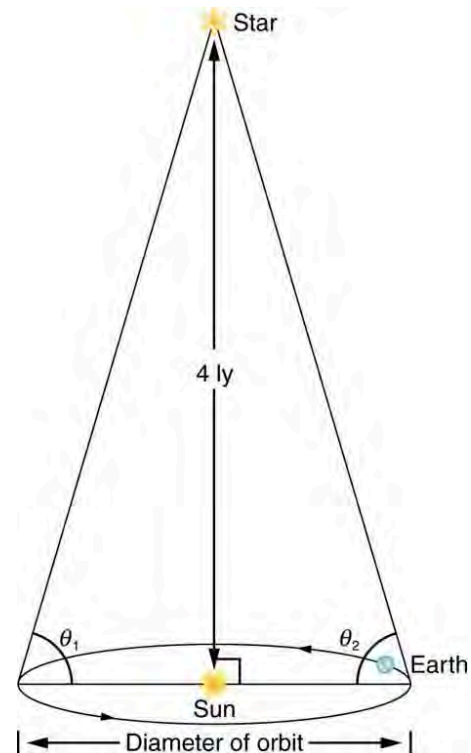


FIGURE 34.26 Distances to nearby stars are measured using triangulation, also called the parallax method. The angle of line of sight to the star is measured at intervals six months apart, and the distance is calculated by using the known diameter of the Earth's orbit. This can be done for stars up to about 500 ly away.

34.2 General Relativity and Quantum Gravity

- 22.** What is the Schwarzschild radius of a black hole that has a mass eight times that of our Sun? Note that stars must be more massive than the Sun to form black holes as a result of a supernova.
- 23.** Black holes with masses smaller than those formed in supernovas may have been created in the Big Bang. Calculate the radius of one that has a mass equal to the Earth's.
- 24.** Supermassive black holes are thought to exist at the center of many galaxies.
(a) What is the radius of such an object if it has a mass of 10^9 Suns?
(b) What is this radius in light years?
- 25. Construct Your Own Problem**
Consider a supermassive black hole near the center of a galaxy. Calculate the radius of such an object based on its mass. You must consider how much mass is reasonable for these large objects, and which is now nearly directly observed. (Information on black holes posted on the Web by NASA and other agencies is reliable, for example.)

34.3 Superstrings

- 26.** The characteristic length of entities in Superstring theory is approximately 10^{-35} m.
- Find the energy in GeV of a photon of this wavelength.
 - Compare this with the average particle energy of 10^{19} GeV needed for unification of forces.

34.4 Dark Matter and Closure

- 27.** If the dark matter in the Milky Way were composed entirely of MACHOs (evidence shows it is not), approximately how many would there have to be? Assume the average mass of a MACHO is 1/1000 that of the Sun, and that dark matter has a mass 10 times that of the luminous Milky Way galaxy with its 10^{11} stars of average mass 1.5 times the Sun's mass.
- 28.** The critical mass density needed to just halt the expansion of the universe is approximately 10^{-26} kg/m³.
- Convert this to $\text{eV}/c^2 \cdot \text{m}^3$.
 - Find the number of neutrinos per cubic meter needed to close the universe if their average mass is $7 \text{ eV}/c^2$ and they have negligible kinetic energies.
- 29.** Assume the average density of the universe is 0.1 of the critical density needed for closure. What is the average number of protons per cubic meter, assuming the universe is composed mostly of hydrogen?
- 30.** To get an idea of how empty deep space is on the average, perform the following calculations:
- Find the volume our Sun would occupy if it had an average density equal to the critical density of

10^{-26} kg/m^3 thought necessary to halt the expansion of the universe.

- Find the radius of a sphere of this volume in light years.
- What would this radius be if the density were that of luminous matter, which is approximately 5% that of the critical density?
- Compare the radius found in part (c) with the 4-ly average separation of stars in the arms of the Milky Way.

34.6 High-temperature Superconductors

- 31.** A section of superconducting wire carries a current of 100 A and requires 1.00 L of liquid nitrogen per hour to keep it below its critical temperature. For it to be economically advantageous to use a superconducting wire, the cost of cooling the wire must be less than the cost of energy lost to heat in the wire. Assume that the cost of liquid nitrogen is \$0.30 per liter, and that electric energy costs \$0.10 per kW·h. What is the resistance of a normal wire that costs as much in wasted electric energy as the cost of liquid nitrogen for the superconductor?
- 32.** Critical Thinking Assume two galaxies are 2.00×10^2 Mly apart. (a) How fast are they separating due to space expansion? (b) Now suppose a third galaxy is located 2.00×10^2 Mly along a line that is a perpendicular bisector of the line segment between the first two galaxies. How fast is this galaxy separating from either of the other two galaxies? (c) Why would the third galaxy appear to be receding from both of the initially mentioned galaxies at the same rate? (d) How would the apparent motion be detected?

APPENDIX A

Atomic Masses

Atomic Number, Z	Name	Atomic Mass Number, A	Symbol	Atomic Mass (u)	Percent Abundance or Decay Mode	Half-life, t _{1/2}
0	neutron	1	<i>n</i>	1.008 665	β^-	10.37 min
1	Hydrogen	1	¹ H	1.007 825	99.985%	
	Deuterium	2	² H or D	2.014 102	0.015%	
	Tritium	3	³ H or T	3.016 050	β^-	12.33 y
2	Helium	3	³ He	3.016 030	1.38 × 10 ⁻⁴ %	
		4	⁴ He	4.002 603	≈100%	
3	Lithium	6	⁶ Li	6.015 121	7.5%	
		7	⁷ Li	7.016 003	92.5%	
4	Beryllium	7	⁷ Be	7.016 928	EC	53.29 d
		9	⁹ Be	9.012 182	100%	
5	Boron	10	¹⁰ B	10.012 937	19.9%	
		11	¹¹ B	11.009 305	80.1%	
6	Carbon	11	¹¹ C	11.011 432	EC, β^+	

TABLE A1 Atomic Masses

Atomic Number, Z	Name	Atomic Mass Number, A	Symbol	Atomic Mass (u)	Percent Abundance or Decay Mode	Half-life, $t_{1/2}$
		12	^{12}C	12.000 000	98.90%	
		13	^{13}C	13.003 355	1.10%	
		14	^{14}C	14.003 241	β^-	5730 y
7	Nitrogen	13	^{13}N	13.005 738	β^+	9.96 min
		14	^{14}N	14.003 074	99.63%	
		15	^{15}N	15.000 108	0.37%	
8	Oxygen	15	^{15}O	15.003 065	EC, β^+	122 s
		16	^{16}O	15.994 915	99.76%	
		18	^{18}O	17.999 160	0.200%	
9	Fluorine	18	^{18}F	18.000 937	EC, β^+	1.83 h
		19	^{19}F	18.998 403	100%	
10	Neon	20	^{20}Ne	19.992 435	90.51%	
		22	^{22}Ne	21.991 383	9.22%	
11	Sodium	22	^{22}Na	21.994 434	β^+	2.602 y
		23	^{23}Na	22.989 767	100%	

TABLE A1 Atomic Masses

Atomic Number, Z	Name	Atomic Mass Number, A	Symbol	Atomic Mass (u)	Percent Abundance or Decay Mode	Half-life, $t_{1/2}$
		24	^{24}Na	23.990 961	β^-	14.96 h
12	Magnesium	24	^{24}Mg	23.985 042	78.99%	
13	Aluminum	27	^{27}Al	26.981 539	100%	
14	Silicon	28	^{28}Si	27.976 927	92.23%	2.62h
		31	^{31}Si	30.975 362	β^-	
15	Phosphorus	31	^{31}P	30.973 762	100%	
		32	^{32}P	31.973 907	β^-	14.28 d
16	Sulfur	32	^{32}S	31.972 070	95.02%	
		35	^{35}S	34.969 031	β^-	87.4 d
17	Chlorine	35	^{35}Cl	34.968 852	75.77%	
		37	^{37}Cl	36.965 903	24.23%	
18	Argon	40	^{40}Ar	39.962 384	99.60%	
19	Potassium	39	^{39}K	38.963 707	93.26%	
		40	^{40}K	39.963 999	0.0117%, EC, β^-	$1.28 \times 10^9 \text{ y}$
20	Calcium	40	^{40}Ca	39.962 591	96.94%	

TABLE A1 Atomic Masses

Atomic Number, Z	Name	Atomic Mass Number, A	Symbol	Atomic Mass (u)	Percent Abundance or Decay Mode	Half-life, $t_{1/2}$
21	Scandium	45	^{45}Sc	44.955 910	100%	
22	Titanium	48	^{48}Ti	47.947 947	73.8%	
23	Vanadium	51	^{51}V	50.943 962	99.75%	
24	Chromium	52	^{52}Cr	51.940 509	83.79%	
25	Manganese	55	^{55}Mn	54.938 047	100%	
26	Iron	56	^{56}Fe	55.934 939	91.72%	
27	Cobalt	59	^{59}Co	58.933 198	100%	
		60	^{60}Co	59.933 819	β^-	5.271 y
28	Nickel	58	^{58}Ni	57.935 346	68.27%	
		60	^{60}Ni	59.930 788	26.10%	
29	Copper	63	^{63}Cu	62.939 598	69.17%	
		65	^{65}Cu	64.927 793	30.83%	
30	Zinc	64	^{64}Zn	63.929 145	48.6%	
		66	^{66}Zn	65.926 034	27.9%	
31	Gallium	69	^{69}Ga	68.925 580	60.1%	

TABLE A1 Atomic Masses

Atomic Number, Z	Name	Atomic Mass Number, A	Symbol	Atomic Mass (u)	Percent Abundance or Decay Mode	Half-life, $t_{1/2}$
32	Germanium	72	^{72}Ge	71.922 079	27.4%	
		74	^{74}Ge	73.921 177	36.5%	
33	Arsenic	75	^{75}As	74.921 594	100%	
34	Selenium	80	^{80}Se	79.916 520	49.7%	
35	Bromine	79	^{79}Br	78.918 336	50.69%	
36	Krypton	84	^{84}Kr	83.911 507	57.0%	
37	Rubidium	85	^{85}Rb	84.911 794	72.17%	
38	Strontium	86	^{86}Sr	85.909 267	9.86%	
		88	^{88}Sr	87.905 619	82.58%	
		90	^{90}Sr	89.907 738	β^-	28.8 y
39	Yttrium	89	^{89}Y	88.905 849	100%	
		90	^{90}Y	89.907 152	β^-	64.1 h
40	Zirconium	90	^{90}Zr	89.904 703	51.45%	
41	Niobium	93	^{93}Nb	92.906 377	100%	
42	Molybdenum	98	^{98}Mo	97.905 406	24.13%	

TABLE A1 Atomic Masses

Atomic Number, Z	Name	Atomic Mass Number, A	Symbol	Atomic Mass (u)	Percent Abundance or Decay Mode	Half-life, $t_{1/2}$
43	Technetium	98	^{98}Tc	97.907 215	β^-	$4.2 \times 10^6 \text{ y}$
44	Ruthenium	102	^{102}Ru	101.904 348	31.6%	
45	Rhodium	103	^{103}Rh	102.905 500	100%	
46	Palladium	106	^{106}Pd	105.903 478	27.33%	
47	Silver	107	^{107}Ag	106.905 092	51.84%	
		109	^{109}Ag	108.904 757	48.16%	
48	Cadmium	114	^{114}Cd	113.903 357	28.73%	
49	Indium	115	^{115}In	114.903 880	95.7%, β^-	$4.4 \times 10^{14} \text{ y}$
50	Tin	120	^{120}Sn	119.902 200	32.59%	
51	Antimony	121	^{121}Sb	120.903 821	57.3%	
52	Tellurium	130	^{130}Te	129.906 229	33.8%, β^-	$2.5 \times 10^{21} \text{ y}$
53	Iodine	127	^{127}I	126.904 473	100%	
		131	^{131}I	130.906 114	β^-	8.040 d
54	Xenon	132	^{132}Xe	131.904 144	26.9%	
		136	^{136}Xe	135.907 214	8.9%	

TABLE A1 Atomic Masses

Atomic Number, Z	Name	Atomic Mass Number, A	Symbol	Atomic Mass (u)	Percent Abundance or Decay Mode	Half-life, $t_{1/2}$
55	Cesium	133	^{133}Cs	132.905 429	100%	
		134	^{134}Cs	133.906 696	EC, β^-	2.06 y
56	Barium	137	^{137}Ba	136.905 812	11.23%	
		138	^{138}Ba	137.905 232	71.70%	
57	Lanthanum	139	^{139}La	138.906 346	99.91%	
58	Cerium	140	^{140}Ce	139.905 433	88.48%	
59	Praseodymium	141	^{141}Pr	140.907 647	100%	
60	Neodymium	142	^{142}Nd	141.907 719	27.13%	
61	Promethium	145	^{145}Pm	144.912 743	EC, α	17.7 y
62	Samarium	152	^{152}Sm	151.919 729	26.7%	
63	Europium	153	^{153}Eu	152.921 225	52.2%	
64	Gadolinium	158	^{158}Gd	157.924 099	24.84%	
65	Terbium	159	^{159}Tb	158.925 342	100%	
66	Dysprosium	164	^{164}Dy	163.929 171	28.2%	
67	Holmium	165	^{165}Ho	164.930 319	100%	

TABLE A1 Atomic Masses

Atomic Number, Z	Name	Atomic Mass Number, A	Symbol	Atomic Mass (u)	Percent Abundance or Decay Mode	Half-life, $t_{1/2}$
68	Erbium	166	^{166}Er	165.930 290	33.6%	
69	Thulium	169	^{169}Tm	168.934 212	100%	
70	Ytterbium	174	^{174}Yb	173.938 859	31.8%	
71	Lutecium	175	^{175}Lu	174.940 770	97.41%	
72	Hafnium	180	^{180}Hf	179.946 545	35.10%	
73	Tantalum	181	^{181}Ta	180.947 992	99.98%	
74	Tungsten	184	^{184}W	183.950 928	30.67%	
75	Rhenium	187	^{187}Re	186.955 744	62.6%, β^-	$4.6 \times 10^{10}\text{y}$
76	Osmium	191	^{191}Os	190.960 920	β^-	15.4 d
		192	^{192}Os	191.961 467	41.0%	
77	Iridium	191	^{191}Ir	190.960 584	37.3%	
		193	^{193}Ir	192.962 917	62.7%	
78	Platinum	195	^{195}Pt	194.964 766	33.8%	
79	Gold	197	^{197}Au	196.966 543	100%	
		198	^{198}Au	197.968 217	β^-	2.696 d

TABLE A1 Atomic Masses

Atomic Number, Z	Name	Atomic Mass Number, A	Symbol	Atomic Mass (u)	Percent Abundance or Decay Mode	Half-life, $t_{1/2}$
80	Mercury	199	^{199}Hg	198.968 253	16.87%	
		202	^{202}Hg	201.970 617	29.86%	
81	Thallium	205	^{205}Tl	204.974 401	70.48%	
82	Lead	206	^{206}Pb	205.974 440	24.1%	
		207	^{207}Pb	206.975 872	22.1%	
		208	^{208}Pb	207.976 627	52.4%	
		210	^{210}Pb	209.984 163	α, β^-	22.3 y
		211	^{211}Pb	210.988 735	β^-	36.1 min
		212	^{212}Pb	211.991 871	β^-	10.64 h
83	Bismuth	209	^{209}Bi	208.980 374	100%	
		211	^{211}Bi	210.987 255	α, β^-	2.14 min
84	Polonium	210	^{210}Po	209.982 848	α	138.38 d
85	Astatine	218	^{218}At	218.008 684	α, β^-	1.6 s
86	Radon	222	^{222}Rn	222.017 570	α	3.82 d
87	Francium	223	^{223}Fr	223.019 733	α, β^-	21.8 min

TABLE A1 Atomic Masses

Atomic Number, Z	Name	Atomic Mass Number, A	Symbol	Atomic Mass (u)	Percent Abundance or Decay Mode	Half-life, $t_{1/2}$
88	Radium	226	^{226}Ra	226.025 402	α	$1.60 \times 10^3 \text{ y}$
89	Actinium	227	^{227}Ac	227.027 750	α, β^-	21.8 y
90	Thorium	228	^{228}Th	228.028 715	α	1.91 y
		232	^{232}Th	232.038 054	100%, α	$1.41 \times 10^{10} \text{ y}$
91	Protactinium	231	^{231}Pa	231.035 880	α	$3.28 \times 10^4 \text{ y}$
92	Uranium	233	^{233}U	233.039 628	α	$1.59 \times 10^3 \text{ y}$
		235	^{235}U	235.043 924	0.720%, α	$7.04 \times 10^8 \text{ y}$
		236	^{236}U	236.045 562	α	$2.34 \times 10^7 \text{ y}$
		238	^{238}U	238.050 784	99.2745%, α	$4.47 \times 10^9 \text{ y}$
		239	^{239}U	239.054 289	β^-	23.5 min
93	Neptunium	239	^{239}Np	239.052 933	β^-	2.355 d
94	Plutonium	239	^{239}Pu	239.052 157	α	$2.41 \times 10^4 \text{ y}$
95	Americium	243	^{243}Am	243.061 375	α , fission	$7.37 \times 10^3 \text{ y}$
96	Curium	245	^{245}Cm	245.065 483	α	$8.50 \times 10^3 \text{ y}$
97	Berkelium	247	^{247}Bk	247.070 300	α	$1.38 \times 10^3 \text{ y}$

TABLE A1 Atomic Masses

Atomic Number, Z	Name	Atomic Mass Number, A	Symbol	Atomic Mass (u)	Percent Abundance or Decay Mode	Half-life, $t_{1/2}$
98	Californium	249	^{249}Cf	249.074 844	α	351 y
99	Einsteinium	254	^{254}Es	254.088 019	α, β^-	276 d
100	Fermium	253	^{253}Fm	253.085 173	EC, α	3.00 d
101	Mendelevium	255	^{255}Md	255.091 081	EC, α	27 min
102	Nobelium	255	^{255}No	255.093 260	EC, α	3.1 min
103	Lawrencium	257	^{257}Lr	257.099 480	EC, α	0.646 s
104	Rutherfordium	261	^{261}Rf	261.108 690	α	1.08 min
105	Dubnium	262	^{262}Db	262.113 760	α , fission	34 s
106	Seaborgium	263	^{263}Sg	263.11 86	α , fission	0.8 s
107	Bohrium	262	^{262}Bh	262.123 1	α	0.102 s
108	Hassium	264	^{264}Hs	264.128 5	α	0.08 ms
109	Meitnerium	266	^{266}Mt	266.137 8	α	3.4 ms

TABLE A1 Atomic Masses

APPENDIX B

Selected Radioactive Isotopes

Decay modes are α , β^- , β^+ , electron capture (EC) and isomeric transition (IT). EC results in the same daughter nucleus as would β^+ decay. IT is a transition from a metastable excited state. Energies for $\beta^\pm$ decays are the maxima; average energies are roughly one-half the maxima.

Isotope	$t_{1/2}$	DecayMode(s)	Energy(MeV)	Percent		γ -Ray Energy(MeV)	Percent
^3H	12.33 y	β^-	0.0186	100%			
^{14}C	5730 y	β^-	0.156	100%			
^{13}N	9.96 min	β^+	1.20	100%			
^{22}Na	2.602 y	β^+	0.55	90%	γ	1.27	100%
^{32}P	14.28 d	β^-	1.71	100%			
^{35}S	87.4 d	β^-	0.167	100%			
^{36}Cl	3.00×10^5 y	β^-	0.710	100%			
^{40}K	1.28×10^9 y	β^-	1.31	89%			
^{43}K	22.3 h	β^-	0.827	87%	γ s	0.373	87%
						0.618	87%
^{45}Ca	165 d	β^-	0.257	100%			
^{51}Cr	27.70 d	EC			γ	0.320	10%
^{52}Mn	5.59d	β^+	3.69	28%	γ s	1.33	28%
						1.43	28%
^{52}Fe	8.27 h	β^+	1.80	43%		0.169	43%
						0.378	43%
^{59}Fe	44.6 d	β^- s	0.273	45%	γ s	1.10	57%
			0.466	55%		1.29	43%

TABLE B1 Selected Radioactive Isotopes

Isotope	$t_{1/2}$	DecayMode(s)	Energy(MeV)	Percent		γ -Ray Energy(MeV)	Percent
^{60}Co	5.271 y	β^-	0.318	100%	γ s	1.17	100%
						1.33	100%
^{65}Zn	244.1 d	EC			γ	1.12	51%
^{67}Ga	78.3 h	EC			γ s	0.0933	70%
						0.185	35%
						0.300	19%
						others	
^{75}Se	118.5 d	EC			γ s	0.121	20%
						0.136	65%
						0.265	68%
						0.280	20%
						others	
^{86}Rb	18.8 d	β^- s	0.69	9%	γ	1.08	9%
			1.77	91%			
^{85}Sr	64.8 d	EC			γ	0.514	100%
^{90}Sr	28.8 y	β^-	0.546	100%			
^{90}Y	64.1 h	β^-	2.28	100%			
$^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$	6.02 h	IT			γ	0.142	100%
$^{113\text{m}}\text{In}$	99.5 min	IT			γ	0.392	100%
^{123}I	13.0 h	EC			γ	0.159	$\approx 100\%$
^{131}I	8.040 d	β^- s	0.248	7%	γ s	0.364	85%
			0.607	93%		others	
			others				
^{129}Cs	32.3 h	EC			γ s	0.0400	35%

TABLE B1 Selected Radioactive Isotopes

Isotope	$t_{1/2}$	DecayMode(s)	Energy(MeV)	Percent		γ -Ray Energy(MeV)	Percent
						0.372	32%
						0.411	25%
						others	
^{137}Cs	30.17 y	β^- s	0.511	95%	γ	0.662	95%
			1.17	5%			
^{140}Ba	12.79 d	β^-	1.035	$\approx 100\%$	γ s	0.030	25%
						0.044	65%
						0.537	24%
						others	
^{198}Au	2.696 d	β^-	1.161	$\approx 100\%$	γ	0.412	$\approx 100\%$
^{197}Hg	64.1 h	EC			γ	0.0733	100%
^{210}Po	138.38 d	α	5.41	100%			
^{226}Ra	1.60×10^3 y	α s	4.68	5%	γ	0.186	100%
			4.87	95%			
^{235}U	7.038×10^8 y	α	4.68	$\approx 100\%$	γ s	numerous	<0.400%
^{238}U	4.468×10^9 y	α s	4.22	23%	γ	0.050	23%
			4.27	77%			
^{237}Np	2.14×10^6 y	α s	numerous		γ s	numerous	<0.250%
			4.96 (max.)				
^{239}Pu	2.41×10^4 y	α s	5.19	11%	γ s	7.5×10^{-5}	73%
			5.23	15%		0.013	15%
			5.24	73%		0.052	10%
						others	
^{243}Am	7.37×10^3 y	α s	Max. 5.44		γ s	0.075	

TABLE B1 Selected Radioactive Isotopes

Isotope	$t_{1/2}$	DecayMode(s)	Energy(MeV)	Percent		γ -Ray Energy(MeV)	Percent
			5.37	88%		others	
			5.32	11%			
			others				

TABLE B1 Selected Radioactive Isotopes

APPENDIX C

Useful Information

This appendix is broken into several tables.

- [Table C1](#), Important Constants
- [Table C2](#), Submicroscopic Masses
- [Table C3](#), Solar System Data
- [Table C4](#), Metric Prefixes for Powers of Ten and Their Symbols
- [Table C5](#), The Greek Alphabet
- [Table C6](#), SI units
- [Table C7](#), Selected British Units
- [Table C8](#), Other Units
- [Table C9](#), Useful Formulae

Symbol	Meaning	Best Value	Approximate Value
c	Speed of light in vacuum	$2.99792458 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$	$3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$
G	Gravitational constant	$6.67408(31) \times 10^{-11} \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{kg}^2$	$6.67 \times 10^{-11} \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{kg}^2$
N_A	Avogadro's number	$6.02214076 \times 10^{23}$	6.02×10^{23}
k	Boltzmann's constant	$1.380649 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$	$1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$
R	Gas constant	$8.3144621(75) \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K}$	$8.31 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K} = 1.99 \text{ cal/mol} \cdot \text{K}$ $= 0.0821 \text{ atm} \cdot \text{L/mol} \cdot \text{K}$
σ	Stefan-Boltzmann constant	$5.670373(21) \times 10^{-8} \text{ W/m}^2 \cdot \text{K}$	$5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W/m}^2 \cdot \text{K}$
k	Coulomb force constant	$8.987551788... \times 10^9 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{C}^2$	$8.99 \times 10^9 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{C}^2$
q_e	Charge on electron	$-1.602176634 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$	$-1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$
ϵ_0	Permittivity of free space	$8.854187817... \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}^2/\text{N} \cdot \text{m}^2$	$8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}^2/\text{N} \cdot \text{m}^2$
μ_0	Permeability of free space	$4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ T} \cdot \text{m/A}$	$1.26 \times 10^{-6} \text{ T} \cdot \text{m/A}$
h	Planck's constant	$6.62607015 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J} \cdot \text{s}$	$6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J} \cdot \text{s}$

TABLE C1 Important Constants¹

¹ Stated values are according to the National Institute of Standards and Technology Reference on Constants, Units, and Uncertainty, www.physics.nist.gov/cuu (<http://www.physics.nist.gov/cuu>) (accessed May 18, 2012). Values in parentheses are the uncertainties in the last digits. Numbers without uncertainties are exact as defined.

Symbol	Meaning	Best Value	Approximate Value
m_e	Electron mass	$9.10938291(40) \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$	$9.11 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$
m_p	Proton mass	$1.672621777(74) \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$	$1.6726 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$
m_n	Neutron mass	$1.674927351(74) \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$	$1.6749 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$
u	Atomic mass unit	$1.660538921(73) \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$	$1.6605 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$

TABLE C2 Submicroscopic Masses ²

Sun	mass	$1.99 \times 10^{30} \text{ kg}$
	average radius	$6.96 \times 10^8 \text{ m}$
	Earth-sun distance (average)	$1.496 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}$
Earth	mass	$5.9736 \times 10^{24} \text{ kg}$
	average radius	$6.376 \times 10^6 \text{ m}$
	orbital period	$3.16 \times 10^7 \text{ s}$
Moon	mass	$7.35 \times 10^{22} \text{ kg}$
	average radius	$1.74 \times 10^6 \text{ m}$
	orbital period (average)	$2.36 \times 10^6 \text{ s}$
	Earth-moon distance (average)	$3.84 \times 10^8 \text{ m}$

TABLE C3 Solar System Data

Prefix	Symbol	Value	Prefix	Symbol	Value
tera	T	10^{12}	deci	d	10^{-1}
giga	G	10^9	centi	c	10^{-2}
mega	M	10^6	milli	m	10^{-3}
kilo	k	10^3	micro	μ	10^{-6}
hecto	h	10^2	nano	n	10^{-9}

TABLE C4 Metric Prefixes for Powers of Ten and Their Symbols

² Stated values are according to the National Institute of Standards and Technology Reference on Constants, Units, and Uncertainty, www.physics.nist.gov/cuu (<http://www.physics.nist.gov/cuu>) (accessed May 18, 2012). Values in parentheses are the uncertainties in the last digits. Numbers without uncertainties are exact as defined.

Prefix	Symbol	Value	Prefix	Symbol	Value
deka	da	10^1	pico	p	10^{-12}
—	—	$10^0 (= 1)$	femto	f	10^{-15}

TABLE C4 Metric Prefixes for Powers of Ten and Their Symbols

Alpha	A	α	Eta	H	η	Nu	N	ν	Tau	T	τ
Beta	B	β	Theta	Θ	θ	Xi	Ξ	ξ	Upsilon	Υ	υ
Gamma	Γ	γ	Iota	I	ι	Omicron	O	o	Phi	Φ	ϕ
Delta	Δ	δ	Kappa	K	κ	Pi	Π	π	Chi	X	χ
Epsilon	E	ε	Lambda	Λ	λ	Rho	P	ρ	Psi	Ψ	ψ
Zeta	Z	ζ	Mu	M	μ	Sigma	Σ	σ	Omega	Ω	ω

TABLE C5 The Greek Alphabet

	Entity	Abbreviation	Name
Fundamental units	Length	m	meter
	Mass	kg	kilogram
	Time	s	second
	Current	A	ampere
Supplementary unit	Angle	rad	radian
Derived units	Force	$N = \text{kg} \cdot \text{m/s}^2$	newton
	Energy	$J = \text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}^2$	joule
	Power	$W = J/s$	watt
	Pressure	$\text{Pa} = N/\text{m}^2$	pascal
	Frequency	$\text{Hz} = 1/s$	hertz
	Electronic potential	$V = J/C$	volt
	Capacitance	$F = C/V$	farad
	Charge	$C = s \cdot A$	coulomb

TABLE C6 SI Units

	Entity	Abbreviation	Name
	Resistance	$\Omega = \text{V/A}$	ohm
	Magnetic field	$\text{T} = \text{N}/(\text{A} \cdot \text{m})$	tesla
	Nuclear decay rate	$\text{Bq} = 1/\text{s}$	becquerel

TABLE C6 SI Units

Length	1 inch (in.)= 2.54 cm (exactly)
	1 foot (ft)= 0.3048 m
	1 mile (mi)= 1.609 km
Force	1 pound (lb)= 4.448 N
Energy	1 British thermal unit (Btu)= $1.055 \times 10^3 \text{ J}$
Power	1 horsepower (hp)= 746 W
Pressure	$1 \text{ lb/in}^2 = 6.895 \times 10^3 \text{ Pa}$

TABLE C7 Selected British Units

Length	1 light year (ly) = $9.46 \times 10^{15} \text{ m}$
	1 astronomical unit (au) = $1.50 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}$
	1 nautical mile = 1.852 km
	1 angstrom($\text{\AA}$) = 10^{-10} m
Area	1 acre (ac) = $4.05 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^2$
	1 square foot (ft^2) = $9.29 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2$
	1 barn (b) = 10^{-28} m^2
Volume	1 liter (L) = 10^{-3} m^3
	1 U.S. gallon (gal) = $3.785 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3$
Mass	1 solar mass = $1.99 \times 10^{30} \text{ kg}$
	1 metric ton = 10^3 kg
	1 atomic mass unit (u) = $1.6605 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$

TABLE C8 Other Units

Time	1 year (y) = 3.16×10^7 s
	1 day (d) = 86,400 s
Speed	1 mile per hour (mph) = 1.609 km/h
	1 nautical mile per hour (naut) = 1.852 km/h
Angle	1 degree ($^\circ$) = 1.745×10^{-2} rad
	1 minute of arc ($'$) = 1/60 degree
	1 second of arc ($''$) = 1/60 minute of arc
	1 grad = 1.571×10^{-2} rad
Energy	1 kiloton TNT (kT) = 4.2×10^{12} J
	1 kilowatt hour (kW $\cdot$ h) = 3.60×10^6 J
	1 food calorie (kcal) = 4186 J
	1 calorie (cal) = 4.186 J
	1 electron volt (eV) = 1.60×10^{-19} J
Pressure	1 atmosphere (atm) = 1.013×10^5 Pa
	1 millimeter of mercury (mm Hg) = 133.3 Pa
	1 torricelli (torr) = 1 mm Hg = 133.3 Pa
Nuclear decay rate	1 curie (Ci) = 3.70×10^{10} Bq

TABLE C8 Other Units

Circumference of a circle with radius r or diameter d	$C = 2\pi r = \pi d$
Area of a circle with radius r or diameter d	$A = \pi r^2 = \pi d^2/4$
Area of a sphere with radius r	$A = 4\pi r^2$
Volume of a sphere with radius r	$V = (4/3)(\pi r^3)$

TABLE C9 Useful Formulae

APPENDIX D

Glossary of Key Symbols and Notation

In this glossary, key symbols and notation are briefly defined.

Symbol	Definition
$\overline{\text{any symbol}}$	average (indicated by a bar over a symbol—e.g., $\overline{v}$ is average velocity)
$^{\circ}\text{C}$	Celsius degree
$^{\circ}\text{F}$	Fahrenheit degree
//	parallel
$\perp$	perpendicular
$\propto$	proportional to
$\pm$	plus or minus
0	zero as a subscript denotes an initial value
α	alpha rays
α	angular acceleration
α	temperature coefficient(s) of resistivity
β	beta rays
β	sound level
β	volume coefficient of expansion
β^{-}	electron emitted in nuclear beta decay
β^{+}	positron decay
γ	gamma rays
γ	surface tension
$\gamma = 1/\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$	a constant used in relativity
Δ	change in whatever quantity follows

TABLE D1

Symbol	Definition
δ	uncertainty in whatever quantity follows
ΔE	change in energy between the initial and final orbits of an electron in an atom
ΔE	uncertainty in energy
Δm	difference in mass between initial and final products
ΔN	number of decays that occur
Δp	change in momentum
Δp	uncertainty in momentum
ΔPE_g	change in gravitational potential energy
$\Delta\theta$	rotation angle
Δs	distance traveled along a circular path
Δt	uncertainty in time
Δt_0	proper time as measured by an observer at rest relative to the process
ΔV	potential difference
Δx	uncertainty in position
ϵ_0	permittivity of free space
η	viscosity
θ	angle between the force vector and the displacement vector
θ	angle between two lines
θ	contact angle
θ	direction of the resultant
θ_b	Brewster's angle
θ_c	critical angle
κ	dielectric constant
λ	decay constant of a nuclide

TABLE D1

Symbol	Definition
λ	wavelength
λ_n	wavelength in a medium
μ_0	permeability of free space
μ_k	coefficient of kinetic friction
μ_s	coefficient of static friction
ν_e	electron neutrino
π^+	positive pion
π^-	negative pion
π^0	neutral pion
ρ	density
ρ_c	critical density, the density needed to just halt universal expansion
ρ_{fl}	fluid density
$\bar{\rho}_{\text{obj}}$	average density of an object
ρ/ρ_w	specific gravity
τ	characteristic time constant for a resistance and inductance (RL) or resistance and capacitance (RC) circuit
τ	characteristic time for a resistor and capacitor (RC) circuit
τ	torque
Υ	upsilon meson
Φ	magnetic flux
ϕ	phase angle
Ω	ohm (unit)
ω	angular velocity
A	ampere (current unit)
A	area

TABLE D1

Symbol	Definition
A	cross-sectional area
A	total number of nucleons
a	acceleration
a_B	Bohr radius
a_c	centripetal acceleration
a_t	tangential acceleration
AC	alternating current
AM	amplitude modulation
atm	atmosphere
B	baryon number
B	blue quark color
$\bar{B}$	antiblack (yellow) antiquark color
b	quark flavor bottom or beauty
B	bulk modulus
B	magnetic field strength
B_{int}	electron's intrinsic magnetic field
B_{orb}	orbital magnetic field
BE	binding energy of a nucleus—it is the energy required to completely disassemble it into separate protons and neutrons
BE/ A	binding energy per nucleon
Bq	becquerel—one decay per second
C	capacitance (amount of charge stored per volt)
C	coulomb (a fundamental SI unit of charge)
C_p	total capacitance in parallel
C_s	total capacitance in series

TABLE D1

Symbol	Definition
CG	center of gravity
CM	center of mass
c	quark flavor charm
c	specific heat
c	speed of light
Cal	kilocalorie
cal	calorie
COP_{hp}	heat pump's coefficient of performance
COP_{ref}	coefficient of performance for refrigerators and air conditioners
$\cos \theta$	cosine
$\cot \theta$	cotangent
$\csc \theta$	cosecant
D	diffusion constant
d	displacement
d	quark flavor down
dB	decibel
d_i	distance of an image from the center of a lens
d_o	distance of an object from the center of a lens
DC	direct current
E	electric field strength
ε	emf (voltage) or Hall electromotive force
emf	electromotive force
E	energy of a single photon
E	nuclear reaction energy

TABLE D1

Symbol	Definition
E	relativistic total energy
E	total energy
E_0	ground state energy for hydrogen
E_0	rest energy
EC	electron capture
E_{cap}	energy stored in a capacitor
Eff	efficiency—the useful work output divided by the energy input
Eff_C	Carnot efficiency
E_{in}	energy consumed (food digested in humans)
E_{ind}	energy stored in an inductor
E_{out}	energy output
e	emissivity of an object
e^+	antielectron or positron
eV	electron volt
F	farad (unit of capacitance, a coulomb per volt)
F	focal point of a lens
F	force
F	magnitude of a force
F	restoring force
F_B	buoyant force
F_c	centripetal force
F_i	force input
F _{net}	net force
F_o	force output

TABLE D1

Symbol	Definition
FM	frequency modulation
f	focal length
f	frequency
f_0	resonant frequency of a resistance, inductance, and capacitance (RLC) series circuit
f_0	threshold frequency for a particular material (photoelectric effect)
f_1	fundamental
f_2	first overtone
f_3	second overtone
f_B	beat frequency
f_k	magnitude of kinetic friction
f_s	magnitude of static friction
G	gravitational constant
G	green quark color
$\bar{G}$	antigreen (magenta) antiquark color
g	acceleration due to gravity
g	gluons (carrier particles for strong nuclear force)
h	change in vertical position
h	height above some reference point
h	maximum height of a projectile
h	Planck's constant
hf	photon energy
h_i	height of the image
h_o	height of the object
I	electric current

TABLE D1

Symbol	Definition
I	intensity
I	intensity of a transmitted wave
I	moment of inertia (also called rotational inertia)
I_0	intensity of a polarized wave before passing through a filter
I_{ave}	average intensity for a continuous sinusoidal electromagnetic wave
I_{rms}	average current
J	joule
J/Ψ	Joules/psi meson
K	kelvin
k	Boltzmann constant
k	force constant of a spring
K_α	x rays created when an electron falls into an $n = 1$ shell vacancy from the $n = 3$ shell
K_β	x rays created when an electron falls into an $n = 2$ shell vacancy from the $n = 3$ shell
kcal	kilocalorie
KE	translational kinetic energy
KE + PE	mechanical energy
KE_e	kinetic energy of an ejected electron
KE_{rel}	relativistic kinetic energy
KE_{rot}	rotational kinetic energy
$\overline{\text{KE}}$	thermal energy
kg	kilogram (a fundamental SI unit of mass)
L	angular momentum
L	liter
L	magnitude of angular momentum

TABLE D1

Symbol	Definition
L	self-inductance
ℓ	angular momentum quantum number
L_{α}	x rays created when an electron falls into an $n = 2$ shell
L_e	electron total family number
L_{μ}	muon family total number
L_{τ}	tau family total number
L_f	heat of fusion
L_f and L_v	latent heat coefficients
L_{orb}	orbital angular momentum
L_s	heat of sublimation
L_v	heat of vaporization
L_z	z - component of the angular momentum
M	angular magnification
M	mutual inductance
m	indicates metastable state
m	magnification
m	mass
m	mass of an object as measured by a person at rest relative to the object
m	meter (a fundamental SI unit of length)
m	order of interference
m	overall magnification (product of the individual magnifications)
$m(^A\text{X})$	atomic mass of a nuclide
MA	mechanical advantage
m_e	magnification of the eyepiece

TABLE D1

Symbol	Definition
m_e	mass of the electron
m_ℓ	angular momentum projection quantum number
m_n	mass of a neutron
m_o	magnification of the objective lens
mol	mole
m_p	mass of a proton
m_s	spin projection quantum number
N	magnitude of the normal force
N	newton
N	normal force
N	number of neutrons
n	index of refraction
n	number of free charges per unit volume
N_A	Avogadro's number
N_r	Reynolds number
$N \cdot m$	newton-meter (work-energy unit)
$N \cdot m$	newtons times meters (SI unit of torque)
OE	other energy
P	power
P	power of a lens
P	pressure
p	momentum
p	momentum magnitude
p	relativistic momentum

TABLE D1

Symbol	Definition
$\mathbf{p}_{\text{tot}}$	total momentum
$\mathbf{p}'_{\text{tot}}$	total momentum some time later
P_{abs}	absolute pressure
P_{atm}	atmospheric pressure
P_{atm}	standard atmospheric pressure
PE	potential energy
PE_{el}	elastic potential energy
PE_{elec}	electric potential energy
PE_{s}	potential energy of a spring
P_{g}	gauge pressure
P_{in}	power consumption or input
P_{out}	useful power output going into useful work or a desired, form of energy
Q	latent heat
Q	net heat transferred into a system
Q	flow rate—volume per unit time flowing past a point
$+Q$	positive charge
$-Q$	negative charge
q	electron charge
q_p	charge of a proton
q	test charge
QF	quality factor
R	activity, the rate of decay
R	radius of curvature of a spherical mirror
R	red quark color

TABLE D1

Symbol	Definition
$\bar{R}$	antired (cyan) quark color
R	resistance
R	resultant or total displacement
R	Rydberg constant
R	universal gas constant
r	distance from pivot point to the point where a force is applied
r	internal resistance
$r_{\perp}$	perpendicular lever arm
r	radius of a nucleus
r	radius of curvature
r	resistivity
r or rad	radiation dose unit
rem	roentgen equivalent man
rad	radian
RBE	relative biological effectiveness
RC	resistor and capacitor circuit
rms	root mean square
r_n	radius of the n th H-atom orbit
R_p	total resistance of a parallel connection
R_s	total resistance of a series connection
R_s	Schwarzschild radius
S	entropy
$\mathbf{S}$	intrinsic spin (intrinsic angular momentum)
S	magnitude of the intrinsic (internal) spin angular momentum

TABLE D1

Symbol	Definition
S	shear modulus
S	strangeness quantum number
s	quark flavor strange
s	second (fundamental SI unit of time)
s	spin quantum number
s	total displacement
$\sec \theta$	secant
$\sin \theta$	sine
s_z	z-component of spin angular momentum
T	period—time to complete one oscillation
T	temperature
T_c	critical temperature—temperature below which a material becomes a superconductor
T	tension
T	tesla (magnetic field strength B)
t	quark flavor top or truth
t	time
$t_{1/2}$	half-life—the time in which half of the original nuclei decay
$\tan \theta$	tangent
U	internal energy
u	quark flavor up
u	unified atomic mass unit
$\mathbf{u}$	velocity of an object relative to an observer
$\mathbf{u}'$	velocity relative to another observer
V	electric potential

TABLE D1

Symbol	Definition
V	terminal voltage
V	volt (unit)
V	volume
$\mathbf{v}$	relative velocity between two observers
v	speed of light in a material
$\mathbf{v}$	velocity
$\bar{\mathbf{v}}$	average fluid velocity
$V_B - V_A$	change in potential
$\mathbf{v}_d$	drift velocity
V_p	transformer input voltage
V_{rms}	rms voltage
V_s	transformer output voltage
$\mathbf{v}_{\text{tot}}$	total velocity
v_w	propagation speed of sound or other wave
$\mathbf{v}_w$	wave velocity
W	work
W	net work done by a system
W	watt
w	weight
w_{fl}	weight of the fluid displaced by an object
W_c	total work done by all conservative forces
W_{nc}	total work done by all nonconservative forces
W_{out}	useful work output
X	amplitude

TABLE D1

Symbol	Definition
X	symbol for an element
${}_A^Z X_N$	notation for a particular nuclide
x	deformation or displacement from equilibrium
x	displacement of a spring from its undeformed position
x	horizontal axis
X_C	capacitive reactance
X_L	inductive reactance
x_{rms}	root mean square diffusion distance
y	vertical axis
Y	elastic modulus or Young's modulus
Z	atomic number (number of protons in a nucleus)
Z	impedance

TABLE D1

ANSWER KEY

Chapter 1

Problems & Exercises

1.

(a) 27.8 m/s

(b) 62.1 mph

3.

$$\frac{1.0 \text{ m}}{\text{s}} = \frac{1.0 \text{ m}}{\text{s}} \times \frac{3600 \text{ s}}{1 \text{ hr}} \times \frac{1 \text{ km}}{1000 \text{ m}}$$

= 3.6 km/h.

5.

length: 377 ft; 4.53×10^3 in. width: 280 ft; 3.3×10^3 in.

7.

8.847 km

9.

(a) 1.3×10^{-9} m

(b) 40 km/My

11.

2 kg

13.

(a) 85.5 to 94.5 km/h

(b) 53.1 to 58.7 mi/h

15.

(a) 7.6×10^7 beats

(b) 7.57×10^7 beats

(c) 7.57×10^7 beats

17.

(a) 3

(b) 3

(c) 3

19.

(a) 2.2%

(b) 59 to 61 km/h

21.

80 ± 3 beats/min

23.

2.8 h

25.

$$11 \pm 1 \text{ cm}^3$$

27.

$$12.06 \pm 0.04 \text{ m}^2$$

29.

Sample answer: 2×10^9 heartbeats

31.

Sample answer: 2×10^{31} if an average human lifetime is taken to be about 70 years.

33.

Sample answer: 50 atoms

35.

Sample answers:

(a) 10^{12} cells/hummingbird

(b) 10^{16} cells/human

Chapter 2

Problems & Exercises

1.

(a) 7 m

(b) 7 m

(c) +7 m

3.

a. $8 \text{ m} + 2 \text{ m} + 3 \text{ m} = \underline{13 \text{ m}}$

b. $\underline{9 \text{ m}}$

c. $\Delta x = 11 \text{ m} - 2 \text{ m} = \underline{9 \text{ m}}$

5.

(a) $3.0 \times 10^4 \text{ m/s}$

(b) 0 m/s

7.

$2 \times 10^7 \text{ years}$

9.

$34.689 \text{ m/s} = 124.88 \text{ km/h}$

11.

(a) 40.0 km/h

(b) 34.3 km/h, 25° S of E .

(c) average speed = 3.20 km/h, $\vec{v} = 0$.

13.

384,000 km

15.

(a) $6.61 \times 10^{15} \text{ rev/s}$

(b) 0 m/s

16.

4.29 m/s²

18.

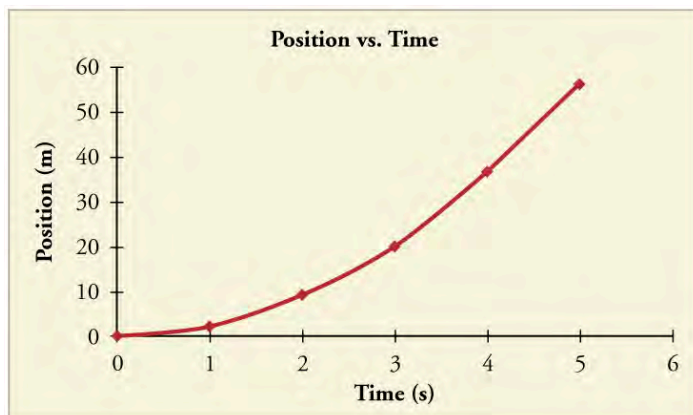
(a) 1.43 s

(b) -2.50 m/s^2

20.

(a) 10.8 m/s

(b)



21.

38.9 m/s (about 87 miles per hour)

23.

(a) 16.5 s

(b) 13.5 s

(c) -2.68 m/s^2

25.

(a) 20.0 m

(b) -1.00 m/s

(c) This result does not really make sense. If the runner starts at 9.00 m/s and decelerates at 2.00 m/s^2 , then she will have stopped after 4.50 s. If she continues to decelerate, she will be running backwards.

27.

0.799 m

29.

(a) 28.0 m/s

(b) 50.9 s

(c) 7.68 km to accelerate and 713 m to decelerate

31.

(a) 51.4 m

(b) 17.1 s

33.

(a) -80.4 m/s^2

(b) $9.33 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}$

35.

(a) 7.7 m/s

(b) $-15 \times 10^2 \text{ m/s}^2$. This is about 3 times the deceleration of the pilots, who were falling from thousands of meters high!

37.

(a) 32.6 m/s^2

(b) 162 m/s

(c) $v > v_{\text{max}}$, because the assumption of constant acceleration is not valid for a dragster. A dragster changes gears, and would have a greater acceleration in first gear than second gear than third gear, etc. The acceleration would be greatest at the beginning, so it would not be accelerating at 32.6 m/s^2 during the last few meters, but substantially less, and the final velocity would be less than 162 m/s.

39.

104 s

40.

(a) $v = 12.2 \text{ m/s}$; $a = 4.07 \text{ m/s}^2$ (b) $v = 11.2 \text{ m/s}$

41.

(a) $y_1 = 6.28 \text{ m}$; $v_1 = 10.1 \text{ m/s}$ (b) $y_2 = 10.1 \text{ m}$; $v_2 = 5.20 \text{ m/s}$ (c) $y_3 = 11.5 \text{ m}$; $v_3 = 0.300 \text{ m/s}$ (d) $y_4 = 10.4 \text{ m}$; $v_4 = -4.60 \text{ m/s}$

43.

 $v_0 = 4.95 \text{ m/s}$

45.

(a) $a = -9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$; $v_0 = 13.0 \text{ m/s}$; $y_0 = 0 \text{ m}$

(b) $v = 0 \text{ m/s}$. Unknown is distance y to top of trajectory, where velocity is zero. Use equation $v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(y - y_0)$ because it contains all known values except for y , so we can solve for y . Solving for y gives

$$v^2 - v_0^2 = 2a(y - y_0)$$

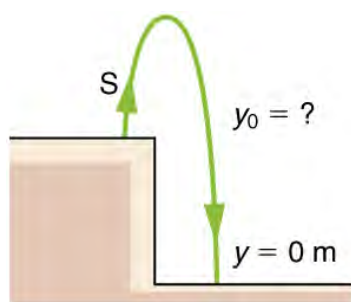
$$\frac{v^2 - v_0^2}{2a} = y - y_0$$

$$y = y_0 + \frac{v^2 - v_0^2}{2a} = 0 \text{ m} + \frac{(0 \text{ m/s})^2 - (13.0 \text{ m/s})^2}{2(-9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)} = 8.62 \text{ m}$$

Dolphins measure about 2 meters long and can jump several times their length out of the water, so this is a reasonable result.

(c) 2.65 s

47.



(a) 8.26 m

(b) 0.717 s

[49.](#)

1.91 s

[51.](#)

(a) 94.0 m

(b) 3.13 s

[53.](#)

(a) -70.0 m/s (downward)

(b) 6.10 s

[55.](#)

(a) 19.6 m

(b) 18.5 m

[57.](#)

(a) 305 m

(b) 262 m, -29.2 m/s

(c) 8.91 s

[59.](#)

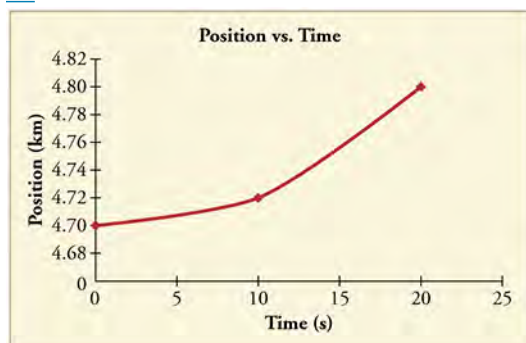
(a) 115 m/s

(b) 5.0 m/s^2

[61.](#)

$$v = \frac{(11.7 - 6.95) \times 10^3 \text{ m}}{(40.0 - 20.0) \text{ s}} = 238 \text{ m/s}$$

[63.](#)



[65.](#)

(a) 6 m/s

- (b) 12 m/s
- (c) 3 m/s²
- (d) 10 s

67.

(a) Car A is traveling faster at the checkpoint because it must go past the speed of car B to reach the same distance.

(b) i. Yes, the equation is consistent with the answer because the speed of car A is only a constant away from the correct answer. ii. Yes, the equation makes sense because $V = 2V_0$.

(c)

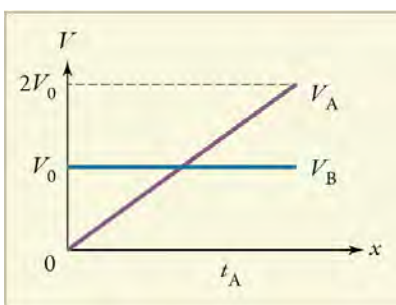


FIGURE 2.67

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(a)

3.

(a) Use tape to mark off two distances on the track — one for cart A before the collision and one for the combined carts after the collision. Push cart A to give it an initial speed. Use a stopwatch to measure the time it takes for the cart(s) to cross the marked distances. The speeds are the distances divided by the times.

(b) If the measurement errors are of the same magnitude, they will have a greater effect after the collision. The speed of the combined carts will be less than the initial speed of cart A. As a result, these errors will be a greater percentage of the actual velocity value after the collision occurs. (Note: Other arguments could properly be made for 'more error before the collision' and error that 'equally affects both sets of measurement'.)

5.

The position vs. time graph should be represented with a positively sloped line whose slope steadily decreases to zero. The y-intercept of the graph may be any value. The line on the velocity vs. time graph should have a positive y-intercept and a negative slope. Because the final velocity of the book is zero, the line should finish on the x-axis.

The position vs. time graph should be represented with a negatively sloped line whose slope steadily decreases to zero. The y-intercept of the graph may be any value. The line on the velocity vs. time graph should have a negative y-intercept and a positive slope. Because the final velocity of the book is zero, the line should finish on the x-axis.]

7.

(c)

Chapter 3

Problems & Exercises

1.

(a) 480 m

(b) 379 m, 18.4° east of north

3.

north component 3.21 km, east component 3.83 km

5.

19.5 m, 4.65° south of west

7.

(a) 26.6 m, 65.1° north of east

(b) 26.6 m, 65.1° south of west

9.

52.9 m, 90.1° with respect to the x-axis.

11.

x-component 4.41 m/s

y-component 5.07 m/s

13.

(a) 1.56 km

(b) 120 m east

15.

North-component 87.0 km, east-component 87.0 km

17.

30.8 m, 35.8 west of north

19.

(a) 30.8 m, 54.2° south of west

(b) 30.8 m, 54.2° north of east

21.

18.4 km south, then 26.2 km west (b) 31.5 km at 45.0° south of west, then 5.56 km at 45.0° west of north

23.

7.34 km, 63.5° south of east

25.

$$x = 1.30 \text{ m} \times 10^2$$

$$y = 30.9 \text{ m.}$$

27.

(a) 3.50 s

(b) 28.6 m/s (c) 34.3 m/s

(d) 44.7 m/s, 50.2° below horizontal

29.

(a) 18.4°

(b) The arrow will go over the branch.

31.

$$R = \frac{v_0^2}{\sin 2\theta_0 g}$$

$$\text{For } \theta = 45^\circ, \quad R = \frac{v_0^2}{g}$$

$R = 91.8 \text{ m}$ for $v_0 = 30 \text{ m/s}$; $R = 163 \text{ m}$ for $v_0 = 40 \text{ m/s}$; $R = 255 \text{ m}$ for $v_0 = 50 \text{ m/s}$.

33.

(a) 560 m/s

(b) 8.00×10^3 m

(c) 80.0 m. This error is not significant because it is only 1% of the answer in part (b).

35.

1.50 m, assuming launch angle of 45°

37.

 $\theta = 6.1^\circ$

yes, the ball lands at 5.3 m from the net

39.

(a) -0.486 m

(b) The larger the muzzle velocity, the smaller the deviation in the vertical direction, because the time of flight would be smaller. Air resistance would have the effect of decreasing the time of flight, therefore increasing the vertical deviation.

41.

4.23 m. No, the owl is not lucky; he misses the nest.

43.

No, the maximum range (neglecting air resistance) is about 92 m.

45.

15.0 m/s

47.

(a) 24.2 m/s

(b) The ball travels a total of 57.4 m with the brief gust of wind.

49.

$$y - y_0 = 0 = v_{0y}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2 = (v_0 \sin \theta)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2,$$

$$\text{so that } t = \frac{2(v_0 \sin \theta)}{g}$$

$x - x_0 = v_{0x}t = (v_0 \cos \theta)t = R$, and substituting for t gives:

$$R = v_0 \cos \theta \left(\frac{2v_0 \sin \theta}{g} \right) = \frac{2v_0^2 \sin \theta \cos \theta}{g}$$

since $2 \sin \theta \cos \theta = \sin 2\theta$, the range is:

$$R = \frac{v_0^2 \sin 2\theta}{g}.$$

52.

(a) 35.8 km, 45° south of east(b) 5.53 m/s, 45° south of east(c) 56.1 km, 45° south of east

54.

(a) 0.70 m/s faster

(b) Second runner wins

(c) 4.17 m

56.

17.0 m/s, 22.1°

58.

(a) 230 m/s, 8.0° south of west

(b) The wind should make the plane travel slower and more to the south, which is what was calculated.

60.

(a) 63.5 m/s

(b) 29.6 m/s

62.

6.68 m/s, 53.3° south of west

64.

(a) $H_{\text{average}} = 14.9 \frac{\text{km/s}}{\text{Mly}}$

(b) 20.2 billion years

66.

1.72 m/s, 42.3° north of east

71.

(a) Since $\sin^2 50 > \sin^2 40$, then B reaches the greatest height.(b) i. Yes, it is consistent because $\sin 50 > \sin 40$. ii. No, it does not make sense because y is proportional to $\sin^2 \theta$.

(c)

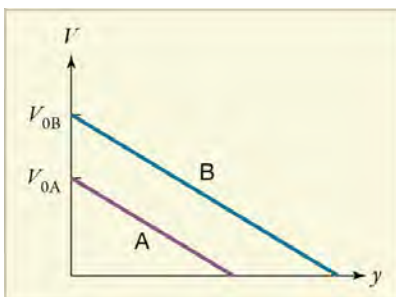


FIGURE 3.61

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(d)

3.

We would need to know the horizontal and vertical positions of each ball at several times. From that data, we could deduce the velocities over several time intervals and also the accelerations (both horizontal and vertical) for each ball over several time intervals.

5.

The graph of the ball's vertical velocity over time should begin at 4.90 m/s during the time interval 0 - 0.1 sec (there should be a data point at $t = 0.05$ sec, $v = 4.90$ m/s). It should then have a slope of -9.8 m/s^2 , crossing through $v = 0$ at $t = 0.55$ sec and ending at $v = -0.98 \text{ m/s}$ at $t = 0.65$ sec.

The graph of the ball's horizontal velocity would be a constant positive value, a flat horizontal line at some positive velocity from $t = 0$ until $t = 0.7$ sec.

Chapter 4

Problems & Exercises

1.

265 N

3.

13.3 m/s^2

7.

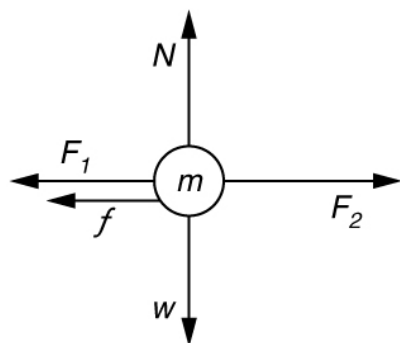
(a) 12 m/s^2 .

(b) The acceleration is not one-fourth of what it was with all rockets burning because the frictional force is still as large as it was with all rockets burning.

9.

(a) The system is the child in the wagon plus the wagon.

(b)



(c) $a = 0.130 \text{ m/s}^2$ in the direction of the second child's push.

(d) $a = 0.00 \text{ m/s}^2$

11.

(a) $3.68 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$. This force is 5.00 times greater than his weight.

(b) 3750 N; 11.3° above horizontal

13.

$1.5 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$, 150 kg, 150 kg

15.

Force on shell: $2.64 \times 10^7 \text{ N}$

Force exerted on ship = $-2.64 \times 10^7 \text{ N}$, by Newton's third law

17.

a. 0.11 m/s^2

b. $1.2 \times 10^4 \text{ N}$

19.

(a) $7.84 \times 10^{-4} \text{ N}$

(b) $1.89 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N}$. This is 2.41 times the tension in the vertical strand.

21.

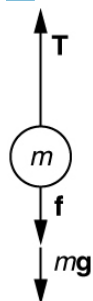
Newton's second law applied in vertical direction gives

$$F_y = F - 2T \sin \theta = 0$$

$$F = 2T \sin \theta$$

$$T = \frac{F}{2 \sin \theta}.$$

23.



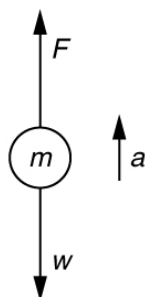
Using the free-body diagram:

$$F_{\text{net}} = T - f - mg = ma,$$

so that

$$a = \frac{T - f - mg}{m} = \frac{1.250 \times 10^7 \text{ N} - 4.50 \times 10^6 \text{ N} - (5.00 \times 10^5 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)}{5.00 \times 10^5 \text{ kg}} = 6.20 \text{ m/s}^2.$$

25.



1. Use Newton's laws of motion.
2. Given : $a = 4.00g = (4.00)(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) = 39.2 \text{ m/s}^2$; $m = 70.0 \text{ kg}$,
Find: F .
3. $\sum F = +F - w = ma$, so that $F = ma + w = ma + mg = m(a + g)$.
 $F = (70.0 \text{ kg})[(39.2 \text{ m/s}^2) + (9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)] = 3.43 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$. The force exerted by the high-jumper is actually down on the ground, but F is up from the ground and makes him jump.
4. This result is reasonable, since it is quite possible for a person to exert a force of the magnitude of 10^3 N .

27.

(a) $4.41 \times 10^5 \text{ N}$

(b) $1.50 \times 10^5 \text{ N}$

29.

(a) 910 N

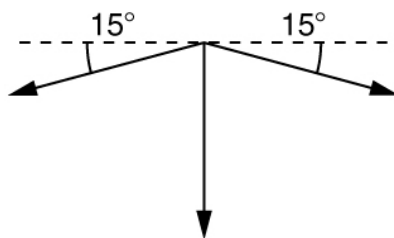
(b) $1.11 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$

31.

$a = 0.139 \text{ m/s}$, $\theta = 12.4^\circ$ north of east

33.

1. Use Newton's laws since we are looking for forces.

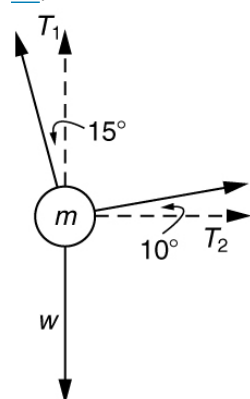


2. Draw a free-body diagram:
3. The tension is given as $T = 25.0 \text{ N}$. Find F_{app} . Using Newton's laws gives: $\Sigma F_y = 0$, so that applied force is due to the y-components of the two tensions: $F_{\text{app}} = 2 T \sin\theta = 2(25.0 \text{ N})\sin(15^\circ) = 12.9 \text{ N}$
The x-components of the tension cancel. $\Sigma F_x = 0$.
4. This seems reasonable, since the applied tensions should be greater than the force applied to the tooth.

[40.](#)

10.2 m/s^2 , 4.67° from vertical

[42.](#)



$$T_1 = 736 \text{ N}$$

$$T_2 = 194 \text{ N}$$

[44.](#)

(a) 7.43 m/s

(b) 2.97 m

[46.](#)

(a) 4.20 m/s

(b) 29.4 m/s^2

(c) $4.31 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$

[48.](#)

(a) 47.1 m/s

(b) $2.47 \times 10^3 \text{ m/s}^2$

(c) $6.18 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$. The average force is 252 times the shell's weight.

[52.](#)

(a) 1×10^{-13}

(b) 1×10^{-11}

[54.](#)

10^2

55.

(a) Box A travels faster at the finishing distance since a greater force with equal mass results in a greater acceleration. Also, a greater acceleration over the same distance results in a greater final speed.

(b) i. Yes, it is consistent because a greater force results in a greater final speed. ii. It does not make sense because $V = \sqrt{2(f/m)x} = K\sqrt{F}$.

(c)

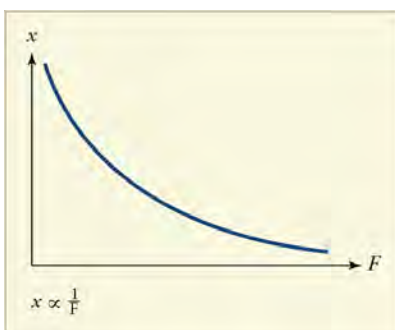


FIGURE 4.41

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

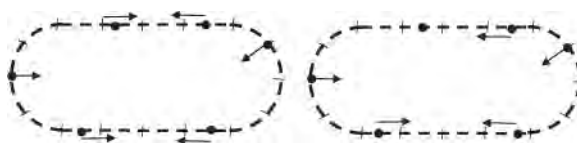


FIGURE 4.44

Car X is shown on the left, and Car Y is shown on the right.

i.

Car X takes longer to accelerate and does not spend any time traveling at top speed. Car Y accelerates over a shorter time and spends time going at top speed. So Car Y must cover the straightaways in a shorter time. Curves take the same time, so Car Y must overall take a shorter time.

ii.

The only difference in the calculations for the time of one segment of linear acceleration is the difference in distances. That shows that Car X takes longer to accelerate. The equation $\frac{d}{4v_c} = t_c$ corresponds to Car Y traveling for a time at top speed.

Substituting $a = \frac{v_c}{t_1}$ into the displacement equation in part (b) ii gives $D = \frac{3}{2}v_c t_1$. This shows that a car takes less time to reach its maximum speed when it accelerates over a shorter distance. Therefore, Car Y reaches its maximum speed more quickly, and spends more time at its maximum speed than Car X does, as argued in part (b) i.

3.

A body cannot exert a force on itself. The hawk may accelerate as a result of several forces. The hawk may accelerate toward Earth as a result of the force due to gravity. The hawk may accelerate as a result of the additional force exerted on it by wind. The hawk may accelerate as a result of orienting its body to create less air resistance, thus increasing the net force forward.

5.

(a) A soccer player, gravity, air, and friction commonly exert forces on a soccer ball being kicked.

(b) Gravity and the surrounding water commonly exert forces on a dolphin jumping. (The dolphin moves its muscles to exert a force on the water. The water exerts an equal force on the dolphin, resulting in the dolphin's motion.)

(c) Gravity and air exert forces on a parachutist drifting to Earth.

7.

(c)

9.

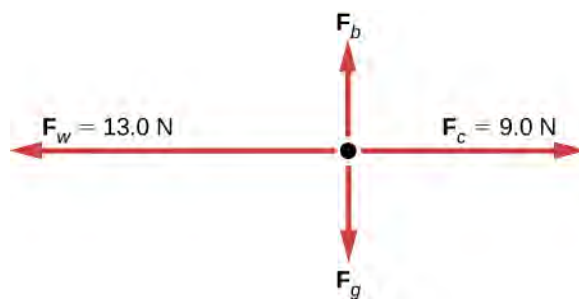


FIGURE 4.45

The diagram consists of a black dot in the center and two small red arrows pointing up (F_b) and down (F_g) and two long red arrows pointing right ($F_c = 9.0 \text{ N}$) and left ($F_w = 13.0 \text{ N}$).

In the diagram, F_g represents the force due to gravity on the balloon, and F_b represents the buoyant force. These two forces are equal in magnitude and opposite in direction. F_c represents the force of the current. F_w represents the force of the wind. The net force on the balloon will be $F_w - F_c = 4.0 \text{ N}$ and the balloon will accelerate in the direction the wind is blowing.

11.

Since $m = F/a$, the parachutist has a mass of $539 \text{ N}/9.8 \text{ m/s}^2 = 55 \text{ kg}$.

For the first 2 s, the parachutist accelerates at 9.8 m/s^2 .

$$\begin{aligned} v &= at \\ &= 9.8 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}^2} \cdot 2\text{s} \\ &= 19.6 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \end{aligned}$$

Her speed after 2 s is 19.6 m/s .

From 2 s to 10 s, the net force on the parachutist is $539 \text{ N} - 615 \text{ N}$, or 76 N upward.

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \frac{F}{m} \\ &= \frac{-76 \text{ N}}{55 \text{ kg}} \\ &= -1.4 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}^2} \end{aligned}$$

Since $v = v_0 + at$, $v = 19.6 \text{ m/s}^2 + (-1.4 \text{ m/s}^2)(8\text{s}) = 8.4 \text{ m/s}^2$.

At 10 s, the parachutist is falling to Earth at 8.4 m/s .

13.

The system includes the gardener and the wheelbarrow with its contents. The following forces are important to include: the weight of the wheelbarrow, the weight of the gardener, the normal force for the wheelbarrow and the gardener, the force of the gardener pushing against the ground and the equal force of the ground pushing back against the gardener, and any friction in the wheelbarrow's wheels.

15.

The system undergoing acceleration is the two figure skaters together.

Net force = $120 \text{ N} - 5.0 \text{ N} = 115 \text{ N}$.

Total mass = 40 kg + 50 kg = 90 kg.

Using Newton's second law, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \frac{F}{m} \\ &= \frac{115 \text{ N}}{90 \text{ kg}} \\ &= 1.28 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}^2} \end{aligned}$$

The pair accelerates forward at 1.28 m/s².

17.

The force of tension must equal the force of gravity plus the force necessary to accelerate the mass. $F = mg$ can be used to calculate the first, and $F = ma$ can be used to calculate the second.

For gravity:

$$\begin{aligned} F &= mg \\ &= (120.0 \text{ kg})(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2) \\ &= 1205.4 \text{ N} \end{aligned}$$

For acceleration:

$$\begin{aligned} F &= ma \\ &= (120.0 \text{ kg})(1.3 \text{ m/s}^2) \\ &= 159.9 \text{ N} \end{aligned}$$

The total force of tension in the cable is 1176 N + 156 N = 1332 N.

19.

(b)

21.

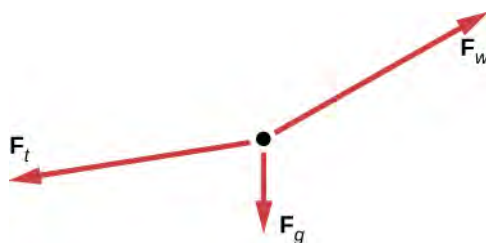


FIGURE 4.47

The diagram has a black dot and three solid red arrows pointing away from the dot. Arrow F_t is long and pointing to the left and slightly down. Arrow F_w is also long and is a bit below a diagonal line halfway between pointing up and pointing to the right. A short arrow F_g is pointing down.

F_g is the force on the kite due to gravity.

F_w is the force exerted on the kite by the wind.

F_t is the force of tension in the string holding the kite. It must balance the vector sum of the other two forces for the kite to float stationary in the air.

23.

(b)

25.

(d)

[27.](#)

A free-body diagram would show a northward force of 64 N and a westward force of 38 N. The net force is equal to the sum of the two applied forces. It can be found using the Pythagorean theorem:

$$\begin{aligned} F_{\text{net}} &= \sqrt{F_x^2 + F_y^2} \\ &= \sqrt{(38 \text{ N})^2 + (64 \text{ N})^2} \\ &= 74.4 \text{ N} \end{aligned}$$

Since $a = \frac{F}{m}$,

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \frac{74.4 \text{ N}}{825 \text{ kg}} \\ &= 0.09 \text{ m/s}^2 \end{aligned}$$

The boulder will accelerate at 0.09 m/s².

[29.](#)

(b)

[31.](#)

(b)

[33.](#)

(d)

Chapter 5

Problems & Exercises

[1.](#)

5.00 N

[4.](#)

(a) 588 N

(b) 1.96 m/s²[6.](#)(a) 3.29 m/s²(b) 3.52 m/s²

(c) 980 N; 945 N

[10.](#)1.83 m/s²[14.](#)(a) 4.20 m/s²(b) 2.74 m/s²(c) -0.195 m/s²[16.](#)(a) $1.03 \times 10^6 \text{ N}$ (b) $3.48 \times 10^5 \text{ N}$

18.

(a) 51.0 N

(b) 0.720 m/s^2

20.

115 m/s; 414 km/hr

22.

25.1 m/s; 9.90 m/s

24.

2.9

26.

$$[\eta] = \frac{[F_s]}{[r][v]} = \frac{\text{kg} \cdot \text{m/s}^2}{\text{m} \cdot \text{m/s}} = \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m} \cdot \text{s}}$$

28.

$0.76 \text{ kg/m} \cdot \text{s}$

29.

$1.90 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}$

31.

(a) 1 mm

(b) This does seem reasonable, since the lead does seem to shrink a little when you push on it.

33.

(a) 9 cm

(b) This seems reasonable for nylon climbing rope, since it is not supposed to stretch that much.

35.

8.59 mm

37.

$1.49 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$

39.

(a) $3.99 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$

(b) $9.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}$

41.

$4 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$. This is about 36 atm, greater than a typical jar can withstand.

43.

1.4 cm

45.

(a) Bead A has the larger radius because both have the same weight and drag force. Since A takes longer to fall, its speed is less and, therefore, it must have larger area or radius.

(b) i. This equation is not consistent because it shows that the bead that took longer to fall has a smaller radius. ii. It does not make sense because r is proportional to t .

(c)



FIGURE 5.23

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.
(b)

3.
(c)

Chapter 6

Problems & Exercises

1.
723 km

3.
 5×10^7 rotations

5.
117 rad/s

7.
76.2 rad/s
728 rpm

8.
(a) 33.3 rad/s
(b) 500 N
(c) 40.8 m

10.
12.9 rev/min

12.
 4×10^{21} m

14.
a) 3.47×10^4 m/s², 3.55×10^3 g
b) 51.1 m/s

16.
a) 31.4 rad/s
b) 118 m/s
c) 384 m/s

d) The centripetal acceleration felt by Olympic skaters is 12 times larger than the acceleration due to gravity. That's quite a lot of acceleration in itself. The centripetal acceleration felt by Button's nose was 39.2 times larger than the

acceleration due to gravity. It is no wonder that he ruptured small blood vessels in his spins.

18.

a) 0.524 km/s

b) 29.7 km/s

20.

(a) 1.35×10^3 rpm

(b) 8.47×10^3 m/s²

(c) 8.47×10^{-12} N

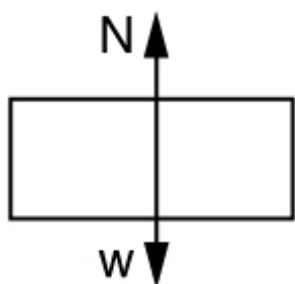
(d) 865

21.

(a) 16.6 m/s

(b) 19.6 m/s²

(c)



(d) 1.76×10^3 N or $3.00 w$, that is, the normal force (upward) is three times her weight.

(e) This answer seems reasonable, since she feels like she's being forced into the chair MUCH stronger than just by gravity.

22.

a) 40.5 m/s²

b) 905 N

c) The force in part (b) is very large. The acceleration in part (a) is too much, about 4 g.

d) The speed of the swing is too large. At the given velocity at the bottom of the swing, there is enough kinetic energy to send the child all the way over the top, ignoring friction.

23.

a) 483 N

b) 17.4 N

c) 2.24 times her weight, 0.0807 times her weight

25.

4.14°

27.

a) 24.6 m

b) 36.6 m/s²

c) $a_c = 3.73$ g. This does not seem too large, but it is clear that bobsledders feel a lot of force on them going through sharply banked turns.

[29.](#)

a) 2.56 rad/s

b) 5.71°

[30.](#)

a) 16.2 m/s

b) 0.234

[32.](#)

a) 1.84

b) A coefficient of friction this much greater than 1 is unreasonable .

c) The assumed speed is too great for the tight curve.

[33.](#)

a) 5.979×10^{24} kg

b) This is identical to the best value to three significant figures.

[35.](#)

a) 1.62 m/s²

b) 3.75 m/s²

[37.](#)

a) 3.42×10^{-5} m/s²

b) 3.34×10^{-5} m/s²

The values are nearly identical. One would expect the gravitational force to be the same as the centripetal force at the core of the system.

[39.](#)

a) 7.01×10^{-7} N

b) 1.35×10^{-6} N, 0.521

[41.](#)

a) 1.66×10^{-10} m/s²

b) 2.17×10^5 m/s

[42.](#)

a) 2.937×10^{17} kg

b) 4.91×10^{-8}

of the Earth's mass.

c) The mass of the mountain and its fraction of the Earth's mass are too great.

d) The gravitational force assumed to be exerted by the mountain is too great.

[44.](#)

1.98×10^{30} kg

[46.](#)

$\frac{M_J}{M_E} = 316$

[48.](#)

a) 2.11×10^4 m/s

- b) 1.05×10^4 m/s
- c) 2.86×10^{-7} s
- d) 1.83×10^8 N
- e) 2.22×10^5 J

49.

- a) 5.08×10^3 km

b) This radius is unreasonable because it is less than the radius of earth.

c) The premise of a one-hour orbit is inconsistent with the known radius of the earth.

51.

(a) The normal force is greatest at point B. At point A, the normal force and the weight are the net force; at point B, only the normal force points in the same direction as the net force.

(b) i. This is not consistent because a larger radius should decrease the net force and tension, not increase it. ii. This does not make sense because $F_c = mv^2/r$.

(c)

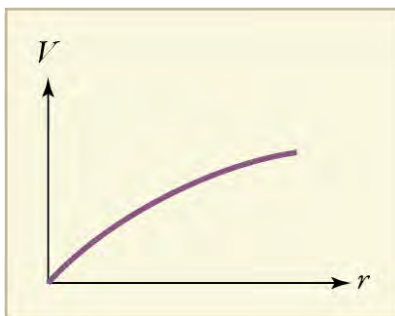


FIGURE 6.36

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(a)

3.

(b)

5.

(b)

Chapter 7

Problems & Exercises

1.

$$3.00 \text{ J} = 7.17 \times 10^{-4} \text{ kcal}$$

3.

(a) 5.92×10^5 J

(b) -5.88×10^5 J

(c) The net force is zero.

5.

$$3.14 \times 10^3 \text{ J}$$

7.

(a) -700 J

(b) 0

(c) 700 J

(d) 38.6 N

(e) 0

[9.](#)

$1/250$

[11.](#)

$1.1 \times 10^{10} \text{ J}$

[13.](#)

$2.8 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$

[15.](#)

102 N

[16.](#)

(a) $1.96 \times 10^{16} \text{ J}$

(b) The ratio of gravitational potential energy in the lake to the energy stored in the bomb is 0.52. That is, the energy stored in the lake is approximately half that in a 9-megaton fusion bomb.

[18.](#)

(a) 1.8 J

(b) 8.6 J

[20.](#)

$$v_f = \sqrt{2gh + v_0^2} = \sqrt{2(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(-0.180 \text{ m}) + (2.00 \text{ m/s})^2} = 0.687 \text{ m/s}$$

[22.](#)

$7.81 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}$

[24.](#)

9.46 m/s

[26.](#)

4×10^4 molecules

[27.](#)

Equating ΔPE_g and ΔKE , we obtain $v = \sqrt{2gh + v_0^2} = \sqrt{2(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(20.0 \text{ m}) + (15.0 \text{ m/s})^2} = 24.8 \text{ m/s}$

[29.](#)

(a) 25×10^6 years

(b) This is much, much longer than human time scales.

[30.](#)

2×10^{-10}

[32.](#)

(a) 40

(b) 8 million

[34.](#)

\$149

36.

(a) 208 W

(b) 141 s

38.

(a) 3.20 s

(b) 4.04 s

40.

(a) 9.46×10^7 J

(b) 2.54 y

42.

Identify knowns: $m = 950$ kg, slope angle $\theta = 2.00^\circ$, $v = 3.00$ m/s, $f = 600$ NIdentify unknowns: power P of the car, force F that car applies to road

Solve for unknown:

$$P = \frac{W}{t} = \frac{Fd}{t} = F\left(\frac{d}{t}\right) = Fv,$$

where F is parallel to the incline and must oppose the resistive forces and the force of gravity:

$$F = f + w = 600 \text{ N} + mg \sin \theta$$

Insert this into the expression for power and solve:

$$\begin{aligned} P &= (f + mg \sin \theta)v \\ &= [600 \text{ N} + (950 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) \sin 2^\circ](30.0 \text{ m/s}) \\ &= 2.77 \times 10^4 \text{ W} \end{aligned}$$

About 28 kW (or about 37 hp) is reasonable for a car to climb a gentle incline.

44.

(a) 9.5 min

(b) 69 flights of stairs

46.

641 W, 0.860 hp

48.

31 g

50.

14.3%

52.

(a) 3.21×10^4 N(b) 2.35×10^3 N

(c) Ratio of net force to weight of person is 41.0 in part (a); 3.00 in part (b)

54.

(a) 108 kJ

(b) 599 W

56.

(a) 144 J

(b) 288 W

58.

(a) 2.50×10^{12} J

(b) 2.52%

(c) 1.4×10^4 kg (14 metric tons)

60.

(a) 294 N

(b) 118 J

(c) 49.0 W

62.

(a) 0.500 m/s^2

(b) 62.5 N

(c) Assuming the acceleration of the swimmer decreases linearly with time over the 5.00 s interval, the frictional force must therefore be increasing linearly with time, since $f = F - ma$. If the acceleration decreases linearly with time, the velocity will contain a term dependent on time squared (t^2). Therefore, the water resistance will not depend linearly on the velocity.

64.

(a) 16.1×10^3 N

(b) 3.22×10^5 J

(c) 5.66 m/s

(d) 4.00 kJ

66.

(a) 4.65×10^3 kcal

(b) 38.8 kcal/min

(c) This power output is higher than the highest value on [Table 7.5](#), which is about 35 kcal/min (corresponding to 2415 watts) for sprinting.

(d) It would be impossible to maintain this power output for 2 hours (imagine sprinting for 2 hours!).

69.

(a) 4.32 m/s

(b) 3.47×10^3 N

(c) 8.93 kW

70.

(a) Box A has the greatest speed since it has the greatest work done; work equals change in kinetic energy and thus fastest speed.

(b) i. Yes, this equation is consistent. An increased force or distance increases the work done, and thus increases the change in kinesthetic energy. ii. No, this equation does not make sense.

(c)

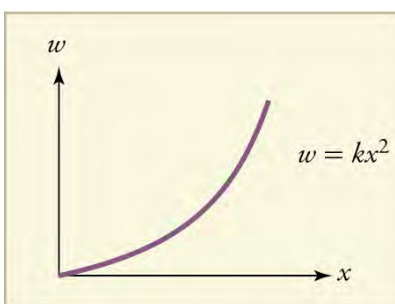


FIGURE 7.44

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(b)

3.

(d)

5.

(a)

7.

The kinetic energy should change in the form of $-\cos$, with an initial value of 0 or slightly above, and ending at the same level.

9.

Any force acting perpendicular will have no effect on kinetic energy. Obvious examples are gravity and the normal force, but others include wind directly from the side and rain or other precipitation falling straight down.

11.

Note that the wind is pushing from behind and one side, so your KE will increase. The net force has components of 1400 N in the direction of travel and 212 N perpendicular to the direction of travel. So the net force is 1420 N at 8.5 degrees from the direction of travel.

13.

Gravity has a component perpendicular to the cannon (and to displacement, so it is irrelevant) and has a component parallel to the cannon. The latter is equal to 9.8 N. Thus the net force in the direction of the displacement is 45 N – 9.8 N, and the kinetic energy is 53 J.

15.

The potato cannon (and many other projectile launchers) above is an option, with a force launching the projectile, friction, potentially gravity depending on the direction it is pointed, etc. A drag (or other) car accelerating is another possibility.

17.

The kinetic energy of the rear wagon increases. The front wagon does not, until the rear wagon collides with it. The total system may be treated by its center of mass, halfway between the wagons, and its energy increases by the same amount as the sum of the two individual wagons.

19.

(d)

21.

0.049 J; 0.041 m, 0.25 m

23.

20 m high, 20 m/s.

25.

(a)

[27.](#)

(d)

[29.](#)

(c)

[31.](#)

(b)

[33.](#)

(c)

[35.](#)

(c)

[37.](#)

(c), (d)

[39.](#)

(a)

[41.](#)

(b)

Chapter 8

Problems & Exercises

[1.](#)(a) $1.50 \times 10^4 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$

(b) 625 to 1

(c) $6.66 \times 10^2 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$ [3.](#)(a) $8.00 \times 10^4 \text{ m/s}$ (b) $1.20 \times 10^6 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$

(c) Because the momentum of the airplane is 3 orders of magnitude smaller than of the ship, the ship will not recoil very much. The recoil would be -0.0100 m/s , which is probably not noticeable.

[5.](#)

54 s

[7.](#) $9.00 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$ [9.](#)a) $2.40 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$ toward the leg

b) The force on each hand would have the same magnitude as that found in part (a) (but in opposite directions by Newton's third law) because the change in momentum and the time interval are the same.

[11.](#)a) $800 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$ away from the wallb) 1.20 m/s away from the wall[13.](#)(a) $1.50 \times 10^6 \text{ N}$ away from the dashboard

(b) 1.00×10^5 N away from the dashboard

15.

4.69×10^5 N in the boat's original direction of motion

17.

2.10×10^3 N away from the wall

19.

$$\mathbf{p} = m\mathbf{v} \Rightarrow p^2 = m^2 v^2 \Rightarrow \frac{p^2}{m} = mv^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{p^2}{2m} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = KE$$

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

21.

60.0 g

23.

0.122 m/s

25.

In a collision with an identical car, momentum is conserved. Afterwards $v_f = 0$ for both cars. The change in momentum will be the same as in the crash with the tree. However, the force on the body is not determined since the time is not known. A padded stop will reduce injurious force on body.

27.

22.4 m/s in the same direction as the original motion

29.

0.250 m/s

31.

(a) 86.4 N perpendicularly away from the bumper

(b) 0.389 J

(c) 64.0%

33.

(a) 8.06 m/s

(b) -56.0 J

(c)(i) 7.88 m/s; (ii) -223 J

35.

(a) 0.163 m/s in the direction of motion of the more massive satellite

(b) 81.6 J

(c) 8.70×10^{-2} m/s in the direction of motion of the less massive satellite, 81.5 J. Because there are no external forces, the velocity of the center of mass of the two-satellite system is unchanged by the collision. The two velocities calculated above are the velocity of the center of mass in each of the two different individual reference frames. The loss in KE is the same in both reference frames because the KE lost to internal forces (heat, friction, etc.) is the same regardless of the coordinate system chosen.

37.

0.704 m/s

-2.25 m/s

38.

(a) 4.58 m/s away from the bullet

(b) 31.5 J

(c) -0.491 m/s

(d) 3.38 J

40.

(a) 1.02×10^{-6} m/s

(b) 5.63×10^{20} J (almost all KE lost)

(c) Recoil speed is 6.79×10^{-17} m/s, energy lost is 6.25×10^9 J. The plume will not affect the momentum result because the plume is still part of the Moon system. The plume may affect the kinetic energy result because a significant part of the initial kinetic energy may be transferred to the kinetic energy of the plume particles.

42.

24.8 m/s

44.

(a) 4.00 kg

(b) 210 J

(c) The clown does work to throw the barbell, so the kinetic energy comes from the muscles of the clown. The muscles convert the chemical potential energy of ATP into kinetic energy.

45.

(a) 3.00 m/s, 60° below x -axis

(b) Find speed of first puck after collision: $0 = mv'_1 \sin 30^\circ - mv'_2 \sin 60^\circ \Rightarrow v'_1 = v'_2 \frac{\sin 60^\circ}{\sin 30^\circ} = 5.196$ m/s

Verify that ratio of initial to final KE equals one:
$$\left. \begin{aligned} \text{KE} &= \frac{1}{2}mv_1^2 = 18m \text{ J} \\ \text{KE} &= \frac{1}{2}mv'^2_1 + \frac{1}{2}mv'^2_2 = 18m \text{ J} \end{aligned} \right\} \frac{\text{KE}}{\text{KE}'} = 1.00$$

47.

(a) -2.26 m/s

(b) 7.63×10^3 J

(c) The ground will exert a normal force to oppose recoil of the cannon in the vertical direction. The momentum in the vertical direction is transferred to the earth. The energy is transferred into the ground, making a dent where the cannon is. After long barrages, cannon have erratic aim because the ground is full of divots.

49.

(a) 5.36×10^5 m/s at -29.5°

(b) 7.52×10^{-13} J

51.

We are given that $m_1 = m_2 \equiv m$. The given equations then become:

$$v_1 = v'_1 \cos \theta_1 + v'_2 \cos \theta_2$$

and

$$0 = v'_1 \sin \theta_1 + v'_2 \sin \theta_2.$$

Square each equation to get

$$v_1^2 = v'^2_1 \cos^2 \theta_1 + v'^2_2 \cos^2 \theta_2 + 2v'_1 v'_2 \cos \theta_1 \cos \theta_2$$

$$0 = v'^2_1 \sin^2 \theta_1 + v'^2_2 \sin^2 \theta_2 + 2v'_1 v'_2 \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta_2.$$

Add these two equations and simplify:

$$\begin{aligned}
 v_1^2 &= v_1'^2 + v_2'^2 + 2v_1'v_2'(\cos\theta_1\cos\theta_2 + \sin\theta_1\sin\theta_2) \\
 &= v_1'^2 + v_2'^2 + 2v_1'v_2'\left[\frac{1}{2}\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + \frac{1}{2}\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + \frac{1}{2}\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) - \frac{1}{2}\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2)\right] \\
 &= v_1'^2 + v_2'^2 + 2v_1'v_2'\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2).
 \end{aligned}$$

Multiply the entire equation by $\frac{1}{2}m$ to recover the kinetic energy:

$$\frac{1}{2}mv_1^2 = \frac{1}{2}mv_1'^2 + \frac{1}{2}mv_2'^2 + mv_1'v_2'\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2)$$

53.

$$39.2 \text{ m/s}^2$$

55.

$$4.16 \times 10^3 \text{ m/s}$$

57.

The force needed to give a small mass Δm an acceleration $a_{\Delta m}$ is $F = \Delta m a_{\Delta m}$. To accelerate this mass in the small time interval Δt requires $v_e = a_{\Delta m} \Delta t$, so $F = v_e \frac{\Delta m}{\Delta t}$. By Newton's third law, this force is equal in magnitude to the thrust force acting on the rocket, so $F_{\text{thrust}} = v_e \frac{\Delta m}{\Delta t}$, where all quantities are positive. Applying Newton's second law to the rocket gives $F_{\text{thrust}} - mg = ma \Rightarrow a = \frac{v_e}{m} \frac{\Delta m}{\Delta t} - g$, where m is the mass of the rocket and unburnt fuel.

60.

$$2.63 \times 10^3 \text{ kg}$$

61.

(a) 0.421 m/s away from the ejected fluid.

(b) 0.237 J.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(b)

3.

(b)

5.

(a)

7.

(c) (based on calculation of $F = \frac{m\Delta v}{\Delta t}$)

9.

(c)

11.

(d)

13.

(b)

15.

(d)

17.

(b)

19.

(c)

21.

(b)

[23.](#)

(c)

[25.](#)

(b)

[27.](#)

(a)

[29.](#)

(c)

[31.](#)

(b)

[33.](#)

(a)

[35.](#)

(b)

[37.](#)

(a)

[39.](#)

(a)

[41.](#)

(d)

[43.](#)

(c). Because of conservation of momentum, the final velocity of the combined mass must be 4.286 m/s. The initial kinetic energy is $(0.5)(2.0)(15)^2 = 225 \text{ J}$. The final kinetic energy is $(0.5)(7.0)(4.286)^2 = 64 \text{ J}$, so the difference is -161 J .

[45.](#)

(a)

[47.](#)

(d)

[49.](#)

(c)

[51.](#)

(b)

Chapter 9

Problems & Exercises

[1.](#)

a) 46.8 N·m

b) It does not matter at what height you push. The torque depends on only the magnitude of the force applied and the perpendicular distance of the force's application from the hinges. (Children don't have a tougher time opening a door because they push lower than adults, they have a tougher time because they don't push far enough from the hinges.)

[3.](#)

23.3 N

5.

Given:

$$m_1 = 26.0 \text{ kg}, m_2 = 32.0 \text{ kg}, m_s = 12.0 \text{ kg},$$

$$r_1 = 1.60 \text{ m}, r_s = 0.160 \text{ m}, \text{ find (a) } r_2, \text{ (b) } F_p$$

a) Since children are balancing:

$$\text{net } \tau_{cw} = -\text{net } \tau_{ccw}$$

$$\Rightarrow w_1 r_1 + m_s g r_s = w_2 r_2$$

So, solving for r_2 gives:

$$\begin{aligned} r_2 &= \frac{w_1 r_1 + m_s g r_s}{w_2} = \frac{m_1 g r_1 + m_s g r_s}{m_2 g} = \frac{m_1 r_1 + m_s r_s}{m_2} \\ &= \frac{(26.0 \text{ kg})(1.60 \text{ m}) + (12.0 \text{ kg})(0.160 \text{ m})}{32.0 \text{ kg}} \\ &= 1.36 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

b) Since the children are not moving:

$$\text{net } F = 0 = F_p - w_1 - w_2 - w_s$$

$$\Rightarrow F_p = w_1 + w_2 + w_s$$

So that

$$\begin{aligned} F_p &= (26.0 \text{ kg} + 32.0 \text{ kg} + 12.0 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) \\ &= 686 \text{ N} \end{aligned}$$

6.

$$F_{\text{wall}} = 1.43 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$$

8.

a) $2.55 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$, 16.3° to the left of vertical (i.e., toward the wall)

b) 0.292

10.

$$F_B = 2.12 \times 10^4 \text{ N}$$

12.

a) 0.167, or about one-sixth of the weight is supported by the opposite shore.

b) $F = 2.0 \times 10^4 \text{ N}$, straight up.

14.

a) 21.6 N

b) 21.6 N

16.

350 N directly upwards

19.

25

50 N

21.

a) $MA = 18.5$ b) $F_i = 29.1 \text{ N}$

c) 510 N downward

23.

$$1.3 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$$

25.

a) $T = 299 \text{ N}$

b) 897 N upward

26.

$$F_B = 470 \text{ N}; r_1 = 4.00 \text{ cm}; w_a = 2.50 \text{ kg}; r_2 = 16.0 \text{ cm}; w_b = 4.00 \text{ kg}; r_3 = 38.0 \text{ cm}$$

$$\begin{aligned} F_E &= w_a \left(\frac{r_2}{r_1} - 1 \right) + w_b \left(\frac{r_3}{r_1} - 1 \right) \\ &= (2.50 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) \left(\frac{16.0 \text{ cm}}{4.0 \text{ cm}} - 1 \right) \\ &\quad + (4.00 \text{ kg})(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2) \left(\frac{38.0 \text{ cm}}{4.00 \text{ cm}} - 1 \right) \\ &= 407 \text{ N} \end{aligned}$$

28.

$$1.1 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$$

$$\theta = 190^\circ \text{ ccw from positive } x \text{ axis}$$

30.

$$F_V = 97 \text{ N}, \theta = 59^\circ$$

32.

(a) 25 N downward

(b) 75 N upward

33.

(a) $F_A = 2.21 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$ upward

(b) $F_B = 2.94 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$ downward

35.

(a) $F_{\text{teeth on bullet}} = 1.2 \times 10^2 \text{ N}$ upward

(b) $F_J = 84 \text{ N}$ downward

37.

(a) 147 N downward

(b) 1680 N , 3.4 times her weight

(c) 118 J

(d) 49.0 W

39.

a) $\bar{x}_2 = 2.33 \text{ m}$

b) The seesaw is 3.0 m long, and hence, there is only 1.50 m of board on the other side of the pivot. The second child is off the board.

c) The position of the first child must be shortened, i.e. brought closer to the pivot.

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1.

(a)

3.

Both objects are in equilibrium. However, they will respond differently if a force is applied to their sides. If the cone placed on its base is displaced to the side, its center of gravity will remain over its base and it will return to its

original position. When the traffic cone placed on its tip is displaced to the side, its center of gravity will drift from its base, causing a torque that will accelerate it to the ground.

5.

(d)

7.

- a. $F_L = 7350 \text{ N}$, $F_R = 2450 \text{ N}$
- b. As the car moves to the right side of the bridge, F_L will decrease and F_R will increase. (At exactly halfway across the bridge, F_L and F_R will both be 4900 N .)

9.

The student should mention that the guiding principle behind simple machines is the second condition of equilibrium. Though the torque leaving a machine must be equivalent to torque entering a machine, the same requirement does not exist for forces. As a result, by decreasing the lever arm to the existing force, the size of the existing force will be increased. The mechanical advantage will be equivalent to the ratio of the forces exiting and entering the machine.

11.

- a. The force placed on your bicep muscle will be greater than the force placed on the dumbbell. The bicep muscle is closer to your elbow than the downward force placed on your hand from the dumbbell. Because the elbow is the pivot point of the system, this results in a decreased lever arm for the bicep. As a result, the force on the bicep must be greater than that placed on the dumbbell. (How much greater? The ratio between the bicep and dumbbell forces is equal to the inverted ratio of their distances from the elbow. If the dumbbell is ten times further from the elbow than the bicep, the force on the bicep will be 200 pounds!)
- b. The force placed on your bicep muscle will decrease. As the forearm lifts the dumbbell, it will get closer to the elbow. As a result, the torque placed on the arm from the weight will decrease and the countering torque created by the bicep muscle will do so as well.

Chapter 10

Problems & Exercises

1.

$$\omega = 0.737 \text{ rev/s}$$

3.

(a) -0.26 rad/s^2

(b) 27 rev

5.

(a) 80 rad/s^2

(b) 1.0 rev

7.

(a) 45.7 s

(b) 116 rev

9.

a) 600 rad/s^2

b) 450 rad/s

c) 21.0 m/s

10.

(a) 0.338 s

(b) 0.0403 rev

(c) 0.313 s

[12.](#)

0.50 kg · m²

[14.](#)

(a) 50.4 N · m

(b) 17.1 rad/s²

(c) 17.0 rad/s²

[16.](#)

3.96×10^{18} s

or 1.26×10^{11} y

[18.](#)

$$I_{\text{end}} = I_{\text{center}} + m\left(\frac{l}{2}\right)^2$$

$$\text{Thus, } I_{\text{center}} = I_{\text{end}} - \frac{1}{4}ml^2 = \frac{1}{3}ml^2 - \frac{1}{4}ml^2 = \frac{1}{12}ml^2$$

[19.](#)

(a) 2.0 ms

(b) The time interval is too short.

(c) The moment of inertia is much too small, by one to two orders of magnitude. A torque of 500 N · m is reasonable.

[20.](#)

(a) 17,500 rpm

(b) This angular velocity is very high for a disk of this size and mass. The radial acceleration at the edge of the disk is > 50,000 gs.

(c) Flywheel mass and radius should both be much greater, allowing for a lower spin rate (angular velocity).

[21.](#)

(a) 185 J

(b) 0.0785 rev

(c) $W = 9.81$ N

[23.](#)

(a) 2.57×10^{29} J

(b) $\text{KE}_{\text{rot}} = 2.65 \times 10^{33}$ J

[25.](#)

$\text{KE}_{\text{rot}} = 434$ J

[27.](#)

(a) 128 rad/s

(b) 19.9 m

[29.](#)

(a) 10.4 rad/s²

(b) net $W = 6.11$ J

[34.](#)

(a) 1.49 kJ

(b) $2.52 \times 10^4 \text{ N}$

[36.](#)

(a) $2.66 \times 10^{40} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}$

(b) $7.07 \times 10^{33} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}$

The angular momentum of the Earth in its orbit around the Sun is 3.77×10^6 times larger than the angular momentum of the Earth around its axis.

[38.](#)

$22.5 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}$

[40.](#)

25.3 rpm

[43.](#)

(a) 0.156 rad/s

(b) $1.17 \times 10^{-2} \text{ J}$

(c) $0.188 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$

[45.](#)

(a) 3.13 rad/s

(b) Initial KE = 438 J, final KE = 438 J

[47.](#)

(a) 1.70 rad/s

(b) Initial KE = 22.5 J, final KE = 2.04 J

(c) $1.50 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$

[48.](#)

(a) $5.64 \times 10^{33} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}$

(b) $1.39 \times 10^{22} \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}$

(c) $2.17 \times 10^{15} \text{ N}$

Test Prep for AP® Courses

[1.](#)

(b)

[3.](#)

(d)

[5.](#)

(d)

You are given a thin rod of length 1.0 m and mass 2.0 kg, a small lead weight of 0.50 kg, and a not-so-small lead weight of 1.0 kg. The rod has three holes, one in each end and one through the middle, which may either hold a pivot point or one of the small lead weights.

[7.](#)

(a)

[9.](#)

(c)

[11.](#)

(a)

13.

(a)

15.

(b)

17.

(c)

19.

(b)

21.

(b)

23.

(c)

25.

(d)

27.

A door on hinges is a rotational system. When you push or pull on the door handle, the angular momentum of the system changes. If a weight is hung on the door handle, then pushing on the door with the same force will cause a different increase in angular momentum. If you push or pull near the hinges with the same force, the resulting angular momentum of the system will also be different.

29.

Since the globe is stationary to start with,

$$\tau = \frac{\Delta L}{\Delta t}$$

$$\tau \cdot \Delta t = \Delta L$$

By substituting,

$$120 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m} \cdot 1.2 \text{ s} = 144 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}\cdot\text{s}.$$

The angular momentum of the globe after 1.2 s is 144 N•m•s.

Chapter 11

Problems & Exercises

1.

$$1.610 \text{ cm}^3$$

3.

(a) 2.58 g

(b) The volume of your body increases by the volume of air you inhale. The average density of your body decreases when you take a deep breath, because the density of air is substantially smaller than the average density of the body before you took the deep breath.

4.

$$2.70 \text{ g/cm}^3$$

6.

(a) 0.163 m

(b) Equivalent to 19.4 gallons, which is reasonable

8.

$$7.9 \times 10^2 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

9.

$$15.8 \text{ g/cm}^3$$

10.

$$(a) 10^{18} \text{ kg/m}^3$$

$$(b) 2 \times 10^4 \text{ m}$$

11.

$$3.59 \times 10^6 \text{ Pa; or } 521 \text{ lb/in}^2$$

13.

$$2.36 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$$

14.

$$0.760 \text{ m}$$

16.

$$\begin{aligned} (h\rho g)_{\text{units}} &= (\text{m})(\text{kg/m}^3)(\text{m/s}^2) = (\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^2)/(\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^2) \\ &= (\text{kg} \cdot \text{m/s}^2)(1/\text{m}^2) \\ &= \text{N/m}^2 \end{aligned}$$

18.

$$(a) 20.5 \text{ mm Hg}$$

(b) The range of pressures in the eye is 12–24 mm Hg, so the result in part (a) is within that range

20.

$$1.09 \times 10^3 \text{ N/m}^2$$

22.

$$24.0 \text{ N}$$

24.

$$2.55 \times 10^7 \text{ Pa; or } 251 \text{ atm}$$

26.

$$5.76 \times 10^3 \text{ N extra force}$$

28.

$$(a) V = d_i A_i = d_o A_o \Rightarrow d_o = d_i \left(\frac{A_i}{A_o} \right).$$

Now, using equation:

$$\frac{F_1}{A_1} = \frac{F_2}{A_2} \Rightarrow F_o = F_i \left(\frac{A_o}{A_i} \right).$$

Finally,

$$W_o = F_o d_o = \left(\frac{F_i A_o}{A_i} \right) \left(\frac{d_i A_i}{A_o} \right) = F_i d_i = W_i.$$

In other words, the work output equals the work input.

(b) If the system is not moving, friction would not play a role. With friction, we know there are losses, so that $W_{\text{out}} = W_{\text{in}} - W_f$; therefore, the work output is less than the work input. In other words, with friction, you need to push harder on the input piston than was calculated for the nonfriction case.

29.

Balloon:

$$P_g = 5.00 \text{ cm H}_2\text{O},$$

$$P_{\text{abs}} = 1.035 \times 10^3 \text{ cm H}_2\text{O}.$$

Jar:

$$P_g = -50.0 \text{ mm Hg},$$

$$P_{\text{abs}} = 710 \text{ mm Hg}.$$

[31.](#)

4.08 m

[33.](#)

$$\Delta P = 38.7 \text{ mm Hg},$$

$$\text{Leg blood pressure} = \frac{159}{119}.$$

[35.](#)

$$22.4 \text{ cm}^2$$

[36.](#)

91.7%

[38.](#)

$$815 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

[40.](#)

(a) 41.4 g

(b) 41.4 cm³

(c) 1.09 g/cm³

[42.](#)

(a) 39.5 g

(b) 50 cm³

(c) 0.79 g/cm³

It is ethyl alcohol.

[44.](#)

8.21 N

[46.](#)

(a) 960 kg/m³

(b) 6.34%

She indeed floats more in seawater.

[48.](#)

(a) 0.24

(b) 0.68

(c) Yes, the cork will float because $\rho_{\text{obj}} < \rho_{\text{ethyl alcohol}}$ ($0.678 \text{ g/cm}^3 < 0.79 \text{ g/cm}^3$)

[50.](#)

The difference is 0.006%.

[52.](#)

$$F_{\text{net}} = F_2 - F_1 = P_2 A - P_1 A = (P_2 - P_1) A$$

$$= (h_2 \rho_{\text{fl}} g - h_1 \rho_{\text{fl}} g) A$$

$$=(h_2 - h_1)\rho_{\text{fl}}gA$$

where ρ_{fl} = density of fluid. Therefore,

$$F_{\text{net}}=(h_2 - h_1)A\rho_{\text{fl}}g = V_{\text{fl}}\rho_{\text{fl}}g = m_{\text{fl}}g = w_{\text{fl}}$$

where w_{fl} is the weight of the fluid displaced.

54.

$$592 \text{ N/m}^2$$

56.

$$2.23 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mm Hg}$$

58.

$$(a) 1.65 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$$

$$(b) 3.71 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}$$

60.

$$6.32 \times 10^{-2} \text{ N/m}$$

Based on the values in table, the fluid is probably glycerin.

62.

$$P_w = 14.6 \text{ N/m}^2,$$

$$P_a = 4.46 \text{ N/m}^2,$$

$$P_{\text{sw}} = 7.40 \text{ N/m}^2.$$

Alcohol forms the most stable bubble, since the absolute pressure inside is closest to atmospheric pressure.

64.

$$5.1^\circ$$

This is near the value of $\theta = 0^\circ$ for most organic liquids.

66.

$$-2.78$$

The ratio is negative because water is raised whereas mercury is lowered.

68.

$$479 \text{ N}$$

70.

$$1.96 \text{ N}$$

71.

$$-63.0 \text{ cm H}_2\text{O}$$

73.

$$(a) 3.81 \times 10^3 \text{ N/m}^2$$

(b) 28.7 mm Hg, which is sufficient to trigger micturition reflex

75.

$$(a) 13.6 \text{ m water}$$

$$(b) 76.5 \text{ cm water}$$

77.

$$(a) 3.98 \times 10^6 \text{ Pa}$$

$$(b) 2.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}$$

[79.](#)

(a) 2.97 cm

(b) 3.39×10^{-6} J

(c) Work is done by the surface tension force through an effective distance $h/2$ to raise the column of water.

[81.](#)

(a) 2.01×10^4 N

(b) 1.17×10^{-3} m

(c) 2.56×10^{10} N/m²

[83.](#)

(a) 1.38×10^4 N

(b) 2.81×10^7 N/m²

(c) 283 N

[85.](#)

(a) 867 N

(b) This is too much force to exert with a hand pump.

(c) The assumed radius of the pump is too large; it would be nearly two inches in diameter—too large for a pump or even a master cylinder. The pressure is reasonable for bicycle tires.

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[1.](#)

(e)

[3.](#)

(a) 100 kg/m³ (b) 60% (c) yes; yes (76% will be submerged) (d) answers vary

Chapter 12

Problems & Exercises

[1.](#)

2.78 cm³/s

[3.](#)

27 cm/s

[5.](#)

(a) 0.75 m/s

(b) 0.13 m/s

[7.](#)

(a) 40.0 cm²

(b) 5.09×10^7

[9.](#)

(a) 22 h

(b) 0.016 s

[11.](#)

(a) 12.6 m/s

(b) 0.0800 m³/s

(c) No, independent of density.

13.

(a) 0.402 L/s

(b) 0.584 cm

15.

(a) 127 cm³/s

(b) 0.890 cm

17.

$$P = \frac{\text{Force}}{\text{Area}},$$

$$(P)_{\text{units}} = \text{N/m}^2 = \text{N} \cdot \text{m/m}^3 = \text{J/m}^3$$

$$= \text{energy/volume}$$

19.

184 mm Hg

21.

$2.54 \times 10^5 \text{ N}$

23.

(a) $1.58 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$

(b) 163 m

25.

(a) $9.56 \times 10^8 \text{ W}$

(b) 1.4

27.

1.26 W

29.

(a) $3.02 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N}$

(b) 1.03×10^{-3}

31.

1.60 cm³/min

33.

$8.7 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$

35.

0.316

37.

(a) 1.52

(b) Turbulence will decrease the flow rate of the blood, which would require an even larger increase in the pressure difference, leading to higher blood pressure.

39.

225 mPa · s

41.

0.138 Pa · s,

or

Olive oil.

[43.](#)(a) $1.62 \times 10^4 \text{ N/m}^2$ (b) $0.111 \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$ (c) 10.6 cm [45.](#)

1.59

[47.](#) $2.95 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$ (gauge pressure)[51.](#) $N_R = 1.99 \times 10^2 < 2000$ [53.](#)(a) nozzle: 1.27×10^5 , not laminar(b) hose: 3.51×10^4 , not laminar.[55.](#) $2.54 \ll 2000$, laminar.[57.](#) 1.02 m/s $1.28 \times 10^{-2} \text{ L/s}$ [59.](#)(a) $\geq 13.0 \text{ m}$ (b) $2.68 \times 10^{-6} \text{ N/m}^2$ [61.](#)(a) 23.7 atm or 344 lb/in²

(b) The pressure is much too high.

(c) The assumed flow rate is very high for a garden hose.

(d) $5.27 \times 10^6 \gg 3000$, turbulent, contrary to the assumption of laminar flow when using this equation.[62.](#) $1.41 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$ [64.](#) $1.3 \times 10^2 \text{ s}$ [66.](#)

0.391 s

Test Prep for AP® Courses

[1.](#)

(c)

[3.](#)

(a)

[5.](#)

(a)

[7.](#)

(a)

9.

(d)

Chapter 13

Problems & Exercises

1.

102°F

3.

20.0°C and 25.6°C

5.

9890°F

7.

(a) 22.2°C

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta T(^{\circ}\text{F}) &= T_2(^{\circ}\text{F}) - T_1(^{\circ}\text{F}) \\ (b) \quad &= \frac{9}{5}T_2(^{\circ}\text{C}) + 32.0^{\circ} - \left(\frac{9}{5}T_1(^{\circ}\text{C}) + 32.0^{\circ}\right) \\ &= \frac{9}{5}(T_2(^{\circ}\text{C}) - T_1(^{\circ}\text{C})) = \frac{9}{5}\Delta T(^{\circ}\text{C})\end{aligned}$$

9.

169.98 m

11.

 $5.4 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}$

13.

Because the area gets smaller, the price of the land DECREASES by ~\$17,000.

15.

$$\begin{aligned}V &= V_0 + \Delta V = V_0(1 + \beta\Delta T) \\ &= (60.00 \text{ L})[1 + (950 \times 10^{-6}/^{\circ}\text{C})(35.0^{\circ}\text{C} - 15.0^{\circ}\text{C})] \\ &= 61.1 \text{ L}\end{aligned}$$

17.

(a) 9.35 mL

(b) 7.56 mL

19.

0.832 mm

21.

We know how the length changes with temperature: $\Delta L = \alpha L_0 \Delta T$. Also we know that the volume of a cube is related to its length by $V = L^3$, so the final volume is then $V = V_0 + \Delta V = (L_0 + \Delta L)^3$. Substituting for ΔL gives

$$V = (L_0 + \alpha L_0 \Delta T)^3 = L_0^3(1 + \alpha \Delta T)^3.$$

Now, because $\alpha \Delta T$ is small, we can use the binomial expansion:

$$V \approx L_0^3(1 + 3\alpha \Delta T) = L_0^3 + 3\alpha L_0^3 \Delta T.$$

So writing the length terms in terms of volumes gives $V = V_0 + \Delta V \approx V_0 + 3\alpha V_0 \Delta T$, and so

$$\Delta V = \beta V_0 \Delta T \approx 3\alpha V_0 \Delta T, \text{ or } \beta \approx 3\alpha.$$

22.

1.62 atm

24.

(a) 0.136 atm

(b) 0.135 atm. The difference between this value and the value from part (a) is negligible.

[26.](#)

(a) $nRT = (\text{mol})(\text{J/mol} \cdot \text{K})(\text{K}) = \text{J}$

(b) $nRT = (\text{mol})(\text{cal/mol} \cdot \text{K})(\text{K}) = \text{cal}$

$$nRT = (\text{mol})(\text{L} \cdot \text{atm/mol} \cdot \text{K})(\text{K})$$

(c) $= \text{L} \cdot \text{atm} = (\text{m}^3)(\text{N/m}^2)$

$$= \text{N} \cdot \text{m} = \text{J}$$

[28.](#)

$$7.86 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mol}$$

[30.](#)

$$(a) 6.02 \times 10^5 \text{ km}^3$$

$$(b) 6.02 \times 10^8 \text{ km}$$

[32.](#)

$$-73.9^\circ\text{C}$$

[34.](#)

$$(a) 9.14 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$$

$$(b) 8.23 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$$

$$(c) 2.16 \text{ K}$$

(d) No. The final temperature needed is much too low to be easily achieved for a large object.

[36.](#)

$$41 \text{ km}$$

[38.](#)

$$(a) 3.7 \times 10^{-17} \text{ Pa}$$

$$(b) 6.0 \times 10^{17} \text{ m}^3$$

$$(c) 8.4 \times 10^2 \text{ km}$$

[39.](#)

$$1.25 \times 10^3 \text{ m/s}$$

[41.](#)

$$(a) 1.20 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$$

$$(b) 1.24 \times 10^{-17} \text{ J}$$

[43.](#)

$$458 \text{ K}$$

[45.](#)

$$1.95 \times 10^7 \text{ K}$$

[47.](#)

$$6.09 \times 10^5 \text{ m/s}$$

[49.](#)

$$7.89 \times 10^4 \text{ Pa}$$

[51.](#)

(a) 1.99×10^5 Pa

(b) 0.97 atm

[53.](#)

3.12×10^4 Pa

[55.](#)

78.3%

[57.](#)

(a) 2.12×10^4 Pa

(b) 1.06 %

[59.](#)

(a) 8.80×10^{-2} g

(b) 6.30×10^3 Pa; the two values are nearly identical.

[61.](#)

82.3%

[63.](#)

4.77°C

[65.](#)

38.3 m

[67.](#)

$\frac{(F_B/w_{Cu})}{(F_B/w_{Cu})} = 1.02$. The buoyant force supports nearly the exact same amount of force on the copper block in both circumstances.

[69.](#)

(a) 4.41×10^{10} mol/m³

(b) It's unreasonably large.

(c) At high pressures such as these, the ideal gas law can no longer be applied. As a result, unreasonable answers come up when it is used.

[71.](#)

(a) 7.03×10^8 m/s

(b) The velocity is too high—it's greater than the speed of light.

(c) The assumption that hydrogen inside a supernova behaves as an idea gas is responsible, because of the great temperature and density in the core of a star. Furthermore, when a velocity greater than the speed of light is obtained, classical physics must be replaced by relativity, a subject not yet covered.

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[1.](#)

(a), (c)

[3.](#)

(d)

[5.](#)

(b)

[7.](#)

(a) 7.29×10^{-21} J; (b) 352K or 79°C

Chapter 14

Problems & Exercises

1.

5.02×10^8 J

3.

3.07×10^3 J

5.

0.171°C

7.

10.8

9.

617 W

11.

35.9 kcal

13.

(a) 591 kcal

(b) 4.94×10^3 s

15.

13.5 W

17.

(a) 148 kcal

(b) 0.418 s, 3.34 s, 4.19 s, 22.6 s, 0.456 s

19.

33.0 g

20.

(a) 9.67 L

(b) Crude oil is less dense than water, so it floats on top of the water, thereby exposing it to the oxygen in the air, which it uses to burn. Also, if the water is under the oil, it is less efficient in absorbing the heat generated by the oil.

22.

a) 319 kcal

b) 2.00°C

24.

20.6°C

26.

4.38 kg

28.

(a) 1.57×10^4 kcal

(b) 18.3 kW · h

(c) 1.29×10^4 kcal

30.

(a) 1.01×10^3 W

(b) One

[32.](#)

84.0 W

[34.](#)

2.59 kg

[36.](#)

(a) 39.7 W

(b) 820 kcal

[38.](#)

35 to 1, window to wall

[40.](#)

1.05×10^3 K

[42.](#)

(a) 83 W

(b) 24 times that of a double pane window.

[44.](#)

20.0 W, 17.2% of 2400 kcal per day

[45.](#)

10 m/s

[47.](#)

85.7°C

[49.](#)

1.48 kg

[51.](#)

2×10^4 MW

[53.](#)

(a) 97.2 J

(b) 29.2 W

(c) 9.49 W

(d) The total rate of heat loss would be $29.2 \text{ W} + 9.49 \text{ W} = 38.7 \text{ W}$. While sleeping, our body consumes 83 W of power, while sitting it consumes 120 to 210 W. Therefore, the total rate of heat loss from breathing will not be a major form of heat loss for this person.

[55.](#)

-21.7 kW

Note that the negative answer implies heat loss to the surroundings.

[57.](#)

-266 kW

[59.](#)

-36.0 W

[61.](#)

(a) 1.31%

(b) 20.5%

63.

(a) -15.0 kW

(b) 4.2 cm

65.

(a) 48.5°C

(b) A pure white object reflects more of the radiant energy that hits it, so a white tent would prevent more of the sunlight from heating up the inside of the tent, and the white tunic would prevent that heat which entered the tent from heating the rider. Therefore, with a white tent, the temperature would be lower than 48.5°C , and the rate of radiant heat transferred to the rider would be less than 20.0 W .

67.

(a) $3 \times 10^{17} \text{ J}$

(b) $1 \times 10^{13} \text{ kg}$

(c) When a large meteor hits the ocean, it causes great tidal waves, dissipating large amount of its energy in the form of kinetic energy of the water.

69.

(a) $3.44 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$

(b) This is equivalent to 12 million cubic feet of air per second. That is tremendous. This is too large to be dissipated by heating the air by only 5°C . Many of these cooling towers use the circulation of cooler air over warmer water to increase the rate of evaporation. This would allow much smaller amounts of air necessary to remove such a large amount of heat because evaporation removes larger quantities of heat than was considered in part (a).

71.

20.9 min

73.

(a) $3.96 \times 10^{-2} \text{ g}$

(b) 96.2 J

(c) 16.0 W

75.

(a) 1.102

(b) $2.79 \times 10^4 \text{ J}$

(c) 12.6 J . This will not cause a significant cooling of the air because it is much less than the energy found in part (b), which is the energy required to warm the air from 20.0°C to 50.0°C .

76.

(a) 36°C

(b) Any temperature increase greater than about 3°C would be unreasonably large. In this case the final temperature of the person would rise to 73°C (163°F).

(c) The assumption of 95% heat retention is unreasonable.

78.

(a) 1.46 kW

(b) Very high power loss through a window. An electric heater of this power can keep an entire room warm.

(c) The surface temperatures of the window do not differ by as great an amount as assumed. The inner surface will be warmer, and the outer surface will be cooler.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(c)

3.

(a)

5.

(b)

7.

(a)

9.

(d)

Chapter 15

Problems & Exercises

1.

$$1.6 \times 10^9 \text{ J}$$

3.

$$-9.30 \times 10^8 \text{ J}$$

5.

(a) $-1.0 \times 10^4 \text{ J}$, or -2.39 kcal

(b) 5.00%

7.

(a) 122 W

(b) $2.10 \times 10^6 \text{ J}$

(c) Work done by the motor is $1.61 \times 10^7 \text{ J}$; thus the motor produces 7.67 times the work done by the man

9.

(a) 492 kJ

(b) This amount of heat is consistent with the fact that you warm quickly when exercising. Since the body is inefficient, the excess heat produced must be dissipated through sweating, breathing, etc.

10.

$$2.09 \times 10^4 \text{ J}$$

12.

(a) $W = P\Delta V = 1.76 \times 10^5 \text{ J}$

(b) $W = Fd = 1.76 \times 10^5 \text{ J}$. Yes, the answer is the same.

14.

$$W = 4.5 \times 10^3 \text{ J}$$

16.

W is not equal to the difference between the heat input and the heat output.

20.

(a) 18.5 kJ

(b) 54.1%

22.

(a) $1.32 \times 10^9 \text{ J}$

(b) $4.68 \times 10^9 \text{ J}$

24.

(a) $3.80 \times 10^9 \text{ J}$

(b) 0.667 barrels

26.

(a) $8.30 \times 10^{12} \text{ J}$, which is 3.32% of $2.50 \times 10^{14} \text{ J}$.

(b) $-8.30 \times 10^{12} \text{ J}$, where the negative sign indicates a reduction in heat transfer to the environment.

28.

403°C

30.

(a) 244°C

(b) 477°C

(c) Yes, since automobiles engines cannot get too hot without overheating, their efficiency is limited.

32.

(a) $Eff_1 = 1 - \frac{T_{c,1}}{T_{h,1}} = 1 - \frac{543 \text{ K}}{723 \text{ K}} = 0.249$ or 24.9%

(b) $Eff_2 = 1 - \frac{423 \text{ K}}{543 \text{ K}} = 0.221$ or 22.1%

(c) $Eff_1 = 1 - \frac{T_{c,1}}{T_{h,1}} \Rightarrow T_{c,1} = T_{h,1}(1 - Eff_1)$ similarly, $T_{c,2} = T_{h,2}(1 - Eff_2)$

$$T_{c,2} = T_{h,1}(1 - Eff_1)(1 - Eff_2) \equiv T_{h,1}(1 - Eff_{\text{overall}})$$

using $T_{h,2} = T_{c,1}$ in above equation gives $\therefore (1 - Eff_{\text{overall}}) = (1 - Eff_1)(1 - Eff_2)$

$$Eff_{\text{overall}} = 1 - (1 - 0.249)(1 - 0.221) = 41.5\%$$

(d) $Eff_{\text{overall}} = 1 - \frac{423 \text{ K}}{723 \text{ K}} = 0.415$ or 41.5%

34.

The heat transfer to the cold reservoir is $Q_c = Q_h - W = 25 \text{ kJ} - 12 \text{ kJ} = 13 \text{ kJ}$, so the efficiency is

$$Eff = 1 - \frac{Q_c}{Q_h} = 1 - \frac{13 \text{ kJ}}{25 \text{ kJ}} = 0.48.$$
 The Carnot efficiency is $Eff_C = 1 - \frac{T_c}{T_h} = 1 - \frac{300 \text{ K}}{600 \text{ K}} = 0.50$. The actual

efficiency is 96% of the Carnot efficiency, which is much higher than the best-ever achieved of about 70%, so her scheme is likely to be fraudulent.

36.

(a) -56.3°C

(b) The temperature is too cold for the output of a steam engine (the local environment). It is below the freezing point of water.

(c) The assumed efficiency is too high.

37.

4.82

39.

0.311

41.

(a) 4.61

(b) 1.66×10^8 J or 3.97×10^4 kcal

(c) To transfer 1.66×10^8 J, heat pump costs \$1.00, natural gas costs \$1.34.

43.

27.6°C

45.

(a) 1.44×10^7 J

(b) 40 cents

(c) This cost seems quite realistic; it says that running an air conditioner all day would cost \$9.59 (if it ran continuously).

47.

(a) 9.78×10^4 J/K

(b) In order to gain more energy, we must generate it from things within the house, like a heat pump, human bodies, and other appliances. As you know, we use a lot of energy to keep our houses warm in the winter because of the loss of heat to the outside.

49.

8.01×10^5 J

51.

(a) 1.04×10^{31} J/K

(b) 3.28×10^{31} J

53.

199 J/K

55.

(a) 2.47×10^{14} J

(b) 1.60×10^{14} J

(c) 2.85×10^{10} J/K

(d) 8.29×10^{12} J

57.

It should happen twice in every 1.27×10^{30} s or once in every 6.35×10^{29} s

$$\begin{aligned} & (6.35 \times 10^{29} \text{ s}) \left(\frac{1 \text{ h}}{3600 \text{ s}} \right) \left(\frac{1 \text{ d}}{24 \text{ h}} \right) \left(\frac{1 \text{ y}}{365.25 \text{ d}} \right) \\ &= 2.0 \times 10^{22} \text{ y} \end{aligned}$$

59.

(a) 3.0×10^{29}

(b) 24%

61.

(a) -2.38×10^{-23} J/K

(b) 5.6 times more likely

(c) If you were betting on two heads and 8 tails, the odds of breaking even are 252 to 45, so on average you would break even. So, no, you wouldn't bet on odds of 252 to 45.

63.

(b) 7

(c) 64

(d) 9.38%

(e) 3.33 times more likely (20 to 6)

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(d)

3.

(a)

5.

(b)

7.

(c)

9.

(d)

11.

(a)

13.

(c)

15.

(b)

Chapter 16

Problems & Exercises

1.

(a) 1.23×10^3 N/m

(b) 6.88 kg

(c) 4.00 mm

3.

(a) 889 N/m

(b) 133 N

5.

(a) 6.53×10^3 N/m

(b) Yes

7.

16.7 ms

8.

0.400 s/beats

9.

400 Hz

10.

12,500 Hz

[11.](#)

1.50 kHz

[12.](#)

(a) 93.8 m/s

(b) 11.3×10^3 rev/min

[13.](#)

2.37 N/m

[15.](#)

0.389 kg

[18.](#)

94.7 kg

[21.](#)

1.94 s

[22.](#)

6.21 cm

[24.](#)

2.01 s

[26.](#)

2.23 Hz

[28.](#)

(a) 2.99541 s

(b) Since the period is related to the square root of the acceleration of gravity, when the acceleration changes by 1% the period changes by $(0.01)^2 = 0.01\%$ so it is necessary to have at least 4 digits after the decimal to see the changes.

[30.](#)

(a) Period increases by a factor of 1.41 ($\sqrt{2}$)

(b) Period decreases to 97.5% of old period

[32.](#)

Slow by a factor of 2.45

[34.](#)

length must increase by 0.0116%.

[35.](#)

(a) 1.99 Hz

(b) 50.2 cm

(c) 1.40 Hz, 71.0 cm

[36.](#)

(a) 3.95×10^6 N/m

(b) 7.90×10^6 J

[37.](#)

a). 0.266 m/s

b). 3.00 J

39.

$$\pm \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

42.

384 J

44.

(a). 0.123 m

(b). -0.600 J

(c). 0.300 J. The rest of the energy may go into heat caused by friction and other damping forces.

46.

(a) 5.00×10^5 J(b) 1.20×10^3 s

47.

 $t = 9.26$ d

49.

 $f = 40.0$ Hz

51.

 $v_w = 16.0$ m/s

53.

 $\lambda = 700$ m

55.

 $d = 34.0$ cm

57.

 $f = 4$ Hz

59.

462 Hz,

4 Hz

61.

(a) 3.33 m/s

(b) 1.25 Hz

63.

0.225 W

65.

7.07

67.

16.0 d

68.

2.50 kW

70.

 3.38×10^{-5} W/m²

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(d)

3.

(b)

[5.](#)

The frequency is given by

$$f = \frac{1}{T} = \frac{50 \text{ cycles}}{30s} = 1.66 \text{ Hz}$$

Time period is:

$$T = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{1.66} = 0.6 \text{ s}$$

[7.](#)

(c)

[9.](#)

The energy of the particle at the center of the oscillation is given by

$$E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{1}{2} \times 0.2 \text{ kg} \times (5 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1})^2 = 2.5 \text{ J}$$

[11.](#)

(b)

[13.](#)

19.7 J

[15.](#)

(c)

[17.](#)

$$d = \frac{k}{2\mu_K mg} \left(X^2 - \frac{\mu_K mg}{k} \right)^2 \text{ where } k = 50 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}^{-1} \mu_k = 0.06 \text{ m} = 0.5\text{kg}$$

$$d = \frac{50\text{N}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}}{2 \times 0.06 \times 9.8\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-2}} \left((0.2)^2 - \left(\frac{(0.06 \times 0.5\text{kg} \times 9.8\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-2})^2}{(50\text{N}\cdot\text{m}^{-1})^2} \right) \right) = 1.698 \text{ m}$$

[19.](#)

The waves coming from a tuning fork are mechanical waves that are longitudinal in nature, whereas electromagnetic waves are transverse in nature.

[21.](#)

The sound energy coming out of an instrument depends on its size. The sound waves produced are relative to the size of the musical instrument. A smaller instrument such as a tambourine will produce a high-pitched sound (higher frequency, shorter wavelength), whereas a larger instrument such as a drum will produce a deeper sound (lower frequency, longer wavelength).

[23.](#) $2\pi \text{ m}$ [25.](#)

The student explains the principle of superposition and then shows two waves adding up to form a bigger wave when a crest adds with a crest and a trough with another trough. Also the student shows a wave getting cancelled out when a crest meets a trough and vice versa.

[27.](#)

The student must note that the shape of the wave remains the same and there is first an overlap and then receding of the waves.

[29.](#)

(c)

Chapter 17

Problems & Exercises

1.

0.288 m

3.

332 m/s

5.

$$\begin{aligned} v_w &= (331 \text{ m/s}) \sqrt{\frac{T}{273 \text{ K}}} = (331 \text{ m/s}) \sqrt{\frac{293 \text{ K}}{273 \text{ K}}} \\ &= 343 \text{ m/s} \end{aligned}$$

7.

0.223

9.

(a) 7.70 m

(b) This means that sonar is good for spotting and locating large objects, but it isn't able to resolve smaller objects, or detect the detailed shapes of objects. Objects like ships or large pieces of airplanes can be found by sonar, while smaller pieces must be found by other means.

11.

(a) 18.0 ms, 17.1 ms

(b) 5.00%

(c) This uncertainty could definitely cause difficulties for the bat, if it didn't continue to use sound as it closed in on its prey. A 5% uncertainty could be the difference between catching the prey around the neck or around the chest, which means that it could miss grabbing its prey.

12.

$$3.16 \times 10^{-4} \text{ W/m}^2$$

14.

$$3.04 \times 10^{-4} \text{ W/m}^2$$

16.

106 dB

18.

(a) 93 dB

(b) 83 dB

20.

(a) 50.1

(b) 5.01×10^{-3} or $\frac{1}{200}$ 22.

70.0 dB

24.

100

26.

$$1.45 \times 10^{-3} \text{ J}$$

28.

28.2 dB

[30.](#)

(a) 878 Hz

(b) 735 Hz

[32.](#)

3.79×10^3 Hz

[34.](#)

(a) 12.9 m/s

(b) 193 Hz

[36.](#)

First eagle hears 4.23×10^3 Hz

Second eagle hears 3.56×10^3 Hz

[38.](#)

0.7 Hz

[40.](#)

0.3 Hz, 0.2 Hz, 0.5 Hz

[42.](#)

(a) 256 Hz

(b) 512 Hz

[44.](#)

180 Hz, 270 Hz, 360 Hz

[46.](#)

1.56 m

[48.](#)

(a) 0.334 m

(b) 259 Hz

[50.](#)

3.39 to 4.90 kHz

[52.](#)

(a) 367 Hz

(b) 1.07 kHz

[54.](#)

(a) $f_n = n(47.6 \text{ Hz})$, $n = 1, 3, 5, \dots, 419$

(b) $f_n = n(95.3 \text{ Hz})$, $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 210$

[55.](#)

1×10^6 km

[57.](#)

498.5 or 501.5 Hz

[59.](#)

82 dB

[61.](#)

approximately 48, 9, 0, -7, and 20 dB, respectively

[63.](#)

(a) 23 dB

(b) 70 dB

[65.](#)

Five factors of 10

[67.](#)

(a) $2 \times 10^{-10} \text{ W/m}^2$

(b) $2 \times 10^{-13} \text{ W/m}^2$

[69.](#)

2.5

[71.](#)

1.26

[72.](#)

170 dB

[74.](#)

103 dB

[76.](#)

(a) 1.00

(b) 0.823

(c) Gel is used to facilitate the transmission of the ultrasound between the transducer and the patient's body.

[78.](#)

(a) $77.0 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$

(b) Effective penetration depth = 3.85 cm, which is enough to examine the eye.

(c) $16.6 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$

[80.](#)

(a) $5.78 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}$

(b) $2.67 \times 10^6 \text{ Hz}$

[82.](#)

(a) $v_w = 1540 \text{ m/s} = f\lambda \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{1540 \text{ m/s}}{100 \times 10^3 \text{ Hz}} = 0.0154 \text{ m} < 3.50 \text{ m}$. Because the wavelength is much shorter than the distance in question, the wavelength is not the limiting factor.

(b) 4.55 ms

[84.](#)

974 Hz

(Note: extra digits were retained in order to show the difference.)

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[1.](#)

(b)

[3.](#)

(e)

[5.](#)

(c)

7.

Answers vary. Students could include a sketch showing an increased amplitude when two waves occupy the same location. Students could also cite conceptual evidence such as sound waves passing through each other.

9.

(d)

11.

(c)

13.

(a)

15.

(c)

17.

(b)

18.

Striking the end of a protruding ruler would create transverse waves, not sound waves. Any measurable, audible sound would come from the repetitive striking of the ruler against the desk. The student is confused about the speed of sound through solids versus the speed of sound in air.

19.

(a), (b)

21.

(c)

Chapter 18

Problems & Exercises

1.

(a) 1.25×10^{10}

(b) 3.13×10^{12}

3.

-600 C

5.

1.03×10^{12}

7.

9.09×10^{-13}

9.

1.48×10^8 C

15.

(a) 2.12×10^5 N/C

(b) one charge of $+q$

17.

(a) 0.252 N to the left

(b) $x = 6.07$ cm

19.

(a) The electric field at the center of the square will be straight up, since q_a and q_b are positive and q_c and q_d are

negative and all have the same magnitude.

(b) 2.04×10^7 N/C (upward)

21.

0.102 N, in the $-y$ direction

23.

(a) $\vec{E} = 4.36 \times 10^3$ N/C, 35.0° , below the horizontal.

(b) No

25.

(a) 0.263 N

(b) If the charges are distributed over some area, there will be a concentration of charge along the side closest to the oppositely charged object. This effect will increase the net force.

27.

The separation decreased by a factor of 5.

31.

$$\begin{aligned} F &= k \frac{|q_1 q_2|}{r^2} = ma \Rightarrow a = \frac{kq^2}{mr^2} \\ &= \frac{(9.00 \times 10^9 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{C}^2)(1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ m})^2}{(1.67 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg})(2.00 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m})^2} \\ &= 3.45 \times 10^{16} \text{ m/s}^2 \end{aligned}$$

32.

(a) 3.2

(b) If the distance increases by 3.2, then the force will decrease by a factor of 10 ; if the distance decreases by 3.2, then the force will increase by a factor of 10. Either way, the force changes by a factor of 10.

34.

(a) 1.04×10^{-9} C

(b) This charge is approximately 1 nC, which is consistent with the magnitude of charge typical for static electricity

37.

1.02×10^{-11}

39.

- 0.859 m beyond negative charge on line connecting two charges
- 0.109 m from lesser charge on line connecting two charges

42.

8.75×10^{-4} N

44.

(a) 6.94×10^{-8} C

(b) 6.25 N/C

46.

(a) 300 N/C (east)

(b) 4.80×10^{-17} N (east)

52.

(a) 5.58×10^{-11} N/C

(b) the coulomb force is extraordinarily stronger than gravity

54.

(a) $-6.76 \times 10^5 \text{ C}$

(b) $2.63 \times 10^{13} \text{ m/s}^2$ (upward)

(c) $2.45 \times 10^{-18} \text{ kg}$

56.

The charge q_2 is 9 times greater than q_1 .

69.

(a) The forces are balanced in the x -direction, so the net force is vertical. It is composed of the sum of the vertical components of the Coulomb force and the gravitational force.

$$\mathbf{F}_y = -2 \left(\frac{kq_1 q_2}{r^2} + G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2} \right) \cos 45^\circ =$$

$$-2 \left(\frac{8.99 \times 10^9 (1.00 \times 10^{-9})(2.00 \times 10^{-9})}{8} + 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \frac{(10.0)(10.0)}{8} \right)$$

$$\cos 45^\circ = -4.36 \times 10^{-9} \text{ N}$$

(b) No, it is in a metastable position. Since it cannot move horizontally, it cannot traverse any part of the track.

$$\mathbf{F}_x = - \left(\frac{kq_1 q_2}{4} + G \frac{m_1 m_2}{4} \right) \frac{1}{2} + \left(\frac{kq_1 q_2}{12} + G \frac{m_1 m_2}{12} \right) \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} =$$

$$(c) - \left(\frac{8.99 \times 10^9 (-1.00 \times 10^{-9})(2.00 \times 10^{-9})}{4} \frac{1}{2} - 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \frac{(10.0)(10.0)}{4} \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$+ \left(\frac{8.99 \times 10^9 (-1.00 \times 10^{-9})(2.00 \times 10^{-9})}{12} \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} - 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \frac{(10.0)(10.0)}{12} \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \right) \text{N} = 2.60 \times 10^{-9} \text{ N}$$

$$\mathbf{F}_y = - \left(\frac{kq_1 q_2}{4} + G \frac{m_1 m_2}{4} \right) \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} - \left(\frac{kq_1 q_2}{12} + G \frac{m_1 m_2}{12} \right) \frac{1}{2} = -2.08 \times 10^{-9} \text{ N}$$

$$- \left(\frac{8.99 \times 10^9 (1.00 \times 10^{-9})(2.00 \times 10^{-9})}{4} \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} - 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \frac{(10.0)(10.0)}{4} \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \right)$$

$$- \left(\frac{8.99 \times 10^9 (1.00 \times 10^{-9})(2.00 \times 10^{-9})}{12} \frac{1}{2} + 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \frac{(10.0)(10.0)}{12} \frac{1}{2} \right) \text{N} = -6.36 \times 10^{-9} \text{ N}$$

(d) Yes.

(e) It will reach $(1, -\sqrt{3})$ before it will change direction.

(f) The metastable positions where there is no component in one direction are $(0, 0)$, $(4, 0)$, $(2, 2)$, and $(2, -2)$. They number 4.

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1.

(b)

3.

(c)

5.

(a)

7.

(b)

9.

(a) -0.1 C , (b) 1.1 C , (c) Both charges will be equal to 1 C , law of conservation of charge, (d) 0.9 C

[11.](#)

W is negative, X is positive, Y is negative, Z is neutral.

[13.](#)

(c)

[15.](#)

(c)

[17.](#)

(b)

[19.](#)

a) Ball 1 will have positive charge and Ball 2 will have negative charge. b) The negatively charged rod attracts positive charge of Ball 1. The electrons of Ball 1 are transferred to Ball 2, making it negatively charged. c) If Ball 2 is grounded while the rod is still there, it will lose its negative charge to the ground. d) Yes, Ball 1 will be positively charged and Ball 2 will be negatively charge.

[21.](#)

(c)

[23.](#)

decrease by 77.78%.

[25.](#)

(a)

[27.](#)

(d)

[29.](#)

(a) 3.60×10^{10} N, (b) It will become 1/4 of the original value; hence it will be equal to 8.99×10^9 N

[31.](#)

(c)

[33.](#)

(a)

[35.](#)

(b)

[37.](#)

(a) 350 N/C, (b) west, (c) 5.6×10^{-17} N, (d) west.

[39.](#)

(b)

[41.](#)

(a) i) Field vectors near objects point toward negatively charged objects and away from positively charged objects.

(a) ii) The vectors closest to R and T are about the same length and start at about the same distance. We have that $q_R/d^2 = q_T/d^2$, so the charge on R is about the same as the charge on T . The closest vectors around S are about the same length as those around R and T . The vectors near S start at about 6 units away, while vectors near R and T start at about 4 units. We have that $q_R/d^2 = q_S/D^2$, so $q_S/q_R = D^2/d^2 = 36/16 = 2.25$, and so the charge on S is about twice that on R and T .

(b)

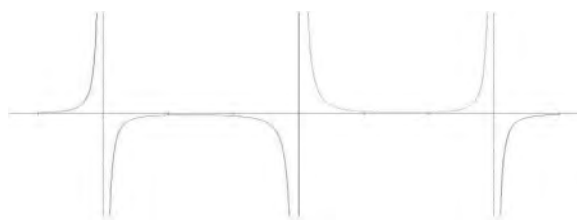


FIGURE 18.65 A vector diagram.

(c)

$$E = k \left[-\frac{q}{(d+x)^2} + \frac{2q}{(x)^2} + \frac{q}{(d-x)^2} \right]$$

(d) The statement is not true. The vector diagram shows field vectors in this region with nonzero length, and the vectors not shown have even greater lengths. The equation in part (c) shows that, when $0 < x < d$, the denominator of the negative term is always greater than the denominator of the third term, but the numerator is the same. So the negative term always has a smaller magnitude than the third term and since the second term is positive the sum of the terms is always positive.

Chapter 19

Problems & Exercises

1.

42.8

4.

1.00×10^5 K

6.

(a) 4×10^4 W

(b) A defibrillator does not cause serious burns because the skin conducts electricity well at high voltages, like those used in defibrillators. The gel used aids in the transfer of energy to the body, and the skin doesn't absorb the energy, but rather lets it pass through to the heart.

8.

(a) 7.40×10^3 C

(b) 1.54×10^{20} electrons per second

9.

3.89×10^6 C

11.

(a) 1.44×10^{12} V

(b) This voltage is very high. A 10.0 cm diameter sphere could never maintain this voltage; it would discharge.

(c) An 8.00 C charge is more charge than can reasonably be accumulated on a sphere of that size.

15.

(a) 3.00 kV

(b) 750 V

17.

(a) No. The electric field strength between the plates is 2.5×10^6 V/m, which is lower than the breakdown strength for air (3.0×10^6 V/m).

(b) 1.7 mm

[19.](#)

44.0 mV

[21.](#)

15 kV

[23.](#)

(a) 800 KeV

(b) 25.0 km

[24.](#)

144 V

[26.](#)

(a) 1.80 km

(b) A charge of 1 C is a very large amount of charge; a sphere of radius 1.80 km is not practical.

[28.](#)

$-2.22 \times 10^{-13} \text{ C}$

[30.](#)

(a) $3.31 \times 10^6 \text{ V}$

(b) 152 MeV

[32.](#)

(a) $2.78 \times 10^{-7} \text{ C}$

(b) $2.00 \times 10^{-10} \text{ C}$

[35.](#)

(a) $2.96 \times 10^9 \text{ m/s}$

(b) This velocity is far too great. It is faster than the speed of light.

(c) The assumption that the speed of the electron is far less than that of light and that the problem does not require a relativistic treatment produces an answer greater than the speed of light.

[46.](#)

21.6 mC

[48.](#)

80.0 mC

[50.](#)

20.0 kV

[52.](#)

667 pF

[54.](#)

(a) $4.4 \mu\text{F}$

(b) $4.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ C}$

[56.](#)

(a) 14.2 kV

(b) The voltage is unreasonably large, more than 100 times the breakdown voltage of nylon.

(c) The assumed charge is unreasonably large and cannot be stored in a capacitor of these dimensions.

[57.](#)

0.293 μF

[59.](#)

3.08 μF in series combination, 13.0 μF in parallel combination

[60.](#)

2.79 μF

[62.](#)

(a) $-3.00 \mu\text{F}$

(b) You cannot have a negative value of capacitance.

(c) The assumption that the capacitors were hooked up in parallel, rather than in series, was incorrect. A parallel connection always produces a greater capacitance, while here a smaller capacitance was assumed. This could happen only if the capacitors are connected in series.

[63.](#)

(a) 405 J

(b) 90.0 mC

[64.](#)

(a) 3.16 kV

(b) 25.3 mC

[66.](#)

(a) $1.42 \times 10^{-5} \text{ C}$, $6.38 \times 10^{-5} \text{ J}$

(b) $8.46 \times 10^{-5} \text{ C}$, $3.81 \times 10^{-4} \text{ J}$

[67.](#)

(a) $4.43 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F}$

(b) 0.452 V

(c) $4.52 \times 10^{-10} \text{ J}$

[70.](#)

(a) 133 F

(b) Such a capacitor would be too large to carry with a truck. The size of the capacitor would be enormous.

(c) It is unreasonable to assume that a capacitor can store the amount of energy needed.

Test Prep for AP[®] Courses

[1.](#)

(d)

[3.](#)

(b)

[5.](#)

(c)

[7.](#)

(a)

[9.](#)

(b)

[11.](#)

(b)

[13.](#)

(a)

[15.](#)

(c)

[17.](#)

(b)

[19.](#)

(a)

[21.](#)

(d)

[23.](#)

(d)

[25.](#)

(a)

[27.](#)

(b)

[29.](#)

(c)

[31.](#)

(d)

[33.](#)

(a)

[35.](#)

(c)

[37.](#)

(c)

[39.](#)

(b)

[41.](#)

(a)

[43.](#)

(d)

Chapter 20

Problems & Exercises

[1.](#)

0.278 mA

[3.](#)

0.250 A

[5.](#)

1.50ms

[7.](#)

(a) $1.67\text{k}\Omega$

(b) If a 50 times larger resistance existed, keeping the current about the same, the power would be increased by a factor of about 50 (based on the equation $P = I^2 R$), causing much more energy to be transferred to the skin, which could cause serious burns. The gel used reduces the resistance, and therefore reduces the power transferred to the skin.

9.

(a) 0.120 C

(b) 7.50×10^{17} electrons

11.

96.3 s

13.

(a) $7.81 \times 10^{14}\text{ He}^{++}\text{ nuclei/s}$

(b) $4.00 \times 10^3\text{ s}$

(c) $7.71 \times 10^8\text{ s}$

15.

$-1.13 \times 10^{-4}\text{ m/s}$

17.

9.42×10^{13} electrons

18.

0.833 A

20.

$7.33 \times 10^{-2}\ \Omega$

22.

(a) 0.300 V

(b) 1.50 V

(c) The voltage supplied to whatever appliance is being used is reduced because the total voltage drop from the wall to the final output of the appliance is fixed. Thus, if the voltage drop across the extension cord is large, the voltage drop across the appliance is significantly decreased, so the power output by the appliance can be significantly decreased, reducing the ability of the appliance to work properly.

24.

$0.104\ \Omega$

26.

$2.8 \times 10^{-2}\text{ m}$

28.

$1.10 \times 10^{-3}\text{ A}$

30.

-5°C to 45°C

32.

1.03

34.

0.06%

36.

 -17°C

38.

(a) $4.7\ \Omega$ (total)

(b) 3.0% decrease

40.

 $2.00 \times 10^{12}\ \text{W}$

44.

(a) 1.50 W

(b) 7.50 W

46.

$$\frac{V^2}{\Omega} = \frac{V^2}{V/A} = AV = \left(\frac{C}{s}\right)\left(\frac{J}{C}\right) = \frac{J}{s} = 1\ \text{W}$$

48.

$$1\ \text{kW} \cdot \text{h} = \left(\frac{1 \times 10^3\ \text{J}}{1\ \text{s}}\right)(1\ \text{h})\left(\frac{3600\ \text{s}}{1\ \text{h}}\right) = 3.60 \times 10^6\ \text{J}$$

50.

 $\$438/\text{y}$

52.

 $\$6.25$

54.

1.58 h

56.

 $\$3.94$ billion/year

58.

25.5 W

60.

(a) $2.00 \times 10^9\ \text{J}$

(b) 769 kg

62.

45.0 s

64.

(a) 343 A

(b) $2.17 \times 10^3\ \text{A}$ (c) $1.10 \times 10^3\ \text{A}$

66.

(a) $1.23 \times 10^3\ \text{kg}$ (b) $2.64 \times 10^3\ \text{kg}$

69.

(a) $2.08 \times 10^5\ \text{A}$ (b) $4.33 \times 10^4\ \text{MW}$

(c) The transmission lines dissipate more power than they are supposed to transmit.

(d) A voltage of 480 V is unreasonably low for a transmission voltage. Long-distance transmission lines are kept at much higher voltages (often hundreds of kilovolts) to reduce power losses.

73.

480 V

75.

2.50 ms

77.

(a) 4.00 kA

(b) 16.0 MW

(c) 16.0%

79.

2.40 kW

81.

(a) 4.0

(b) 0.50

(c) 4.0

83.

(a) 1.39 ms

(b) 4.17 ms

(c) 8.33 ms

85.

(a) 194 kW

(b) 880 A

87.

(a) 0.400 mA, no effect

(b) 26.7 mA, muscular contraction for duration of the shock (can't let go)

89.

$1.20 \times 10^5 \Omega$

91.

(a) 1.00Ω

(b) 14.4 kW

93.

Temperature increases 860°C . It is very likely to be damaging.

95.

80 beats/minute

97.

$$\frac{3.25 \times 10^{-3}}{1} \text{ J/s} = \text{Power} = I^2 R = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{(2.50)^2 (1.72 \times 10^{-8})(1.25)}{\pi} \text{ Jm}^2/\text{s}$$

$$(a) \quad r = \sqrt{\frac{(2.50)^2 (1.72 \times 10^{-8})(1.25)}{0.00325\pi}} = 3.63 \text{ mm}$$

(b) $Power = \frac{(2.50)^2(1.74 \times 10^{-8})(1.25)}{(3.63 \times 10^{-3})^2 \pi}$ J/s, so 3.28 J of energy is expended in 1 s. Since α is specified in the chart to only two significant figures, round to 3.3 J.

(c) Since the energy dissipation is directly proportional to the resistivity, the increase of 0.01% in energy dissipation is when the resistivity increases 1%. Or, $1.01 = 1 + 0.0039\Delta T$. $T = 23^\circ\text{C}$.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(a)

3.

10 A

5.

(a)

7.

3.2 Ω , 2.19 A

9.

(b), (d)

11.

$9.72 \times 10^{-8} \Omega \cdot \text{m}$

13.

18 Ω

15.

10:3 or 3.33

Chapter 21

Problems & Exercises

1.

(a) 2.75 k Ω

(b) 27.5 Ω

3.

(a) 786 Ω

(b) 20.3 Ω

5.

29.6 W

7.

(a) 0.74 A

(b) 0.742 A

9.

(a) 60.8 W

(b) 3.18 kW

11.

(a) $R_s = R_1 + R_2$
 $\Rightarrow R_s \approx R_1 (R_1 \gg R_2)$

$$(b) \frac{1}{R_p} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} = \frac{R_1 + R_2}{R_1 R_2},$$

so that

$$R_p = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \approx \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1} = R_2 (R_1 \gg R_2).$$

13.

(a) $-400 \text{ k}\Omega$

(b) Resistance cannot be negative.

(c) Series resistance is said to be less than one of the resistors, but it must be greater than any of the resistors.

14.

2.00 V

16.

2.9994 V

18.

0.375 Ω

21.

(a) 0.658 A

(b) 0.997 W

(c) 0.997 W; yes

23.

(a) 200 A

(b) 10.0 V

(c) 2.00 kW

(d) 0.1000 Ω ; 80.0 A, 4.0 V, 320 W

25.

(a) 0.400 Ω

(b) No, there is only one independent equation, so only r can be found.

29.

(a) -0.120 V

(b) $-1.41 \times 10^{-2} \Omega$

(c) Negative terminal voltage; negative load resistance.

(d) The assumption that such a cell could provide 8.50 A is inconsistent with its internal resistance.

31.

$$-I_2 R_2 + \text{emf}_1 - I_2 r_1 + I_3 R_3 + I_3 r_2 - \text{emf}_2 = 0$$

35.

$$I_3 = I_1 + I_2$$

37.

$$\text{emf}_2 - I_2 r_2 - I_2 R_2 + I_1 R_5 + I_1 r_1 - \text{emf}_1 + I_1 R_1 = 0$$

39.

(a) $I_1 = 4.75 \text{ A}$

(b) $I_2 = -3.5 \text{ A}$

(c) $I_3 = 8.25 \text{ A}$

41.

- (a) No, you would get inconsistent equations to solve.
 (b) $I_1 \neq I_2 + I_3$. The assumed currents violate the junction rule.

42.

30 μA

44.

1.98 $\text{k}\Omega$

46.

 $1.25 \times 10^{-4} \Omega$

48.

- (a) 3.00 $\text{M}\Omega$
 (b) 2.99 $\text{k}\Omega$

50.

- (a) 1.58 mA
 (b) 1.5848 V (need four digits to see the difference)
 (c) 0.99990 (need five digits to see the difference from unity)

52.

15.0 μA

54.

(a)



- (b) 10.02 Ω
 (c) 0.9980, or a 2.0×10^{-1} percent decrease
 (d) 1.002, or a 2.0×10^{-1} percent increase
 (e) Not significant.

56.

- (a) -66.7Ω
 (b) You can't have negative resistance.
 (c) It is unreasonable that I_G is greater than I_{tot} (see [Figure 21.30](#)). You cannot achieve a full-scale deflection using a current less than the sensitivity of the galvanometer.

57.

24.0 V

59.

1.56 $\text{k}\Omega$

61.

- (a) 2.00 V
 (b) 9.68 Ω

62.

Range = 5.00 Ω to 5.00 $\text{k}\Omega$

63.

range 4.00 to 30.0 M Ω

65.

(a) 2.50 μF

(b) 2.00 s

67.

86.5%

69.

(a) 1.25 k Ω

(b) 30.0 ms

71.

(a) 20.0 s

(b) 120 s

(c) 16.0 ms

73.

1.73×10^{-2} s

74.

3.33×10^{-3} Ω

76.

(a) 4.99 s

(b) 3.87°C

(c) 31.1 k Ω

(d) No

80.

$$(a) P = \frac{V^2}{R} = \frac{(1.00 \times 10^2)^2}{2.50 \times 10^3} \text{ W} = 4.00 \text{ W}$$

$$\frac{1}{R_{eq}} = \frac{2}{R_1}$$

$$(b) R_{eq} = \frac{R_1}{2} = 1.25 \times 10^3 \Omega$$

$$P = \frac{V^2}{R} = \frac{(1.00 \times 10^2)^2}{1.25 \times 10^3} \text{ W} = 8 \text{ W}$$

$$R_{eq} = R_1 + R_2 = 2R_1$$

$$(c) P = \frac{V^2}{R} = \frac{(1.00 \times 10^2)^2}{5.00 \times 10^3} \text{ W} = 2 \text{ W}$$

(d) In the parallel case current passes through each branch, so more current is passed through the resistor system. In the series, the higher resistance of the circuit allows less current to flow. $P = IV$ is proportional to the current when the voltage does not change.

(e) The parallel combination delivers more energy in a given time period.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(a), (b)

3.

(b)

[5.](#)

(a) 4- Ω resistor; (b) combination of 20- Ω , 20- Ω , and 10- Ω resistors; (c) 20 W in each 20- Ω resistor, 40 W in 10- Ω resistor, 64 W in 4- Ω resistor, total 144W total in resistors, output power is 144 W, yes they are equal (law of conservation of energy); (d) 4 Ω and 3 Ω for part (a) and no change for part (b); (e) no effect, it will remain the same.

[7.](#)

0.25 Ω , 0.50 Ω , no change

[9.](#)

a. (c)

b. (c)

c. (d)

d. (d)

[11.](#)a. $I_1 + I_3 = I_2$ b. $E_1 - I_1 R_1 - I_2 R_2 - I_1 r_1 = 0$; $-E_2 + I_1 R_1 - I_3 R_3 - I_3 r_2 = 0$ c. $I_1 = 8/15$ A, $I_2 = 7/15$ A and $I_3 = -1/15$ Ad. $I_1 = 2/5$ A, $I_2 = 3/5$ A and $I_3 = 1/5$ Ae. $P_{E1} = 18/5$ W and $P_{R1} = 24/25$ W, $P_{R2} = 54/25$ W, $P_{R3} = 12/25$ W. Yes, $P_{E1} = P_{R1} + P_{R2} + P_{R3}$ f. R_3 , losses in the circuit[13.](#)

(a) 20 mA, [Figure 21.37](#), 5.5 s; (b) 24 mA, [Figure 21.29](#), 2 s

Chapter 22

Problems & Exercises

[1.](#)

(a) Left (West)

(b) Into the page

(c) Up (North)

(d) No force

(e) Right (East)

(f) Down (South)

[3.](#)

(a) East (right)

(b) Into page

(c) South (down)

[5.](#)

(a) Into page

(b) West (left)

(c) Out of page

[7.](#)

7.50×10^{-7} N perpendicular to both the magnetic field lines and the velocity

[9.](#)

(a) $3.01 \times 10^{-5} \text{ T}$

(b) This is slightly less than the magnetic field strength of $5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ T}$ at the surface of the Earth, so it is consistent.

[11.](#)

(a) $6.67 \times 10^{-10} \text{ C}$ (taking the Earth's field to be $5.00 \times 10^{-5} \text{ T}$)

(b) Less than typical static, therefore difficult

[12.](#)

4.27 m

[14.](#)

(a) 0.261 T

(b) This strength is definitely obtainable with today's technology. Magnetic field strengths of 0.500 T are obtainable with permanent magnets.

[16.](#)

$4.36 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}$

[18.](#)

(a) 3.00 kV/m

(b) 30.0 V

[20.](#)

0.173 m

[22.](#)

$7.50 \times 10^{-4} \text{ V}$

[24.](#)

(a) $1.18 \times 10^3 \text{ m/s}$

(b) Once established, the Hall emf pushes charges one direction and the magnetic force acts in the opposite direction resulting in no net force on the charges. Therefore, no current flows in the direction of the Hall emf. This is the same as in a current-carrying conductor—current does not flow in the direction of the Hall emf.

[26.](#)

11.3 mV

[28.](#)

1.16 μV

[30.](#)

2.00 T

[31.](#)

(a) west (left)

(b) into page

(c) north (up)

(d) no force

(e) east (right)

(f) south (down)

[33.](#)

(a) into page

(b) west (left)

(c) out of page

[35.](#)

(a) 2.50 N

(b) This is about half a pound of force per 100 m of wire, which is much less than the weight of the wire itself. Therefore, it does not cause any special concerns.

[37.](#)

1.80 T

[39.](#)

(a) 30°

(b) 4.80 N

[41.](#)

(a) τ decreases by 5.00% if B decreases by 5.00%

(b) 5.26% increase

[43.](#)

10.0 A

[45.](#)

$$A \cdot m^2 \cdot T = A \cdot m^2 \left(\frac{N}{A \cdot m} \right) = N \cdot m.$$

[47.](#)

$$3.48 \times 10^{-26} \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}$$

[49.](#)

(a) $0.666 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}$ west

(b) This is not a very significant torque, so practical use would be limited. Also, the current would need to be alternated to make the loop rotate (otherwise it would oscillate).

[50.](#)

(a) 8.53 N, repulsive

(b) This force is repulsive and therefore there is never a risk that the two wires will touch and short circuit.

[52.](#)

400 A in the opposite direction

[54.](#)

(a) $1.67 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N/m}$

(b) $3.33 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N/m}$

(c) Repulsive

(d) No, these are very small forces

[56.](#)

(a) Top wire: $2.65 \times 10^{-4} \text{ N/m}$, 10.9° to left of up

(b) Lower left wire: $3.61 \times 10^{-4} \text{ N/m}$, 13.9° down from right

(c) Lower right wire: $3.46 \times 10^{-4} \text{ N/m}$, 30.0° down from left

[58.](#)

(a) right-into page, left-out of page

(b) right-out of page, left-into page

(c) right-out of page, left-into page

60.

(a) clockwise

(b) clockwise as seen from the left

(c) clockwise as seen from the right

61.

$1.01 \times 10^{13} \text{ T}$

63.

(a) $4.80 \times 10^{-4} \text{ T}$

(b) Zero

(c) If the wires are not paired, the field is about 10 times stronger than Earth's magnetic field and so could severely disrupt the use of a compass.

65.

39.8 A

67.

(a) $3.14 \times 10^{-5} \text{ T}$

(b) 0.314 T

69.

$7.55 \times 10^{-5} \text{ T}, 23.4^\circ$

71.

10.0 A

73.

(a) $9.09 \times 10^{-7} \text{ N}$ upward

(b) $3.03 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m/s}^2$

75.

60.2 cm

77.

(a) $1.02 \times 10^3 \text{ N/m}^2$

(b) Not a significant fraction of an atmosphere

79.

$17.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$

81.

18.3 MHz

83.

(a) Straight up

(b) $6.00 \times 10^{-4} \text{ N/m}$

(c) 94.1 μm

(d) 2.47 Ω/m , 49.4 V/m

85.

(a) 571 C

(b) Impossible to have such a large separated charge on such a small object.

(c) The 1.00-N force is much too great to be realistic in the Earth's field.

[87.](#)

(a) 2.40×10^6 m/s

(b) The speed is too high to be practical $\leq 1\%$ speed of light

(c) The assumption that you could reasonably generate such a voltage with a single wire in the Earth's field is unreasonable

[89.](#)

(a) 25.0 kA

(b) This current is unreasonably high. It implies a total power delivery in the line of 50.0×10^9 W, which is much too high for standard transmission lines.

(c) 100 meters is a long distance to obtain the required field strength. Also coaxial cables are used for transmission lines so that there is virtually no field for DC power lines, because of cancellation from opposing currents. The surveyor's concerns are not a problem for his magnetic field measurements.

[92.](#)

(a) $F = qvB \sin \theta$

Since $\sin \theta = 0$, $F = 0$ for the first electron.

For the second and third electrons, $\sin \theta = 1$.

So, $F = (1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})(5.00 \times 10^7 \text{ m/s})(2.00 \times 10^{-7} \text{ T}) = 1.60 \times 10^{-18} \text{ N}$.

(b) The first electron moves in a straight line. The other two electrons take a circular path.

(c) The first electron will never return to the origin. The other two will return.

$$r = \frac{(9.11 \times 10^{-11})(5.00 \times 10^7)}{(1.60 \times 10^{-19})(2.00 \times 10^{-7})} \text{ m}$$

$$v = \frac{r}{t}$$

$$t = \frac{(9.11 \times 10^{-11})}{(1.60 \times 10^{-19})(2.00 \times 10^{-7})} \text{ s} = 2.85 \times 10^{15} \text{ s}$$

Test Prep for AP® Courses

[1.](#)

(a)

[3.](#)

(b)

[5.](#)

(b)

[7.](#)

(a)

[9.](#)

(b)

[11.](#)

(e)

[13.](#)

(c)

[15.](#)

(c)

Chapter 23

Problems & Exercises

1.

Zero

3.

(a) CCW

(b) CW

(c) No current induced

5.

(a) 1 CCW, 2 CCW, 3 CW

(b) 1, 2, and 3 no current induced

(c) 1 CW, 2 CW, 3 CCW

9.

(a) 3.04 mV

(b) As a lower limit on the ring, estimate $R = 1.00 \text{ m}\Omega$. The heat transferred will be 2.31 mJ. This is not a significant amount of heat.

11.

0.157 V

13.

proportional to $\frac{1}{r}$

17.

(a) 0.630 V

(b) No, this is a very small emf.

19.

2.22 m/s

25.

(a) 10.0 N

(b) $2.81 \times 10^8 \text{ J}$

(c) 0.36 m/s

(d) For a week-long mission (168 hours), the change in velocity will be 60 m/s, or approximately 1%. In general, a decrease in velocity would cause the orbit to start spiraling inward because the velocity would no longer be sufficient to keep the circular orbit. The long-term consequences are that the shuttle would require a little more fuel to maintain the desired speed, otherwise the orbit would spiral slightly inward.

28.

474 V

30.

0.247 V

32.

(a) 50

(b) yes

34.

(a) 0.477 T

(b) This field strength is small enough that it can be obtained using either a permanent magnet or an electromagnet.

[36.](#)

(a) 5.89 V

(b) At $t=0$

(c) 0.393 s

(d) 0.785 s

[38.](#)

(a) 1.92×10^6 rad/s

(b) This angular velocity is unreasonably high, higher than can be obtained for any mechanical system.

(c) The assumption that a voltage as great as 12.0 kV could be obtained is unreasonable.

[39.](#)

(a) 12.00 Ω

(b) 1.67 A

[41.](#)

72.0 V

[43.](#)

0.100 Ω

[44.](#)

(a) 30.0

(b) 9.75×10^{-2} A

[46.](#)

(a) 20.0 mA

(b) 2.40 W

(c) Yes, this amount of power is quite reasonable for a small appliance.

[48.](#)

(a) 0.063 A

(b) Greater input current needed.

[50.](#)

(a) 2.2

(b) 0.45

(c) 0.20, or 20.0%

[52.](#)

(a) 335 MV

(b) way too high, well beyond the breakdown voltage of air over reasonable distances

(c) input voltage is too high

[54.](#)

(a) 15.0 V

(b) 75.0 A

(c) yes

[55.](#)

1.80 mH

[57.](#)

3.60 V

[61.](#)

(a) 31.3 kV

(b) 125 kJ

(c) 1.56 MW

(d) No, it is not surprising since this power is very high.

[63.](#)

(a) 1.39 mH

(b) 3.33 V

(c) Zero

[65.](#)

60.0 mH

[67.](#)

(a) 200 H

(b) 5.00°C

[69.](#)

500 H

[71.](#)

50.0 Ω

[73.](#)

1.00×10^{-18} s to 0.100 s

[75.](#)

95.0%

[77.](#)

(a) 24.6 ms

(b) 26.7 ms

(c) 9% difference, which is greater than the inherent uncertainty in the given parameters.

[79.](#)

531 Hz

[81.](#)

1.33 nF

[83.](#)

(a) 2.55 A

(b) 1.53 mA

[85.](#)

63.7 μ H

[87.](#)

(a) 21.2 mH

(b) 8.00 Ω

[89.](#)

(a) 3.18 mF

(b) 16.7 Ω

[92.](#)

(a) 40.02 Ω at 60.0 Hz, 193 Ω at 10.0 kHz

(b) At 60 Hz, with a capacitor, $Z=531 \Omega$, over 13 times as high as without the capacitor. The capacitor makes a large difference at low frequencies. At 10 kHz, with a capacitor $Z=190 \Omega$, about the same as without the capacitor. The capacitor has a smaller effect at high frequencies.

[94.](#)

(a) 529 Ω at 60.0 Hz, 185 Ω at 10.0 kHz

(b) These values are close to those obtained in [Example 23.12](#) because at low frequency the capacitor dominates and at high frequency the inductor dominates. So in both cases the resistor makes little contribution to the total impedance.

[96.](#)

9.30 nF to 101 nF

[98.](#)

3.17 pF

[100.](#)

(a) 1.31 μ H

(b) 1.66 pF

[102.](#)

(a) 12.8 k Ω

(b) 1.31 k Ω

(c) 31.9 mA at 500 Hz, 312 mA at 7.50 kHz

(d) 82.2 kHz

(e) 0.408 A

[104.](#)

(a) 0.159

(b) 80.9°

(c) 26.4 W

(d) 166 W

[106.](#)

16.0 W

[107.](#)

$$(a) |\text{emf}| = 1 \frac{\Delta\phi}{\Delta t} = \frac{1.000(0.02000)}{100} \text{ V} = 0.0002000 \text{ V}$$

$$(b) |\text{emf}| = 2 \frac{\Delta\phi}{\Delta t} = \frac{2(0.2500)(0.02000)}{100} \text{ V} = 0.0001000 \text{ V}$$

(c) The average emf is 0 since the loops are made by a wire that crosses, so the voltage from each loop cancels the emf from the other.

(d) No.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(c)

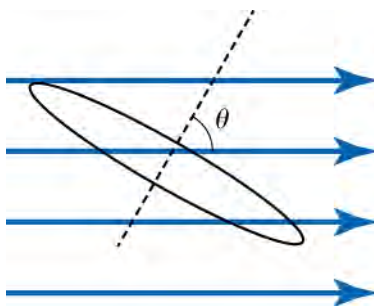


FIGURE 23.58

3.

(c)

5.

(a), (d)

7.

(c)

Chapter 24

Problems & Exercises

3.

150 kV/m

6.

(a) 33.3 cm (900 MHz) 11.7 cm (2560 MHz)

(b) The microwave oven with the smaller wavelength would produce smaller hot spots in foods, corresponding to the one with the frequency 2560 MHz.

8.

26.96 MHz

10.

5.0×10^{14} Hz

12.

$$\lambda = \frac{c}{f} = \frac{3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}}{1.20 \times 10^{15} \text{ Hz}} = 2.50 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$$

14.

0.600 m

16.

$$(a) f = \frac{c}{\lambda} = \frac{3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}}{1 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}} = 3 \times 10^{18} \text{ Hz}$$

(b) X-rays

19.

(a) 6.00×10^6 m

(b) $4.33 \times 10^{-5} \text{ T}$

21.

(a) $1.50 \times 10^6 \text{ Hz}$, AM band

(b) The resonance of currents on an antenna that is $1/4$ their wavelength is analogous to the fundamental resonant mode of an air column closed at one end, since the tube also has a length equal to $1/4$ the wavelength of the fundamental oscillation.

23.

(a) $1.55 \times 10^{15} \text{ Hz}$

(b) The shortest wavelength of visible light is 380 nm, so that

$$\frac{\lambda_{\text{visible}}}{\lambda_{\text{UV}}} = \frac{380 \text{ nm}}{193 \text{ nm}} = 1.97.$$

In other words, the UV radiation is 97% more accurate than the shortest wavelength of visible light, or almost twice as accurate!

25.

$3.90 \times 10^8 \text{ m}$

27.

(a) $1.50 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}$

(b) $0.500 \mu\text{s}$

(c) 66.7 ns

29.

(a) $-3.5 \times 10^2 \text{ W/m}^2$

(b) 88%

(c) $1.7 \mu\text{T}$

30.

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \frac{c\epsilon_0 E_0^2}{2} \\ &= \frac{(3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})(8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}^2/\text{N}\cdot\text{m}^2)(125 \text{ V/m})^2}{2} \\ &= 20.7 \text{ W/m}^2 \end{aligned}$$

32.

(a) $I = \frac{P}{A} = \frac{P}{\pi r^2} = \frac{0.250 \times 10^{-3} \text{ W}}{\pi(0.500 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m})^2} = 318 \text{ W/m}^2$

$$I_{\text{ave}} = \frac{cB_0^2}{2\mu_0} \Rightarrow B_0 = \left(\frac{2\mu_0 I}{c} \right)^{1/2}$$

(b)
$$= \left(\frac{2(4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ T}\cdot\text{m/A})(318.3 \text{ W/m}^2)}{3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$= 1.63 \times 10^{-6} \text{ T}$$

(c)
$$E_0 = cB_0 = (3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})(1.633 \times 10^{-6} \text{ T})$$

$$= 4.90 \times 10^2 \text{ V/m}$$

34.

- (a) 89.2 cm
(b) 27.4 V/m

36.

- (a) 333 T
(b) $1.33 \times 10^{19} \text{ W/m}^2$
(c) 13.3 kJ

38.

(a) $I = \frac{P}{A} = \frac{P}{4\pi r^2} \propto \frac{1}{r^2}$

(b) $I \propto E_0^2, B_0^2 \Rightarrow E_0^2, B_0^2 \propto \frac{1}{r^2} \Rightarrow E_0, B_0 \propto \frac{1}{r}$

40.

13.5 pF

42.

- (a) 4.07 kW/m²
(b) 1.75 kV/m
(c) 5.84 μ T
(d) 2 min 19 s

44.

- (a) $5.00 \times 10^3 \text{ W/m}^2$
(b) $3.88 \times 10^{-6} \text{ N}$
(c) $5.18 \times 10^{-12} \text{ N}$

46.

- (a) $t = 0$
(b) $7.50 \times 10^{-10} \text{ s}$
(c) $1.00 \times 10^{-9} \text{ s}$

48.

- (a) $1.01 \times 10^6 \text{ W/m}^2$
(b) Much too great for an oven.
(c) The assumed magnetic field is unreasonably large.

50.

- (a) $2.53 \times 10^{-20} \text{ H}$
(b) L is much too small.
(c) The wavelength is unreasonably small.

53.

$B = \frac{E}{c}$
(a) $B = \frac{1250}{3.00 \times 10^8} \text{ T} = 4.17 \times 10^{-6} \text{ T}$

- (b) E would increase.

(c) It would be by $1/c$.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(b)

3.

(a)

5.

(d)

7.

(d)

9.

(d)

11.

(a)

Chapter 25

Problems & Exercises

1.

Top 1.715 m from floor, bottom 0.825 m from floor. Height of mirror is 0.890 m, or precisely one-half the height of the person.

5.

2.25×10^8 m/s in water

2.04×10^8 m/s in glycerine

7.

1.490, polystyrene

9.

1.28 s

11.

1.03 ns

13.

$n = 1.46$, fused quartz

17.

(a) 0.898

(b) Can't have $n < 1.00$ since this would imply a speed greater than c .

(c) Refracted angle is too big relative to the angle of incidence.

19.

(a) $\frac{c}{5.00}$

(b) Speed of light too slow, since index is much greater than that of diamond.

(c) Angle of refraction is unreasonable relative to the angle of incidence.

22.

66.3°

24.

> 1.414

[26.](#)

1.50, benzene

[29.](#)

46.5° , red; 46.0° , violet

[31.](#)

(a) 0.043°

(b) 1.33 m

[33.](#)

71.3°

[35.](#)

53.5° , red; 55.2° , violet

[37.](#)

5.00 to 12.5 D

[39.](#)

-0.222 m

[41.](#)

(a) 3.43 m

(b) 0.800 by 1.20 m

[42.](#)

(a) -1.35 m (on the object side of the lens).

(b) $+10.0$

(c) 5.00 cm

[43.](#)

44.4 cm

[45.](#)

(a) 6.60 cm

(b) -0.500

[47.](#)

(a) $+7.50$ cm

(b) 13.3 D

(c) Much greater

[49.](#)

(a) $+6.67$

(b) $+20.0$

(c) The magnification increases without limit (to infinity) as the object distance increases to the limit of the focal distance.

[51.](#)

-0.933 mm

[53.](#)

$+0.667$ m

55.

(a) -1.5×10^{-2} m(b) -66.7 D

57.

 $+0.360$ m (concave)

59.

(a) $+0.111$ (b) -0.334 cm (behind “mirror”)(c) 0.752 cm

61.

$$m = \frac{h_i}{h_o} = -\frac{d_i}{d_o} = -\frac{-d_o}{d_o} = \frac{d_o}{d_o} = 1 \Rightarrow h_i = h_o$$

63.

 6.82 kW/m²

65.

$$(a) \quad v_{610} = \frac{3.00 \times 10^8}{1.530} \text{ m/s}, \quad v_{410} = \frac{3.00 \times 10^8}{1.514} \text{ m/s}$$

$$3.00 \times 10^8 \left(\frac{1}{1.514} - \frac{1}{1.530} \right) \text{ m/s} = 2.07 \times 10^6 \text{ m/s}$$

(b) No.

(c) No.

(d) Yes.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(c)

3.

(c)

5.

(a)

7.

Since light bends toward the normal upon entering a medium with a higher index of refraction, the upper path is a more accurate representation of a light ray moving from A to B.

9.

First, measure the angle of incidence and the angle of refraction for light entering the plastic from air. Since the two angles can be measured and the index of refraction of air is known, the student can solve for the index of refraction of the plastic.

Next, measure the angle of incidence and the angle of refraction for light entering the gas from the plastic. Since the two angles can be measured and the index of refraction of the plastic is known, the student can solve for the index of refraction of the gas.

11.

The speed of light in a medium is simply c/n , so the speed of light in water is 2.25×10^8 m/s. From Snell's law, the angle of incidence is 44° .

13.

(d)

15.

(a)

17.

(a)

19.

(b)

Chapter 26

Problems & Exercises

1.

52.0 D

3.

(a) -0.233 mm

(b) The size of the rods and the cones is smaller than the image height, so we can distinguish letters on a page.

5.

(a) $+62.5$ D

(b) -0.250 mm

(c) -0.0800 mm

6.

2.00 m

8.

(a) ± 0.45 D

(b) The person was nearsighted because the patient was myopic and the power was reduced.

10.

0.143 m

12.

1.00 m

14.

20.0 cm

16.

-5.00 D

18.

25.0 cm

20.

-0.198 D

22.

30.8 cm

24.

-0.444 D

26.

(a) 4.00

(b) 1600

28.

(a) 0.501 cm

(b) Eyepiece should be 204 cm behind the objective lens.

30.

(a) +18.3 cm (on the eyepiece side of the objective lens)

(b) -60.0

(c) -11.3 cm (on the objective side of the eyepiece)

(d) +6.67

(e) -400

33.

-40.0

35.

-1.67

37.

+10.0 cm

39.

(a) 0.251 μm

(b) Yes, this thickness implies that the shape of the cornea can be very finely controlled, producing normal distant vision in more than 90% of patients.

40.

$$\frac{1}{d_i} + \frac{1}{d_0} = \frac{1}{f} \frac{1}{d_i} = \frac{1}{f} - \frac{1}{d_0} = \frac{1}{4.00 \text{ mm}} - \frac{1}{6.00 \text{ mm}}$$

$$d_i = 12.0 \text{ mm}$$

$$(a) m_0 = -\frac{d_i}{d_0} = -\frac{12.0}{6.00} = -2.00$$

$$\frac{1}{d'_i} + \frac{1}{d'_0} = \frac{1}{f} \frac{1}{d'_i} = \frac{1}{f} - \frac{1}{d'_0} = \frac{1}{50 \text{ mm}} - \frac{1}{13.0 \text{ mm}}$$

$$d'_i = -17.6 \text{ mm}$$

$$m_e = -\frac{-17.6}{13} = 1.35$$

$$m = -2(1.35) = -2.70$$

$$\frac{1}{d_i} + \frac{1}{d_0} = \frac{1}{f} \frac{1}{d_i} = \frac{1}{f} - \frac{1}{d_0} = \frac{1}{4.00 \text{ mm}} - \frac{1}{5.00 \text{ mm}}$$

$$d_i = 20.0 \text{ mm}$$

$$m_0 = -\frac{d_i}{d_0} = -\frac{20.0}{5.00} = -4.00$$

$$\frac{1}{d'_i} + \frac{1}{d'_0} = \frac{1}{f} \frac{1}{d'_i} = \frac{1}{f} - \frac{1}{d'_0} = \frac{1}{50 \text{ mm}} - \frac{1}{5.00 \text{ mm}}$$

$$d'_i = -5.56 \text{ mm}$$

$$m_e = -\frac{-5.56}{5} = 1.11$$

$$m = -4(1.11) = -4.44$$

(b) It increased.

(c) The magnification should decrease.

(d) In both cases the image is inverted.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(a)

[3.](#)

(c)

[5.](#)

(a)

[7.](#)

(b)

[9.](#)

(d)

[11.](#)

(c)

Chapter 27

Problems & Exercises

[1.](#)

$$1/1.333 = 0.750$$

[3.](#)

1.49, Polystyrene

[5.](#)

0.877 glass to water

[6.](#)

0.516°

[8.](#)

$$1.22 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}$$

[10.](#)

600 nm

[12.](#)

2.06°

[14.](#)

1200 nm (not visible)

[16.](#)

(a) 760 nm

(b) 1520 nm

[18.](#)For small angles $\sin \theta - \tan \theta \approx \theta$ (in radians).

For two adjacent fringes we have,

$$d \sin \theta_m = m\lambda$$

and

$$d \sin \theta_{m+1} = (m + 1)\lambda$$

Subtracting these equations gives

$$d(\sin \theta_{m+1} - \sin \theta_m) = [(m+1) - m]\lambda$$

$$d(\theta_{m+1} - \theta_m) = \lambda$$

$$\tan \theta_m = \frac{y_m}{x} \approx \theta_m \Rightarrow d\left(\frac{y_{m+1}}{x} - \frac{y_m}{x}\right) = \lambda$$

$$d \frac{\Delta y}{x} = \lambda \Rightarrow \Delta y = \frac{x\lambda}{d}$$

[20.](#)

450 nm

[21.](#)

5.97°

[23.](#)

8.99×10^3

[25.](#)

707 nm

[27.](#)

(a) 11.8°, 12.5°, 14.1°, 19.2°

(b) 24.2°, 25.7°, 29.1°, 41.0°

(c) Decreasing the number of lines per centimeter by a factor of x means that the angle for the x -order maximum is the same as the original angle for the first-order maximum.

[29.](#)

589.1 nm and 589.6 nm

[31.](#)

28.7°

[33.](#)

43.2°

[35.](#)

90.0°

[37.](#)

(a) The longest wavelength is 333.3 nm, which is not visible.

(b) 333 nm (UV)

(c) 6.58×10^3 cm

[39.](#)

1.13×10^{-2} m

[41.](#)

(a) 42.3 nm

(b) Not a visible wavelength

The number of slits in this diffraction grating is too large. Etching in integrated circuits can be done to a resolution of 50 nm, so slit separations of 400 nm are at the limit of what we can do today. This line spacing is too small to produce diffraction of light.

[43.](#)

(a) 33.4°

(b) No

[45.](#)

(a) $1.35 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}$

(b) 69.9°

[47.](#)

750 nm

[49.](#)

(a) 9.04°

(b) 12

[51.](#)

(a) 0.0150°

(b) 0.262 mm

(c) This distance is not easily measured by human eye, but under a microscope or magnifying glass it is quite easily measurable.

[53.](#)

(a) 30.1°

(b) 48.7°

(c) No

(d) $2\theta_1 = (2)(14.5^\circ) = 29^\circ$, $\theta_2 - \theta_1 = 30.05^\circ - 14.5^\circ = 15.56^\circ$. Thus, $29^\circ \approx (2)(15.56^\circ) = 31.1^\circ$.

[55.](#)

23.6° and 53.1°

[57.](#)

(a) $1.63 \times 10^{-4} \text{ rad}$

(b) 326 ly

[59.](#)

$1.46 \times 10^{-5} \text{ rad}$

[61.](#)

(a) $3.04 \times 10^{-7} \text{ rad}$

(b) Diameter of 235 m

[63.](#)

5.15 cm

[65.](#)

(a) Yes. Should easily be able to discern.

(b) The fact that it is just barely possible to discern that these are separate bodies indicates the severity of atmospheric aberrations.

[70.](#)

532 nm (green)

[72.](#)

83.9 nm

[74.](#)

620 nm (orange)

[76.](#)

380 nm

[78.](#)

33.9 nm

[80.](#) $4.42 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}$ [82.](#)

The oil film will appear black, since the reflected light is not in the visible part of the spectrum.

[84.](#)

45.0°

[86.](#)45.7 mW/m²[88.](#)

90.0%

[90.](#) I_0 [92.](#)

48.8°

[94.](#)

41.2°

[96.](#)

(a) 1.92, not diamond (Zircon)

(b) 55.2°

[98.](#) $B_2 = 0.707 B_1$ [100.](#)(a) $2.07 \times 10^{-2} \text{ }^\circ\text{C/s}$

(b) Yes, the polarizing filters get hot because they absorb some of the lost energy from the sunlight.

[101.](#)

(a) $\sin \theta = \frac{4.00 \times 10^{-7}}{10^{-6}} = 0.400 \quad \theta = 0.400 = 23.6^\circ$

(b) $\sin \theta = \frac{(2)(4.00 \times 10^{-7})}{10^{-6}} = 0.800 \quad \theta = 0.800 = 53.1^\circ$

(c) $\sin 23.9^\circ = \frac{x}{10^{-6} \text{ cm}} \quad x = \sin 23.9^\circ (10^{-6}) = 4.05 \times 10^{-7} = 405 \text{ nm}$

(d) $\sin \theta = \frac{4.00 \times 10^{-7}}{2.00 \times 10^{-6}} = 0.200 \quad \theta = 0.200 = 11.5^\circ$

(e) No.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

[1.](#)

(b)

[3.](#)

(b) and (c)

[5.](#)

(b)

7.

(b)

9.

(b)

11.

(d)

13.

(b)

15.

(d)

17.

(b)

Chapter 28

Problems & Exercises

1.

(a) 1.0328

(b) 1.15

3.

$5.96 \times 10^{-8} \text{ s}$

5.

$0.800c$

7.

$0.140c$

9.

(a) $0.745c$

(b) $0.99995c$ (to five digits to show effect)

11.

(a) 0.996

(b) γ cannot be less than 1.

(c) Assumption that time is longer in moving ship is unreasonable.

12.

48.6 m

14.

(a) $1.387 \text{ km} = 1.39 \text{ km}$

(b) 0.433 km

(c) $L = \frac{L_0}{\gamma} = \frac{1.387 \times 10^3 \text{ m}}{3.20} = 433.4 \text{ m} = 0.433 \text{ km}$

Thus, the distances in parts (a) and (b) are related when $\gamma = 3.20$.

16.

(a) 4.303 y (to four digits to show any effect)

(b) 0.1434 y

$$(c) \Delta t = \gamma \Delta t_0 \Rightarrow \gamma = \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t_0} = \frac{4.303 \text{ y}}{0.1434 \text{ y}} = 30.0$$

Thus, the two times are related when $\gamma=30.00$.

18.

(a) 0.250

(b) γ must be ≥ 1

(c) The Earth-bound observer must measure a shorter length, so it is unreasonable to assume a longer length.

20.

(a) $0.909c$

(b) $0.400c$

22.

$0.198c$

24.

a) 658 nm

b) red

c) $v/c = 9.92 \times 10^{-5}$ (negligible)

26.

$0.991c$

28.

$-0.696c$

30.

$0.01324c$

32.

$u' = c$, so

$$\begin{aligned} u &= \frac{v+u'}{1+(vu'/c^2)} = \frac{v+c}{1+(vc/c^2)} = \frac{v+c}{1+(v/c)} \\ &= \frac{c(v+c)}{c+v} = c \end{aligned}$$

34.

a) $0.99947c$

b) $1.2064 \times 10^{11} \text{ y}$

c) $1.2058 \times 10^{11} \text{ y}$ (all to sufficient digits to show effects)

35.

$4.09 \times 10^{-19} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$

37.

(a) $3.000000015 \times 10^{13} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$.

(b) Ratio of relativistic to classical momenta equals 1.000000005 (extra digits to show small effects)

39.

$2.9957 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$

41.

(a) $1.121 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m/s}$

(b) The small speed tells us that the mass of a proton is substantially smaller than that of even a tiny amount of macroscopic matter!

43.

$$8.20 \times 10^{-14} \text{ J}$$

$$0.512 \text{ MeV}$$

45.

$$2.3 \times 10^{-30} \text{ kg}$$

47.

$$(a) 1.11 \times 10^{27} \text{ kg}$$

$$(b) 5.56 \times 10^{-5}$$

49.

$$7.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg}$$

$$7.1 \times 10^{-3}$$

The ratio is greater for hydrogen.

51.

$$208$$

$$0.999988c$$

53.

$$6.92 \times 10^5 \text{ J}$$

$$1.54$$

55.

$$(a) 0.914c$$

(b) The rest mass energy of an electron is 0.511 MeV, so the kinetic energy is approximately 150% of the rest mass energy. The electron should be traveling close to the speed of light.

57.

$$90.0 \text{ MeV}$$

59.

$$E^2 = p^2 c^2 + m^2 c^4 = \gamma^2 m^2 c^4, \text{ so that}$$

$$(a) p^2 c^2 = (\gamma^2 - 1) m^2 c^4, \text{ and therefore}$$

$$\frac{(pc)^2}{(mc^2)^2} = \gamma^2 - 1$$

$$(b) \text{ yes}$$

61.

$$1.07 \times 10^3$$

63.

$$6.56 \times 10^{-8} \text{ kg}$$

$$4.37 \times 10^{-10}$$

65.

$$0.314c$$

$$0.99995c$$

67.

(a) 1.00 kg

(b) This much mass would be measurable, but probably not observable just by looking because it is 0.01% of the total mass.

69.

(a) 6.3×10^{11} kg/s(b) 4.5×10^{10} y(c) 4.44×10^9 kg

(d) 0.32%

73.

$$(a) L = 1000.0 \sqrt{1 - \frac{(0.6c)^2}{c^2}} = 800.00 \text{ m}$$

$$(b) L = 1000.0 \sqrt{1 - \frac{(0.6c)^2}{c^2}} = 800.00 \text{ m}$$

(c) No.

(d) Yes.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(a)

3.

The relativistic Doppler effect takes into account the special relativity concept of time dilation and also does not require a medium of propagation to be used as a point of reference (light does not require a medium for propagation).

5.

Relativistic kinetic energy is given as $\text{KE}_{\text{rel}} = (\gamma - 1)mc^2$

$$\text{where } \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

Classical kinetic energy is given as $\text{KE}_{\text{class}} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$

At low velocities $v \ll c$, a binomial expansion and subsequent approximation of γ gives:

$$\gamma = 1 + \frac{1}{2}\frac{v^2}{c^2} \text{ or } \gamma - 1 = \frac{1}{2}\frac{v^2}{c^2}$$

Substituting $\gamma - 1$ in the expression for KE_{rel} gives

$$\text{KE}_{\text{rel}} = \left[\frac{1}{2}\frac{v^2}{c^2} \right] mc^2 = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \text{KE}_{\text{class}}$$

Hence, relativistic kinetic energy becomes classical kinetic energy when $v \ll c$.

Chapter 29

Problems & Exercises

1.

(a) 0.070 eV

(b) 14

3.

(a) $2.21 \times 10^{34} \text{ J}$

(b) 2.26×10^{34}

(c) No

4.

263 nm

6.

3.69 eV

8.

0.483 eV

10.

2.25 eV

12.

(a) 264 nm

(b) Ultraviolet

14.

$1.95 \times 10^6 \text{ m/s}$

16.

(a) $4.02 \times 10^{15} \text{ /s}$

(b) 0.256 mW

18.

(a) -1.90 eV

(b) Negative kinetic energy

(c) That the electrons would be knocked free.

20.

$6.34 \times 10^{-9} \text{ eV}, 1.01 \times 10^{-27} \text{ J}$

22.

$2.42 \times 10^{20} \text{ Hz}$

24.

$$\begin{aligned}
 hc &= (6.62607 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J} \cdot \text{s}) (2.99792 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}) \left(\frac{10^9 \text{ nm}}{1 \text{ m}} \right) \left(\frac{1.00000 \text{ eV}}{1.60218 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}} \right) \\
 &= 1239.84 \text{ eV} \cdot \text{nm} \\
 &\approx 1240 \text{ eV} \cdot \text{nm}
 \end{aligned}$$

26.

(a) 0.0829 eV

(b) 121

(c) 1.24 MeV

(d) 1.24×10^5

28.

(a) $25.0 \times 10^3 \text{ eV}$

(b) $6.04 \times 10^{18} \text{ Hz}$

30.

(a) 2.69

(b) 0.371

32.

(a) 1.25×10^{13} photons/s

(b) 997 km

34.

 8.33×10^{13} photons/s

36.

181 km

38.

(a) 1.66×10^{-32} kg · m/s

(b) The wavelength of microwave photons is large, so the momentum they carry is very small.

40.

(a) 13.3 μm (b) 9.38×10^{-2} eV

42.

(a) 2.65×10^{-28} kg · m/s

(b) 291 m/s

(c) electron 3.86×10^{-26} J, photon 7.96×10^{-20} J, ratio 2.06×10^6

44.

(a) 1.32×10^{-13} m

(b) 9.39 MeV

(c) 4.70×10^{-2} MeV

46.

 $E = \gamma mc^2$ and $P = \gamma mu$, so

$$\frac{E}{P} = \frac{\gamma mc^2}{\gamma mu} = \frac{c^2}{u}.$$

As the mass of particle approaches zero, its velocity u will approach c , so that the ratio of energy to momentum in this limit is

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow 0} \frac{E}{P} = \frac{c^2}{c} = c$$

which is consistent with the equation for photon energy.

48.

(a) 3.00×10^6 W

(b) Headlights are way too bright.

(c) Force is too large.

49.

 7.28×10^{-4} m

51.

 6.62×10^7 m/s

53.

$1.32 \times 10^{-13} \text{ m}$

55.

(a) $6.62 \times 10^7 \text{ m/s}$

(b) 22.9 MeV

57.

15.1 keV

59.

(a) 5.29 fm

(b) $4.70 \times 10^{-12} \text{ J}$

(c) 29.4 MV

61.

(a) $7.28 \times 10^{12} \text{ m/s}$

(b) This is thousands of times the speed of light (an impossibility).

(c) The assumption that the electron is non-relativistic is unreasonable at this wavelength.

62.

(a) 57.9 m/s

(b) $9.55 \times 10^{-9} \text{ eV}$

(c) From [Table 29.1](#), we see that typical molecular binding energies range from about 1eV to 10 eV, therefore the result in part (b) is approximately 9 orders of magnitude smaller than typical molecular binding energies.

64.

29 nm,

290 times greater

66.

$1.10 \times 10^{-13} \text{ eV}$

68.

$3.3 \times 10^{-22} \text{ s}$

70.

$2.66 \times 10^{-46} \text{ kg}$

72.

0.395 nm

74.

(a) $1.3 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$

(b) 2.1×10^{23}

(c) $1.4 \times 10^2 \text{ s}$

76.

(a) $3.35 \times 10^5 \text{ J}$

(b) $1.12 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$

(c) $1.12 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m/s}$

(d) $6.23 \times 10^{-7} \text{ J}$

78.

- (a) 1.06×10^3
- (b) $5.33 \times 10^{-16} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$
- (c) $1.24 \times 10^{-18} \text{ m}$

80.

- (a) $1.62 \times 10^3 \text{ m/s}$
- (b) $4.42 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$ for photon, $1.19 \times 10^{-24} \text{ J}$ for electron, photon energy is 3.71×10^5 times greater
- (c) The light is easier to make because 450-nm light is blue light and therefore easy to make. Creating electrons with $7.43 \text{ } \mu\text{eV}$ of energy would not be difficult, but would require a vacuum.

81.

- (a) $2.30 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}$
- (b) $3.20 \times 10^{-12} \text{ m}$

83.

$$3.69 \times 10^{-4} \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$$

85.

- (a) 2.00 kJ
- (b) $1.33 \times 10^{-5} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$
- (c) $1.33 \times 10^{-5} \text{ N}$
- (d) yes

87.

$$(a) p = \frac{h}{\lambda} = \frac{6.63 \times 10^{-34}}{550 \times 10^{-9}} \text{ kg m/s} = 1.21 \text{ kg} \times 10^{-27} \text{ m/s}$$

$$(b) p = \frac{h}{\lambda} = \frac{6.63 \times 10^{-34}}{650 \times 10^{-9}} \text{ kg m/s} = 1.02 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg m/s}$$

- (c) Yes, conservation of momentum applies.
- (d) The photon with the longer wavelength has less momentum than the one with the shorter wavelength.

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1.

(b)

3.

(c)

5.

(b)

7.

(c)

9.

(c)

11.

(a)

13.

(a)

15.

(c)

17.

(d)

Chapter 30

Problems & Exercises

1.

$$1.84 \times 10^3$$

3.

$$50 \text{ km}$$

4.

$$6 \times 10^{20} \text{ kg/m}^3$$

6.

$$(a) 10.0 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$$

(b) It isn't hard to make one of approximately this size. It would be harder to make it exactly $10.0 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$.

7.

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left(\frac{1}{n_f^2} - \frac{1}{n_i^2} \right) \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{1}{R} \left[\frac{(n_i \cdot n_f)^2}{n_i^2 - n_f^2} \right]; n_i = 2, n_f = 1, \text{ so that}$$

$$\lambda = \left(\frac{\text{m}}{1.097 \times 10^7} \right) \left[\frac{(2 \times 1)^2}{2^2 - 1^2} \right] = 1.22 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m} = 122 \text{ nm}, \text{ which is UV radiation.}$$

9.

$$a_B = \frac{h^2}{4\pi^2 m_e k Z q_e^2} = \frac{(6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s})^2}{4\pi^2 (9.109 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg})(8.988 \times 10^9 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{C}^2)(1)(1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})^2} = 0.529 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$$

11.

$$0.850 \text{ eV}$$

13.

$$2.12 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$$

15.

$$365 \text{ nm}$$

It is in the ultraviolet.

17.

No overlap

$$365 \text{ nm}$$

$$122 \text{ nm}$$

19.

$$7$$

21.

$$(a) 2$$

$$(b) 54.4 \text{ eV}$$

23.

$$\frac{kZq_e^2}{r_n^2} = \frac{m_e V^2}{r_n}, \text{ so that } r_n = \frac{kZq_e^2}{m_e V^2} = \frac{kZq_e^2}{m_e} \frac{1}{V^2}. \text{ From the equation } m_e v r_n = n \frac{h}{2\pi}, \text{ we can substitute for the}$$

velocity, giving: $r_n = \frac{kZq_e^2}{m_e} \cdot \frac{4\pi^2 m_e^2 r_n^2}{n^2 h^2}$ so that $r_n = \frac{n^2}{Z} \frac{h^2}{4\pi^2 m_e k q_e^2} = \frac{n^2}{Z} a_B$, where $a_B = \frac{h^2}{4\pi^2 m_e k q_e^2}$.

25.

(a) $0.248 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$

(b) 50.0 keV

(c) The photon energy is simply the applied voltage times the electron charge, so the value of the voltage in volts is the same as the value of the energy in electron volts.

27.

(a) $100 \times 10^3 \text{ eV}$, $1.60 \times 10^{-14} \text{ J}$

(b) $0.124 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$

29.

(a) 8.00 keV

(b) 9.48 keV

30.

(a) 1.96 eV

(b) $(1240 \text{ eV} \cdot \text{nm}) / (1.96 \text{ eV}) = 633 \text{ nm}$

(c) 60.0 nm

32.

693 nm

34.

(a) 590 nm

(b) $(1240 \text{ eV} \cdot \text{nm}) / (1.17 \text{ eV}) = 1.06 \mu\text{m}$

35.

$l = 4$, 3 are possible since $l < n$ and $|m_l| \leq l$.

37.

$n = 4 \Rightarrow l = 3, 2, 1, 0 \Rightarrow m_l = \pm 3, \pm 2, \pm 1, 0$ are possible.

39.

(a) $1.49 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J} \cdot \text{s}$

(b) $1.06 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J} \cdot \text{s}$

41.

(a) $3.66 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J} \cdot \text{s}$

(b) $s = 9.13 \times 10^{-35} \text{ J} \cdot \text{s}$

(c) $\frac{L}{S} = \frac{\sqrt{12}}{\sqrt{3/4}} = 4$

43.

$\theta = 54.7^\circ, 125.3^\circ$

44.

(a) 32. (b) 2 in s , 6 in p , 10 in d , and 14 in f , for a total of 32.

46.

(a) 2

(b) $3d^9$

48.

(b) $n \geq l$ is violated,(c) cannot have 3 electrons in s subshell since $3 > (2l + 1) = 2$ (d) cannot have 7 electrons in p subshell since $7 > (2l + 1) = 2(2 + 1) = 6$

50.

(a) The number of different values of m_l is $\pm l, \pm(l - 1), \dots, 0$ for each $l > 0$ and one for $l = 0 \Rightarrow (2l + 1)$. Also an overall factor of 2 since each m_l can have m_s equal to either $+1/2$ or $-1/2 \Rightarrow 2(2l + 1)$.(b) for each value of l , you get $2(2l + 1)$

$$= 0, 1, 2, \dots, (n-1) \Rightarrow 2\{[(2)(0)+1]+[(2)(1)+1]+\dots+[(2)(n-1)+1]\} = \underbrace{2[1+3+\dots+(2n-3)+(2n-1)]}_{n \text{ terms}} \text{ to see}$$

that the expression in the box is $= n^2$, imagine taking $(n - 1)$ from the last term and adding it to first term $= 2[1+(n-1)+3+\dots+(2n-3)+(2n-1)-(n-1)] = 2[n+3+\dots+(2n-3)+n]$. Now take $(n - 3)$ from penultimate term and add to the second term $2[\underbrace{n+n+\dots+n+n}_{n \text{ terms}}] = 2n^2$.

52.

The electric force on the electron is up (toward the positively charged plate). The magnetic force is down (by the RHR).

54.

401 nm

56.

(a) 6.54×10^{-16} kg(b) 5.54×10^{-7} m

58.

1.76×10^{11} C/kg, which agrees with the known value of 1.759×10^{11} C/kg to within the precision of the measurement

60.

(a) 2.78 fm

(b) 0.37 of the nuclear radius.

62.

(a) 1.34×10^{23}

(b) 2.52 MW

64.

(a) 6.42 eV

(b) 7.27×10^{-20} J/molecule

(c) 0.454 eV, 14.1 times less than a single UV photon. Therefore, each photon will evaporate approximately 14 molecules of tissue. This gives the surgeon a rather precise method of removing corneal tissue from the surface of the eye.

66.

91.18 nm to 91.22 nm

68.

(a) 1.24×10^{11} V

(b) The voltage is extremely large compared with any practical value.

(c) The assumption of such a short wavelength by this method is unreasonable.

72.

$$E = -\frac{z^2}{n^2}$$

$$(a) E_3 - E_2 = -\left(\frac{6^2}{3^2} - \frac{6^2}{2^2}\right) 13.6 \text{ eV} = 68.0 \text{ eV}$$

$$E_3 - E_2 = -\left(\frac{6^2}{2^2} - \frac{6^2}{1^2}\right) 13.6 \text{ eV} = 367 \text{ eV}$$

$$E = 435 \text{ eV}$$

$$(b) E_3 - E_2 = -\left(\frac{6^2}{3^2} - \frac{6^2}{1^2}\right) 13.6 \text{ eV} = 435 \text{ eV}$$

(c) Yes.

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1.

(a), (d)

3.

(a)

5.

(a)

7.

(b)

9.

(a)

11.

(d)

Chapter 31

Problems & Exercises

1.

$$1.67 \times 10^4$$

5.

$$m = \rho V = \rho d^3 \Rightarrow a = \left(\frac{m}{\rho}\right)^{1/3} = \left(\frac{2.3 \times 10^{17} \text{ kg}}{1000 \text{ kg/m}^3}\right)^{1/3}$$

$$= 61 \times 10^3 \text{ m} = 61 \text{ km}$$

7.

$$1.9 \text{ fm}$$

9.

$$(a) 4.6 \text{ fm}$$

$$(b) 0.61 \text{ to } 1$$

11.

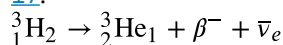
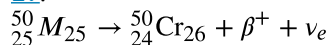
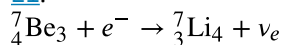
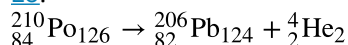
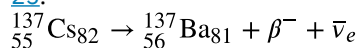
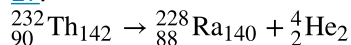
$$85.4 \text{ to } 1$$

13.

$$12.4 \text{ GeV}$$

15.

19.3 to 1

[17.](#)[19.](#)[21.](#)[23.](#)[25.](#)[27.](#)[29.](#)

(a) charge: $(+1)+(-1)=0$; electron family number: $(+1)+(-1)=0$; $A: 0+0=0$

(b) 0.511 MeV

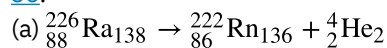
(c) The two γ rays must travel in exactly opposite directions in order to conserve momentum, since initially there is zero momentum if the center of mass is initially at rest.

[31.](#)

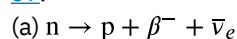
$$Z = (Z+1)-1; \quad A = A; \quad \text{efn} : 0 = (+1)+(-1)$$

[33.](#)

$$Z-1 = Z-1; \quad A = A; \quad \text{efn} : (+1) = (+1)$$

[35.](#)

(b) 4.87 MeV

[37.](#)

(b)) 0.783 MeV

[39.](#)

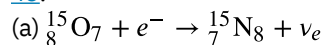
1.82 MeV

[41.](#)

(a) 4.274 MeV

(b) 1.927×10^{-5}

(c) Since U-238 is a slowly decaying substance, only a very small number of nuclei decay on human timescales; therefore, although those nuclei that decay lose a noticeable fraction of their mass, the change in the total mass of the sample is not detectable for a macroscopic sample.

[43.](#)

(b) 2.754 MeV

[44.](#)

57,300 y

[46.](#)

(a) 0.988 Ci

(b) The half-life of ${}^{226}\text{Ra}$ is now better known.

48.

$1.22 \times 10^3 \text{ Bq}$

50.

(a) 16.0 mg

(b) 0.0114%

52.

$1.48 \times 10^{17} \text{ y}$

54.

$5.6 \times 10^4 \text{ y}$

56.

2.71 y

58.

(a) 1.56 mg

(b) 11.3 Ci

60.

(a) 1.23×10^{-3}

(b) Only part of the emitted radiation goes in the direction of the detector. Only a fraction of that causes a response in the detector. Some of the emitted radiation (mostly α particles) is observed within the source. Some is absorbed within the source, some is absorbed by the detector, and some does not penetrate the detector.

62.

(a) $1.68 \times 10^{-5} \text{ Ci}$

(b) $8.65 \times 10^{10} \text{ J}$

(c) 2.9×10^3

64.

(a) $6.97 \times 10^{15} \text{ Bq}$

(b) 6.24 kW

(c) 5.67 kW

68.

(a) 84.5 Ci

(b) An extremely large activity, many orders of magnitude greater than permitted for home use.

(c) The assumption of $1.00 \mu\text{A}$ is unreasonably large. Other methods can detect much smaller decay rates.

69.

1.112 MeV, consistent with graph

71.

7.848 MeV, consistent with graph

73.

(a) 7.680 MeV, consistent with graph

(b) 7.520 MeV, consistent with graph. Not significantly different from value for ^{12}C , but sufficiently lower to allow decay into another nuclide that is more tightly bound.

75.

(a) $1.46 \times 10^{-8} \text{ u}$ vs. 1.007825 u for ^1H

(b) 0.000549 u

(c) 2.66×10^{-5}

76.

(a) -9.315 MeV

(b) The negative binding energy implies an unbound system.

(c) This assumption that it is two bound neutrons is incorrect.

78.

22.8 cm

79.

(a) ${}_{92}^{235}\text{U}_{143} \rightarrow {}_{90}^{231}\text{Th}_{141} + {}_2^4\text{He}_2$

(b) 4.679 MeV

(c) 4.599 MeV

81.

a) 2.4×10^8 u

(b) The greatest known atomic masses are about 260. This result found in (a) is extremely large.

(c) The assumed radius is much too large to be reasonable.

82.

(a) -1.805 MeV

(b) Negative energy implies energy input is necessary and the reaction cannot be spontaneous.

(c) Although all conservation laws are obeyed, energy must be supplied, so the assumption of spontaneous decay is incorrect.

84.

$$r = r_0 A^{1/3} = 1.2(235)^{1/3} = 7.4 \text{ fm}$$

(a) $V = \frac{4\pi r^3}{3} = 1700 \text{ fm}^3$

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V} = 0.14 \text{ u/fm}^3$$

(b) For barium: $r = r_0 A^{1/3} = 1.2(142)^{1/3} = 6.3 \text{ fm}$

$$V = \frac{4\pi r^3}{3} = 1047 \text{ fm}^3$$

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V} = 0.14 \text{ u/fm}^3$$

For krypton: $r = r_0 A^{1/3} = 1.2(92)^{1/3} = 5.4 \text{ fm}$

$$V = \frac{4\pi r^3}{3} = 660 \text{ fm}^3$$

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V} = 0.14 \text{ u/fm}^3$$

To two significant figures, they are all alike.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

1.

(c)

3.

(a)

5.

When ${}_{95}^{241}\text{Am}$ undergoes α decay, it loses 2 neutrons and 2 protons. The resulting nucleus is therefore ${}_{93}^{237}\text{Np}$.

7.

During this process, the nucleus emits a particle with -1 charge. In order for the overall charge of the system to remain constant, the charge of the nucleus must therefore increase by +1.

9.

- No. Nucleon number is conserved ($238 = 234 + 4$), but the atomic number or charge is NOT conserved ($92 \neq 88 + 2$).
- Yes. Nucleon number is conserved ($223 = 209 + 14$), and atomic number is conserved ($88 = 82 + 6$).
- Yes. Nucleon number is conserved ($14 = 14$), and charge is conserved if the electron's charge is properly counted ($6 = 7 + (-1)$).
- No. Nucleon number is not conserved ($24 \neq 23$). The positron released counts as a charge to conserve charge, but it doesn't count as a nucleon.

11.

This must be alpha decay since 4 nucleons (2 positive charges) are lost from the parent nucleus. The number remaining is found from:

$$N(t) = N_0 e^{\left(\frac{-0.693t}{\frac{t_1}{2}} \right)} = 3.4 \times 10^{17} e^{\left(\frac{-(0.693)(0.035)}{0.00173} \right)}$$

$$N(t) = 4.1 \times 10^{11} \text{ nuclei}$$

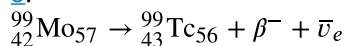
Chapter 32

Problems & Exercises

1.

5.701 MeV

3.



5.

$$1.43 \times 10^{-9} \text{ g}$$

7.

(a) 6.958 MeV

(b) $5.7 \times 10^{-10} \text{ g}$

8.

(a) 100 mSv

(b) 80 mSv

(c) ~30 mSv

10.

~2 Gy

12.

1.69 mm

14.

1.24 MeV

16.

$$7.44 \times 10^8$$

18.

$$4.92 \times 10^{-4} \text{ Sv}$$

20.

4.43 g

22.

0.010 g

24.

95%

26.

(a) $A=1+1=2$, $Z=1+1=1+1$, $efn = 0 = -1 + 1$

(b) $A=1+2=3$, $Z=1+1=2$, $efn=0=0$

(c) $A=3+3=4+1+1$, $Z=2+2=2+1+1$, $efn=0=0$

28.

$$\begin{aligned} E &= (m_i - m_f)c^2 \\ &= [4m(^1\text{H}) - m(^4\text{He})]c^2 \\ &= [4(1.007825) - 4.002603](931.5 \text{ MeV}) \\ &= 26.73 \text{ MeV} \end{aligned}$$

30.

$3.12 \times 10^5 \text{ kg}$ (about 200 tons)

32.

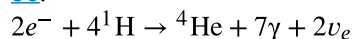
$$\begin{aligned} E &= (m_i - m_f)c^2 \\ E_1 &= (1.008665 + 3.016030 - 4.002603)(931.5 \text{ MeV}) \\ &= 20.58 \text{ MeV} \\ E_2 &= (1.008665 + 1.007825 - 2.014102)(931.5 \text{ MeV}) \\ &= 2.224 \text{ MeV} \end{aligned}$$

^4He is more tightly bound, since this reaction gives off more energy per nucleon.

34.

$1.19 \times 10^4 \text{ kg}$

36.



38.

(a) $A=12+1=13$, $Z=6+1=7$, $efn = 0 = 0$

(b) $A=13=13$, $Z=7=6+1$, $efn = 0 = -1 + 1$

(c) $A=13 + 1=14$, $Z=6+1=7$, $efn = 0 = 0$

(d) $A=14 + 1=15$, $Z=7+1=8$, $efn = 0 = 0$

(e) $A=15=15$, $Z=8=7+1$, $efn = 0 = -1 + 1$

(f) $A=15 + 1=12 + 4$, $Z=7+1=6 + 2$, $efn = 0 = 0$

40.

$$E_\gamma = 20.6 \text{ MeV}$$

$$E_{4\text{He}} = 5.68 \times 10^{-2} \text{ MeV}$$

42.

(a) $3 \times 10^9 \text{ y}$

(b) This is approximately half the lifetime of the Earth.

43.

(a) 177.1 MeV

(b) Because the gain of an external neutron yields about 6 MeV, which is the average BE/A for heavy nuclei.

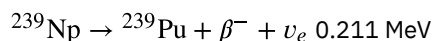
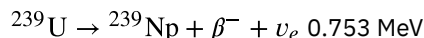
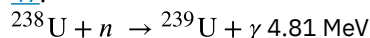
(c) $A = 1 + 238 = 96 + 140 + 1 + 1 + 1$, $Z = 92 = 38 + 53$, $\text{efn} = 0 = 0$

45.

(a) 180.6 MeV

(b) $A = 1 + 239 = 96 + 140 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$, $Z = 94 = 38 + 56$, $\text{efn} = 0 = 0$

47.



49.

(a) 2.57×10^3 MW(b) 8.03×10^{19} fission/s

(c) 991 kg

51.

0.56 g

53.

4.781 MeV

55.

(a) Blast yields 2.1×10^{12} J to 8.4×10^{11} J, or 2.5 to 1, conventional to radiation enhanced.(b) Prompt radiation yields 6.3×10^{11} J to 2.1×10^{11} J, or 3 to 1, radiation enhanced to conventional.

57.

(a) 1.1×10^{25} fissions, 4.4 kg(b) 3.2×10^{26} fusions, 2.7 kg

(c) The nuclear fuel totals only 6 kg, so it is quite reasonable that some missiles carry 10 overheads. The mass of the fuel would only be 60 kg and therefore the mass of the 10 warheads, weighing about 10 times the nuclear fuel, would be only 1500 lbs. If the fuel for the missiles weighs 5 times the total weight of the warheads, the missile would weigh about 9000 lbs or 4.5 tons. This is not an unreasonable weight for a missile.

59.

 7×10^4 g

61.

(a) 4.86×10^9 W

(b) 11.0 y

62.

(a) $(-0.500, 2.00, 3.00)$ and $(0.500, 2.00, 3.00)$ (b) $(0.000, 1.50, 3.00)$ and $(0.000, 2.50, 3.00)$

(c) They travel in opposite directions along the same line.

(d) Yes.

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1.

(b)

3.

(c)

5.

(d)

7.

(d)

9.

(b)

Chapter 33

Problems & Exercises

1.

$$3 \times 10^{-39} \text{ s}$$

3.

$$1.99 \times 10^{-16} \text{ m (0.2 fm)}$$

4.

(a) 10^{-11} to 1, weak to EM

(b) 1 to 1

6.

$$(a) 2.09 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}$$

$$(b) 4.77 \times 10^4 \text{ Hz}$$

8.

$$78.0 \text{ cm}$$

10.

$$1.40 \times 10^6$$

12.

$$100 \text{ GeV}$$

13.

$$67.5 \text{ MeV}$$

15.

$$(a) 1 \times 10^{14}$$

$$(b) 2 \times 10^{17}$$

17.

$$(a) 1671 \text{ MeV}$$

$$(b) Q = 1, Q' = 1 + 0 + 0 = 1. L_\tau = -1; L'_\tau = -1; L_\mu = 0; L'_\mu = -1 + 1 = 0$$

$$(c) \tau^- \rightarrow \mu^- + \nu_\mu + \bar{\nu}_\tau$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu^- \text{ antiparticle of } \mu^+; \nu_\mu \text{ of } \bar{\nu}_\mu; \bar{\nu}_\tau \text{ of } \nu_\tau$$

19.

$$(a) 3.9 \text{ eV}$$

(b) 2.9×10^{-8}

21.

(a) The uud composition is the same as for a proton.

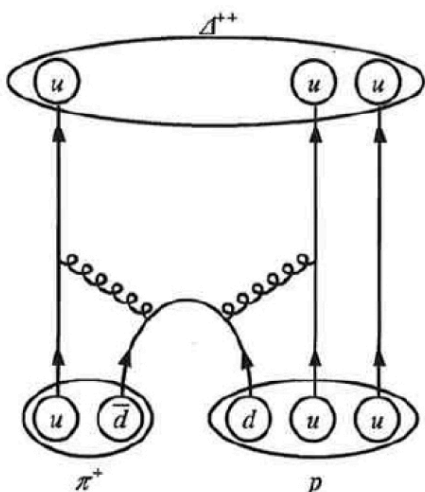
(b) 3.3×10^{-24} s

(c) Strong (short lifetime)

23.

a) $\Delta^{++}(uuu)$; $B = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} = 1$

b)



25.

(a) +1

(b) $B = 1 = 1 + 0$, $Z = 0 + (-1)$, all lepton numbers are 0 before and after

(c) $(sss) \rightarrow (uds) + (\bar{u}s)$

27.

(a) $(u\bar{u} + d\bar{d}) \rightarrow (u\bar{u} + d\bar{d}) + (u\bar{u} + d\bar{d})$

(b) 277.9 MeV

(c) 547.9 MeV

29.

No. Charge = -1 is conserved. $L_{e_i} = 0 \neq L_{e_f} = 2$ is not conserved. $L_\mu = 1$ is conserved.

31.

(a) Yes. $Z = -1 = 0 + (-1)$, $B = 1 = 1 + 0$, all lepton family numbers are 0 before and after, spontaneous since mass greater before reaction.

(b) $dds \rightarrow udd + \bar{u}d$

33.

(a) 216

(b) There are more baryons observed because we have the 6 antiquarks and various mixtures of quarks (as for the π -meson) as well.

35.

$$\Omega^+(\bar{s}\bar{s}\bar{s})$$

$$B = -\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{3} = -1,$$

$$L_e, \mu, \tau = 0 + 0 + 0 = 0,$$

$$Q = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} = 1,$$

$$S = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3.$$

[37.](#)

(a) 803 MeV

(b) 938.8 MeV

(c) The annihilation energy of an extra electron is included in the total energy.

[39.](#)

$c\bar{d}$

[41.](#)

a) The antiproton

$$\text{b) } \bar{p} \rightarrow \pi^0 + e^-$$

[43.](#)

$$\text{(a) } 5 \times 10^{10}$$

$$\text{(b) } 5 \times 10^4 \text{ particles/m}^2$$

[45.](#)

$$2.5 \times 10^{-17} \text{ m}$$

[47.](#)

(a) 33.9 MeV

(b) Muon antineutrino 29.8 MeV, muon 4.1 MeV (kinetic energy)

[49.](#)

$$\text{(a) } 7.2 \times 10^5 \text{ kg}$$

$$\text{(b) } 7.2 \times 10^2 \text{ m}^3$$

(c) 100 months

[53.](#)

$$\text{(a) } 2(1.67 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}) = 3.34 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$$

$$\text{(b) } 3.34 \times 10^{-27} (3.00 \times 10^8)^2 \text{ joules} = 3.01 \times 10^{-10} \text{ joules}$$

$$\text{(c) } 3.01 \times 10^{-10} \text{ joules}$$

(d) The proton has a positive charge, and the antiproton has a negative charge.

Test Prep for AP® Courses

[1.](#)

(d)

[3.](#)

(d)

[5.](#)

(b)

[7.](#)

(a)

9.

(c), though this comes from Einstein's special relativity

11.

(a)

13.

(d)

15.

(b)

17.

(b)

Chapter 34

Problems & Exercises

1.

$$3 \times 10^{41} \text{ kg}$$

3.

(a) $3 \times 10^{52} \text{ kg}$

(b) 2×10^{79}

(c) 4×10^{88}

5.

0.30 Gly

7.

(a) $2.0 \times 10^5 \text{ km/s}$

(b) $0.67c$

9.

$$2.7 \times 10^5 \text{ m/s}$$

11.

6×10^{-11} (an overestimate, since some of the light from Andromeda is blocked by gas and dust within that galaxy)

13.

(a) $2 \times 10^{-8} \text{ kg}$

(b) 1×10^{19}

15.

(a) $30 \text{ km/s} \cdot \text{Mly}$

(b) $15 \text{ km/s} \cdot \text{Mly}$

17.

960 rev/s

19.

89.999773° (many digits are used to show the difference between 90°)

22.

23.6 km

24.

(a) $2.95 \times 10^{12} \text{ m}$

(b) $3.12 \times 10^{-4} \text{ ly}$

26.

(a) 1×10^{20}

(b) 10 times greater

27.

1.5×10^{15}

29.

0.6 m^{-3}

31.

0.30Ω

32.

(a) $v = H_0 d = (20 \text{ km/s)/Mly } (2.00 \times 10^2 \text{ Mly}) = 4.00 \times 10^3 \text{ km/s}$

$$d = \sqrt{(1.00 \times 10^2)^2 + (2.00 \times 10^2)^2} \text{ Mly}$$

(b) $= 2.24 \times 10^2 \text{ Mly}$

$$v = (20 \text{ km/s)/Mly } (2.24 \times 10^2 \text{ Mly}) = 4.48 \times 10^3 \text{ km/s}$$

(c) The galaxies are separating mostly due to the expansion of space.

(d) Light from the third galaxy would have a red shift when detected in either of the other galaxies.

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