

# Lecture 3

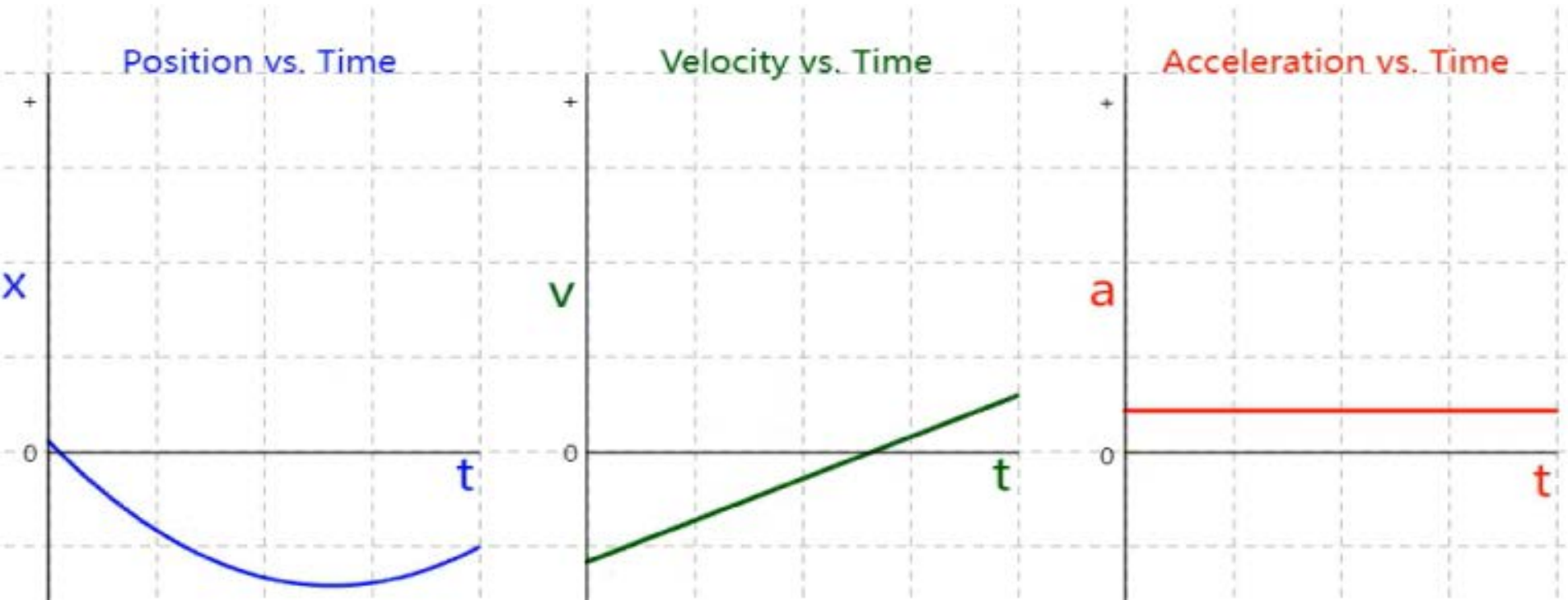
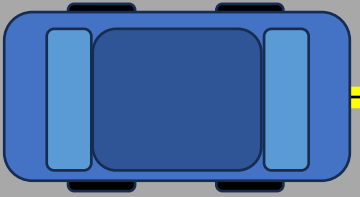
# Kinematics in 3D

**Date: 2/27/2025**

**Course Instructor:**  
Jingtian Hu (胡竞天)



# Previous Lecture: Kinematics along a line

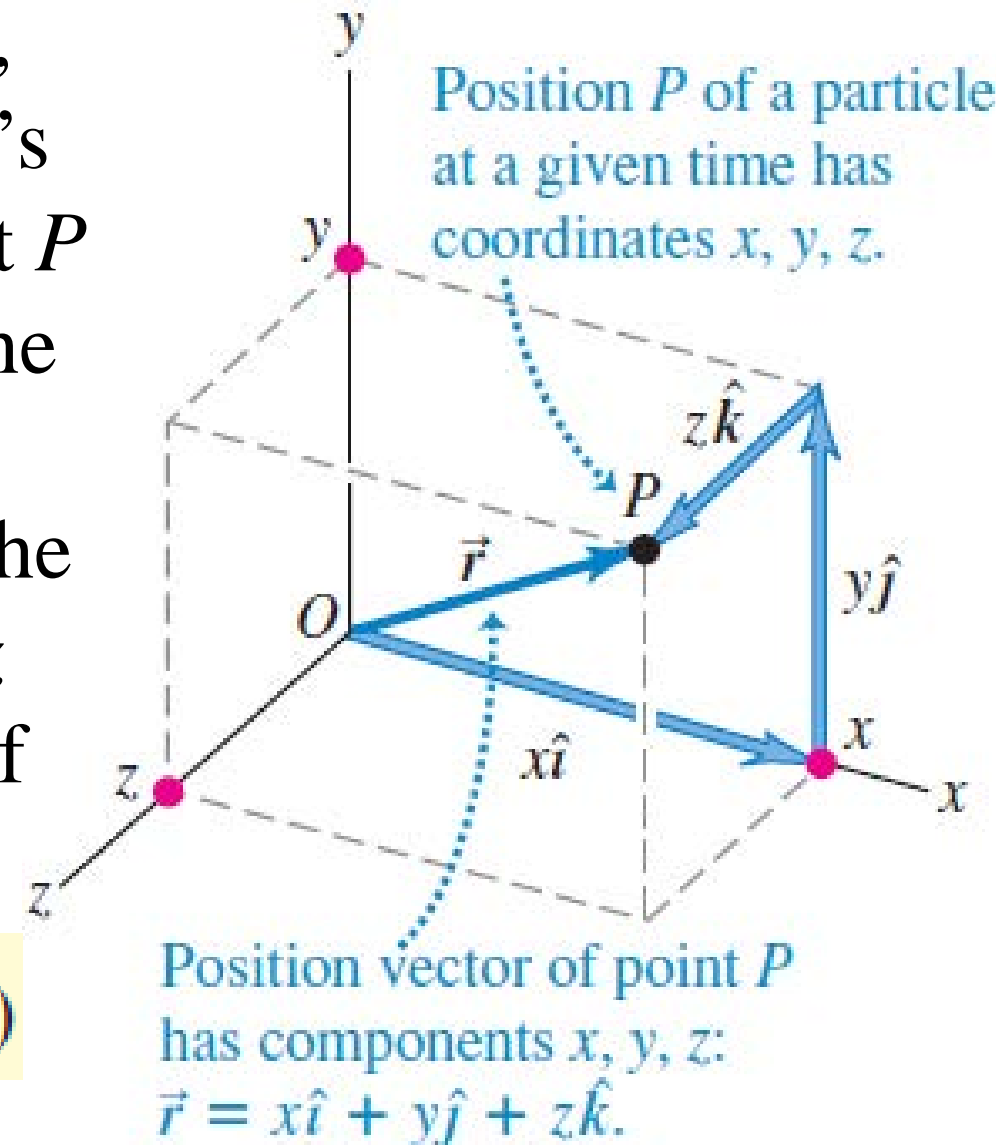


$$v_x = v_{0x} + \int_0^t a_x dt$$
$$x = x_0 + \int_0^t v_x dt$$

# Position and Velocity Vectors

To describe the *motion* of a particle in space, we must first be able to describe the particle's *position*. Consider a particle that is at a point  $P$  at a certain instant. The **position vector** of the particle at this instant is a vector that goes from the origin of the coordinate system to the point  $P$ . The Cartesian coordinates  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  of point  $P$  are the  $x$ -,  $y$ -, and  $z$ -components of vector  $\vec{r}$ .

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k} \quad (\text{position vector})$$



# Position and Velocity Vectors

During a time interval  $\Delta t$  the particle moves from  $P_1$ , where its position vector is  $\vec{r}_1$ , to  $P_2$ , where its position vector is  $\vec{r}_2$ . The change in position (the displacement) during this interval is  $\Delta\vec{r} = \vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1 = (x_2 - x_1)\hat{i} + (y_2 - y_1)\hat{j} + (z_2 - z_1)\hat{k}$ . We define the **average velocity**  $\vec{v}_{\text{av}}$  during this interval in the same way we did in Chapter 2 for straight-line motion, as the displacement divided by the time interval:

$$\vec{v}_{\text{av}} = \frac{\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1}{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{\Delta\vec{r}}{\Delta t} \quad (\text{average velocity vector}) \quad (3.2)$$

Recall in 1D:  $\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + 0\hat{j} + 0\hat{k} \quad (\text{position vector})$

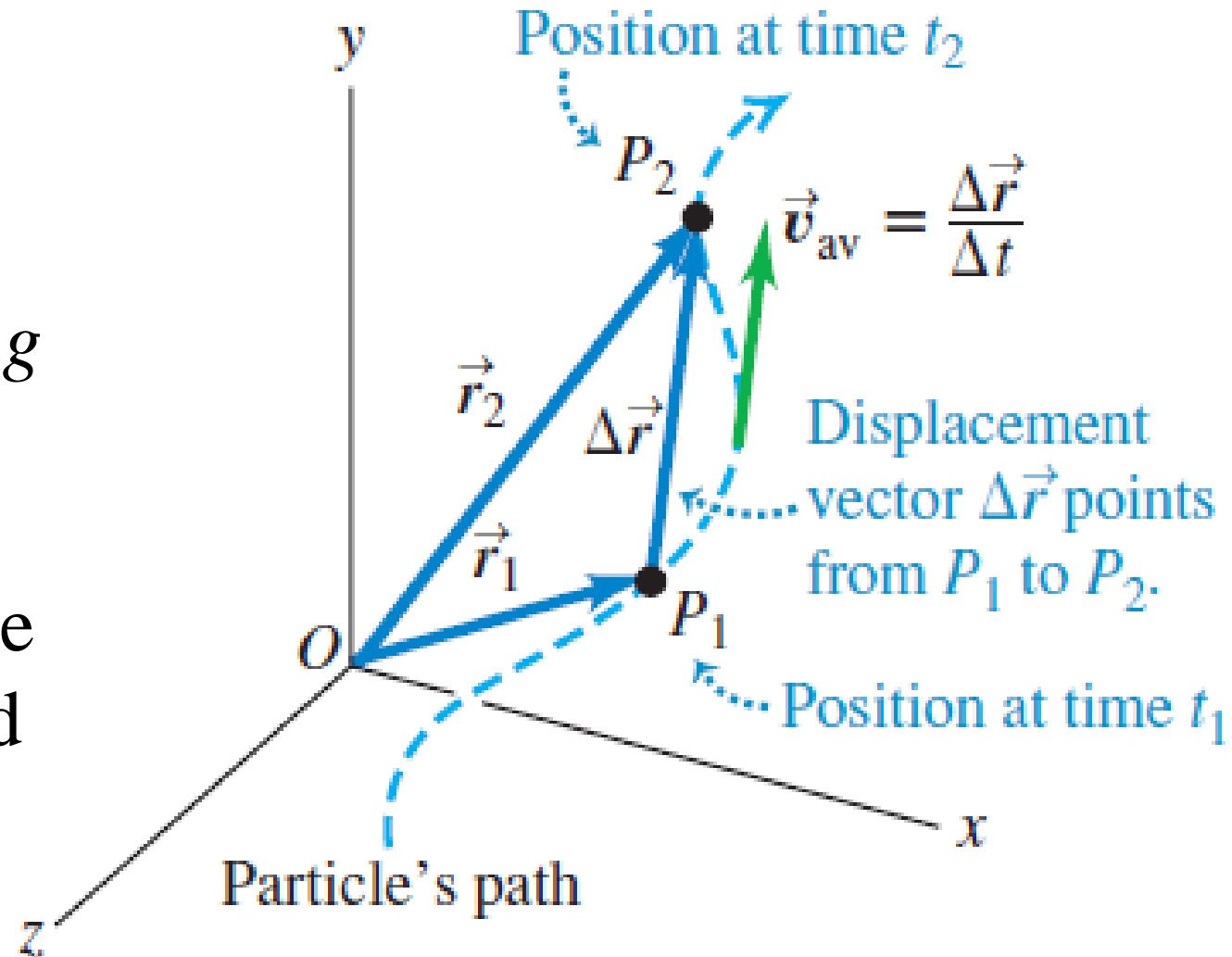
$$v_{\text{av-}x} = \frac{x_2 - x_1}{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}$$

Exactly the same form

# Position and Velocity Vectors

$$\vec{v}_{\text{av}} = \frac{\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1}{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{\Delta \vec{r}}{\Delta t}$$

*Dividing* a vector by a scalar is really a special case of *multiplying* a vector by a scalar, described in Section 1.7 of the textbook; the average velocity  $\vec{v}_{\text{av}}$  is equal to the displacement vector  $\Delta \vec{r}$  multiplied by  $1/\Delta t$  the reciprocal of the time interval



# Position and Velocity Vectors

We now define **instantaneous velocity** just as we did in 1D

$$\vec{v} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta \vec{r}}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} \quad (\text{instantaneous velocity vector})$$

The *magnitude* of the vector  $\vec{v}$  at any instant is the *speed*  $v$  of the particle at that instant. The *direction* of  $\vec{v}$  at any instant is the same as the direction in which the particle is moving at that instant.

It follows that the components  $v_x$ ,  $v_y$  and  $v_z$  of the instantaneous velocity  $v_x$  are simply the time derivatives of the coordinates  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ . That is,

$$v_x = \frac{dx}{dt} \quad v_y = \frac{dy}{dt} \quad v_z = \frac{dz}{dt} \quad (\text{components of instantaneous velocity})$$

# Position and Velocity Vectors

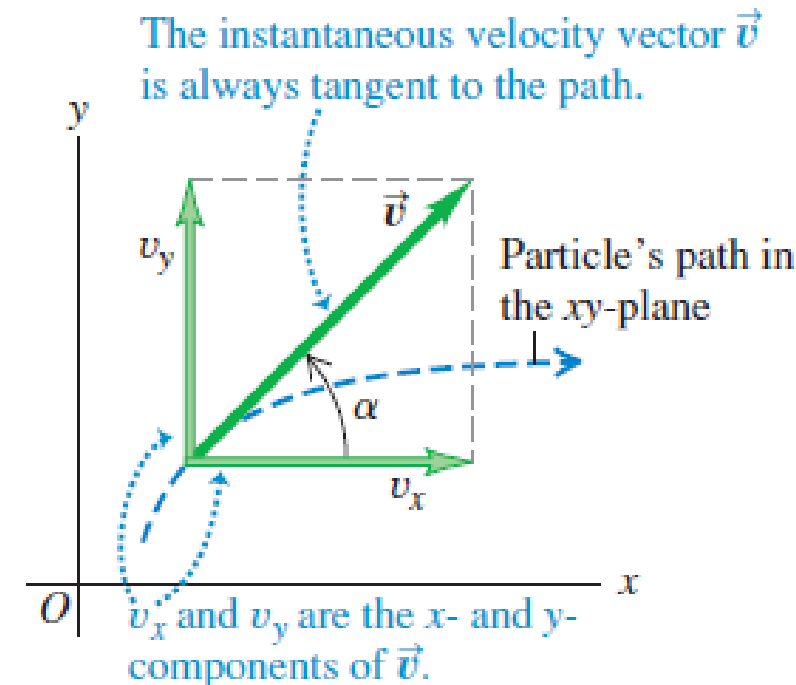
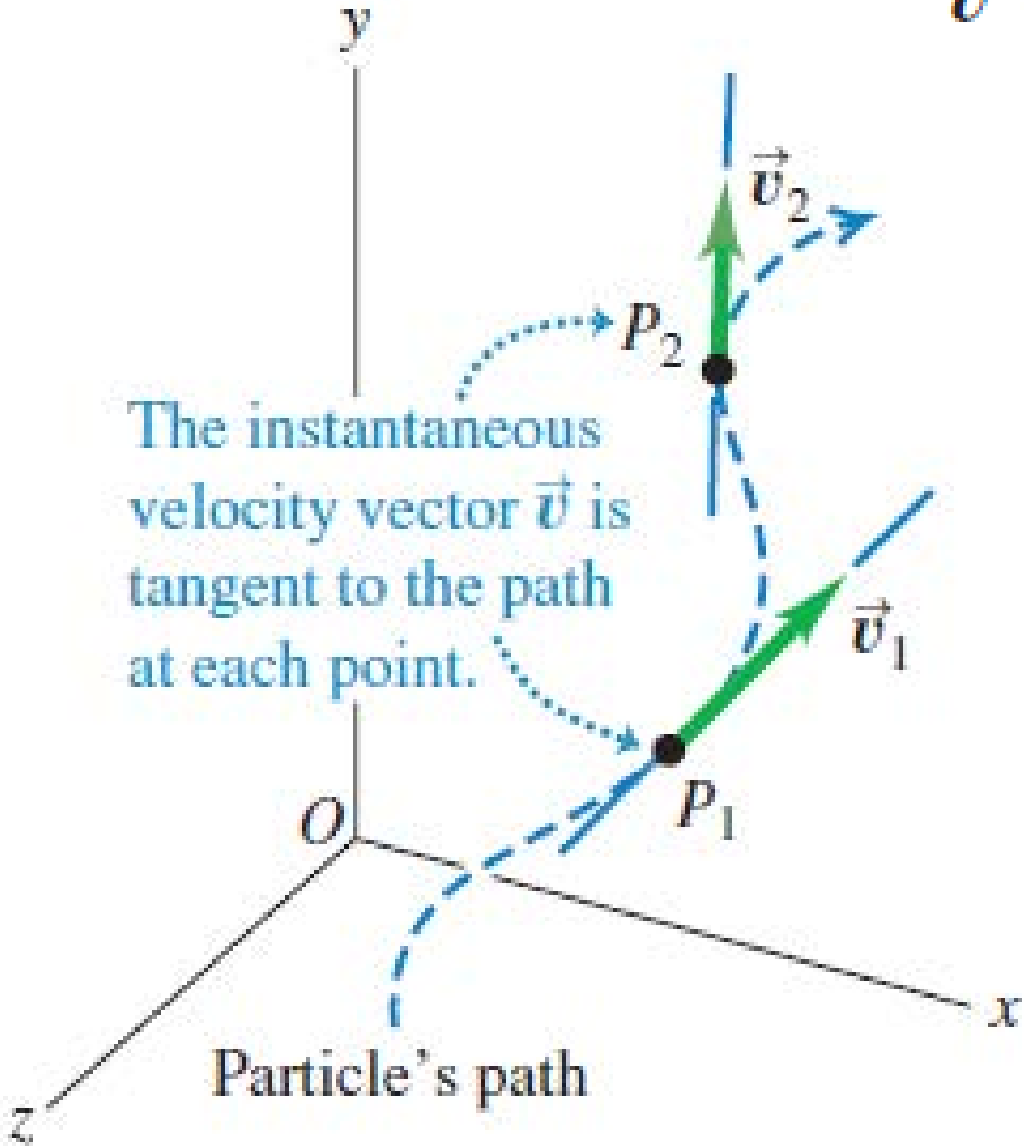
Can be also obtained by

$$\vec{v} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} = \frac{dx}{dt}\hat{i} + \frac{dy}{dt}\hat{j} + \frac{dz}{dt}\hat{k}$$

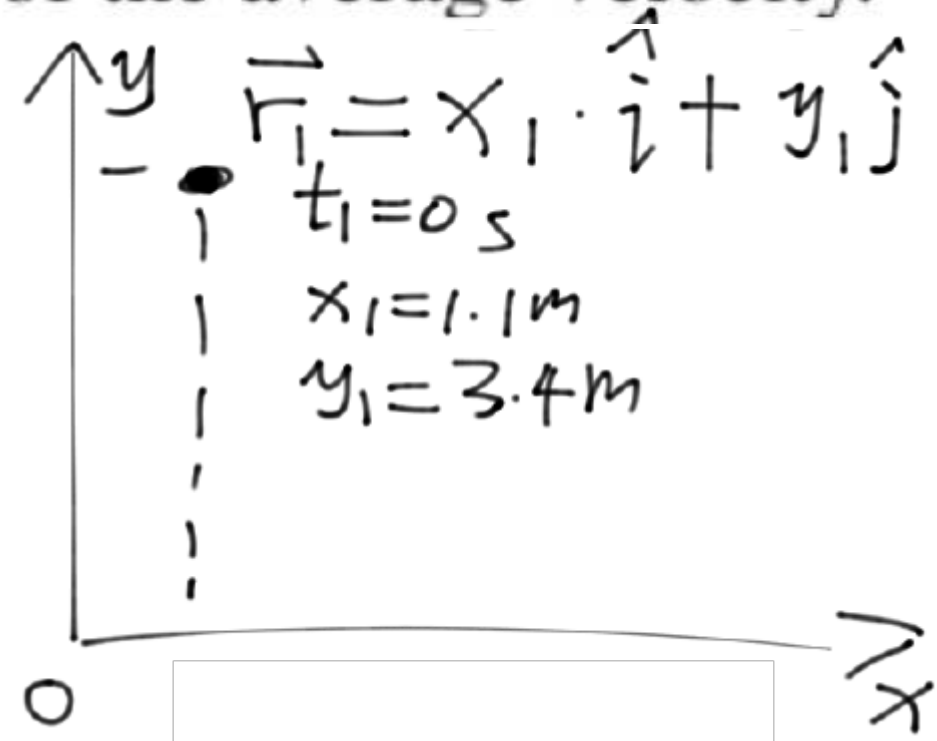
$$v_x = \frac{dx}{dt} \quad v_y = \frac{dy}{dt} \quad v_z = \frac{dz}{dt}$$

$$|\vec{v}| = v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2}$$

$$\tan \alpha = \frac{v_y}{v_x}$$



**3.1 •** A squirrel has  $x$ - and  $y$ -coordinates  $(1.1 \text{ m}, 3.4 \text{ m})$  at time  $t_1 = 0$  and coordinates  $(5.3 \text{ m}, -0.5 \text{ m})$  at time  $t_2 = 3.0 \text{ s}$ . For this time interval, find (a) the components of the average velocity, and (b) the magnitude and direction of the average velocity.



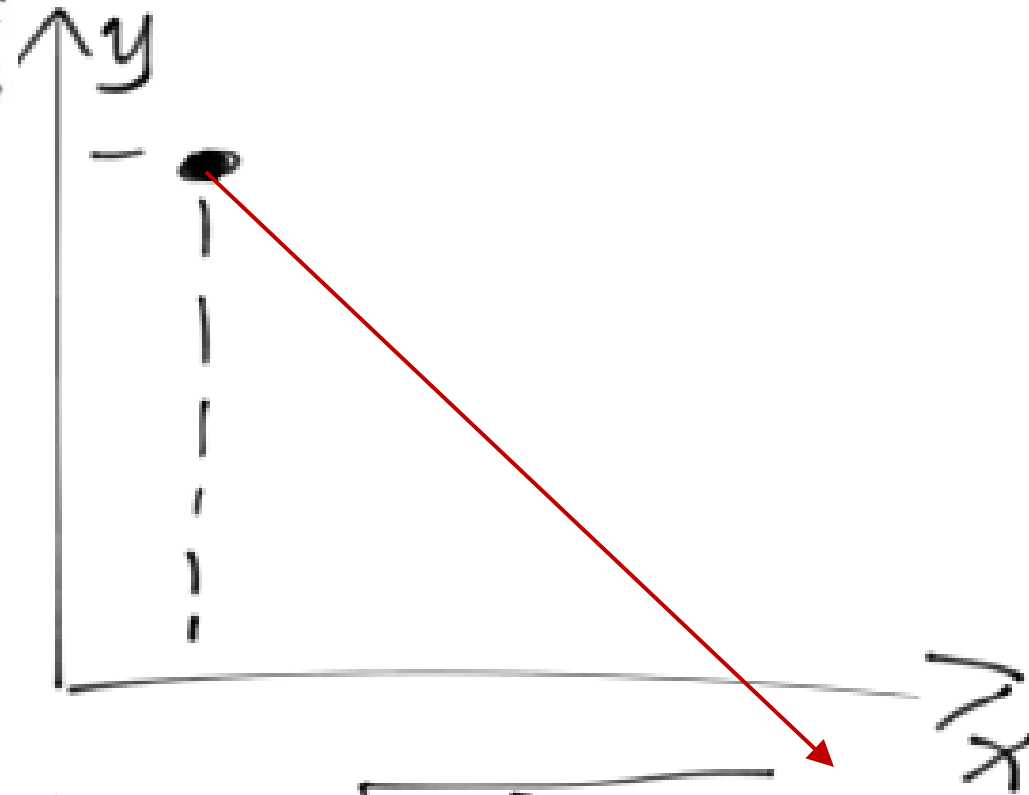


**3.1 •** A squirrel has  $x$ - and  $y$ -coordinates (1.1 m, 3.4 m) at time  $t_1 = 0$  and coordinates (5.3 m, -0.5 m) at time  $t_2 = 3.0$  s. For this time interval, find (a) the components of the average velocity, and (b) the magnitude and direction of the average velocity.

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{v}_x &= \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{x_2 - x_1}{t_2 - t_1} \\ &= \frac{5.3 \text{ m} - 1.1 \text{ m}}{3.0 \text{ s} - 0 \text{ s}} \\ &= 1.4 \text{ m/s}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{v}_y &= \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t} = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{t_2 - t_1} \\ &= \frac{-0.5 \text{ m} - 3.4 \text{ m}}{3.0 \text{ s}} = -1.3 \text{ m/s}\end{aligned}$$

$$\tan(\theta) = \frac{13}{14} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \theta = -\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{13}{14}\right) \approx -42.9^\circ$$



$$\begin{aligned}v_{ave} &\equiv |\vec{v}_{ave}| = \sqrt{1.4^2 + 1.3^2} \text{ m/s} \\ &\approx 1.9 \text{ m/s}\end{aligned}$$

# The Acceleration Vector

Recall (1D)

$$a_{\text{av-}x} = \frac{v_{2x} - v_{1x}}{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{\Delta v_x}{\Delta t} \quad (\text{average acceleration in } x)$$

In 2D/3D  
space:

$$\vec{a}_{\text{av}} = \frac{\vec{v}_2 - \vec{v}_1}{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{\Delta \vec{v}}{\Delta t} \quad (\text{average acceleration vector})$$

Instantaneous acceleration

$$\vec{a} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta \vec{v}}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \quad (\text{instantaneous acceleration vector})$$

**CAUTION** Any particle following a curved path is accelerating When a particle is moving in a curved path, it always has nonzero acceleration, even when it moves with *constant speed*. We will have an example soon

# The Acceleration Vector

Recall (1D)

$$a_{\text{av-}x} = \frac{v_{2x} - v_{1x}}{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{\Delta v_x}{\Delta t} \quad (\text{average acceleration in } x)$$

In 2D/3D  
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$$\vec{a}_{\text{av}} = \frac{\vec{v}_2 - \vec{v}_1}{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{\Delta \vec{v}}{\Delta t} \quad (\text{average acceleration vector})$$

Instantaneous acceleration

$$\vec{a} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta \vec{v}}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \quad (\text{instantaneous acceleration vector})$$

$$a_x = \frac{dv_x}{dt} \quad a_y = \frac{dv_y}{dt} \quad a_z = \frac{dv_z}{dt} \quad (\text{components of instantaneous acceleration})$$

# The Acceleration Vector from Unit Vectors

In terms of unit vectors,

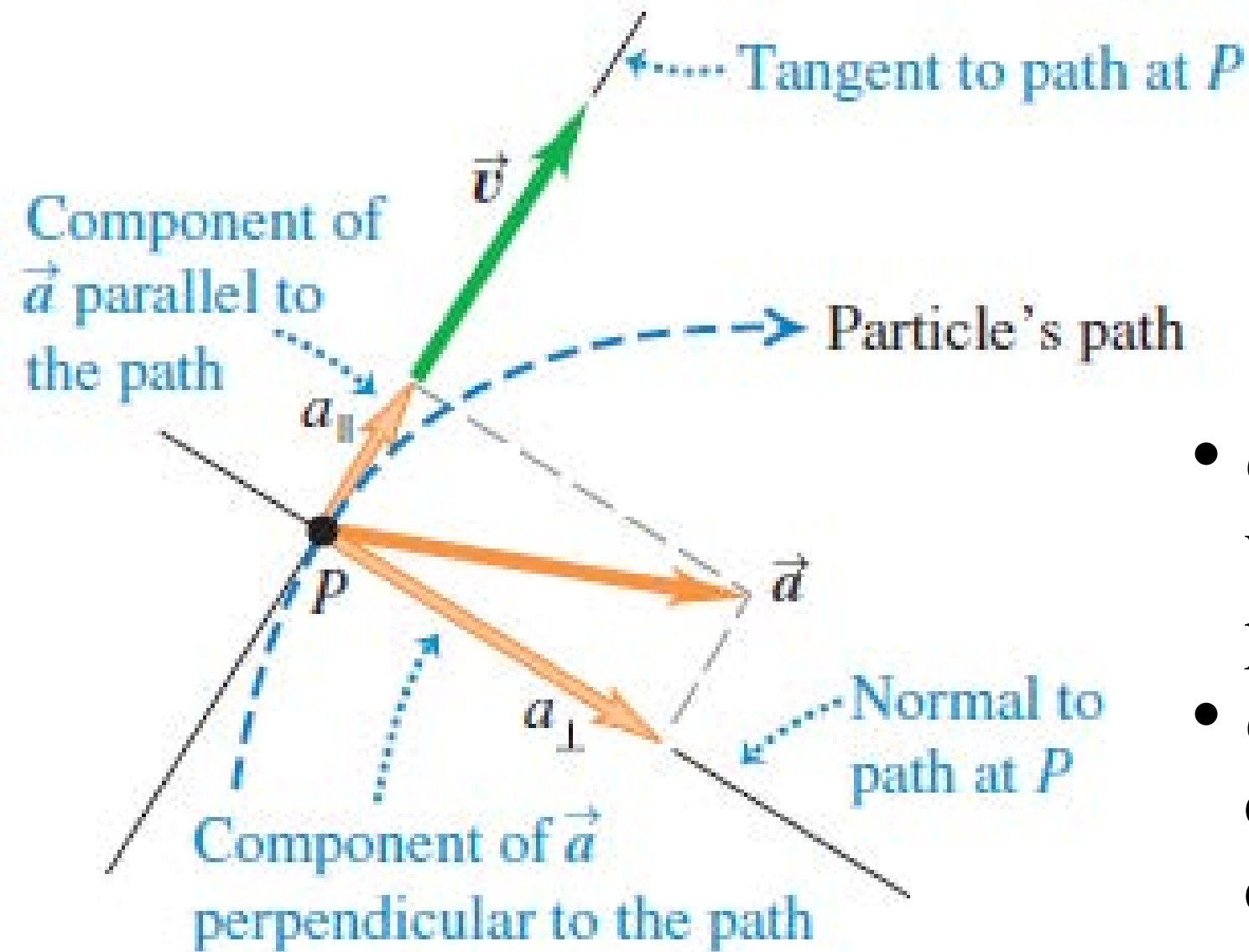
$$\vec{a} = \frac{dv_x}{dt}\hat{i} + \frac{dv_y}{dt}\hat{j} + \frac{dv_z}{dt}\hat{k} \quad (3.11)$$

The  $x$ -component of Eqs. (3.10) and (3.11),  $a_x = dv_x/dt$ , is the expression from Section 2.3 for instantaneous acceleration in one dimension, Eq. (2.5). Figure 3.8 shows an example of an acceleration vector that has both  $x$ - and  $y$ -components.

$$a_x = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} \quad a_y = \frac{d^2y}{dt^2} \quad a_z = \frac{d^2z}{dt^2}$$

$$\vec{a} = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}\hat{i} + \frac{d^2y}{dt^2}\hat{j} + \frac{d^2z}{dt^2}\hat{k}$$

# Parallel & Perpendicular Components of Acceleration

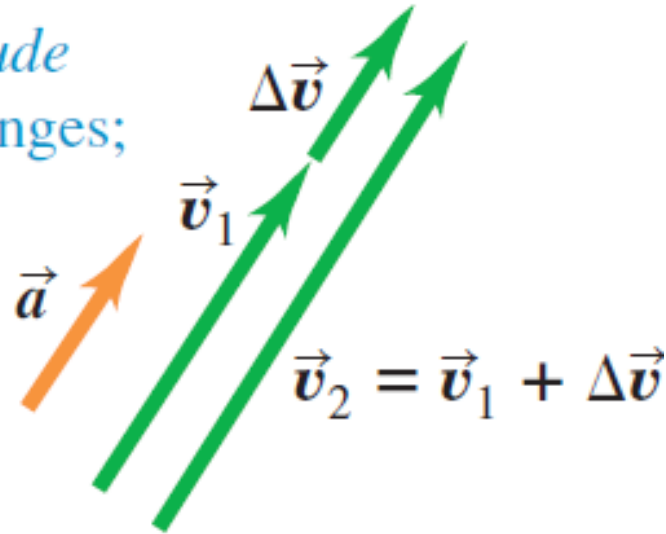


- $a_{\parallel}$ : parallel component tells us about changes in the particle's *speed*
- $a_{\perp}$ : perpendicular component tells us about changes in the particle's *direction of motion*.

# Parallel & Perpendicular Components of Acceleration

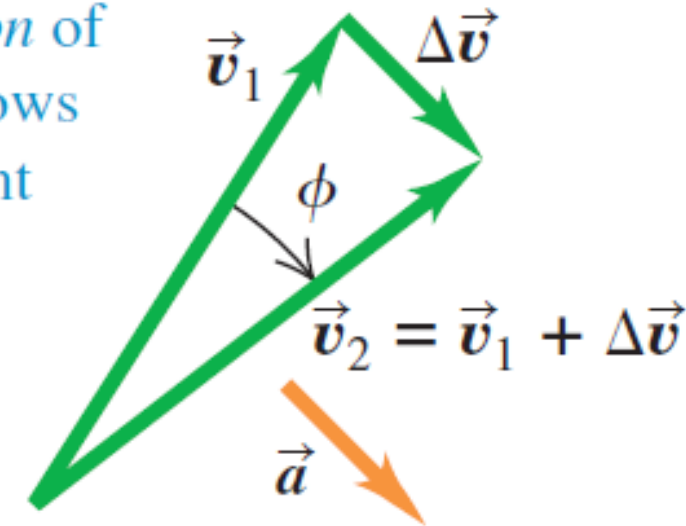
(a) Acceleration parallel to velocity

Changes only *magnitude* of velocity: speed changes; direction doesn't.



(b) Acceleration perpendicular to velocity

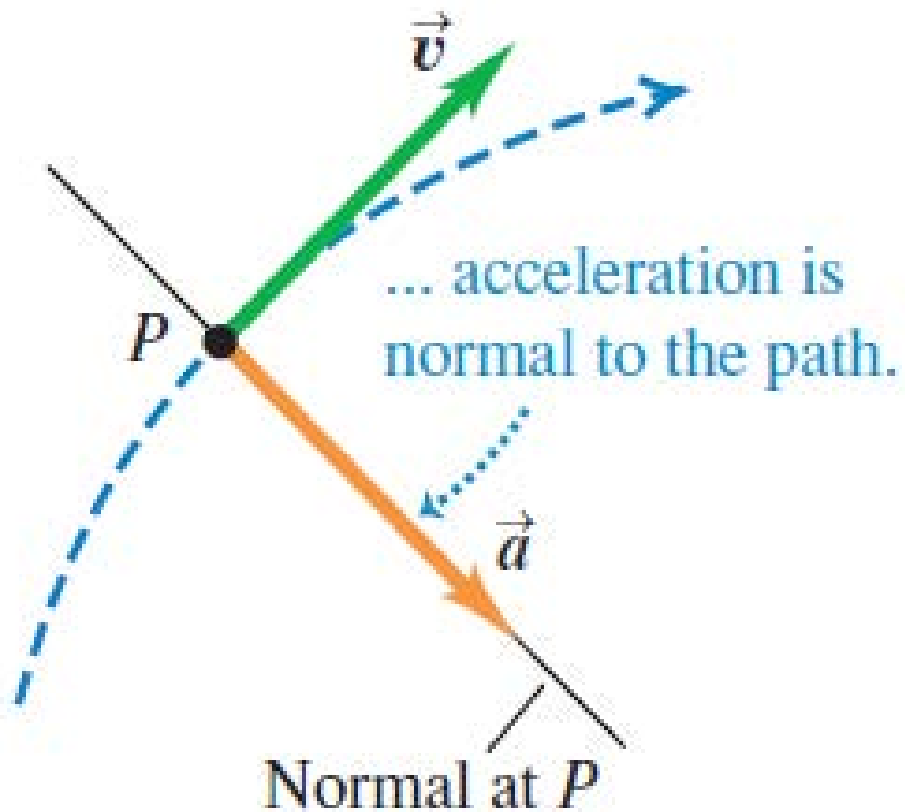
Changes only *direction* of velocity: particle follows curved path at constant speed.



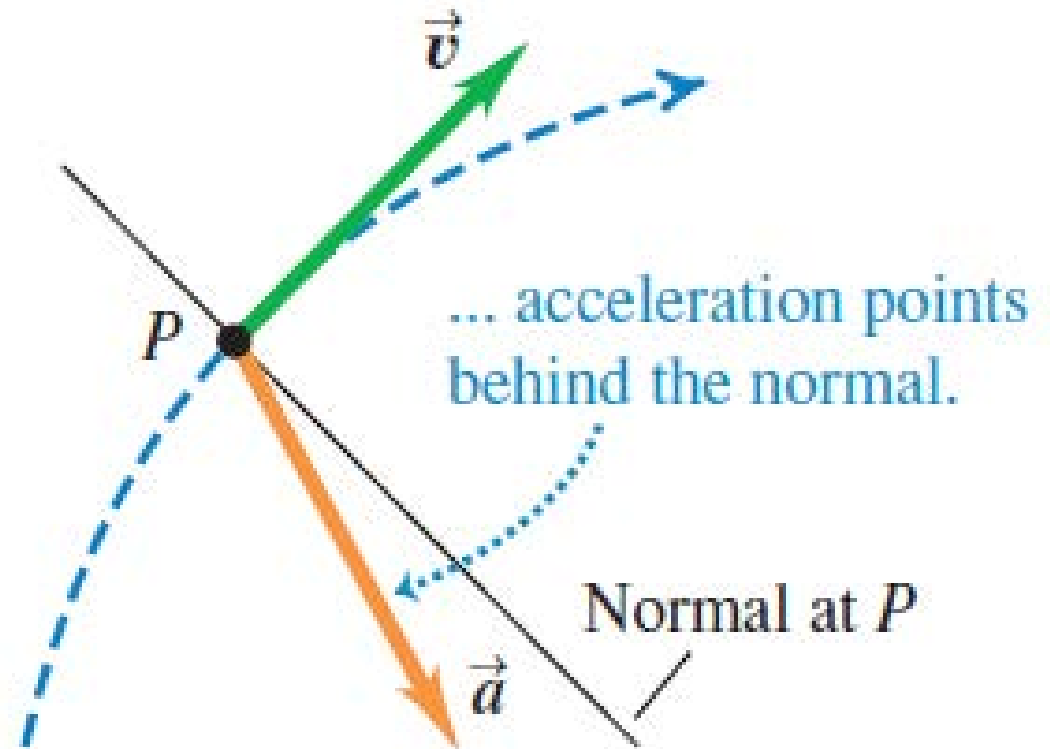
In the most general case, the acceleration  $\vec{a}$  has components *both* parallel and perpendicular to the velocity  $\vec{v}$  as in Fig. 3.10. Then the particle's speed will change (described by the parallel component) *and* its direction of motion will change (described by the perpendicular component  $a_{\perp}$ ) so that it follows a curved path.

# Parallel & Perpendicular Components of Acceleration

(a) When speed is constant along a curved path ...

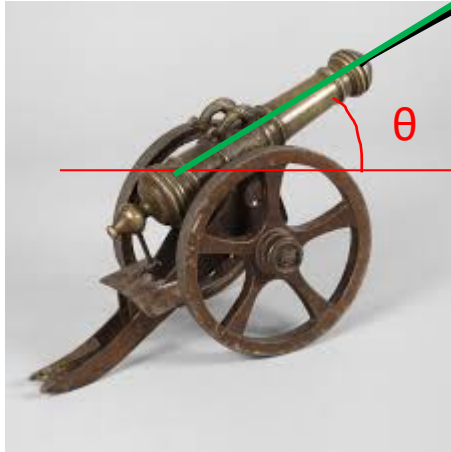


(c) When speed is decreasing along a curved path ...



# Projectile Motion

How to hit the target?



What parameters  
can we tune?

In addition, position  
of the cannon ( $x, y, z$ )



A **projectile** is any body that is given an initial velocity and then follows a path determined entirely by the effects of gravitational acceleration and air resistance. A batted baseball, a thrown football, a package dropped from an airplane, and a bullet shot from a rifle are all projectiles. The path followed by a projectile is called its **trajectory**.

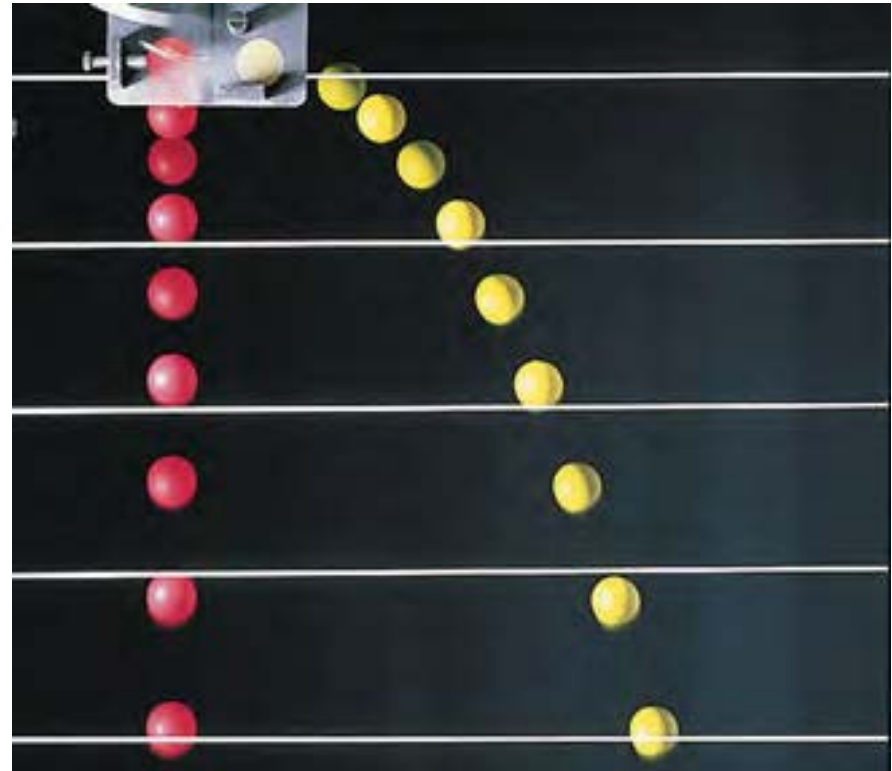
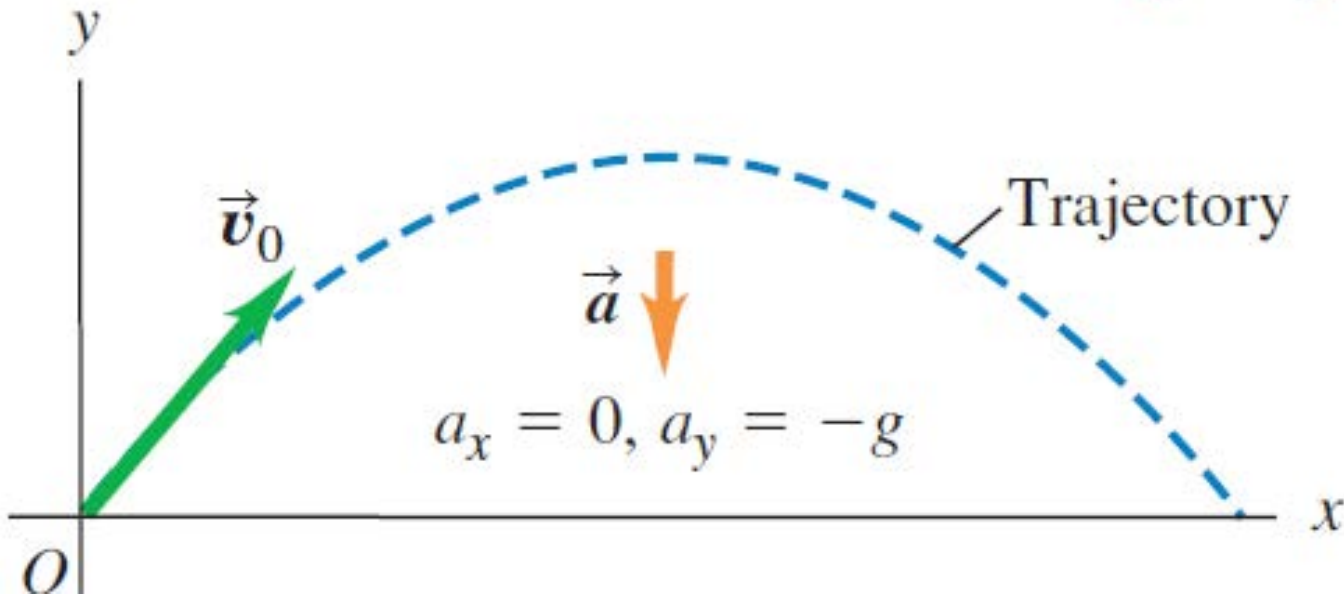


# Projectile Motion

Thus projectile motion is *two-dimensional*, which can be described by  $xy$ -coordinate plane. The **key** to analyzing projectile motion is that we can treat the  $x$ - and  $y$ -coordinates *separately*, as a combination of

- A projectile moves in a vertical plane that contains the initial velocity vector  $\vec{v}_0$ .
- Its trajectory depends only on  $\vec{v}_0$  and on the downward acceleration due to gravity.

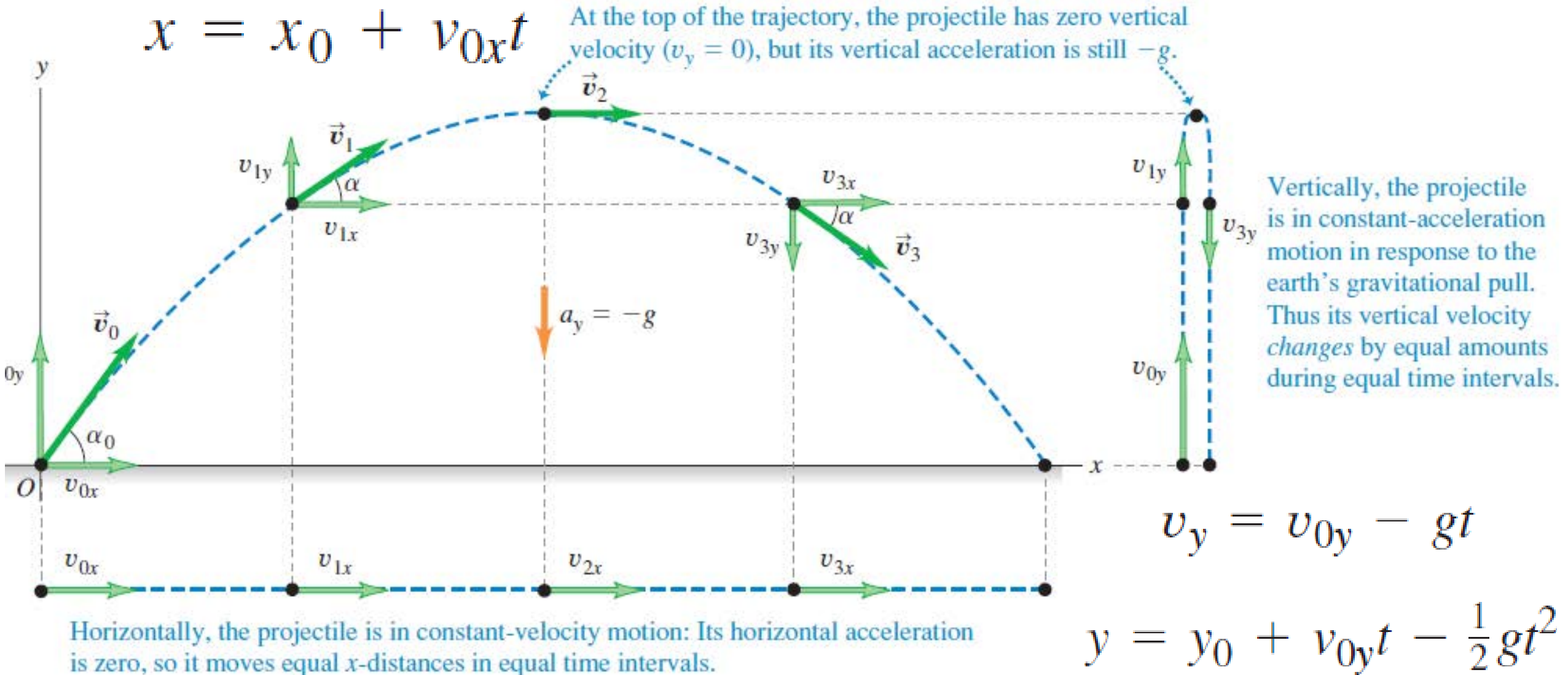
- **horizontal motion** with constant  $v$
- **vertical motion** with constant  $a$



# Projectile motion: constant $v$ in $x$ , constant $a$ in $y$

$$v_x = v_{0x}$$

$$x = x_0 + v_{0x}t$$



# Free Falling with initial velocity in x

Acceleration

$$a_x = 0 \quad a_y = -g$$

Motion in x

$$v_x = v_{0x}$$

$$x = x_0 + v_{0x}t$$

Motion in y

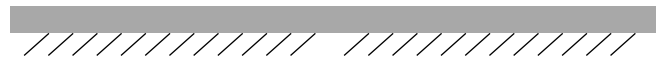
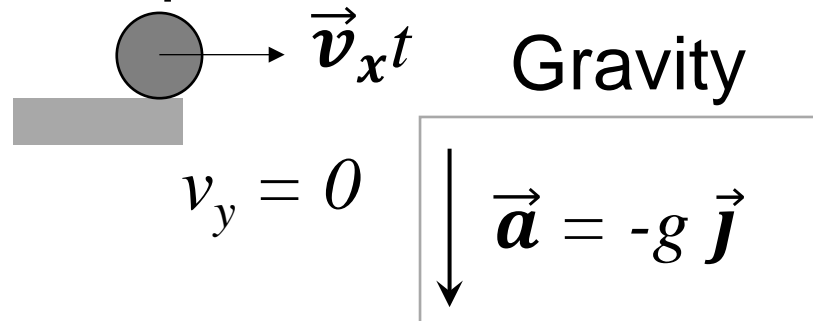
0

$$v_y = v_{0y} - gt$$

$$y = y_0 + v_{0y}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

0

Sphere 1



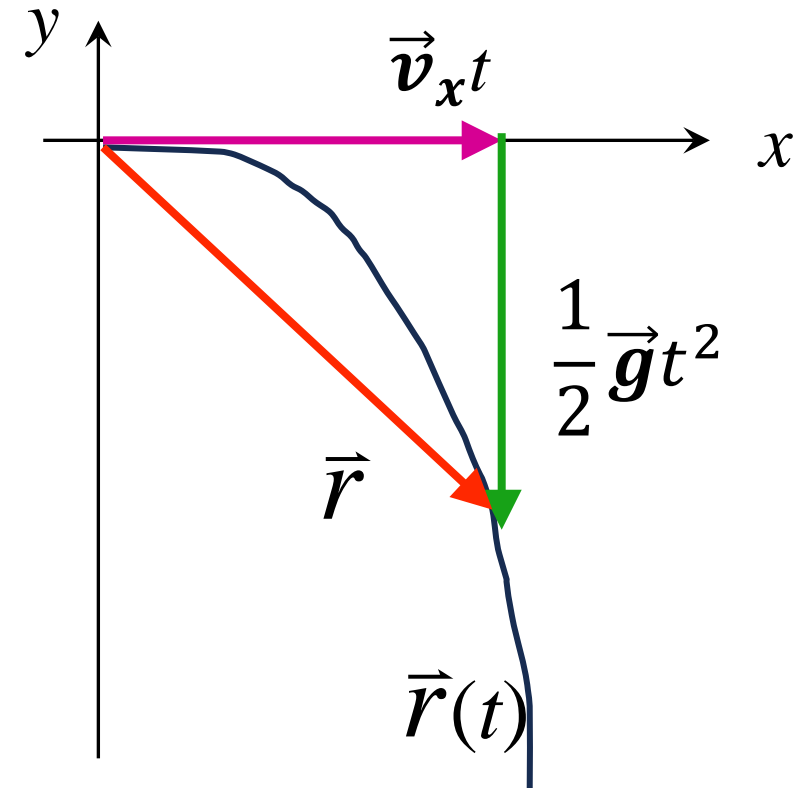
In vector form

$$\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$$

Combine and assume

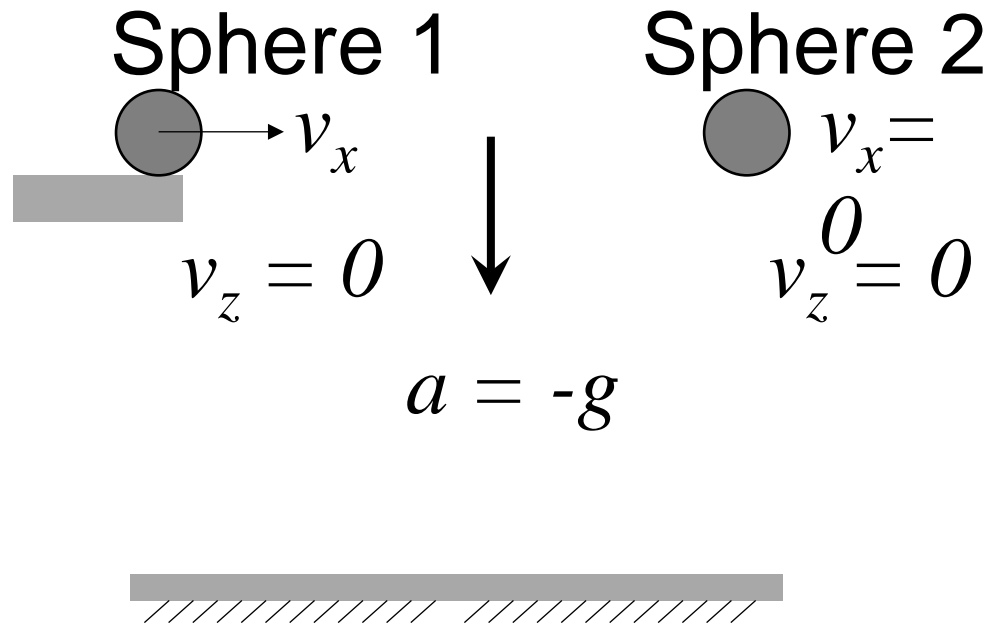
$$x_0 = y_0 = 0$$

$$\vec{r} = v_x t \vec{i} - \frac{1}{2} \vec{g} t^2 \vec{j}$$



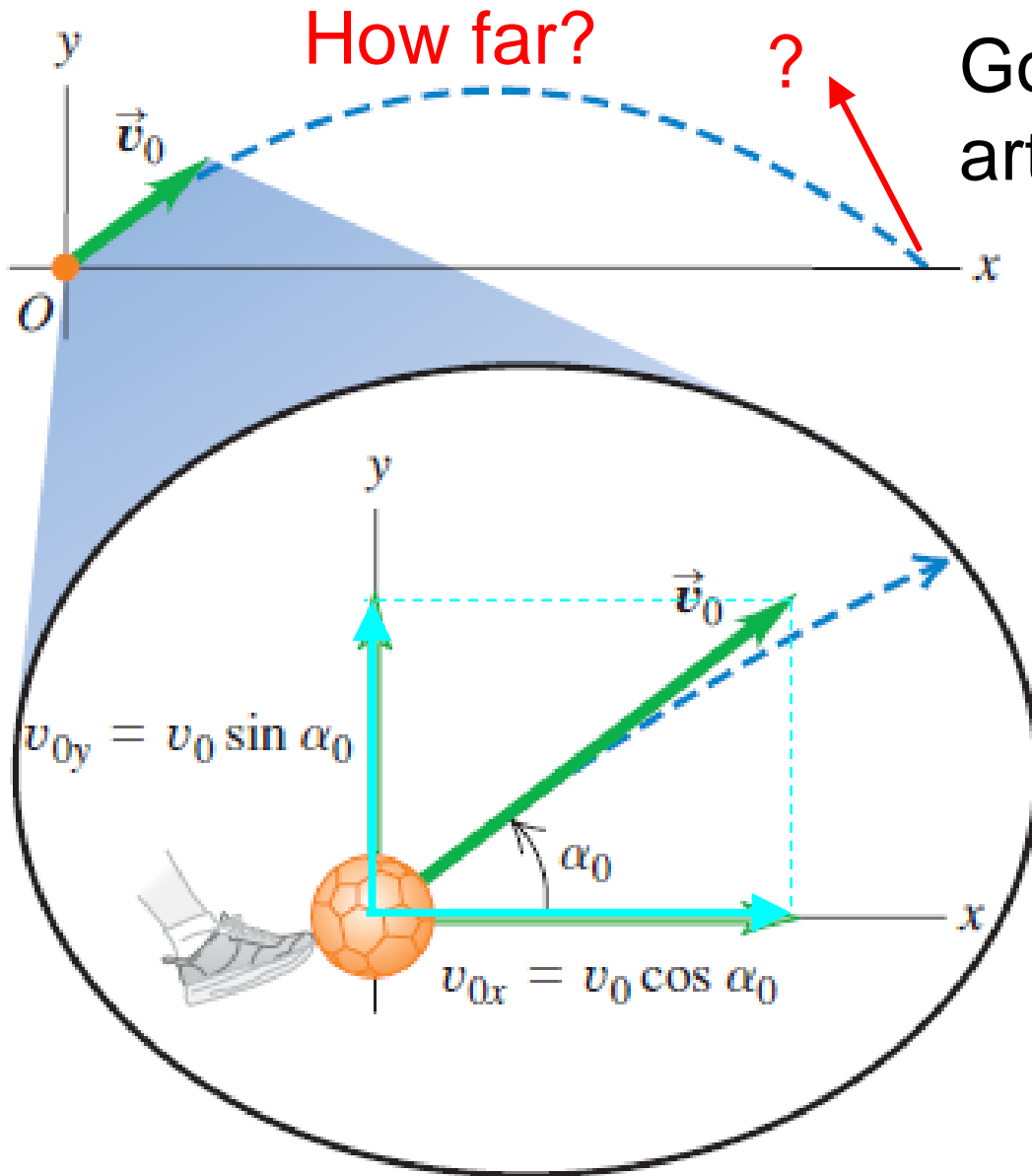
Trajectory

## A quick check

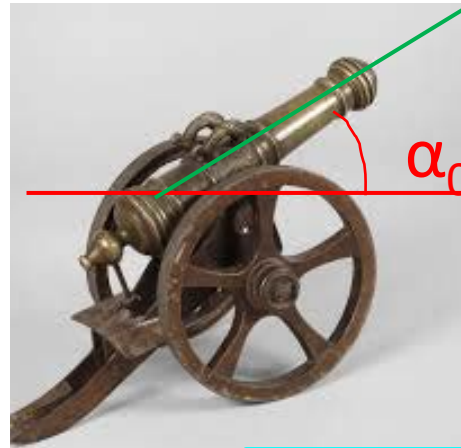


Which of the two spheres will reach the ground first?

# Projectile Motion: A Practical Scenario



Going back to this artillery problem



We previously derived:

$$v_x = v_{0x}$$
$$x = x_0 + v_{0x}t$$

$$v_y = v_{0y} - gt$$

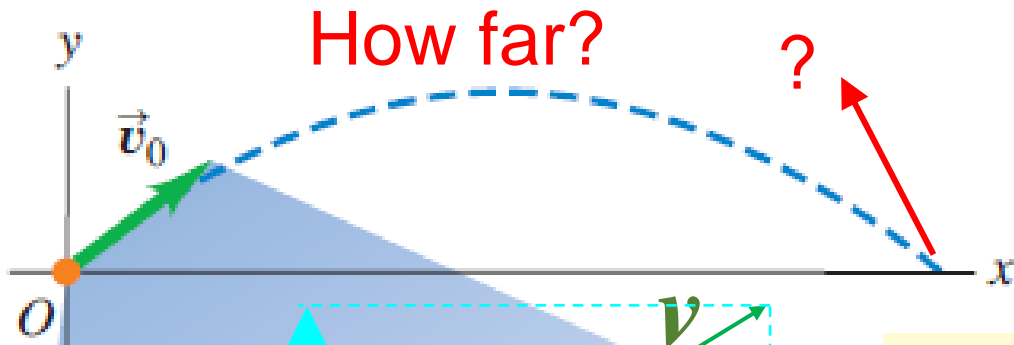
$$y = y_0 + v_{0y}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

Now:  $v_{0x} = v_0 \cos \alpha_0$        $v_{0y} = v_0 \sin \alpha_0$

$$v_x = v_0 \cos \alpha_0 \quad (\text{projectile motion})$$

$$v_y = v_0 \sin \alpha_0 - gt \quad (\text{projectile motion})$$

# Projectile Motion: A Practical Scenario



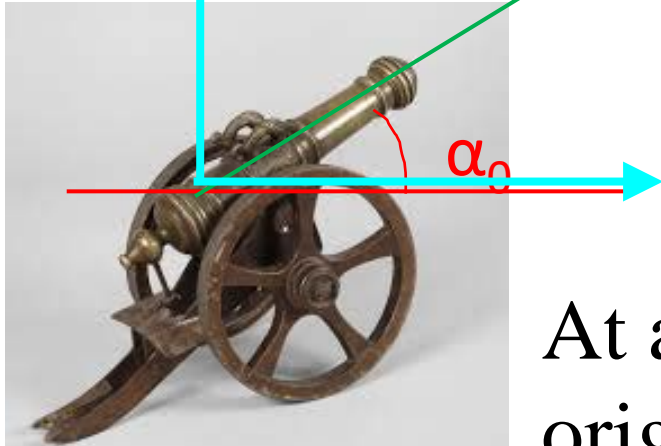
$$v_x = v_0 \cos \alpha_0 \quad (\text{projectile motion})$$

$$v_y = v_0 \sin \alpha_0 - gt \quad (\text{projectile motion})$$

Integrate and we get displacement

$$x = (v_0 \cos \alpha_0)t \quad (\text{projectile motion})$$

$$y = (v_0 \sin \alpha_0)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2 \quad (\text{projectile motion})$$



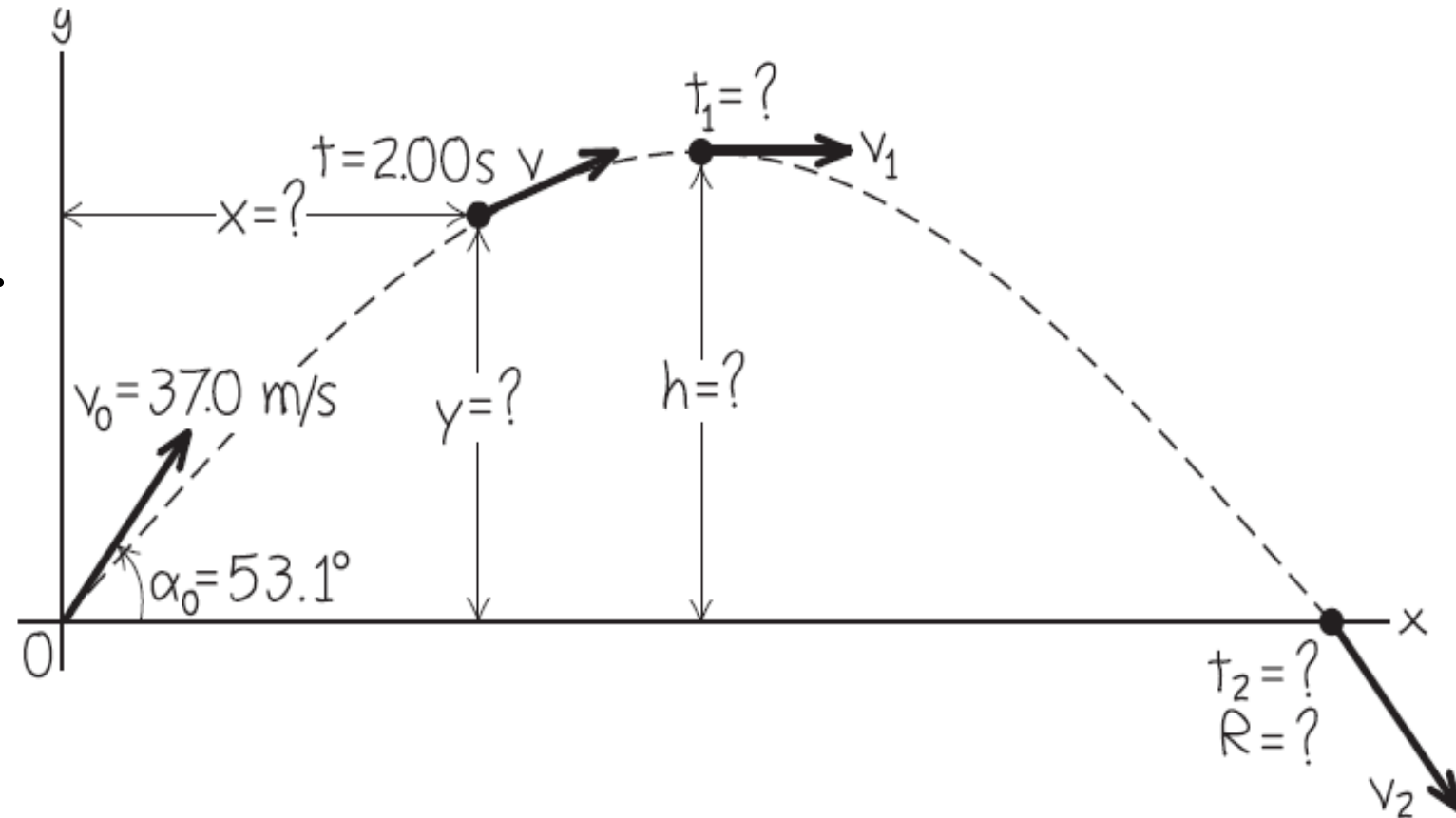
At any time the distance  $r$  of the projectile from the origin is given by  $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

The projectile's speed  $v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2}$

Direction of the velocity  $\tan \alpha = \frac{v_y}{v_x}$

## Example 3.7 Height and range of a projectile

A batter hits a baseball so that it leaves the bat at speed  $v_0 = 37.0$  m/s at an angle  $\alpha_0 = 53.1^\circ$ . (a) Find the position of the ball and its velocity (magnitude and direction) at  $t = 2.0$  s (b) Find the time when the ball reaches the highest point of its flight, and its height  $h$  at this time. (c) Find the *horizontal range*  $R$ —that is, the horizontal distance from the starting point to where the ball hits the ground.





### Example 3.7 Height and range of a projectile

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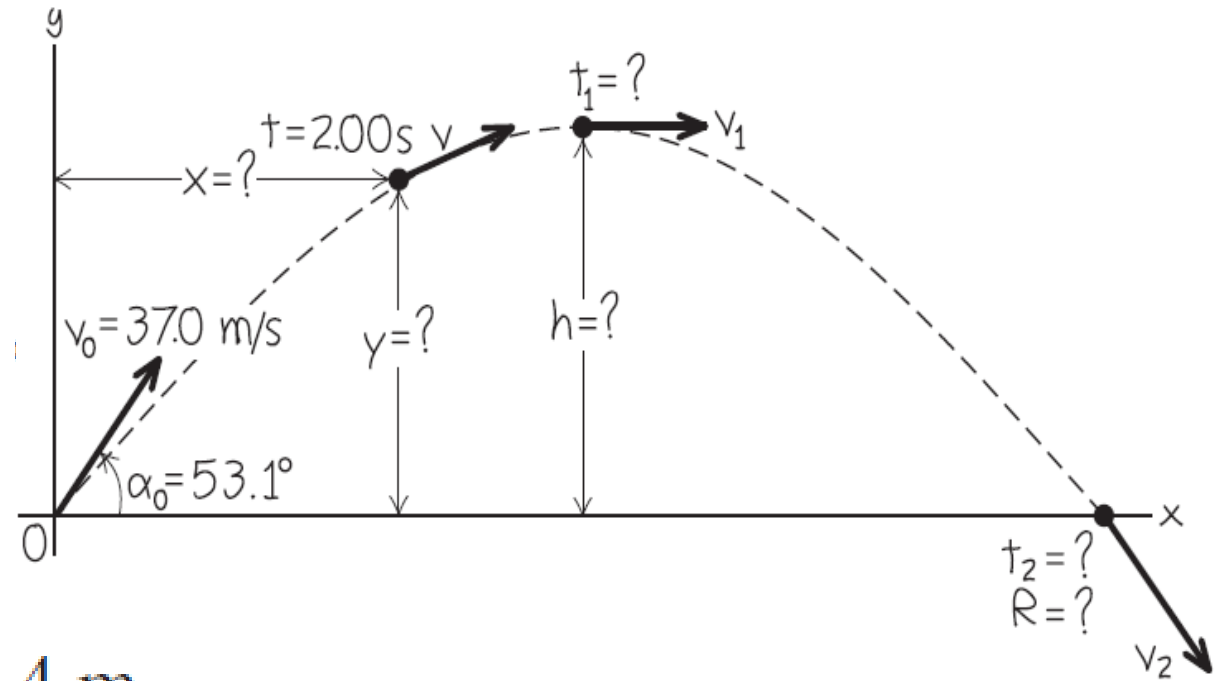
(a) The initial velocity of the ball has components

$$v_{0x} = v_0 \cos \alpha_0 = 22.2 \text{ m/s}$$

$$v_{0y} = v_0 \sin \alpha_0 = 29.6 \text{ m/s}$$

$$x = v_{0x}t = (22.2 \text{ m/s})(2.00 \text{ s}) = 44.4 \text{ m}$$

$$\begin{aligned} y &= v_{0y}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2 \\ &= (29.6 \text{ m/s})(2.00 \text{ s}) - \frac{1}{2}(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(2.00 \text{ s})^2 \\ &= 39.6 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$





### Example 3.7 Height and range of a projectile

A batter hits a baseball so that it leaves the bat at speed  $v_0 = 37.0$  m/s at an angle  $\alpha_0 = 53.1^\circ$ . (a) Find the position of the ball and its velocity (magnitude and direction) at  $t = 2.0$  s

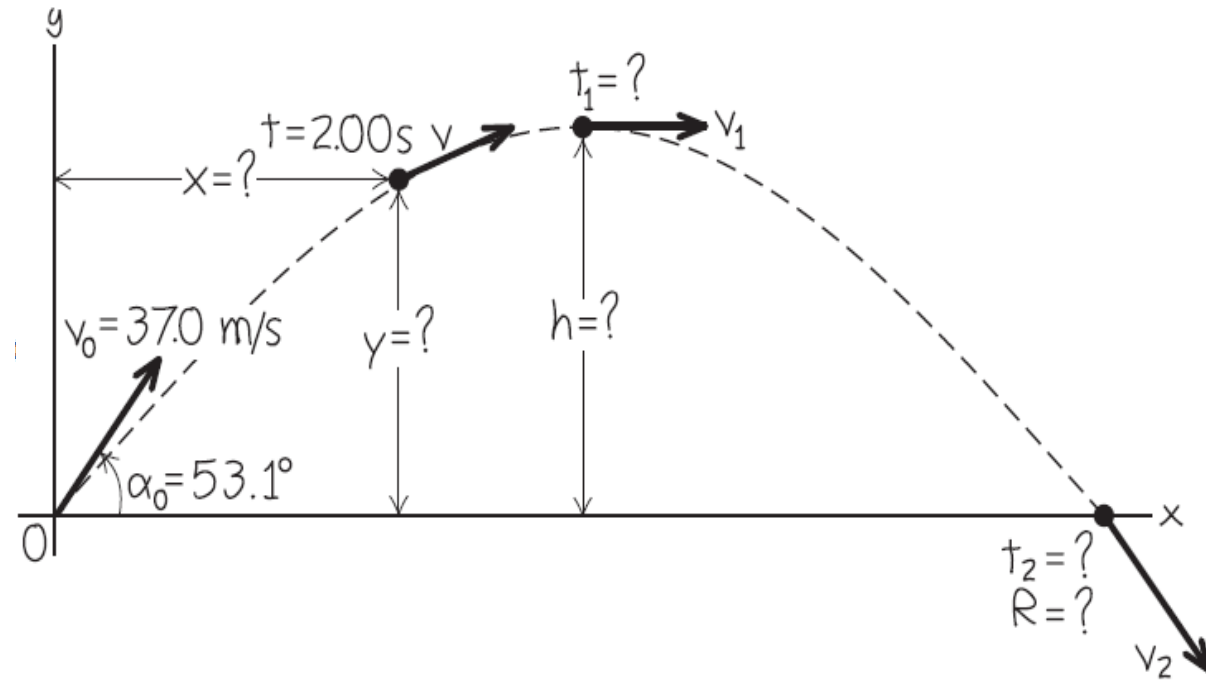
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$$v_x = v_{0x} = 22.2 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\begin{aligned} v_y &= v_{0y} - gt = 29.6 \text{ m/s} - (9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(2.00 \text{ s}) \\ &= 10.0 \text{ m/s} \end{aligned}$$



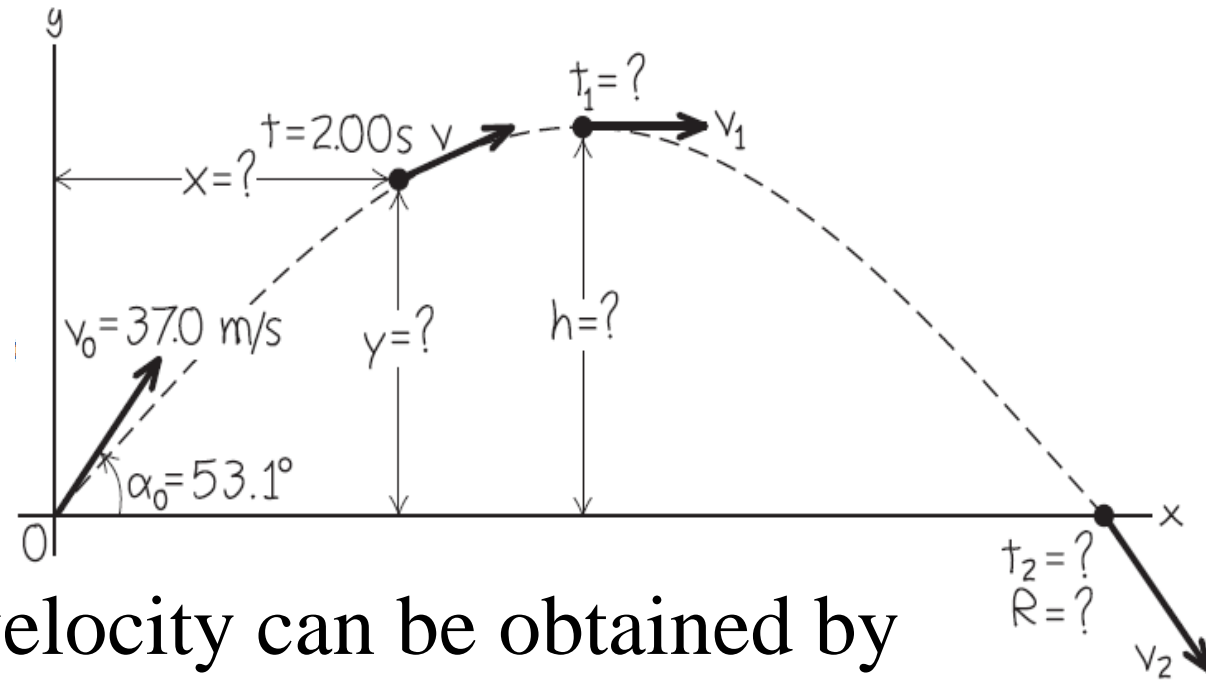
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(a) The initial velocity of the ball has components

$$v_{0x} = v_0 \cos \alpha_0 = 22.2 \text{ m/s}$$

$$v_{0y} = v_0 \sin \alpha_0 = 29.6 \text{ m/s}$$



The magnitude and direction of the velocity can be obtained by

$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2} = \sqrt{(22.2 \text{ m/s})^2 + (10.0 \text{ m/s})^2} = 24.4 \text{ m/s}$$

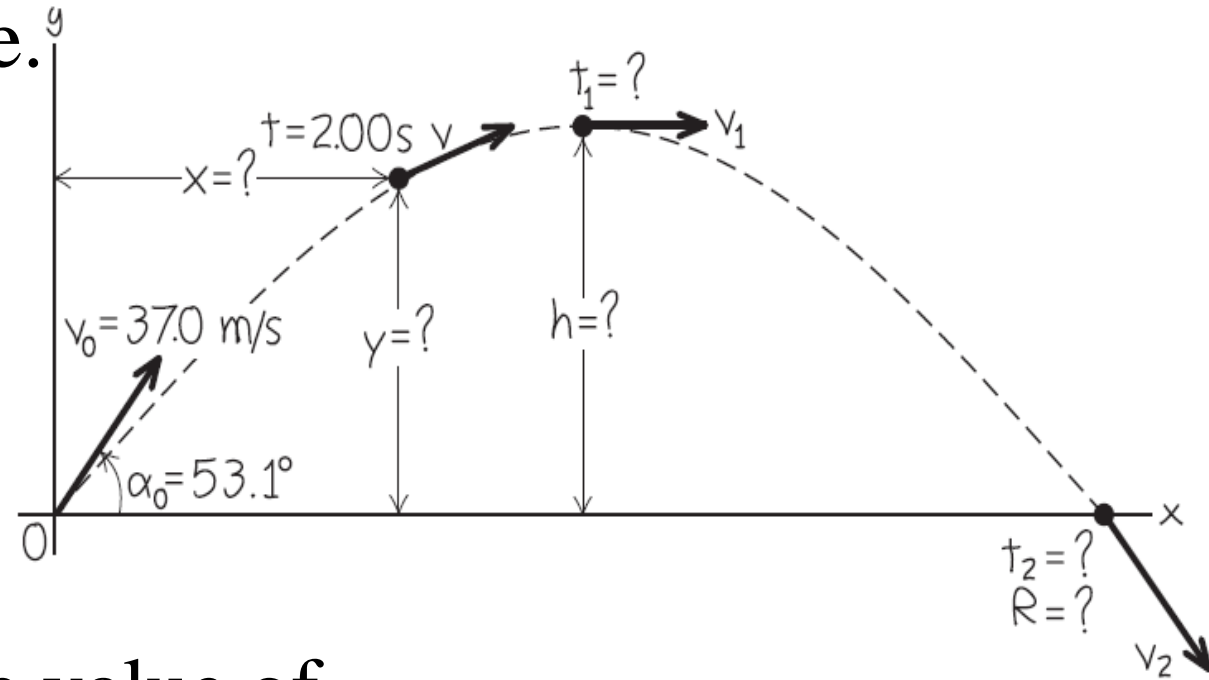
$$\tan \alpha = \frac{v_y}{v_x} \Rightarrow \alpha = \arctan \left( \frac{10.0 \text{ m/s}}{22.2 \text{ m/s}} \right) = \arctan 0.450 = 24.2^\circ$$

## Example 3.7 Height and range of a projectile

A batter hits a baseball so that it leaves the bat at speed  $v_0 = 37.0$  m/s at an angle  $\alpha_0 = 53.1^\circ$ . (b) Find the time when the ball reaches the highest point of its flight, and its height  $h$  at this time.

**At the highest point, the vertical velocity  $v_y = 0$ .**  $v_y = v_{0y} - gt_1 = 0$

$$t_1 = \frac{v_{0y}}{g} = \frac{29.6 \text{ m/s}}{9.80 \text{ m/s}^2} = 3.02 \text{ s}$$



The height  $h$  at the highest point is the value of  $y$  at time  $t_1$ : plug in the time!

$$\begin{aligned} h &= v_{0y}t_1 - \frac{1}{2}gt_1^2 \\ &= (29.6 \text{ m/s})(3.02 \text{ s}) - \frac{1}{2}(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(3.02 \text{ s})^2 = 44.7 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

### Example 3.7 Height and range of a projectile

A batter hits a baseball so that it leaves the bat at speed  $v_0 = 37.0$  m/s at an angle  $\alpha_0 = 53.1^\circ$ . (c) Find the horizontal range  $R$ —that is, the horizontal distance from the starting point to where the ball hits the ground.

(c) We'll find the horizontal range  $R$  by finding the time  $t_2$  when  $y = 0$  — the ball is at ground level.

$$y = 0 = v_{0y}t_2 - \frac{1}{2}gt_2^2 = t_2\left(v_{0y} - \frac{1}{2}gt_2\right)$$

This is a quadratic equation for  $t_2$ . It has two roots:

*Leaves ground*

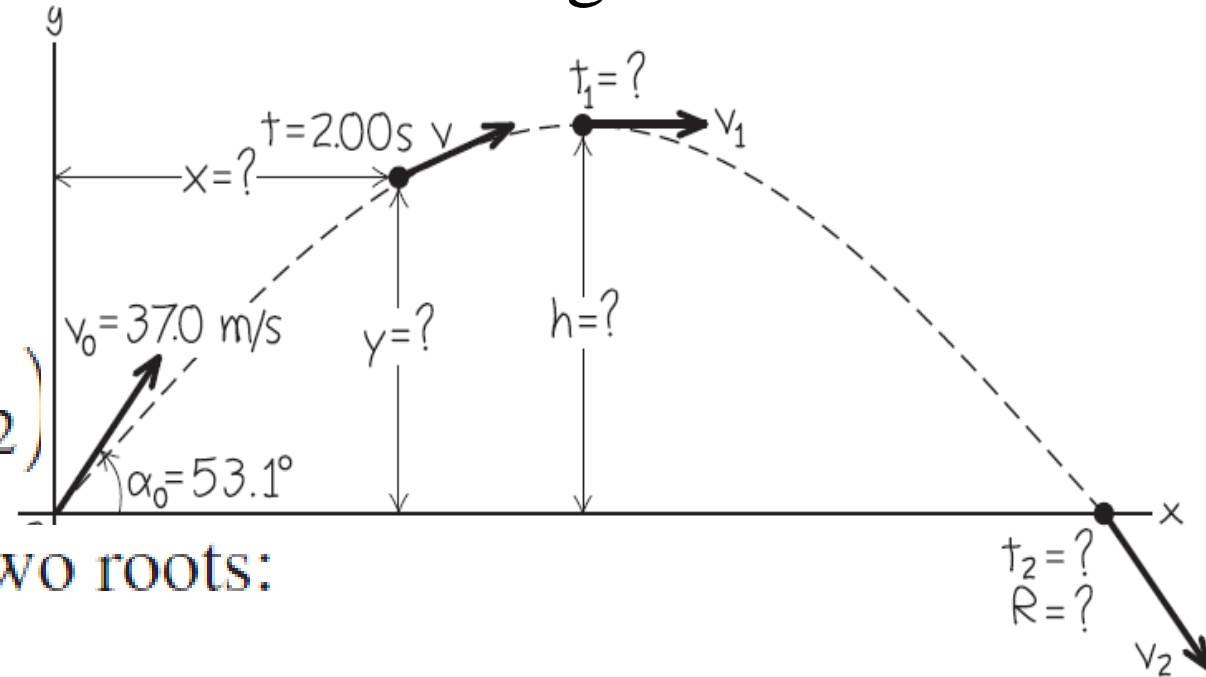
$$t_2 = 0$$

and

$$t_2 = \frac{2v_{0y}}{g} = \frac{2(29.6 \text{ m/s})}{9.80 \text{ m/s}^2} = 6.04 \text{ s}$$

*Hits*

So  $R = v_{0x}t_2 = (22.2 \text{ m/s})(6.04 \text{ s}) = 134 \text{ m}$



### Example 3.8 Maximum Possible Range

Find the maximum height  $h$  and horizontal range  $R$  of a projectile launched at  $v_0$  at an initial angle  $\alpha_0$  between  $0^\circ$  and  $90^\circ$ . For a given  $v_0$  **what value of  $\alpha_0$  gives maximum height?** What value gives maximum horizontal range  **$R$** ?

Recall  $v_{0y} = v_0 \sin \alpha_0$  and  $v_y = 0$  at the maximum height:

$$t_1 = \frac{v_{0y}}{g} = \frac{v_0 \sin \alpha_0}{g} \quad \text{Plug it in the } h \text{ vs } t \text{ function } h = v_{0y}t_1 - \frac{1}{2}gt_1^2$$

$$h = (v_0 \sin \alpha_0) \left( \frac{v_0 \sin \alpha_0}{g} \right) - \frac{1}{2}g \left( \frac{v_0 \sin \alpha_0}{g} \right)^2 = \frac{v_0^2 \sin^2 \alpha_0}{2g}$$

**Remember that  $\alpha_0$  is an variable we want to tune to maximize  $h$ !**

*$v_0$  and  $g$  are constant here, and  $\sin \alpha_0$  is 1 at most with  $\alpha_0 = 90^\circ$*

$h = \frac{v_0^2}{2g}$
------------------------

### Example 3.8 Maximum Possible Range

Find the maximum height  $h$  and horizontal range  $R$  of a projectile launched at  $v_0$  at an initial angle  $\alpha_0$  between  $0^\circ$  and  $90^\circ$ . For a given  $v_0$  **what value of  $\alpha_0$**  gives maximum height? What value gives maximum horizontal range  **$R$** ?

The time  $t_2$  when the projectile hits the ground is, when  $v_{0y}$  becomes  $-v_{0y}$

$$t_2 = \frac{2v_{0y}}{g} = \frac{2v_0 \sin \alpha_0}{g}$$

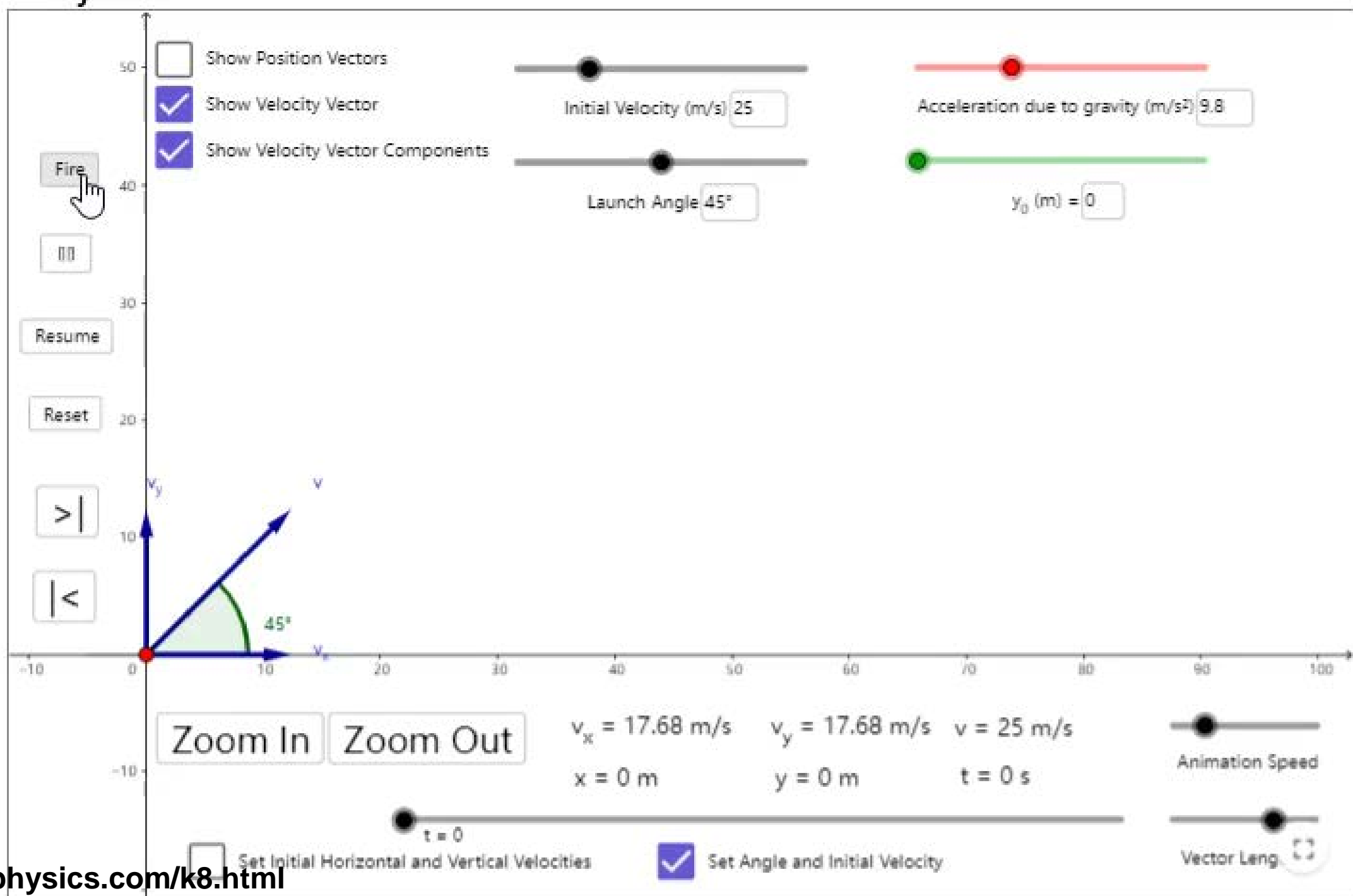
The horizontal range  $R$  is the value of  $x$  at this time

$$R = (v_0 \cos \alpha_0)t_2 = (v_0 \cos \alpha_0) \frac{2v_0 \sin \alpha_0}{g}$$

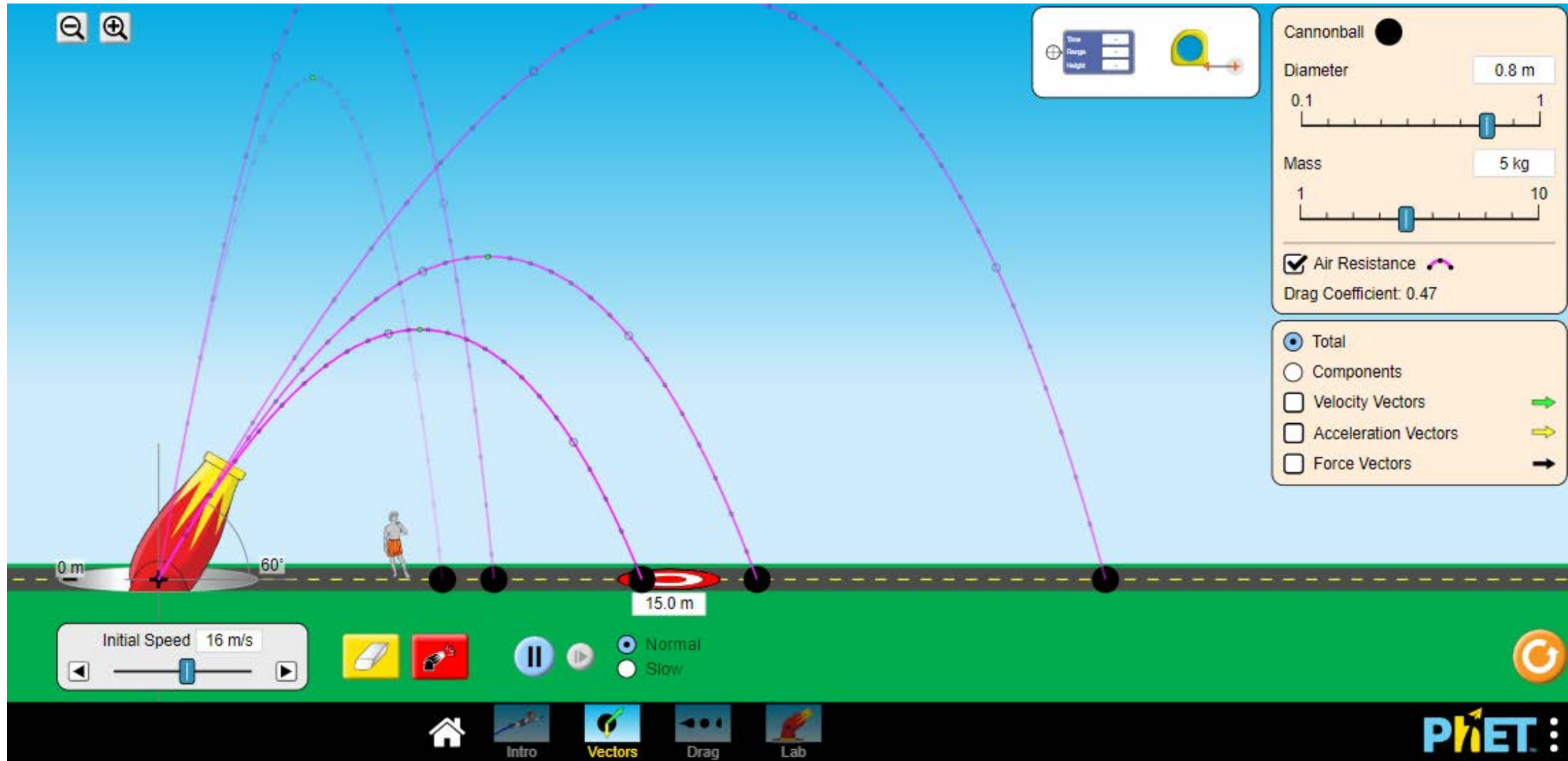
$$= \frac{v_0^2 \sin 2\alpha_0}{g}$$

maximizes when  $\alpha_0 = 45^\circ$

$$R = \frac{v_0^2}{2g}$$



# Try it in a Game: Can you get it with 1 attempt?



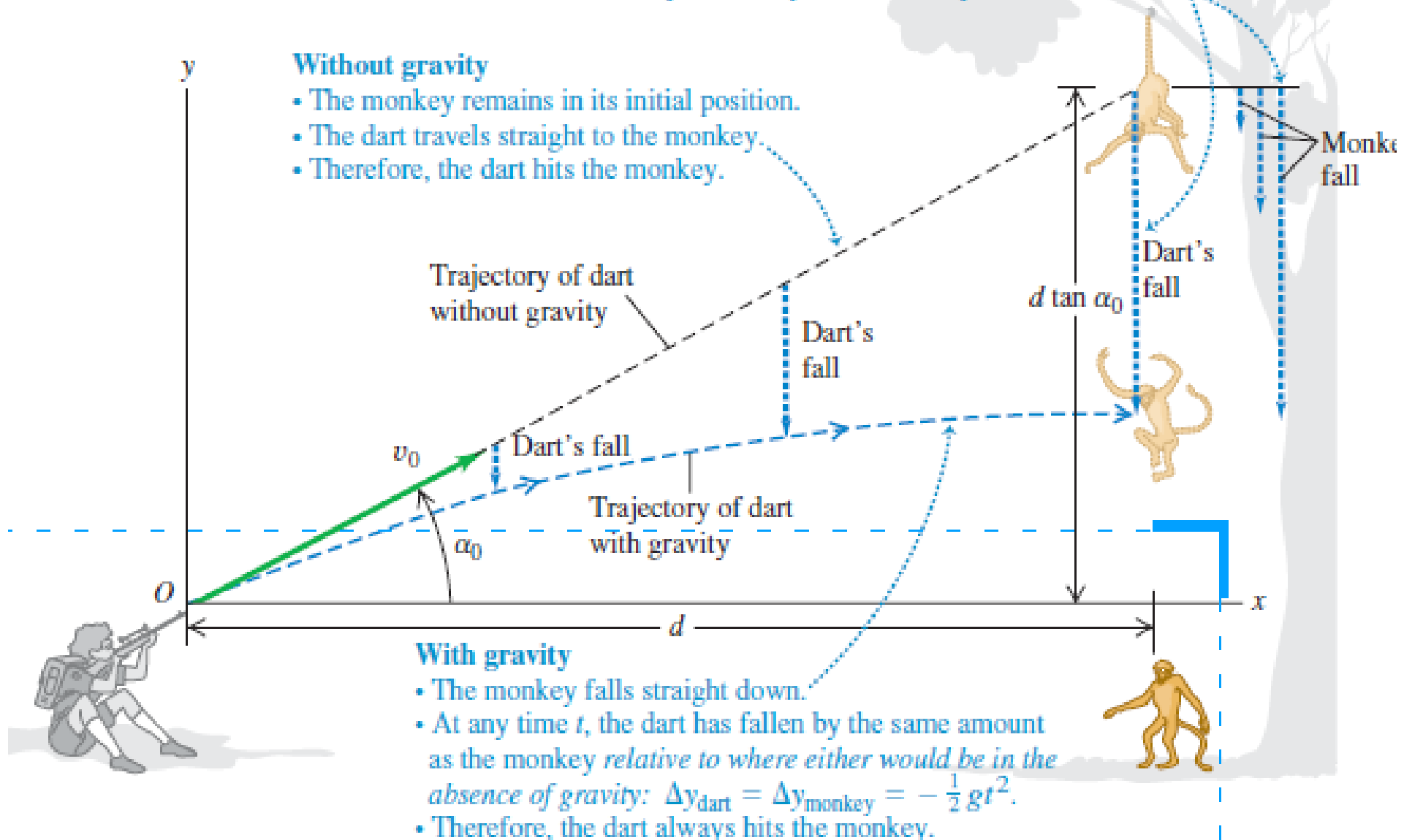
[https://phet.colorado.edu/sims/html/projectile-motion/latest/projectile-motion\\_all.html](https://phet.colorado.edu/sims/html/projectile-motion/latest/projectile-motion_all.html)

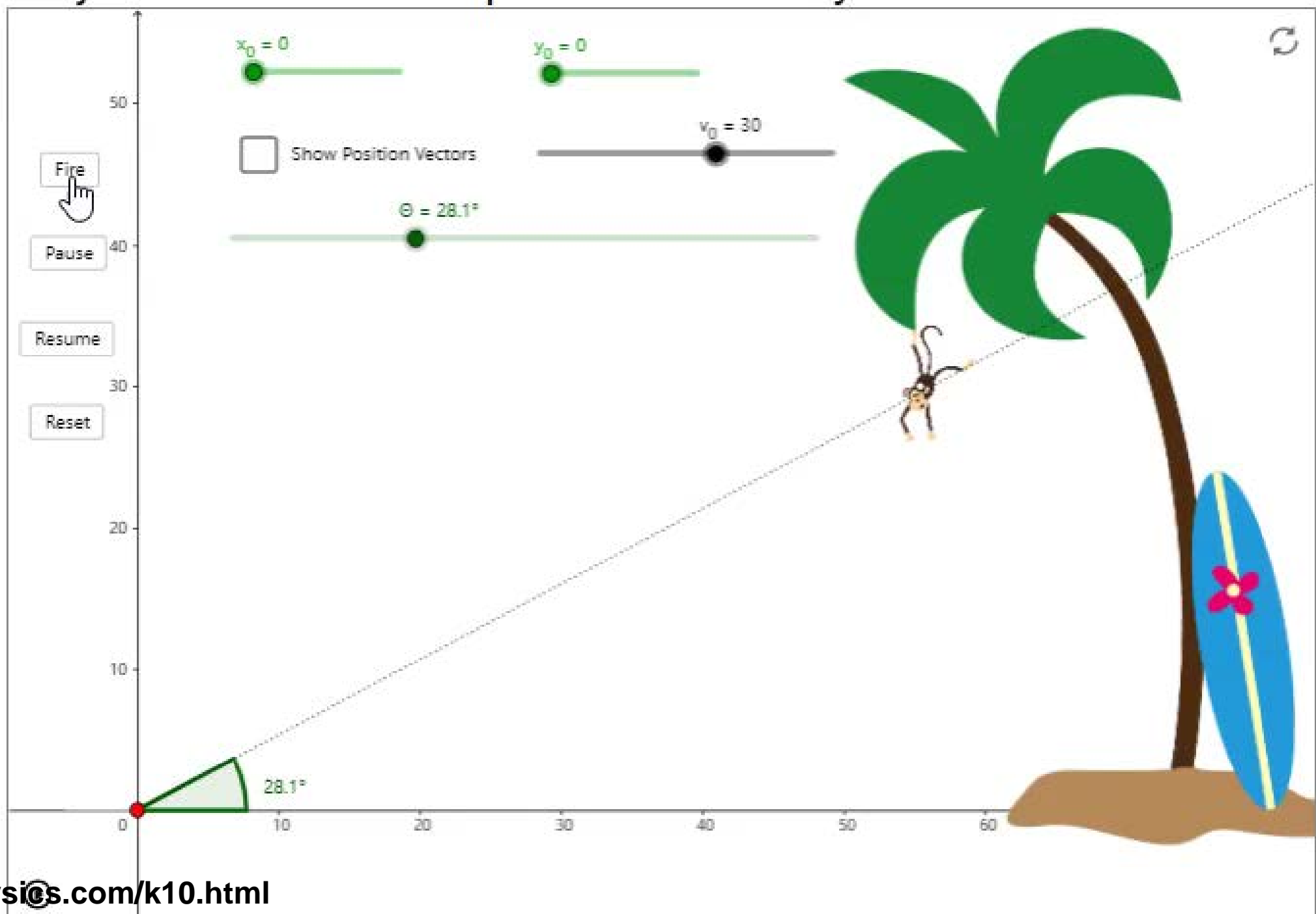


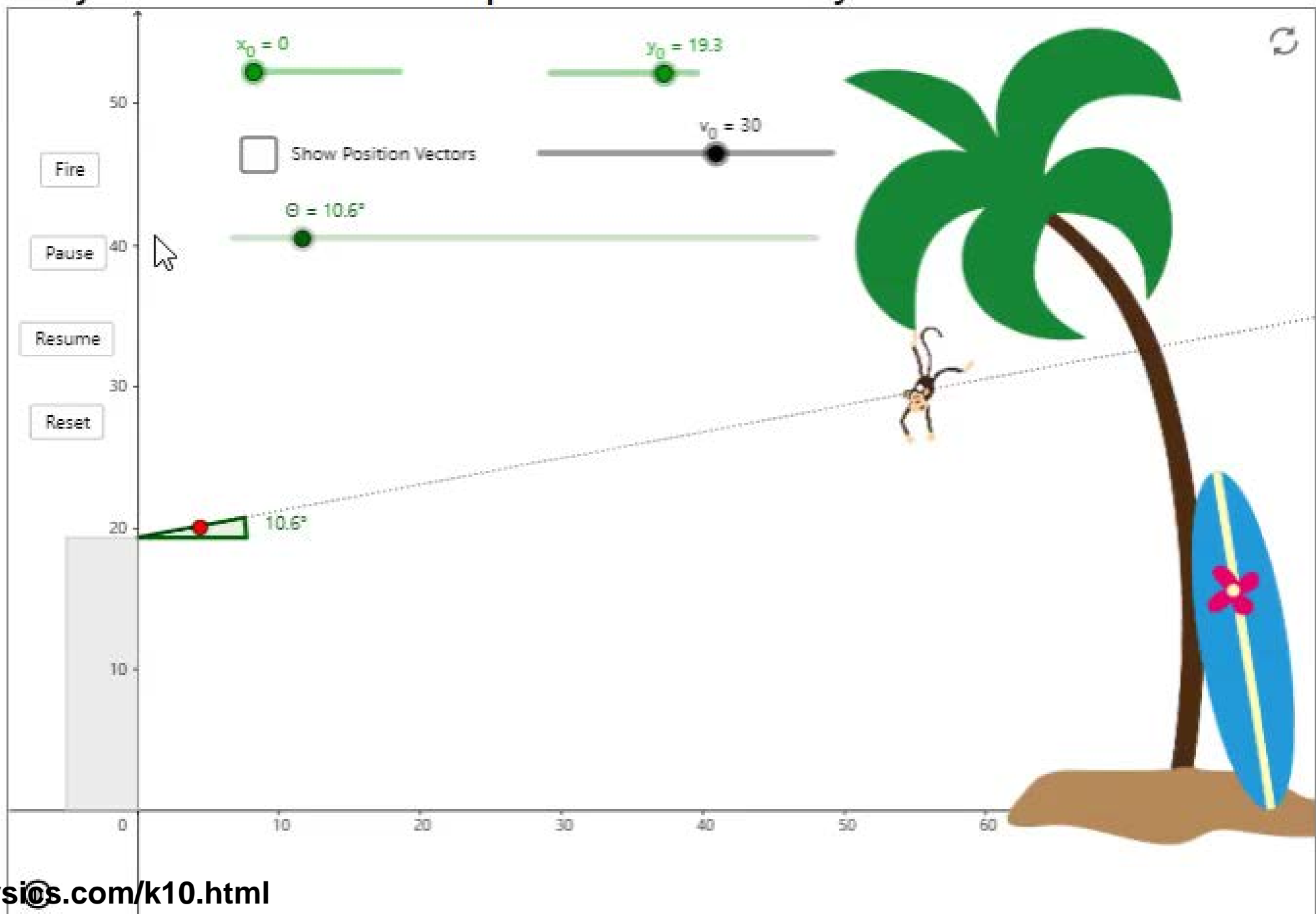
# Example 3.10 The zookeeper and the monkey

Dashed arrows show how far the dart and monkey have fallen at specific times relative to where they would be without gravity.

At any time, they have fallen by the same amount.





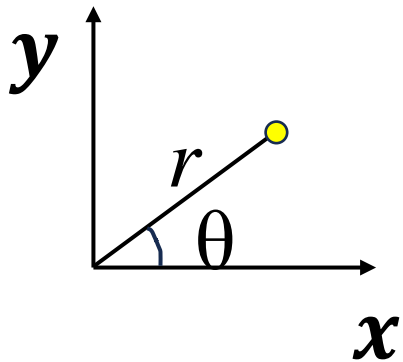


# Circular Motion: 0. Polar Coordinates

Denote any position  $A$  by:

- $r$ : distance to origin
- $\theta$ : angle of  $r$  from the reference direction ( $x$  axis, typically)

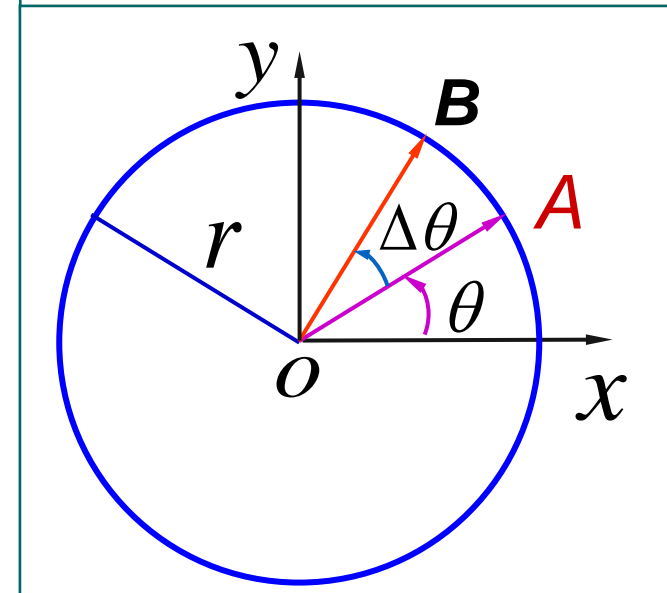
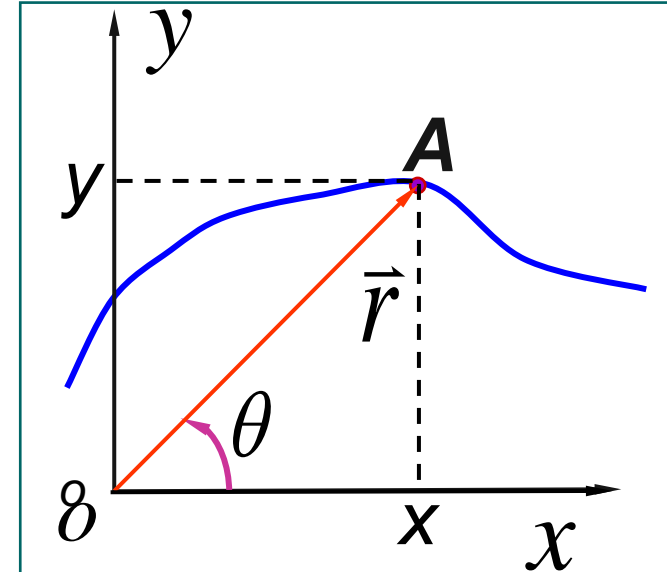
Polar  $(r, \theta)$



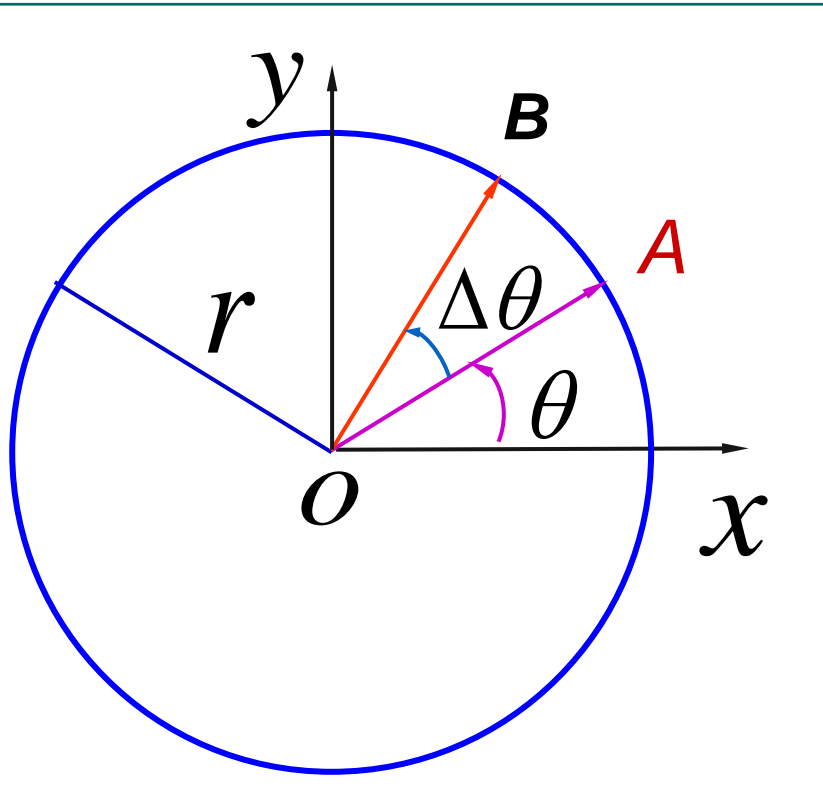
Conversion to Cartesian:

$$x = r \cos \theta \quad y = r \sin \theta$$

Suitable for problems with rotational symmetry



# Circular Motion: 1. Define the Concepts



$r$  Called **radial coordinate** or polar angle

$\theta(t)$  Called **angular coordinate** or polar angle

$\Delta\theta$  — **Units:** rad (radians)  
Called **angular displacement**

$$\omega = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta\theta}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\theta}{dt} \quad \text{Angular velocity}$$

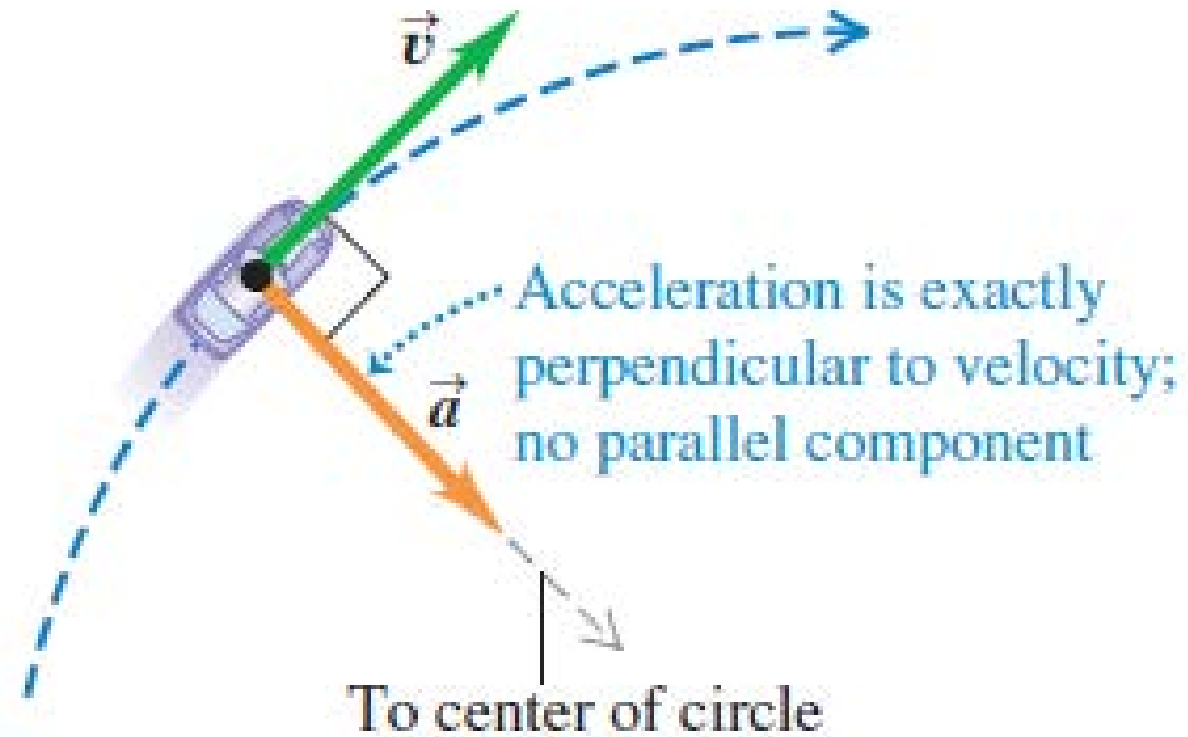
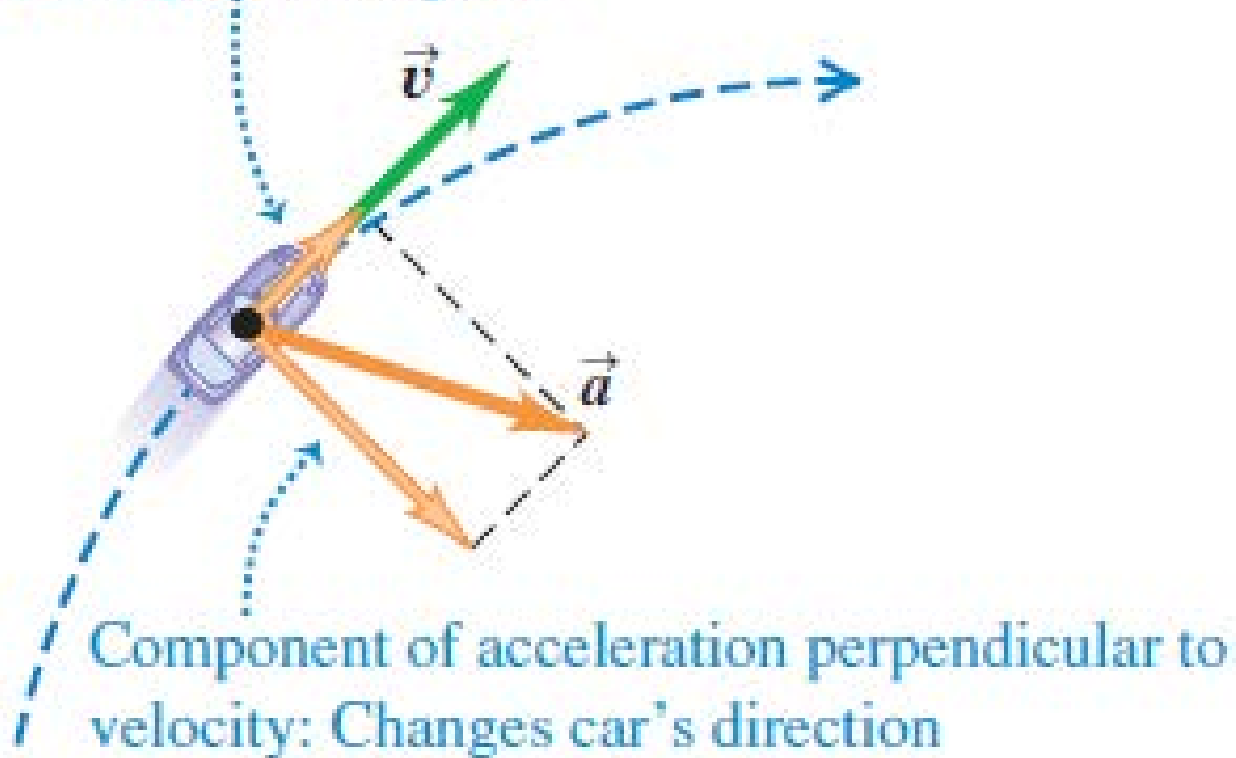
**Units:** rad/s

Intuition: on a wheel rotating at **1 round/s**, points on the wheel (except the center) have an angular frequency of  $\omega = 2\pi$  rad/s

# Uniform Circular Motion

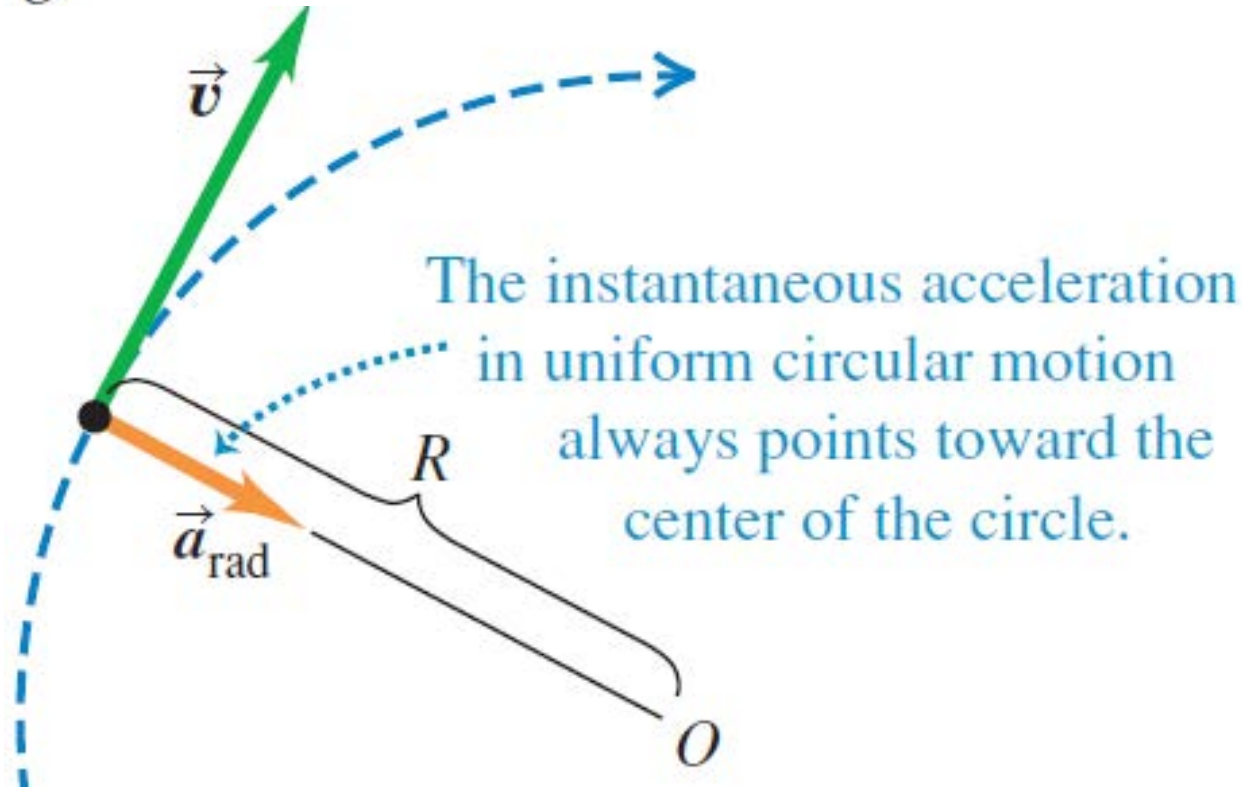
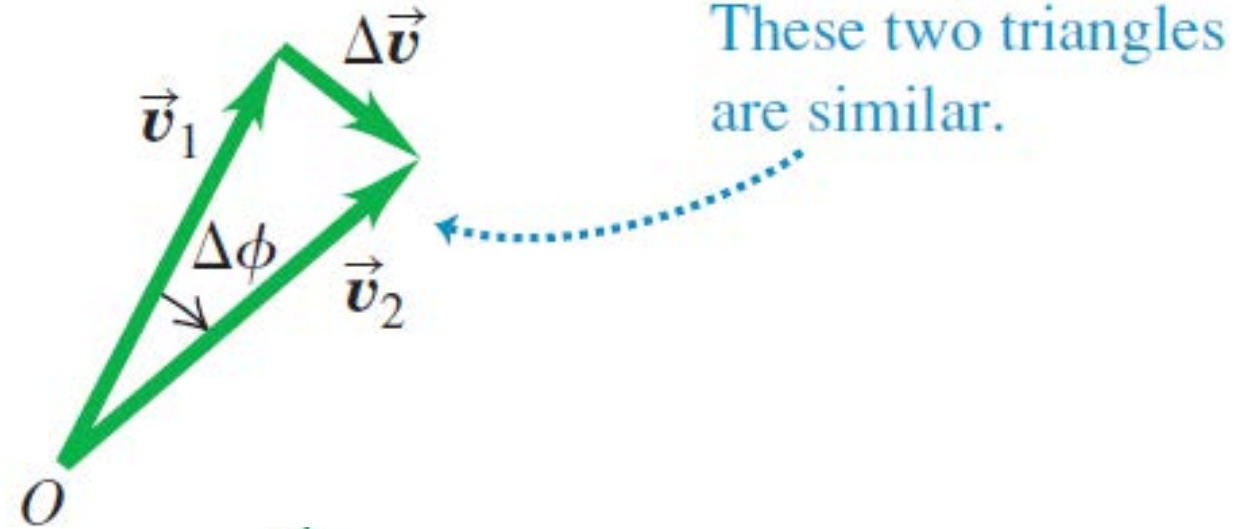
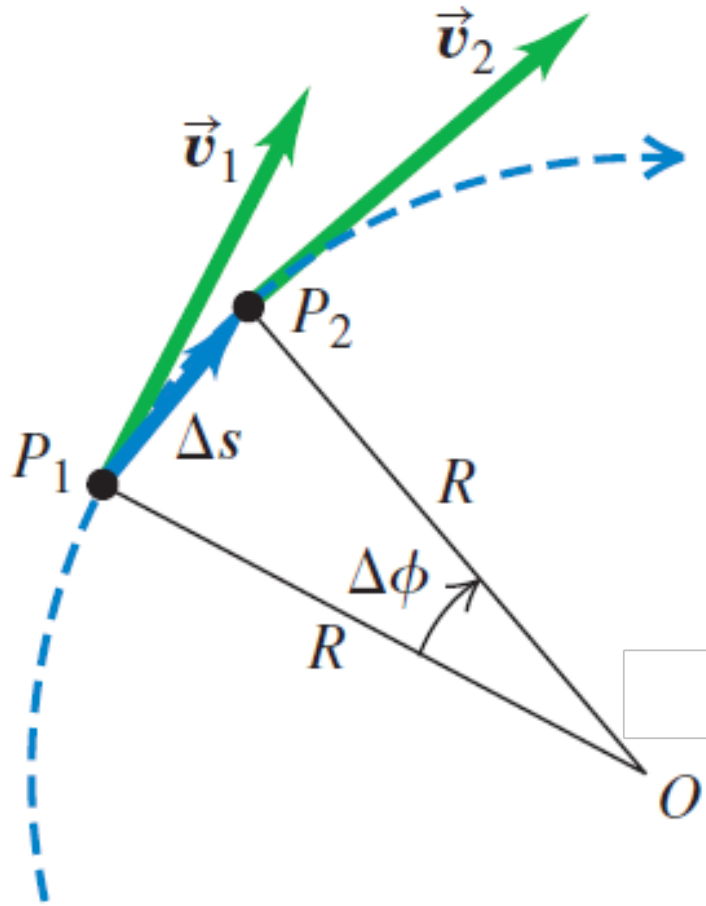
When a particle moves in a circle with *constant speed* (not velocity), the motion is called **uniform circular motion**.

Component of acceleration parallel to velocity:  
Changes car's speed



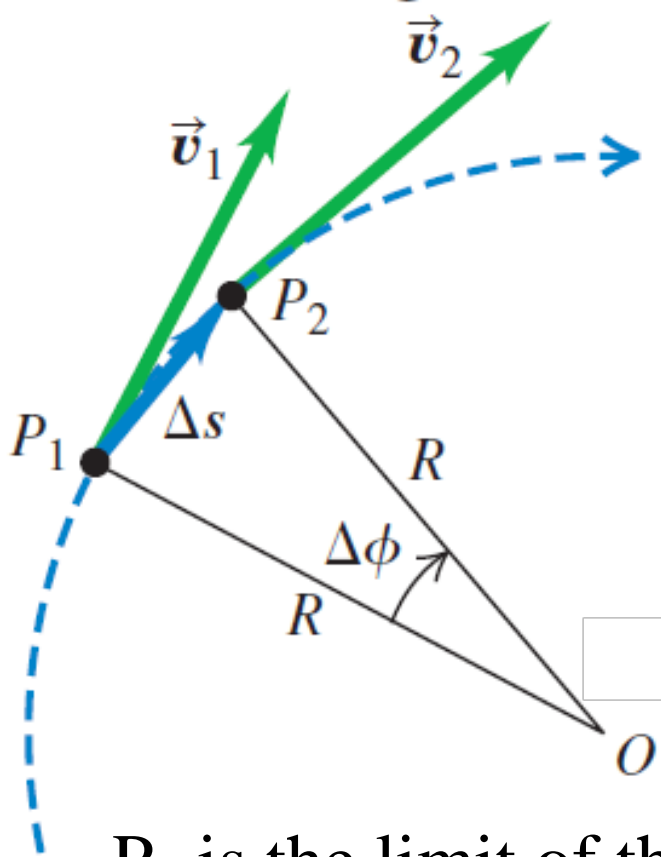
# Uniform Circular Motion

A particle moves a distance  $\Delta s$  at constant speed along a circular path.



# Uniform Circular Motion

The angles labeled  $\Delta\phi$  in Figs. 3.28a and 3.28b are the same because  $\vec{v}_1$  is perpendicular to the line  $OP_1$  and  $\vec{v}_2$  is perpendicular to the line  $OP_2$ . Hence the triangles in Figs. 3.28a and 3.28b are *similar*. The ratios of corresponding sides of similar triangles are equal, so



$$\frac{|\Delta\vec{v}|}{v_1} = \frac{\Delta s}{R} \quad \text{or} \quad |\Delta\vec{v}| = \frac{v_1}{R} \Delta s$$

The magnitude  $a_{\text{av}}$  of the average acceleration during  $\Delta t$  is therefore

$$a_{\text{av}} = \frac{|\Delta\vec{v}|}{\Delta t} = \frac{v_1}{R} \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t}$$

The magnitude  $a$  of the *instantaneous* acceleration  $a$  at point  $P_1$  is the limit of this expression as we take point  $P_2$  closer and closer to point  $P_1$ :



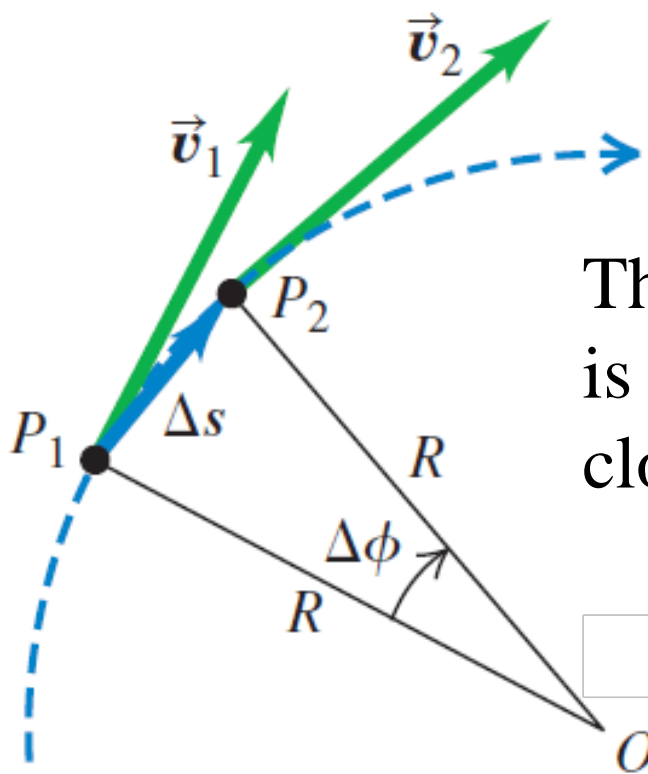
# Uniform Circular Motion

The magnitude  $a_{\text{av}}$  of the average acceleration during  $\Delta t$  is therefore

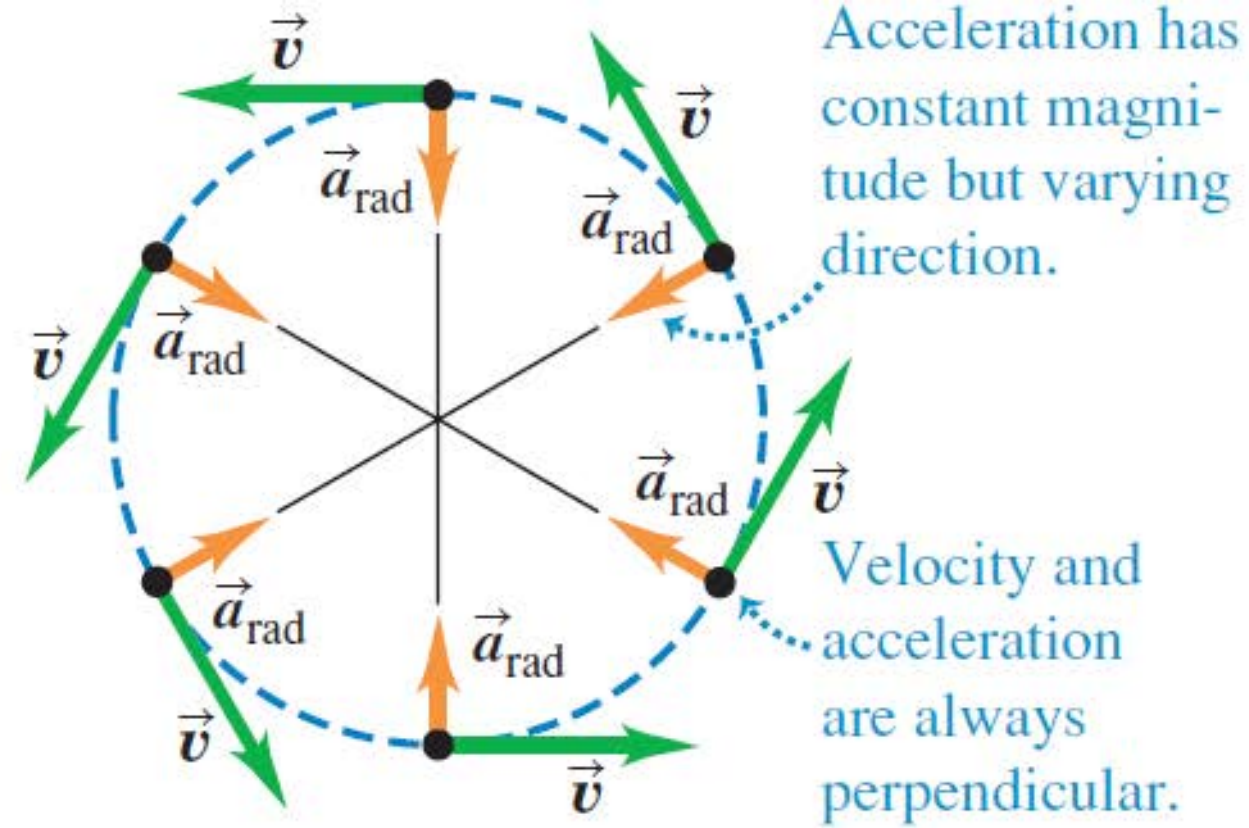
$$a_{\text{av}} = \frac{|\Delta \vec{v}|}{\Delta t} = \frac{v_1}{R} \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t}$$

The magnitude  $a$  of the *instantaneous* acceleration  $a$  at point  $P_1$  is the limit of this expression as we take point  $P_2$  closer and closer to point  $P_1$ :

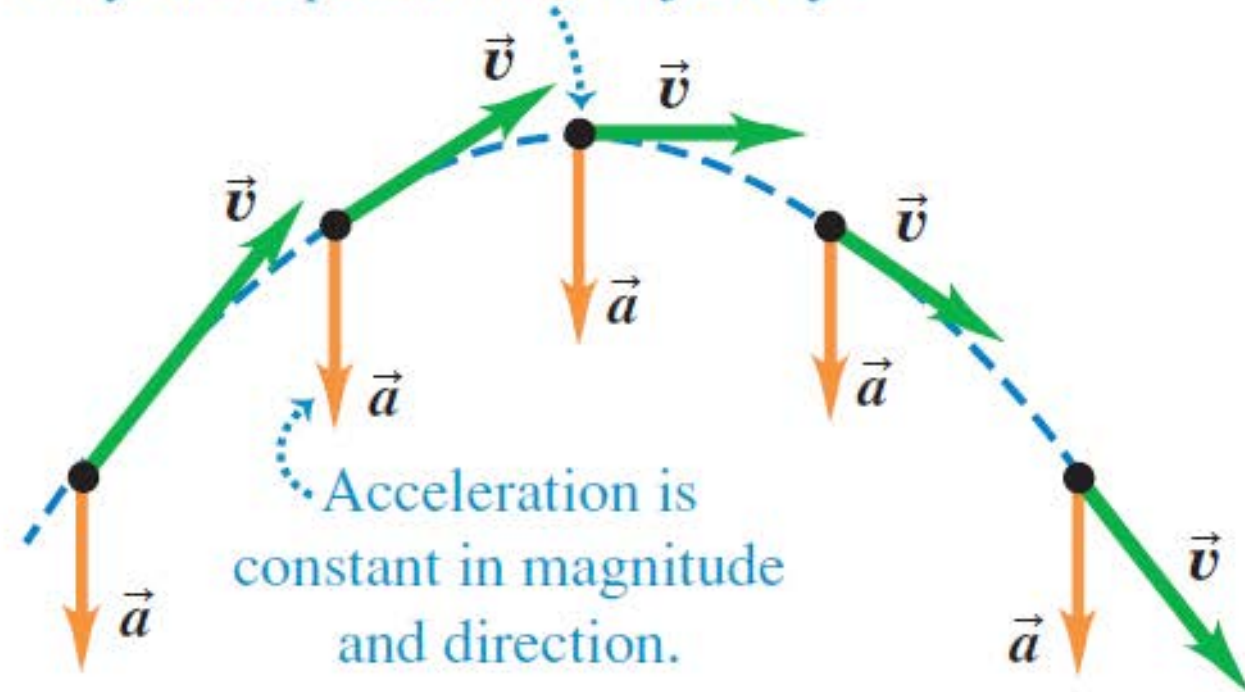
$$a = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{v_1}{R} \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t} = \frac{v_1}{R} \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t} \quad \Rightarrow \quad a_{\text{rad}} = \frac{v^2}{R}$$



So we have found that *in uniform circular motion, the magnitude of the instantaneous acceleration is equal to the square of the speed divided by the radius  $R$  of the circle. Its direction is perpendicular to and inward along the radius – called **centripetal acceleration***



Velocity and acceleration are perpendicular only at the peak of the trajectory.



- **Uniform circular motion vs. projectile motion** Uniform circular motion the *direction of  $a$*  changes continuously so that it always points toward the center of the circle. (At the top of the circle the acceleration points down; at the bottom of the circle the acceleration points up.)
- Projectile motion: the *direction* of  $a$  remains the same at all times.

# Uniform Circular Motion

We can also express the magnitude of the acceleration in uniform circular motion in terms of the **period**  $T$  of the motion, the time for one revolution (one complete trip around the circle). In a time  $T$  the particle travels a distance equal to the circumference  $2\pi R$  of the circle, so its speed is

$$v = \frac{2\pi R}{T}$$

When we substitute this into  $a_{\text{rad}} = \frac{v^2}{R}$ , we obtain the alternative expression:

$$a_{\text{rad}} = \frac{4\pi^2 R}{T^2}$$

### Example 3.12 Centripetal acceleration on a carnival ride

Passengers on a ride move at constant speed in a horizontal circle of radius 5.0 m, making a complete circle in 4.0 s. What is their acceleration?

**Analysis:** The speed is constant, so this is uniform circular motion. We are given the radius  $R = 5.0$  m and the period  $T = 4.0$  s

$$a_{\text{rad}} = \frac{4\pi^2 R}{T^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad a_{\text{rad}} = \frac{4\pi^2(5.0 \text{ m})}{(4.0 \text{ s})^2} = 12 \text{ m/s}^2 = 1.3g$$

**Second approach**

$$v = \frac{2\pi R}{T} = \frac{2\pi(5.0 \text{ m})}{4.0 \text{ s}} = 7.9 \text{ m/s}$$

$$a_{\text{rad}} = \frac{v^2}{R} = \frac{(7.9 \text{ m/s})^2}{5.0 \text{ m}} = 12 \text{ m/s}^2$$

**3.29 •** A Ferris wheel with radius  $14.0\text{ m}$  is turning about a horizontal axis through its center (Fig. E3.29). The linear speed of a passenger on the rim is constant and equal to  $7.00\text{ m/s}$ . What are the magnitude and direction of the passenger's acceleration as she passes through (a) the lowest point in her circular motion? (b) The highest point in her circular motion? (c) How much time does it take the Ferris wheel to make one revolution?

Figure **E3.29**



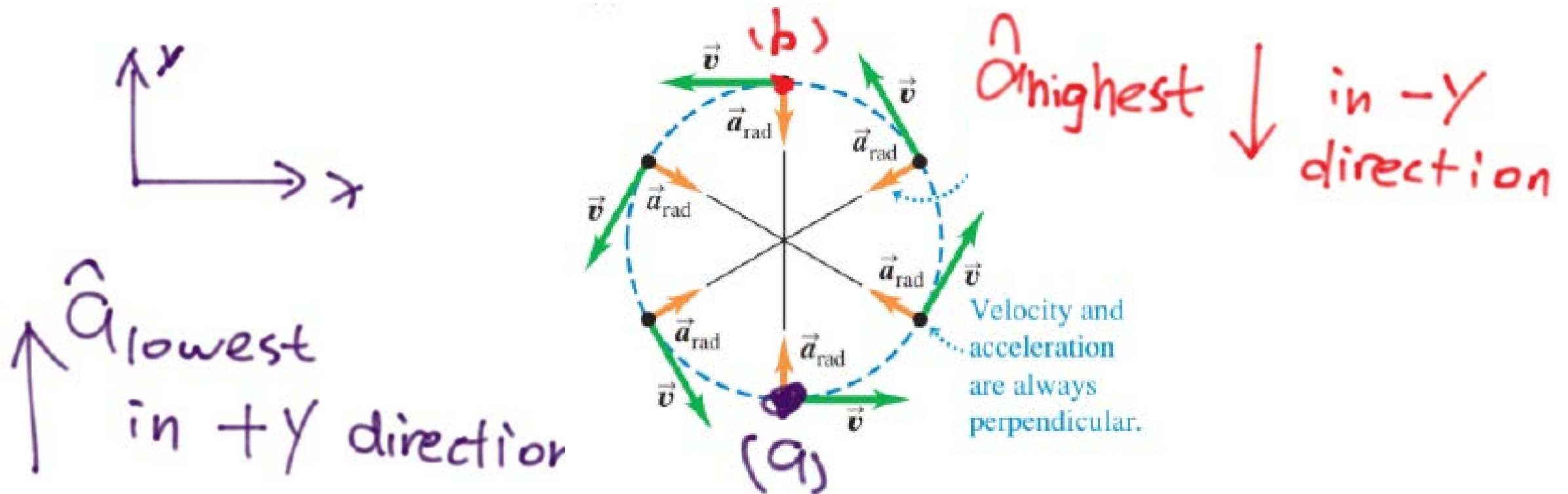


# Ferris Wheel

$$a_{\text{rad}} = \frac{v^2}{R} \quad 3.28 \quad \text{for uniform circular motion}$$

For both (a) and (b).

$$|\vec{a}_{\text{rad}}| = \frac{v^2}{R} = \frac{(7.0 \text{ m/s})^2}{14 \text{ m}} = 3.5 \text{ m/s}^2$$



# Ferris Wheel

$$a_{rad} = \frac{v^2}{R} \quad 3.28 \quad \text{for uniform circular motion}$$

For both (a) and (b).

$$|\vec{a}_{rad}| = \frac{v^2}{R} = \frac{(7.0 \text{ m/s})^2}{14 \text{ m}} = 3.5 \text{ m/s}^2$$

$$t = \frac{S}{v} \quad \leftarrow \text{distance to travel in One round}$$

$$S = 2\pi R$$

$$t = \frac{2 \cdot 3.14159 \cdot 14 \text{ m}}{7 \text{ m/s}} \approx 12.57 \text{ s}$$

# Nonuniform Circular Motion

If the speed varies, we call the motion **nonuniform circular motion**.

- $a_{\text{rad}} = v^2/R$  still gives the *radial* component of acceleration which is always ***perpendicular*** to the instantaneous velocity and directed toward the center of the circle
- $a_{\text{tan}}$ : a component of acceleration that is ***parallel*** to the instantaneous velocity  
$$a_{\text{rad}} = \frac{v^2}{R} \quad \text{and} \quad a_{\text{tan}} = \frac{d|\vec{v}|}{dt} \quad (\text{nonuniform circular motion})$$

**Uniform vs. nonuniform circular motion:** These two are NOT the same:

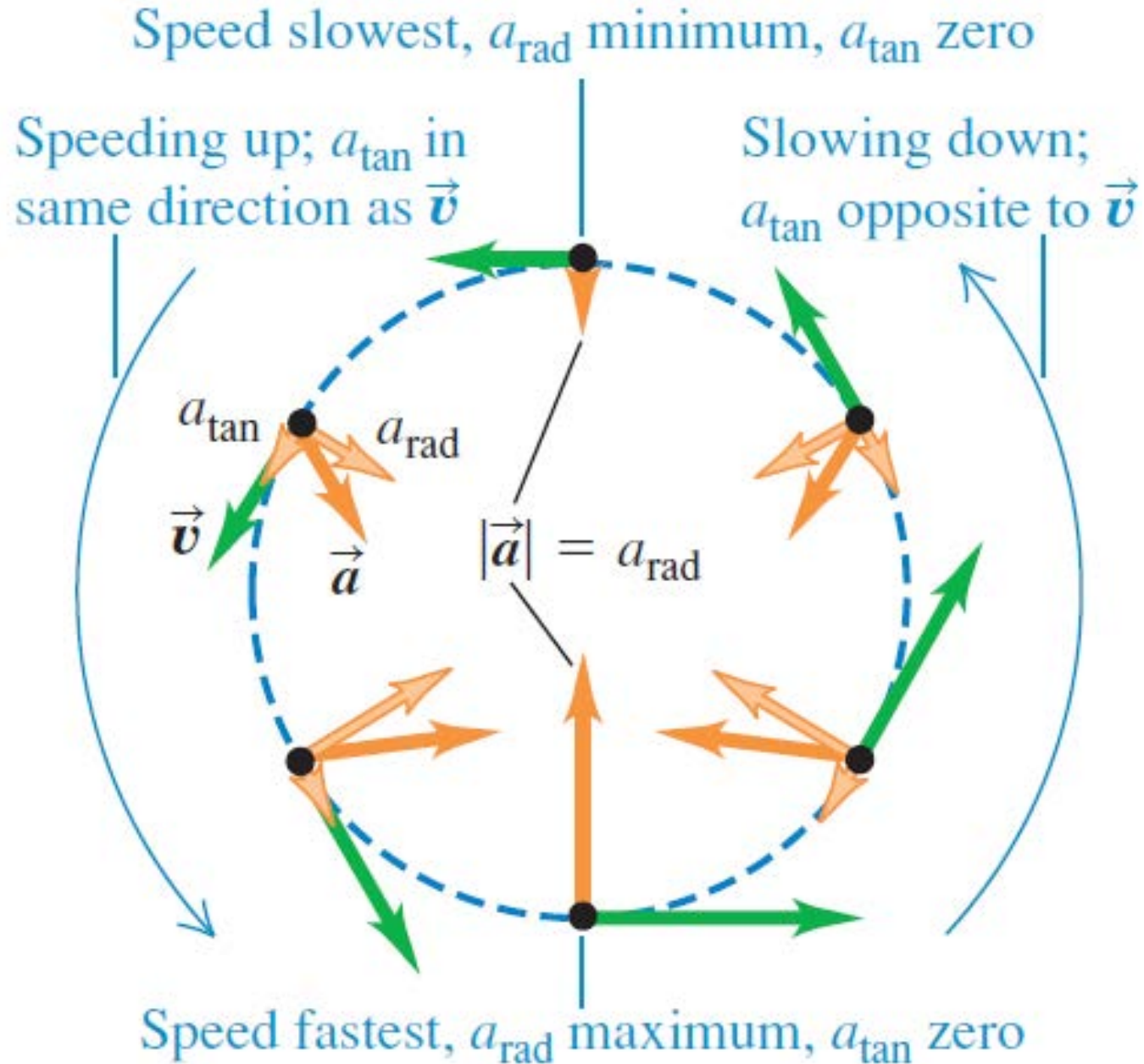
$a_{\text{tan}}$  the rate of change of speed; 0 whenever a particle moves with constant ***speed*** (e.g. *uniform* circular motion)

$$\frac{d|\vec{v}|}{dt} \quad \text{vs} \quad \left| \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \right|$$

magnitude of the vector acceleration; it is zero only when the particle's acceleration *vector* is zero—that is, when the particle moves in a straight line with constant speed.



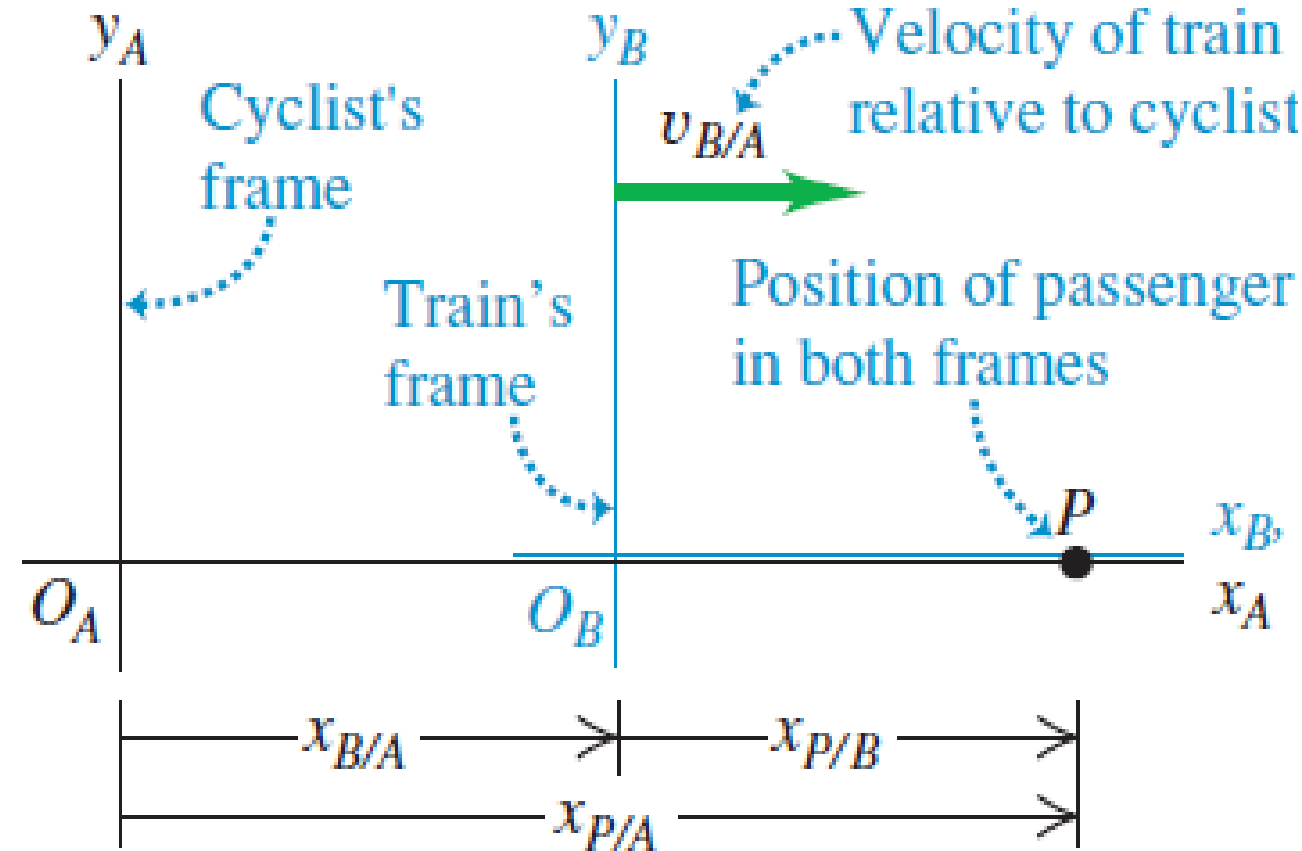
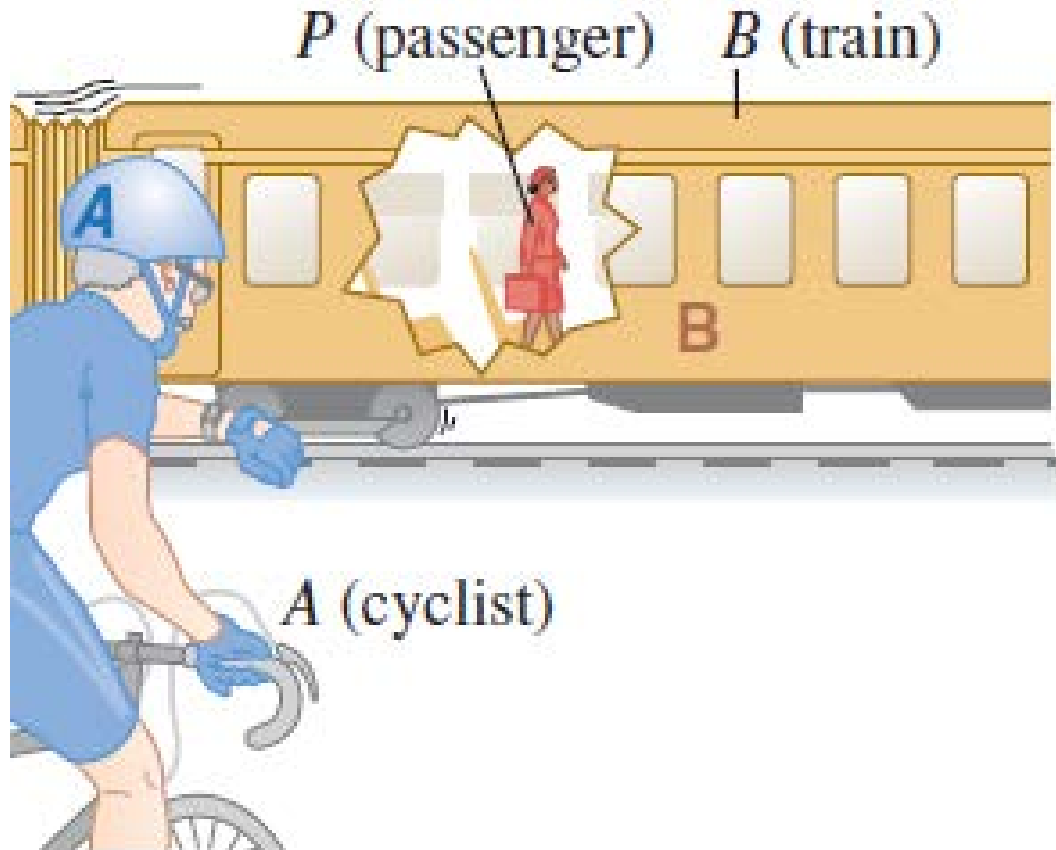
# Nonuniform Circular Motion



$$|d\vec{v}/dt| = \sqrt{a_{\text{rad}}^2 + a_{\text{tan}}^2}$$

# Relative Motion

The velocity seen by a particular observer is called the velocity *relative* to that observer, or simply **relative velocity**.

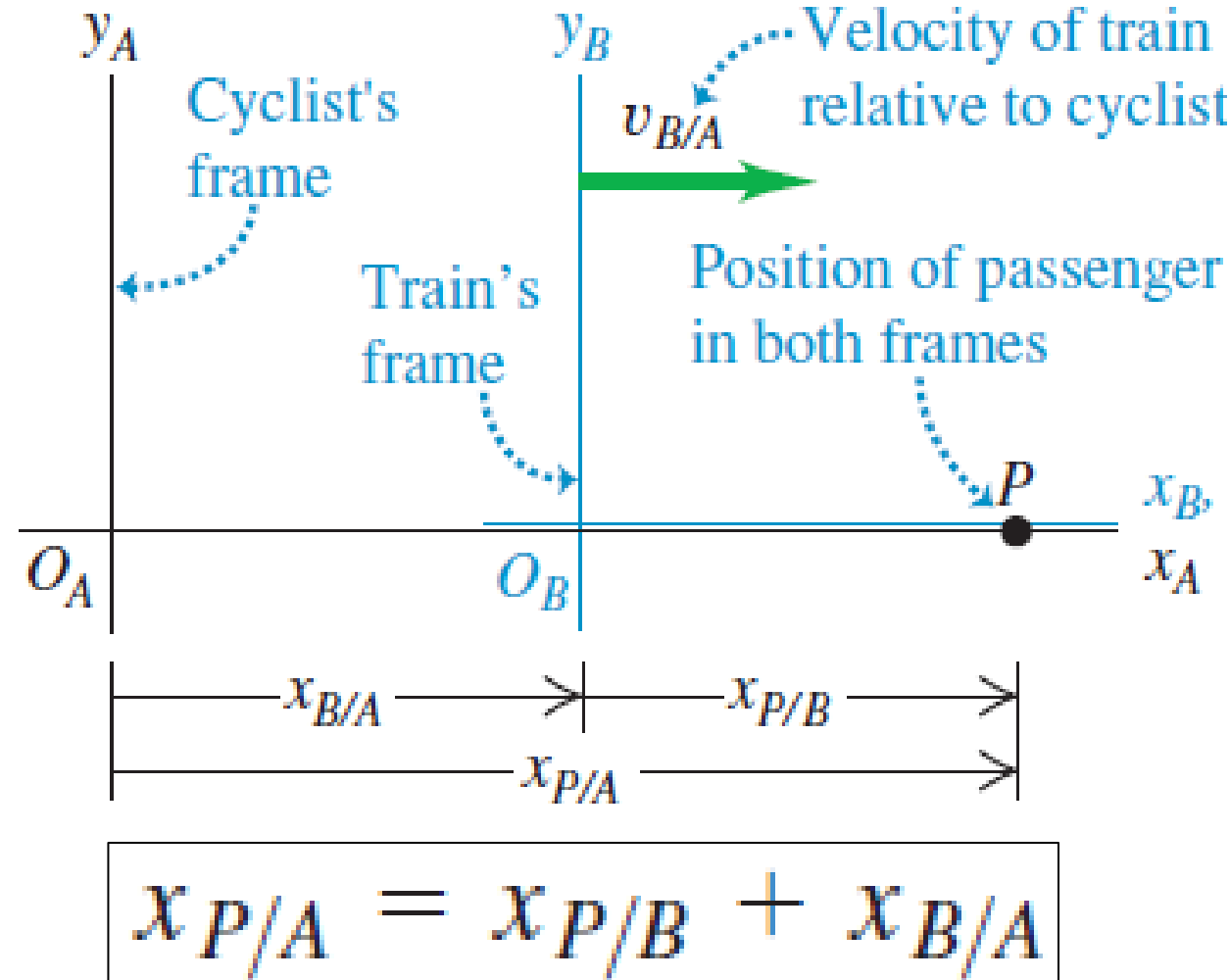


A passenger walks with a velocity of 1.0 m/s along the aisle of a train that is moving with a velocity of 3.0 m/s. What is the passenger's velocity?

# Relative Motion

Each observer, equipped with a meter stick and a stopwatch, forms what we call a **frame of reference**: a coordinate system + a time scale.

- Symbol  $A$  for the cyclist's frame of reference (at rest with respect to the ground)
- Symbol  $B$  for the frame of reference of the moving train.
- $x_{P/A}$ : straight-line motion the position of a point  $P$  relative to frame  $A$  (the position of  $P$  with respect to  $A$ )
- $x_{P/B}$ : position of  $P$  relative to frame  $B$ .
- $x_{B/A}$ : position of the origin of  $B$  with respect to the origin



# Relative Motion

Taking the derivative

$$x_{P/A} = x_{P/B} + x_{B/A}$$

$$\frac{dx_{P/A}}{dt} = \frac{dx_{P/B}}{dt} + \frac{dx_{B/A}}{dt} \Rightarrow u_{P/A-x} = u_{P/B-x} + u_{B/A-x}$$

$$u_{P/B-x} = +1.0 \text{ m/s} \quad u_{B/A-x} = +3.0 \text{ m/s}$$

$$u_{P/A-x} = +1.0 \text{ m/s} + 3.0 \text{ m/s} = +4.0 \text{ m/s}$$

When the passenger looks out the window, the stationary cyclist on the ground appears to her to be moving backward; we can call the cyclist's velocity relative to her  $v_{A/P-x}$ . Clearly, this is just the negative of the *passenger's* velocity relative to the *cyclist*,  $v_{P/A-x}$

In general, if  $A$  and  $B$  are any two points or frames:  $u_{A/B-x} = -u_{B/A-x}$

# Relative Velocity in Two or Three Dimensions

$$x_{P/A} = x_{P/B} + x_{B/A}$$

$$\vec{r}_{P/A} = \vec{r}_{P/B} + \vec{r}_{B/A}$$

$$\vec{v}_{P/A} = \vec{v}_{P/B} + \vec{v}_{B/A} \quad (\text{relative velocity in space})$$

known as the *Galilean velocity transformation*

It relates the velocity of a body  $P$  with respect to frame  $A$  and its velocity with respect to frame  $B$

## Example 3.14 Flying in a crosswind

An airplane's compass indicates that it is headed due north, and its airspeed indicator shows that it is moving through the air at  $240 \text{ km/h}$ . If there is a  $100\text{-km/h}$  wind from west to east, what is the velocity of the airplane relative to the earth?

Two dimensions (northward and eastward), a relative velocity problem using vectors. Given the magnitude and direction of the velocity of the plane ( $P$ ) relative to the air ( $A$ ). We are also given the magnitude and direction of the wind velocity, which is the velocity of the air  $A$  with respect to the earth ( $E$ ):

$$\vec{v}_{P/A} = 240 \text{ km/h} \quad \text{due north}$$

$$\vec{v}_{A/E} = 100 \text{ km/h} \quad \text{due east}$$

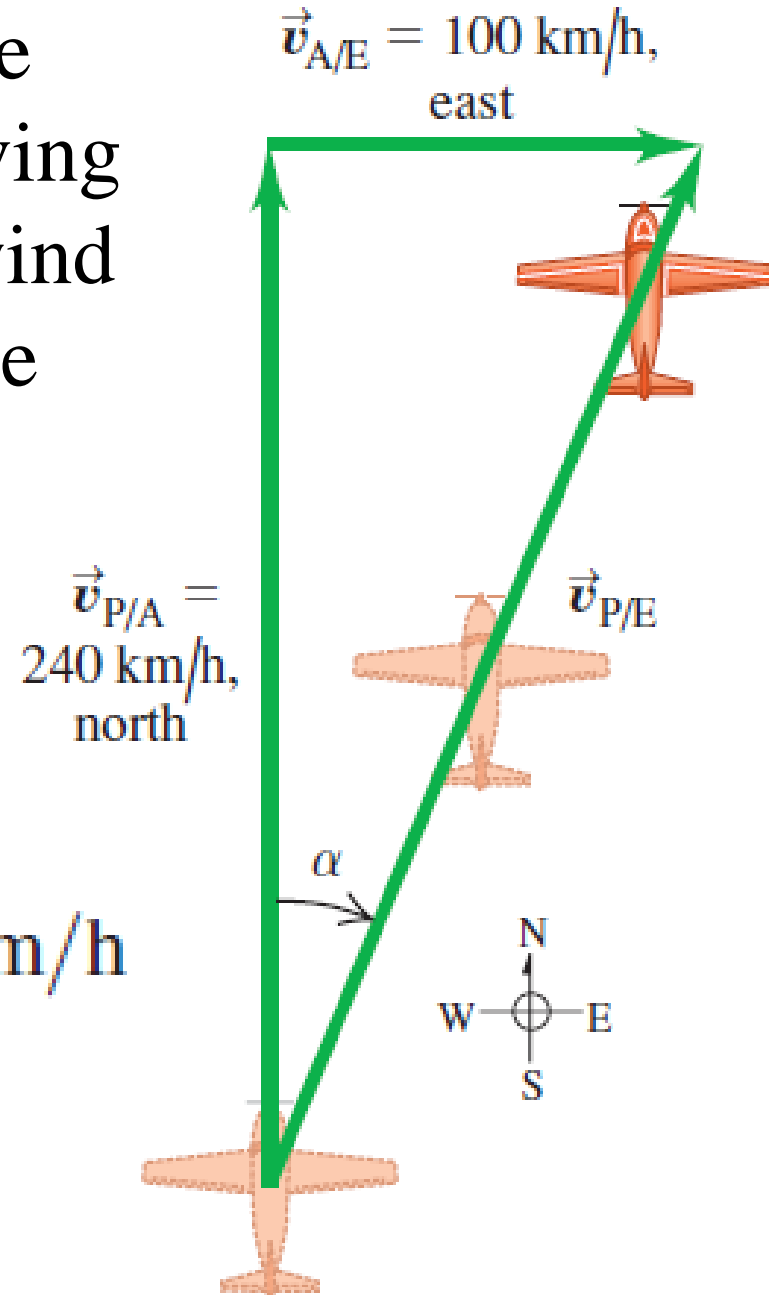
## Example 3.14 Flying in a crosswind

An airplane's compass indicates that it is headed due north, and its airspeed indicator shows that it is moving through the air at  $240 \text{ km/h}$ . If there is a  $100\text{-km/h}$  wind from west to east, what is the velocity of the airplane relative to the earth?

$$\vec{v}_{P/E} = \vec{v}_{P/A} + \vec{v}_{A/E}$$

$$v_{P/E} = \sqrt{(240 \text{ km/h})^2 + (100 \text{ km/h})^2} = 260 \text{ km/h}$$

$$\alpha = \arctan\left(\frac{100 \text{ km/h}}{240 \text{ km/h}}\right) = 23^\circ \text{ E of N}$$

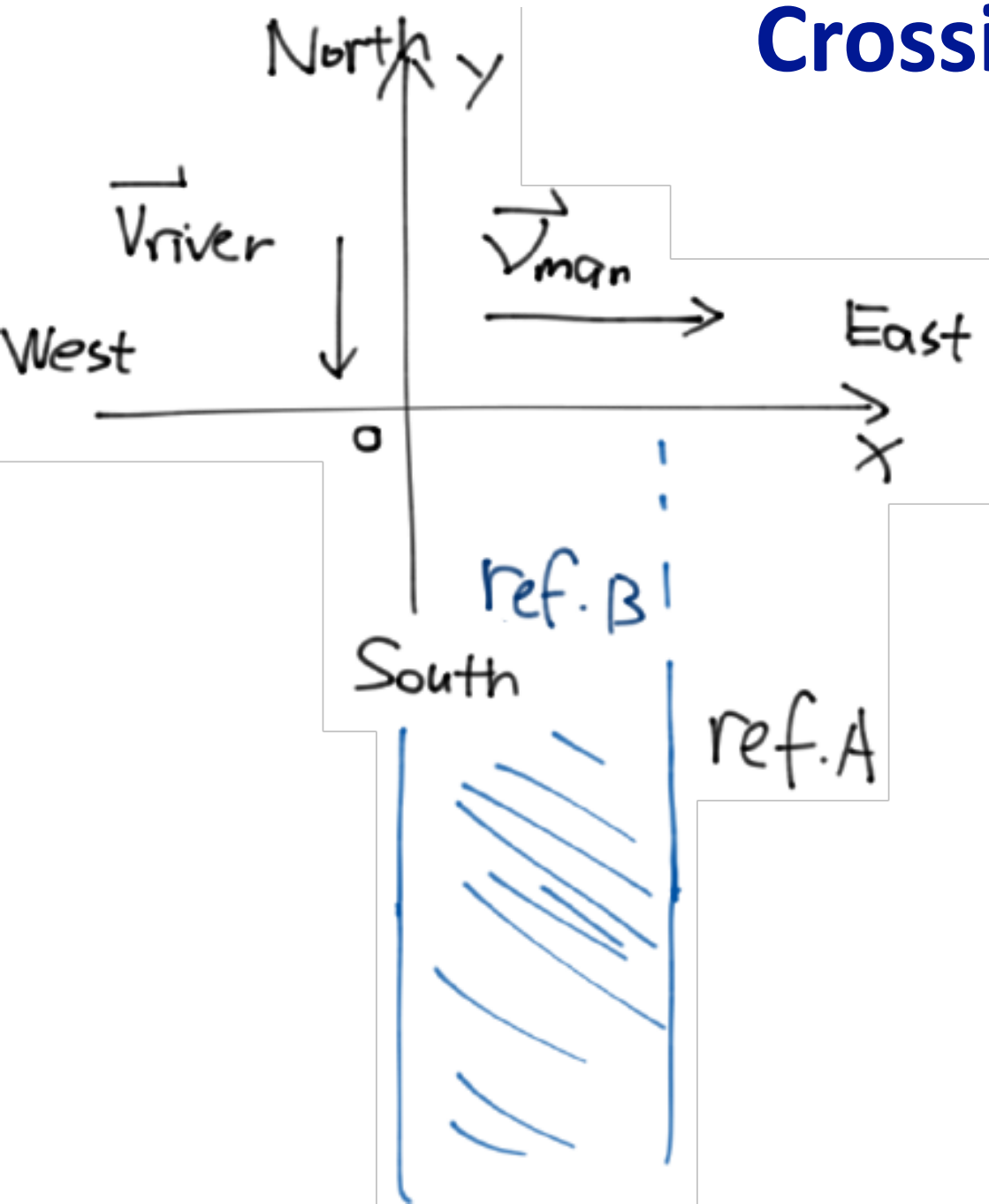


**3.35 • Crossing the River I.** A river flows due south with a speed of  $2.0 \text{ m/s}$ . A man steers a motorboat across the river; his velocity relative to the water is  $4.2 \text{ m/s}$  due east. The river is  $800 \text{ m}$  wide. (a) What is his velocity (magnitude and direction) relative to the earth? (b) How much time is required to cross the river? (c) How far south of his starting point will he reach the opposite bank?

Again, if you don't know what to do, draw things out!



# Crossing the River



$$\vec{V}_{\text{river}} = \vec{V}_r = -2.0 \text{ m/s} \cdot \hat{j}$$
$$\vec{V}_{\text{ground}} = \vec{V}_{B/A}$$

velocity of B (river)  
relative to A (ground)

$$\vec{V}_{\text{man}} = \vec{V}_{P/B} = 4.2 \text{ m/s} \cdot \hat{i}$$

↓ river

$$\vec{V}_{P/A} = \vec{V}_{P/B} + \vec{V}_{B/A}$$
$$= 4.2 \text{ m/s} \cdot \hat{i} - 2.0 \text{ m/s} \cdot \hat{j}$$

# Crossing the River

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{v}_{P/A} &= \vec{v}_{P/B} + \vec{v}_{B/A} \\ &= 4.2 \text{ m/s } \hat{i} - 2.0 \text{ m/s } \hat{j}\end{aligned}$$

(a) To get to the other side,  $\Delta x = 800 \text{ m}$   
or  $\vec{r} = 800 \text{ m} \cdot \hat{i} + y \cdot \hat{j}$

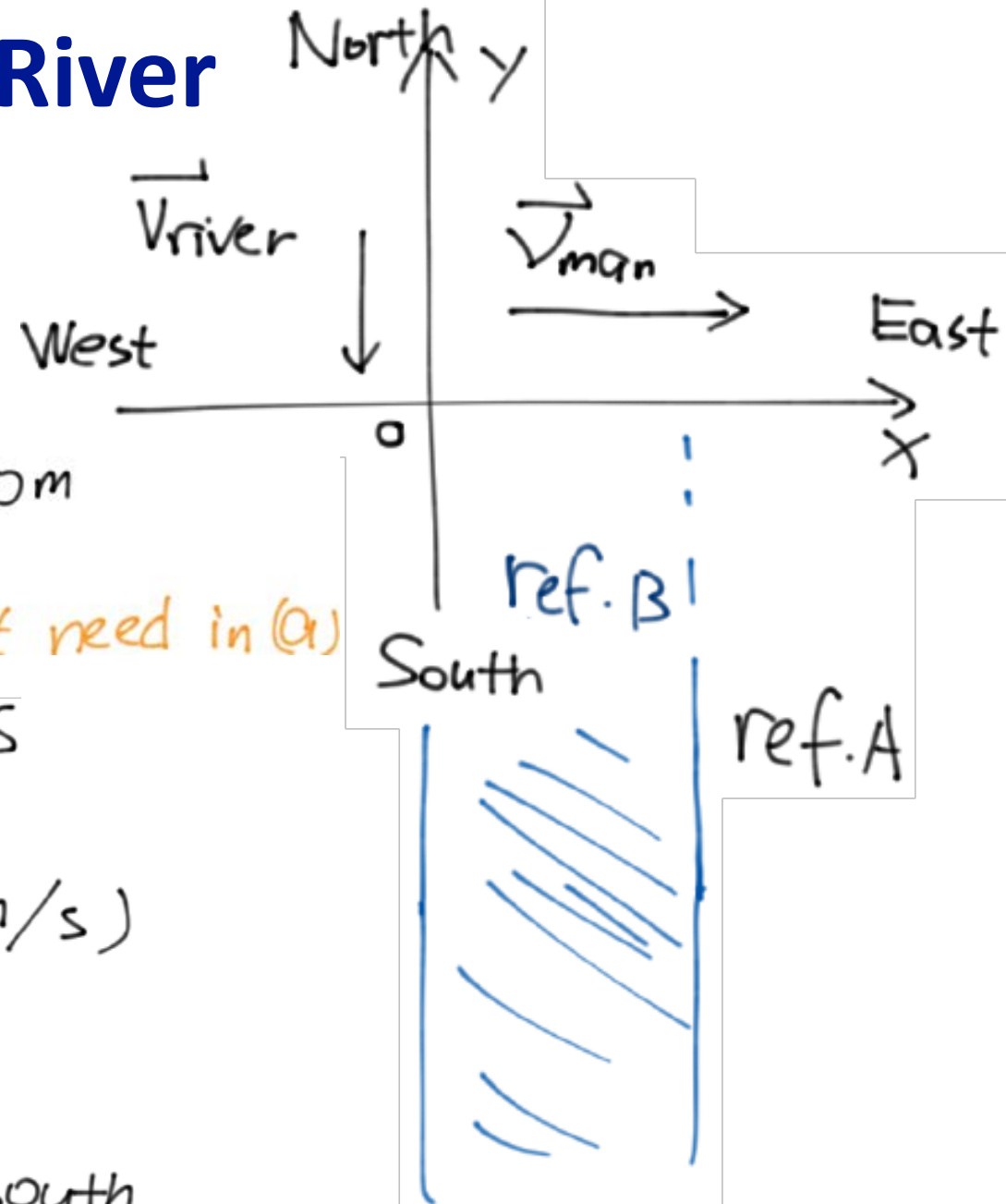
← don't need in (a)

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta x}{v_x} = \frac{800 \text{ m}}{4.2 \text{ m/s}} = 190.5 \text{ s}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{(b) } \Delta y &= v_y \cdot \Delta t = 190.5 \text{ s} \times (-2.0 \text{ m/s}) \\ &\approx -381.0 \text{ m}\end{aligned}$$

We took North as  $+y$

so the guy went  $381.0 \text{ m}$  South



$$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$$

$$\vec{v}_{av} = \frac{\vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1}{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{\Delta \vec{r}}{\Delta t}$$

$$\vec{v} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta \vec{r}}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}$$

$$v_x = \frac{dx}{dt} \quad v_y = \frac{dy}{dt} \quad v_z = \frac{dz}{dt}$$

$$\vec{a}_{av} = \frac{\vec{v}_2 - \vec{v}_1}{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{\Delta \vec{v}}{\Delta t}$$

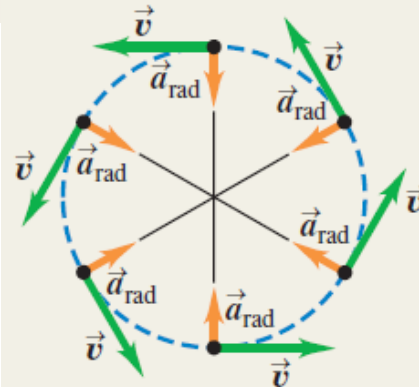
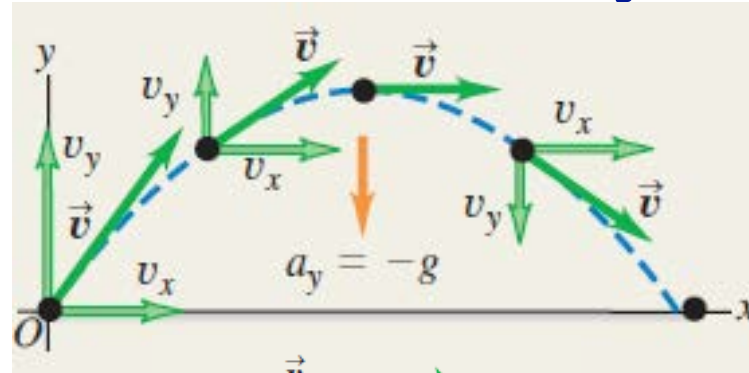
$$\vec{a} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta \vec{v}}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt}$$

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

$$a_y = \frac{dv_y}{dt}$$

$$a_z = \frac{dv_z}{dt}$$

# Summary



$$x = (v_0 \cos \alpha_0)t$$

$$y = (v_0 \sin \alpha_0)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

$$v_x = v_0 \cos \alpha_0$$

$$v_y = v_0 \sin \alpha_0 - gt$$

$$a_{rad} = \frac{v^2}{R}$$

$$a_{rad} = \frac{4\pi^2 R}{T^2}$$

$$v_{P/A-x} = v_{P/B-x} + v_{B/A-x}$$

(relative velocity along a line)

$$\vec{v}_{P/A} = \vec{v}_{P/B} + \vec{v}_{B/A}$$

(relative velocity in space)