CHAPTER 16

Waves—I

16.1 TRANSVERSE WAVES

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

16.1.1 Identify the three main types of waves.

16.1.2 Distinguish between transverse waves and longitudinal waves.

16.1.3 Given a displacement function for a transverse wave, determine amplitude y_m, angular wave number k, angular frequency ω, phase constant ϕ, and direction of travel, and calculate the phase $kx \pm \omega t + \phi$ and the displacement at any given time and position.

16.1.4 Given a displacement function for a transverse wave, calculate the time between two given displacements.

16.1.5 Sketch a graph of a transverse wave as a function of position, identifying amplitude y_m, wavelength λ, where the slope is greatest, where it is zero, and where the string elements have positive velocity, negative velocity, and zero velocity.

16.1.6 Given a graph of displacement versus time for a transverse wave, determine amplitude y_m and period T.

16.1.7 Describe the effect on a transverse wave of changing phase constant ϕ.

16.1.8 Apply the relation between the wave speed v, the distance traveled by the wave, and the time required for that travel.

16.1.9 Apply the relationships between wave speed v, angular frequency ω, angular wave number k, wavelength λ, period T, and frequency f.

16.1.10 Describe the motion of a string element as a transverse wave moves through its location, and identify when its transverse speed is zero and when it is maximum.

16.1.11 Calculate the transverse velocity $u(t)$ of a string element as a transverse wave moves through its location.

16.1.12 Calculate the transverse acceleration $a(t)$ of a string element as a transverse wave moves through its location.

16.1.13 Given a graph of displacement, transverse velocity, or transverse acceleration, determine the phase constant ϕ.

Key Ideas

- Mechanical waves can exist only in material media and are governed by Newton's laws. Transverse mechanical waves, like those on a stretched string, are waves in which the particles of the medium oscillate perpendicular to the wave's direction of travel. Waves in which the particles of the medium oscillate parallel to the wave's direction of travel are longitudinal waves.

- A sinusoidal wave moving in the positive direction of an x axis has the mathematical form

$$y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx - \omega t),$$

where y_m is the amplitude (magnitude of the maximum displacement) of the wave, k is the angular wave number, ω is the angular frequency, and $kx - \omega t$ is the phase. The wavelength λ is related to k by

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}.$$

- The period T and frequency f of the wave are related to ω by

$$\frac{\omega}{2\pi} = f = \frac{1}{T}.$$

- The wave speed v (the speed of the wave along the string) is related to these other parameters by

$$v = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{\lambda}{T} = \lambda f.$$

- Any function of the form

$$y(x, t) = h(kx \pm \omega t)$$

can represent a traveling wave with a wave speed as given above and a wave shape given by the mathematical form of h. The plus sign denotes a wave traveling in the negative direction of the x axis, and the minus sign a wave traveling in the positive direction.

What Is Physics?

One of the primary subjects of physics is waves. To see how important waves are in the modern world, just consider the music industry. Every piece of music you hear, from some retro-punk band playing in a campus dive to the most eloquent concerto playing on the Web, depends on performers producing waves and your detecting those waves. In between production and detection, the information carried by the waves might need to be transmitted (as in a live performance on the Web) or recorded and then reproduced (as with CDs, DVDs, or the other devices currently being developed in engineering labs worldwide). The financial importance of controlling music waves is staggering, and the rewards to engineers who develop new control techniques can be rich.

This chapter focuses on waves traveling along a stretched string, such as on a guitar. The next chapter focuses on sound waves, such as those produced by a guitar string being played. Before we do all this, though, our first job is to classify the countless waves of the everyday world into basic types.

Types of Waves

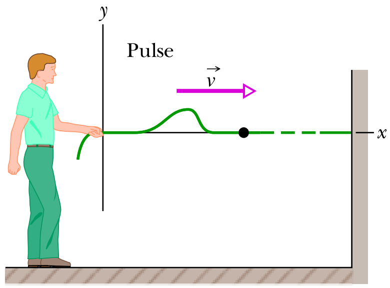
Waves are of three main types:

1. ***Mechanical waves.*** These waves are most familiar because we encounter them almost constantly; common examples include water waves, sound waves, and seismic waves. All these waves have two central features: They are governed by Newton's laws, and they can exist only within a material medium, such as water, air, and rock.
2. ***Electromagnetic waves.*** These waves are less familiar, but you use them constantly; common examples include visible and ultraviolet light, radio and television waves, microwaves, x rays, and radar waves. These waves require no material medium to exist. Light waves from stars, for example, travel through the vacuum of space to reach us. All electromagnetic waves travel through a vacuum at the same speed $c = 299\,792\,458$ m/s.
3. ***Matter waves.*** Although these waves are commonly used in modern technology, they are probably very unfamiliar to you. These waves are associated with electrons, protons, and other fundamental particles, and even atoms and molecules. Because we commonly think of these particles as constituting matter, such waves are called matter waves.
4. ***Gravitational waves.*** In 1916, Albert Einstein predicted that when any mass accelerates, it sends out *gravitational waves* that are oscillations of space itself (more precisely, spacetime). In normal circumstances, the oscillations are so small as to be undetectable. The first direct detection of the waves came in 2015 when a detector based on the design of Rainer Weiss of MIT recorded the waves due to the merger of two distant black holes. The oscillations were much less than the radius of a proton.

Much of what we discuss in this chapter applies to waves of all kinds. However, for specific examples we shall refer to mechanical waves.

Transverse and Longitudinal Waves

A wave sent along a stretched, taut string is the simplest mechanical wave. If you give one end of a stretched string a single up-and-down jerk, a wave in the form of a single *pulse* travels along the string. This pulse and its motion can occur because the string is under tension. When you pull your end of the string upward, it begins to pull upward



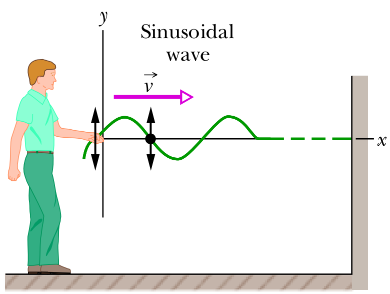


Figure 16.1.1 (*a*) A single pulse is sent along a stretched string. A typical string element (marked with a dot) moves up once and then down as the pulse passes. The element's motion is perpendicular to the wave's direction of travel, so the pulse is a *transverse wave*. (*b*) A sinusoidal wave is sent along the string. A typical string element moves up and down continuously as the wave passes. This too is a transverse wave.

on the adjacent section of the string via tension between the two sections. As the adjacent section moves upward, it begins to pull the next section upward, and so on. Meanwhile, you have pulled down on your end of the string. As each section moves upward in turn, it begins to be pulled back downward by neighboring sections that are already on the way down. The net result is that a distortion in the string's shape (a pulse, as in Fig. 16.1.1*a*) moves along the string at some velocity $\vec{v}$.

If you move your hand up and down in continuous simple harmonic motion, a continuous wave travels along the string at velocity $\vec{v}$. Because the motion of your hand is a sinusoidal function of time, the wave has a sinusoidal shape at any given instant, as in Fig. 16.1.1*b*; that is, the wave has the shape of a sine curve or a cosine curve.

We consider here only an "ideal" string, in which no friction-like forces within the string cause the wave to die out as it travels along the string. In addition, we assume that the string is so long that we need not consider a wave rebounding from the far end.

One way to study the waves of Fig. 16.1.1 is to monitor the **wave forms** (shapes of the waves) as they move to the right. Alternatively, we could monitor the motion of an element of the string as the element oscillates up and down while a wave passes through it. We would find that the displacement of every such oscillating string element is *perpendicular* to the direction of travel of the wave, as indicated in Fig. 16.1.1*b*. This motion is said to be **transverse,** and the wave is said to be a **transverse wave.**

Longitudinal Waves. Figure 16.1.2 shows how a sound wave can be produced by a piston in a long, air-filled pipe. If you suddenly move the piston rightward and then leftward, you can send a pulse of sound along the pipe. The rightward motion of the piston moves the elements of air next to it rightward, changing the air pressure there. The increased air pressure then pushes rightward on the elements of air somewhat farther along the pipe. Moving the piston leftward reduces the air pressure next to it. As a result, first the elements nearest the piston and then farther elements move leftward. Thus, the motion of the air and the change in air pressure travel rightward along the pipe as a pulse.

If you push and pull on the piston in simple harmonic motion, as is being done in Fig. 16.1.2, a sinusoidal wave travels along the pipe. Because the motion of the elements of air is parallel to the direction of the wave's travel, the motion is said to be **longitudinal,** and the wave is said to be a **longitudinal wave.** In this chapter we focus on transverse waves, and string waves in particular; in Chapter 17 we focus on longitudinal waves, and sound waves in particular.

Both a transverse wave and a longitudinal wave are said to be **traveling waves** because they both travel from one point to another, as from one end of the string to the other end in Fig. 16.1.1 and from one end of the pipe to the other end in Fig. 16.1.2. Note that it is the wave that moves from end to end, not the material (string or air) through which the wave moves.

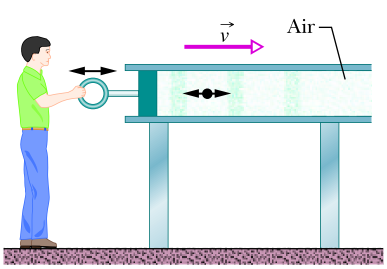


Figure 16.1.2 A sound wave is set up in an air-filled pipe by moving a piston back and forth. Because the oscillations of an element of the air (represented by the dot) are parallel to the direction in which the wave travels, the wave is a *longitudinal wave*.

Wavelength and Frequency

To completely describe a wave on a string (and the motion of any element along its length), we need a function that gives the shape of the wave. This means that we need a relation in the form

$$y = h(x, t), \tag{16.1.1}$$

in which y is the transverse displacement of any string element as a function h of the time t and the position x of the element along the string. In general, a sinusoidal shape like the wave in Fig. 16.1.1*b* can be described with h being either a sine or cosine function; both give the same general shape for the wave. In this chapter we use the sine function.

Sinusoidal Function. Imagine a sinusoidal wave like that of Fig. 16.1.1*b* traveling in the positive direction of an x axis. As the wave sweeps through succeeding elements (that is, very short sections) of the string, the elements oscillate parallel to the y axis. At time t, the displacement y of the element located at position x is given by

$$y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx - \omega t). \tag{16.1.2}$$

Because this equation is written in terms of position x, it can be used to find the displacements of all the elements of the string as a function of time. Thus, it can tell us the shape of the wave at any given time.

The names of the quantities in Eq. 16.1.2 are displayed in Fig. 16.1.3 and defined next. Before we discuss them, however, let us examine Fig. 16.1.4, which shows five "snapshots" of a sinusoidal wave traveling in the positive direction of an x axis. The movement of the wave is indicated by the rightward progress of the short arrow pointing to a high point of the wave. From snapshot to snapshot, the short arrow moves to the right with the wave shape, but the string moves *only* parallel to the y axis. To see that, let us follow the motion of the red-dyed string element at $x = 0$. In the first snapshot (Fig. 16.1.4*a*), this element is at displacement $y = 0$. In the next snapshot, it is at its extreme downward displacement because a *valley* (or extreme low point) of the wave is passing through it. It then moves back up through $y = 0$. In the fourth snapshot, it is at its extreme upward displacement because a *peak* (or extreme high point) of the wave is passing through it. In the fifth snapshot, it is again at $y = 0$, having completed one full oscillation.

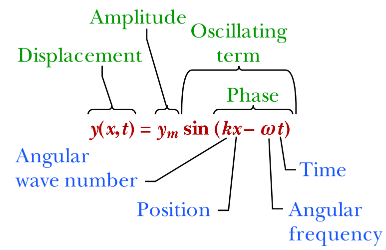


Figure 16.1.3 The names of the quantities in Eq. 16.1.2, for a transverse sinusoidal wave.

Amplitude and Phase

The **amplitude** y_m of a wave, such as that in Fig. 16.1.4, is the magnitude of the maximum displacement of the elements from their equilibrium positions as the wave passes through them. (The subscript m stands for maximum.) Because y_m is a magnitude, it is always a positive quantity, even if it is measured downward instead of upward as drawn in Fig. 16.1.4*a*.

The **phase** of the wave is the *argument* $kx - \omega t$ of the sine in Eq. 16.1.2. As the wave sweeps through a string element at a particular position x, the phase changes linearly with time t. This means that the sine also changes, oscillating between +1 and −1. Its extreme positive value (+1) corresponds to a peak of the wave moving through the element; at that instant the value of y at position x is y_m. Its extreme negative value (−1) corresponds to a valley of the wave moving through the element; at that instant the value of y at position x is $-y_m$. Thus, the sine function and the time-dependent phase of a wave correspond to the oscillation of a string element, and the amplitude of the wave determines the extremes of the element's displacement.

Caution: When evaluating the phase, rounding off the numbers before you evaluate the sine function can throw off the calculation considerably.

Wavelength and Angular Wave Number

The **wavelength** λ of a wave is the distance (parallel to the direction of the wave's travel) between repetitions of the shape of the wave (or *wave shape*). A typical wavelength is marked in Fig. 16.1.4*a*, which is a snapshot of the wave at time $t = 0$. At that time, Eq. 16.1.2 gives, for the description of the wave shape,

$$y(x, 0) = y_m \sin kx. \tag{16.1.3}$$

By definition, the displacement y is the same at both ends of this wavelength—that is, at $x = x_1$ and $x = x_1 + \lambda$. Thus, by Eq. 16.1.3,

$$\begin{aligned} y_m \sin kx_1 &= y_m \sin k(x_1 + \lambda) \\ &= y_m \sin (kx_1 + k\lambda). \end{aligned} \tag{16.1.4}$$

A sine function begins to repeat itself when its angle (or argument) is increased by 2π rad, so in Eq. 16.1.4 we must have $k\lambda = 2\pi$, or

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \quad \text{(angular wave number)}. \tag{16.1.5}$$

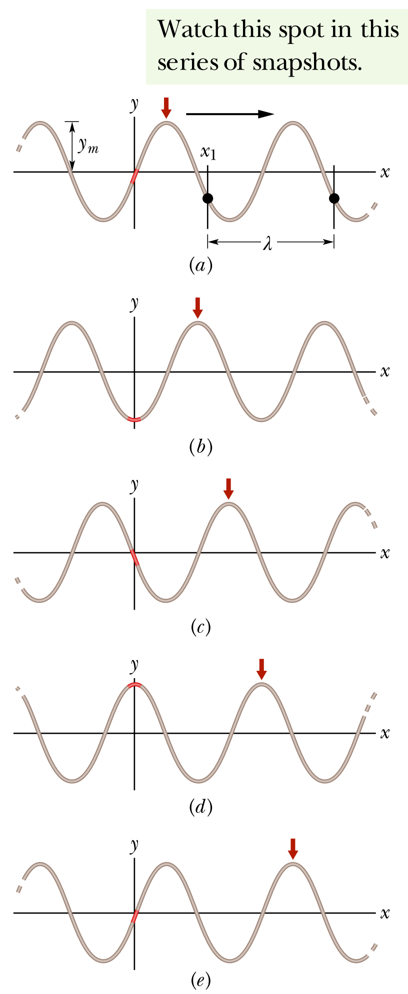


Figure 16.1.4 Five "snapshots" of a string wave traveling in the positive direction of an x axis. The amplitude y_m is indicated. A typical wavelength λ, measured from an arbitrary position x_1, is also indicated.

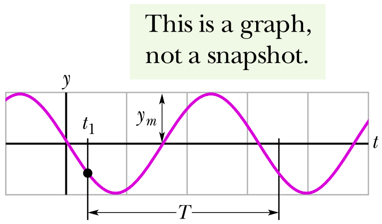


Figure 16.1.5 A graph of the displacement of the string element at $x = 0$ as a function of time, as the sinusoidal wave of Fig. 16.1.4 passes through the element. The amplitude y_m is indicated. A typical period T, measured from an arbitrary time t_1, is also indicated.

We call k the **angular wave number** of the wave; its SI unit is the radian per meter, or the inverse meter. (Note that the symbol k here does *not* represent a spring constant as previously.)

Notice that the wave in Fig. 16.1.4 moves to the right by $\frac{1}{4}\lambda$ from one snapshot to the next. Thus, by the fifth snapshot, it has moved to the right by 1λ.

Period, Angular Frequency, and Frequency

Figure 16.1.5 shows a graph of the displacement y of Eq. 16.1.2 versus time t at a certain position along the string, taken to be $x = 0$. If you were to monitor the string, you would see that the single element of the string at that position moves up and down in simple harmonic motion given by Eq. 16.1.2 with $x = 0$:

$$\begin{aligned} y(0, t) &= y_m \sin(-\omega t) \\ &= -y_m \sin \omega t \qquad (x = 0). \end{aligned} \tag{16.1.6}$$

Here we have made use of the fact that $\sin(-\alpha) = -\sin \alpha$, where α is any angle. Figure 16.1.5 is a graph of this equation, with displacement plotted versus time; it *does not* show the shape of the wave. (Figure 16.1.4 shows the shape and is a picture of reality; Fig. 16.1.5 is a graph and thus an abstraction.)

We define the **period** of oscillation T of a wave to be the time any string element takes to move through one full oscillation. A typical period is marked on the graph of Fig. 16.1.5. Applying Eq. 16.1.6 to both ends of this time interval and equating the results yield

$$\begin{aligned} -y_m \sin \omega t_1 &= -y_m \sin \omega(t_1 + T) \\ &= -y_m \sin(\omega t_1 + \omega T). \end{aligned} \tag{16.1.7}$$

This can be true only if $\omega T = 2\pi$, or if

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T} \qquad \text{(angular frequency).} \tag{16.1.8}$$

We call ω the **angular frequency** of the wave; its SI unit is the radian per second.

Look back at the five snapshots of a traveling wave in Fig. 16.1.4. The time between snapshots is $\frac{1}{4}T$. Thus, by the fifth snapshot, every string element has made one full oscillation.

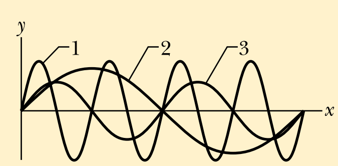
The **frequency** f of a wave is defined as $1/T$ and is related to the angular frequency ω by

$$f = \frac{1}{T} = \frac{\omega}{2\pi} \qquad \text{(frequency).} \tag{16.1.9}$$

Like the frequency of simple harmonic motion in Chapter 15, this frequency f is a number of oscillations per unit time—here, the number made by a string element as the wave moves through it. As in Chapter 15, f is usually measured in hertz or its multiples, such as kilohertz.

Checkpoint 16.1.1

The figure is a composite of three snapshots, each of a wave traveling along a particular string. The phases for the waves are given by (a) $2x - 4t$, (b) $4x - 8t$, and (c) $8x - 16t$. Which phase corresponds to which wave in the figure?



Phase Constant

When a sinusoidal traveling wave is given by the wave function of Eq. 16.1.2, the wave near $x = 0$ looks like Fig. 16.1.6*a* when $t = 0$. Note that at $x = 0$, the displacement is $y = 0$ and the slope is at its maximum positive value. We can generalize Eq. 16.1.2 by inserting a **phase constant** ϕ in the wave function:

$$y = y_m \sin(kx - \omega t + \phi). \qquad (16.1.10)$$

The value of ϕ can be chosen so that the function gives some other displacement and slope at $x = 0$ when $t = 0$. For example, a choice of $\phi = +\pi/5$ rad gives the displacement and slope shown in Fig. 16.1.6*b* when $t = 0$. The wave is still sinusoidal with the same values of y_m, k, and ω, but it is now shifted from what you see in Fig. 16.1.6*a* (where $\phi = 0$). Note also the direction of the shift. A positive value of ϕ shifts the curve in the negative direction of the x axis; a negative value shifts the curve in the positive direction.

The effect of the phase constant ϕ is to shift the wave.

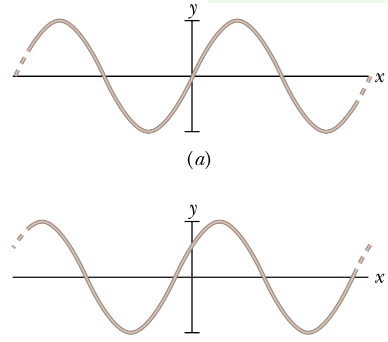


Figure 16.1.6 A sinusoidal traveling wave at $t = 0$ with a phase constant ϕ of (*a*) 0 and (*b*) $\pi/5$ rad.

The Speed of a Traveling Wave

Figure 16.1.7 shows two snapshots of the wave of Eq. 16.1.2, taken a small time interval Δt apart. The wave is traveling in the positive direction of x (to the right in Fig. 16.1.7), the entire wave pattern moving a distance Δx in that direction during the interval Δt. The ratio $\Delta x/\Delta t$ (or, in the differential limit, dx/dt) is the **wave speed** v. How can we find its value?

As the wave in Fig. 16.1.7 moves, each point of the moving wave form, such as point A marked on a peak, retains its displacement y. (Points on the string do not retain their displacement, but points on the wave *form* do.) If point A retains its displacement as it moves, the phase in Eq. 16.1.2 (the argument of the sine function) giving it that displacement must remain a constant:

$$kx - \omega t = \text{a constant}. \qquad (16.1.11)$$

Note that although this argument is constant, both x and t are changing. In fact, as t increases, x must also, to keep the argument constant. This confirms that the wave pattern is moving in the positive direction of x.

To find the wave speed v, we take the derivative of Eq. 16.1.11, getting

$$k\frac{dx}{dt} - \omega = 0$$

or

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = v = \frac{\omega}{k}. \qquad (16.1.12)$$

Using Eq. 16.1.5 ($k = 2\pi/\lambda$) and Eq. 16.1.8 ($\omega = 2\pi/T$), we can rewrite the wave speed as

$$v = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{\lambda}{T} = \lambda f \quad \text{(wave speed)}. \qquad (16.1.13)$$

The equation $v = \lambda/T$ tells us that the wave speed is one wavelength per period; the wave moves a distance of one wavelength in one period of oscillation.

Equation 16.1.2 describes a wave moving in the positive direction of x. We can find the equation of a wave traveling in the opposite direction by replacing t in Eq. 16.1.2 with $-t$. This corresponds to the condition

$$kx + \omega t = \text{a constant}, \qquad (16.1.14)$$

which (compare Eq. 16.1.11) requires that x *decrease* with time. Thus, a wave traveling in the negative direction of x is described by the equation

$$y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx + \omega t). \qquad (16.1.15)$$

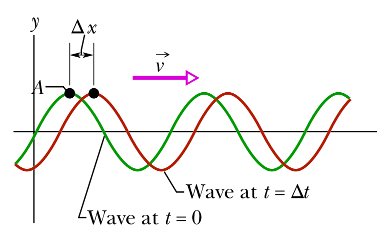


Figure 16.1.7 Two snapshots of the wave of Fig. 16.1.4, at time $t = 0$ and then at time $t = \Delta t$. As the wave moves to the right at velocity $\vec{v}$, the entire curve shifts a distance Δx during Δt. Point A "rides" with the wave form, but the string elements move only up and down.

If you analyze the wave of Eq. 16.1.15as we have just done for the wave of Eq. 16.1.2,you will find for its velocity

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -\frac{\omega}{k}. \tag{16.1.16}$$

The minus sign (compare Eq. 16.1.12) verifies that the wave is indeed moving in the negative direction of x and justifies our switching the sign of the time variable.

Consider now a wave of arbitrary shape, given by

$$y(x, t) = h(kx \pm \omega t), \tag{16.1.17}$$

where h represents *any* function, the sine function being one possibility. Our previous analysis shows that all waves in which the variables x and t enter into the combination $kx \pm \omega t$ are traveling waves. Furthermore, all traveling waves *must* be of the form of Eq. 16.1.17. Thus, $y(x,t) = \sqrt{ax + bt}$ represents a possible (though perhaps physically a little bizarre) traveling wave. The function $y(x, t) = \sin(ax^2 - bt)$, on the other hand, does *not* represent a traveling wave.

Checkpoint 16.1.2

Here are the equations of three waves (see Sample Problem 16.1.2):
(1) $y(x, t) = 2\sin(4x - 2t)$, (2) $y(x, t) = \sin(3x - 4t)$, (3) $y(x, t) = 2\sin(3x - 3t)$.
Rank the waves according to their (a) wave speed and (b) maximum speed perpendicular to the wave's direction of travel (the transverse speed), greatest first.

Sample Problem 16.1.1 Determining the quantities in an equation for a transverse wave

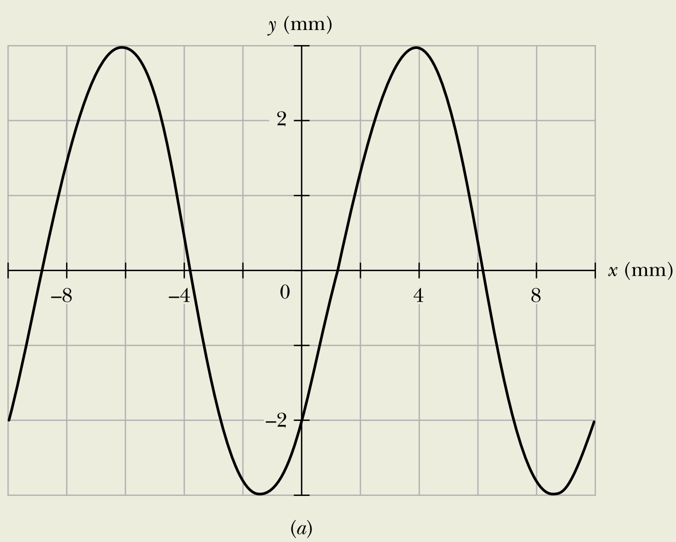
A transverse wave traveling along an x axis has the form given by

$$y = y_m \sin(kx \pm \omega t + \phi). \tag{16.1.18}$$

Figure 16.1.8*a* gives the displacements of string elements as a function of x, all at time $t = 0$. Figure 16.1.8*b* gives the displacements of the element at $x = 0$ as a function of t. Find the values of the quantities shown in Eq. 16.1.18, including the correct choice of sign.

KEY IDEAS

(1) Figure 16.1.8*a* is effectively a snapshot of reality (something that we can see), showing us motion spread out over the x axis. From it we can determine the wavelength λ of the wave along that axis, and then we can find the angular wave number k (= $2\pi/\lambda$) in Eq. 16.1.18. (2) Figure 16.1.8*b* is an abstraction, showing us motion spread out over time. From it we can determine the period



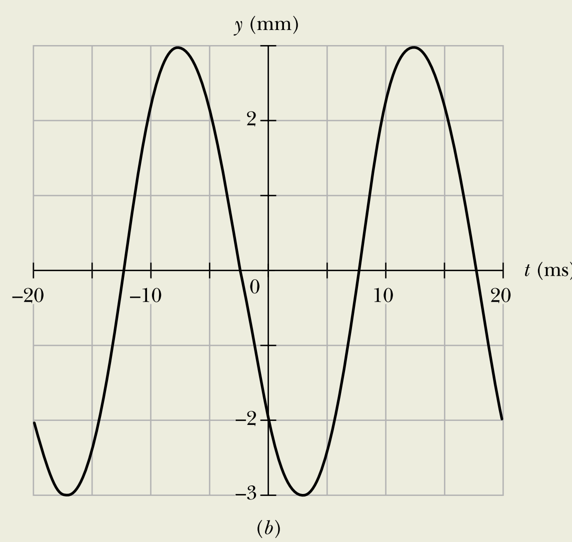


Figure 16.1.8 (*a*) A snapshot of the displacement y versus position x along a string, at time $t = 0$. (*b*) A graph of displacement y versus time t for the string element at $x = 0$.

T of the string element in its SHM and thus also of the wave itself. From T we can then find angular frequency ω $(= 2\pi/T)$ in Eq. 16.1.18. (3) The phase constant ϕ is set by the displacement of the string at $x = 0$ and $t = 0$.

Amplitude: From either Fig. 16.1.8*a* or 16.1.8*b* we see that the maximum displacement is 3.0 mm. Thus, the wave's amplitude $x_m = 3.0$ mm.

Wavelength: In Fig. 16.1.8*a*, the wavelength λ is the distance along the x axis between repetitions in the pattern. The easiest way to measure λ is to find the distance from one crossing point to the next crossing point where the string has the same slope. Visually we can roughly measure that distance with the scale on the axis. Instead, we can lay the edge of a paper sheet on the graph, mark those crossing points, slide the sheet to align the left-hand mark with the origin, and then read off the location of the right-hand mark. Either way we find $\lambda = 10$ mm. From Eq. 16.1.5, we then have

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \frac{2\pi}{0.010\ \text{m}} = 200\pi\ \text{rad/m}.$$

Period: The period T is the time interval that a string element's SHM takes to begin repeating itself. In Fig. 16.1.8*b*, T is the distance along the t axis from one crossing point to the next crossing point where the plot has the same slope. Measuring the distance visually or with the aid of a sheet of paper, we find $T = 20$ ms. From Eq. 16.1.8, we then have

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T} = \frac{2\pi}{0.020\ \text{s}} = 100\pi\ \text{rad/s}.$$

Direction of travel: To find the direction, we apply a bit of reasoning to the figures. In the snapshot at $t = 0$ given in Fig. 16.1.8*a*, note that if the wave is moving rightward, then just after the snapshot, the depth of the wave at $x = 0$ should increase (mentally slide the curve slightly rightward). If, instead, the wave is moving leftward, then just after the snapshot, the depth at $x = 0$ should decrease. Now let's check the graph in Fig. 16.1.8*b*. It tells us that just after $t = 0$, the depth increases. Thus, the wave is moving rightward, in the positive direction of x, and we choose the minus sign in Eq. 16.1.18.

Phase constant: The value of ϕ is set by the conditions at $x = 0$ at the instant $t = 0$. From either figure we see that at that location and time, $y = -2.0$ mm. Substituting these three values and also $y_m = 3.0$ mm into Eq. 16.1.18 gives us

$$-2.0\ \text{mm} = (3.0\ \text{mm}) \sin(0 + 0 + \phi)$$

or

$$\phi = \sin^{-1}\left(-\tfrac{2}{3}\right) = -0.73\ \text{rad}.$$

Note that this is consistent with the rule that on a plot of y versus x, a negative phase constant shifts the normal sine function rightward, which is what we see in Fig. 16.1.8*a*.

Equation: Now we can fill out Eq. 16.1.18:

$$y = (3.0\ \text{mm}) \sin(200\pi x - 100\pi t - 0.73\ \text{rad}), \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

with x in meters and t in seconds.

Sample Problem 16.1.2 Transverse velocity and transverse acceleration of a string element

A wave traveling along a string is described by

$$y(x, t) = (0.00327\text{m}) \sin(72.1x - 2.72t),$$

in which the numerical constants are in SI units (72.1 rad/m and 2.72 rad/s).

(a) What is the transverse velocity u of the string element at $x = 22.5$ cm at time $t = 18.9$ s? (This velocity, which is associated with the transverse oscillation of a string element, is parallel to the y axis. Don't confuse it with v, the constant velocity at which the wave form moves along the x axis.)

KEY IDEAS

The transverse velocity u is the rate at which the displacement y of the element is changing. In general, that displacement is given by

$$y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx - \omega t). \quad (16.1.19)$$

For an element at a certain location x, we find the rate of change of y by taking the derivative of Eq. 16.1.19 with respect to t while treating x as a constant. A derivative taken while one (or more) of the variables is treated as a constant is called a partial derivative and is represented by a symbol such as $\partial/\partial t$ rather than d/dt.

Calculations: Here we have

$$u = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = -\omega y_m \cos(kx - \omega t). \quad (16.1.20)$$

Next, substituting numerical values but suppressing the units, which are SI, we write

$$u = (-2.72)(0.00327)\cos[(72.1)(0.225) - (2.72)(18.9)]$$
$$= 0.00720\text{m/s} = 7.20\ \text{mm/s}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

Thus, at $t = 18.9$ s our string element is moving in the positive direction of y with a speed of 7.20 mm/s. (*Caution:* In evaluating the cosine function, we keep all the significant figures in the argument or the calculation can be off considerably. For example, round off the numbers to two significant figures and then see what you get for u.)

(b) What is the transverse acceleration a_y of our string element at $t = 18.9$ s?

KEY IDEA

The transverse acceleration a_y is the rate at which the element's transverse velocity is changing.

Calculations: From Eq. 16.1.20, again treating x as a constant but allowing t to vary, we find

$$a_y = \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -\omega^2 y_m \sin(kx - \omega t). \qquad (16.1.21)$$

Substituting numerical values but suppressing the units, which are SI, we have

$$\begin{aligned} a_y &= -(2.72)^2(0.00327)\sin[(72.1)(0.225) - (2.72)(18.9)] \\ &= -0.0142\,\text{m/s}^2 = -14.2\,\text{mm/s}^2. \qquad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

From part (a) we learn that at $t = 18.9$ s our string element is moving in the positive direction of y, and here we learn that it is slowing because its acceleration is in the opposite direction of u.

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16.2 WAVE SPEED ON A STRETCHED STRING

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

16.2.1 Calculate the linear density μ of a uniform string in terms of the total mass and total length.

16.2.2 Apply the relationship between wave speed v, tension τ, and linear density μ.

Key Ideas

- The speed of a wave on a stretched string is set by properties of the string, not properties of the wave such as frequency or amplitude.
- The speed of a wave on a string with tension τ and linear density μ is

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{\mu}}.$$

Wave Speed on a Stretched String

The speed of a wave is related to the wave's wavelength and frequency by Eq. 16.1.13, but *it is set by the properties of the medium*. If a wave is to travel through a medium such as water, air, steel, or a stretched string, it must cause the particles of that medium to oscillate as it passes, which requires both mass (for kinetic energy) and elasticity (for potential energy). Thus, the mass and elasticity determine how fast the wave can travel. Here, we find that dependency in two ways.

Dimensional Analysis

In dimensional analysis we carefully examine the dimensions of all the physical quantities that enter into a given situation to determine the quantities they produce. In this case, we examine mass and elasticity to find a speed v, which has the dimension of length divided by time, or LT^{-1}.

For the mass, we use the mass of a string element, which is the mass m of the string divided by the length l of the string. We call this ratio the *linear density* μ of the string. Thus, $\mu = m/l$, its dimension being mass divided by length, ML^{-1}.

You cannot send a wave along a string unless the string is under tension, which means that it has been stretched and pulled taut by forces at its two ends. The tension τ in the string is equal to the common magnitude of those two forces. As a wave travels along the string, it displaces elements of the string by causing additional stretching, with adjacent sections of string pulling on each other because of the tension. Thus, we can associate the tension in the string with the stretching (elasticity) of the string. The tension and the stretching forces it produces have the dimension of a force—namely, MLT^{-2} (from $F = ma$).

We need to combine μ (dimension ML^{-1}) and τ (dimension MLT^{-2}) to get v (dimension LT^{-1}). A little juggling of various combinations suggests

$$v = C\sqrt{\frac{\tau}{\mu}}, \tag{16.2.1}$$

in which C is a dimensionless constant that cannot be determined with dimensional analysis. In our second approach to determining wave speed, you will see that Eq. 16.2.1 is indeed correct and that $C = 1$.

Derivation from Newton's Second Law

Instead of the sinusoidal wave of Fig. 16.1.1*b*, let us consider a single symmetrical pulse such as that of Fig. 16.2.1, moving from left to right along a string with speed v. For convenience, we choose a reference frame in which the pulse remains stationary; that is, we run along with the pulse, keeping it constantly in view. In this frame, the string appears to move past us, from right to left in Fig. 16.2.1, with speed v.

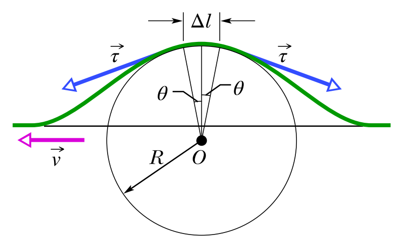

Figure 16.2.1 A symmetrical pulse, viewed from a reference frame in which the pulse is stationary and the string appears to move right to left with speed v. We find speed v by applying Newton's second law to a string element of length Δl, located at the top of the pulse.

Consider a small string element of length Δl within the pulse, an element that forms an arc of a circle of radius R and subtending an angle 2θ at the center of that circle. A force $\vec{\tau}$ with a magnitude equal to the tension in the string pulls tangentially on this element at each end. The horizontal components of these forces cancel, but the vertical components add to form a radial restoring force $\vec{F}$. In magnitude,

$$F = 2(\tau \sin \theta) \approx \tau(2\theta) = \tau\frac{\Delta l}{R} \quad \text{(force)}, \tag{16.2.2}$$

where we have approximated $\sin\theta$ as θ for the small angles θ in Fig. 16.2.1. From that figure, we have also used $2\theta = \Delta l/R$. The mass of the element is given by

$$\Delta m = \mu\,\Delta l \quad \text{(mass)}, \tag{16.2.3}$$

where μ is the string's linear density.

At the moment shown in Fig. 16.2.1, the string element Δl is moving in an arc of a circle. Thus, it has a centripetal acceleration toward the center of that circle, given by

$$a = \frac{v^2}{R} \quad \text{(acceleration)}. \tag{16.2.4}$$

Equations 16.2.2, 16.2.3, and 16.2.4 contain the elements of Newton's second law. Combining them in the form

$$\text{force} = \text{mass} \times \text{acceleration}$$

gives

$$\frac{\tau\,\Delta l}{R} = (\mu\,\Delta l)\frac{v^2}{R}.$$

Solving this equation for the speed v yields

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{\mu}} \quad \text{(speed)}, \tag{16.2.5}$$

in exact agreement with Eq. 16.2.1 if the constant C in that equation is given the value unity. Equation 16.2.5 gives the speed of the pulse in Fig. 16.2.1 and the speed of *any* other wave on the same string under the same tension.

Equation 16.2.5 tells us:

> The speed of a wave along a stretched ideal string depends only on the tension and linear density of the string and not on the frequency of the wave.

The *frequency* of the wave is fixed entirely by whatever generates the wave (for example, the person in Fig. 16.1.1*b*). The *wavelength* of the wave is then fixed by Eq. 16.1.13 in the form $\lambda = v/f$.

Checkpoint 16.2.1

You send a traveling wave along a particular string by oscillating one end. If you increase the frequency of the oscillations, do (a) the speed of the wave and (b) the wavelength of the wave increase, decrease, or remain the same? If, instead, you increase the tension in the string, do (c) the speed of the wave and (d) the wavelength of the wave increase, decrease, or remain the same?

16.3 ENERGY AND POWER OF A WAVE TRAVELING ALONG A STRING

Learning Objective

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

16.3.1 Calculate the average rate at which energy is transported by a transverse wave.

Key Idea

- The average power of, or average rate at which energy is transmitted by, a sinusoidal wave on a stretched string is given by

$$P_{avg} = \tfrac{1}{2}\mu v \omega^2 y_m^2.$$

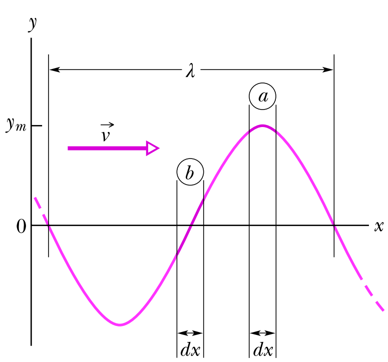

Figure 16.3.1 A snapshot of a traveling wave on a string at time $t = 0$. String element a is at displacement $y = y_m$, and string element b is at displacement $y = 0$. The kinetic energy of the string element at each position depends on the transverse velocity of the element. The potential energy depends on the amount by which the string element is stretched as the wave passes through it.

Energy and Power of a Wave Traveling Along a String

When we set up a wave on a stretched string, we provide energy for the motion of the string. As the wave moves away from us, it transports that energy as both kinetic energy and elastic potential energy. Let us consider each form in turn.

Kinetic Energy

A string element of mass dm, oscillating transversely in simple harmonic motion as the wave passes through it, has kinetic energy associated with its transverse velocity $\vec{u}$. When the element is rushing through its $y = 0$ position (element b in Fig. 16.3.1), its transverse velocity—and thus its kinetic energy—is a maximum. When the element is at its extreme position $y = y_m$ (as is element a), its transverse velocity—and thus its kinetic energy—is zero.

Elastic Potential Energy

To send a sinusoidal wave along a previously straight string, the wave must necessarily stretch the string. As a string element of length dx oscillates transversely, its length must increase and decrease in a periodic way if the string element is to fit the sinusoidal wave form. Elastic potential energy is associated with these length changes, just as for a spring.

When the string element is at its $y = y_m$ position (element a in Fig. 16.3.1), its length has its normal undisturbed value dx, so its elastic potential energy is zero.

However, when the element is rushing through its $y = 0$ position, it has maximum stretch and thus maximum elastic potential energy.

Energy Transport

The oscillating string element thus has both its maximum kinetic energy and its maximum elastic potential energy at $y = 0$. In the snapshot of Fig. 16.3.1, the regions of the string at maximum displacement have no energy, and the regions at zero displacement have maximum energy. As the wave travels along the string, forces due to the tension in the string continuously do work to transfer energy from regions with energy to regions with no energy.

As in Fig. 16.1.1*b*, let's set up a wave on a string stretched along a horizontal x axis such that Eq. 16.1.2 applies. As we oscillate one end of the string, we continuously provide energy for the motion and stretching of the string—as the string sections oscillate perpendicularly to the x axis, they have kinetic energy and elastic potential energy. As the wave moves into sections that were previously at rest, energy is transferred into those new sections. Thus, we say that the wave *transports* the energy along the string.

The Rate of Energy Transmission

The kinetic energy dK associated with a string element of mass dm is given by

$$dK = \tfrac{1}{2}\, dm\, u^2, \tag{16.3.1}$$

where u is the transverse speed of the oscillating string element. To find u, we differentiate Eq. 16.1.2 with respect to time while holding x constant:

$$u = \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} = -\omega y_m \cos(kx - \omega t). \tag{16.3.2}$$

Using this relation and putting $dm = \mu\, dx$, we rewrite Eq. 16.3.1 as

$$dK = \tfrac{1}{2}(\mu\, dx)(-\omega y_m)^2 \cos^2(kx - \omega t). \tag{16.3.3}$$

Dividing Eq. 16.3.3 by dt gives the rate at which kinetic energy passes through a string element, and thus the rate at which kinetic energy is carried along by the wave. The dx/dt that then appears on the right of Eq. 16.3.3 is the wave speed v, so

$$\frac{dK}{dt} = \tfrac{1}{2}\mu v \omega^2 y_m^2 \cos^2(kx - \omega t). \tag{16.3.4}$$

The *average* rate at which kinetic energy is transported is

$$\begin{aligned}\left(\frac{dK}{dt}\right)_{\text{avg}} &= \tfrac{1}{2}\mu v \omega^2 y_m^2 \left[\cos^2(kx - \omega t)\right]_{\text{avg}} \\ &= \tfrac{1}{4}\mu v \omega^2 y_m^2.\end{aligned} \tag{16.3.5}$$

Here we have taken the average over an integer number of wavelengths and have used the fact that the average value of the square of a cosine function over an integer number of periods is $\frac{1}{2}$.

Elastic potential energy is also carried along with the wave, and at the same average rate given by Eq. 16.3.5. Although we shall not examine the proof, you should recall that, in an oscillating system such as a pendulum or a spring–block system, the average kinetic energy and the average potential energy are equal.

The **average power,** which is the average rate at which energy of both kinds is transmitted by the wave, is then

$$P_{\text{avg}} = 2\left(\frac{dK}{dt}\right)_{\text{avg}} \tag{16.3.6}$$

or, from Eq. 16.3.5,

$$P_{\text{avg}} = \tfrac{1}{2}\mu v \omega^2 y_m^2 \quad \text{(average power).} \tag{16.3.7}$$

The factors μ and v in this equation depend on the material and tension of the string. The factors ω and y_m depend on the process that generates the wave. The dependence of the average power of a wave on the square of its amplitude and also on the square of its angular frequency is a general result, true for waves of all types.

Checkpoint 16.3.1

We send a sinusoidal wave along a string under tension, and the average transmitted power is P_1. (a) If we double the tension, what is the average transmitted power P_2 in terms of P_1? (b) Suppose, instead, that we replace the string with one having twice the density but maintain the same tension, angular frequency, and amplitude. What then is the average transmitted power P_3 in terms of P_1?

Sample Problem 16.3.1 Average power of a transverse wave

A string has linear density $\mu = 525$ g/m and is under tension $\tau = 45$ N. We send a sinusoidal wave with frequency $f = 120$ Hz and amplitude $y_m = 8.5$ mm along the string. At what average rate does the wave transport energy?

KEY IDEA

The average rate of energy transport is the average power P_{avg} as given by Eq. 16.3.7.

Calculations: To use Eq. 16.3.7, we first must calculate angular frequency ω and wave speed v. From Eq. 16.1.9,

$$\omega = 2\pi f = (2\pi)(120\text{ Hz}) = 754\text{ rad/s}.$$

From Eq. 16.2.5 we have

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{\mu}} = \sqrt{\frac{45\text{ N}}{0.525\text{ kg/m}}} = 9.26\text{ m/s}.$$

Equation 16.3.7 then yields

$$\begin{aligned} P_{avg} &= \tfrac{1}{2}\mu v \omega^2 y_m^2 \\ &= (\tfrac{1}{2})(0.525\text{ kg/m})(9.26\text{ m/s})(754\text{ rad/s})^2(0.0085\text{ m})^2 \\ &\approx 100\text{ W}. \qquad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

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16.4 THE WAVE EQUATION

Learning Objective

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

16.4.1 For the equation giving a string-element displacement as a function of position x and time t, apply the relationship between the second derivative with respect to x and the second derivative with respect to t.

Key Idea

- The general differential equation that governs the travel of waves of all types is

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{v^2}\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}.$$

Here the waves travel along an x axis and oscillate parallel to the y axis, and they move with speed v, in either the positive x direction or the negative x direction.

The Wave Equation

As a wave passes through any element on a stretched string, the element moves perpendicularly to the wave's direction of travel (we are dealing with a transverse wave). By applying Newton's second law to the element's motion, we can derive a general differential equation, called the *wave equation*, that governs the travel of waves of any type.

Figure 16.4.1a shows a snapshot of a string element of mass dm and length ℓ as a wave travels along a string of linear density μ that is stretched along a horizontal x axis. Let us assume that the wave amplitude is small so that the element can be tilted only slightly from the x axis as the wave passes. The force $\vec{F}_2$ on the right end of the element has a magnitude equal to tension τ in the string and is directed slightly upward. The force $\vec{F}_1$ on the left end of the element also has a magnitude equal to the tension τ but is directed slightly downward. Because of the slight curvature of the element, these two forces are not simply in opposite direction so that they cancel. Instead, they combine to produce a net force that causes the element to have an upward acceleration a_y. Newton's second law written for y components ($F_{\text{net},y} = ma_y$) gives us

$$F_{2y} - F_{1y} = dm\, a_y. \tag{16.4.1}$$

Let's analyze this equation in parts, first the mass dm, then the acceleration component a_y, then the individual force components F_{2y} and F_{1y}, and then finally the net force that is on the left side of Eq. 16.4.1.

Mass. The element's mass dm can be written in terms of the string's linear density μ and the element's length ℓ as $dm = \mu\ell$. Because the element can have only a slight tilt, $\ell \approx dx$ (Fig. 16.4.1a) and we have the approximation

$$dm = \mu\, dx. \tag{16.4.2}$$

Acceleration. The acceleration a_y in Eq. 16.4.1 is the second derivative of the displacement y with respect to time:

$$a_y = \frac{d^2y}{dt^2}. \tag{16.4.3}$$

Forces. Figure 16.4.1b shows that $\vec{F}_2$ is tangent to the string at the right end of the string element. Thus we can relate the components of the force to the string slope S_2 at the right end as

$$\frac{F_{2y}}{F_{2x}} = S_2. \tag{16.4.4}$$

We can also relate the components to the magnitude F_2 ($= \tau$) with

$$F_2 = \sqrt{F_{2x}^2 + F_{2y}^2}$$

or

$$\tau = \sqrt{F_{2x}^2 + F_{2y}^2}. \tag{16.4.5}$$

However, because we assume that the element is only slightly tilted, $F_{2y} \ll F_{2x}$ and therefore we can rewrite Eq. 16.4.5 as

$$\tau = F_{2x}. \tag{16.4.6}$$

Substituting this into Eq. 16.4.4 and solving for F_{2y} yield

$$F_{2y} = \tau S_2. \tag{16.4.7}$$

Similar analysis at the left end of the string element gives us

$$F_{1y} = \tau S_1. \tag{16.4.8}$$

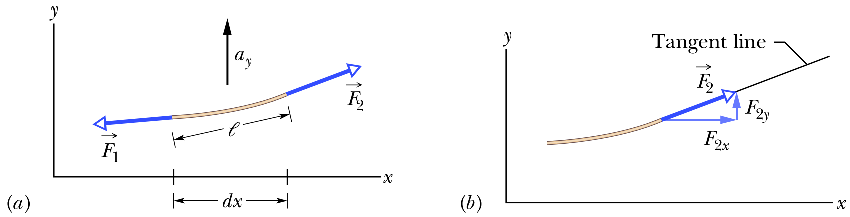

Figure 16.4.1 (a) A string element as a sinusoidal transverse wave travels on a stretched string. Forces $\vec{F}_1$ and $\vec{F}_2$ act at the left and right ends, producing acceleration $\vec{a}$ having a vertical component a_y. (b) The force at the element's right end is directed along a tangent to the element's right side.

Net Force. We can now substitute Eqs. 16.4.2, 16.4.3, 16.4.7, and 16.4.8 into Eq. 16.4.1 to write

$$\tau S_2 - \tau S_1 = (\mu\, dx)\frac{d^2y}{dt^2},$$

or

$$\frac{S_2 - S_1}{dx} = \frac{\mu}{\tau}\frac{d^2y}{dt^2}. \tag{16.4.9}$$

Because the string element is short, slopes S_2 and S_1 differ by only a differential amount dS, where S is the slope at any point:

$$S = \frac{dy}{dx}. \tag{16.4.10}$$

First replacing $S_2 - S_1$ in Eq. 16.4.9 with dS and then using Eq. 16.4.10 to substitute dy/dx for S, we find

$$\frac{dS}{dx} = \frac{\mu}{\tau}\frac{d^2y}{dt^2},$$

$$\frac{d(dy/dx)}{dx} = \frac{\mu}{\tau}\frac{d^2y}{dt^2},$$

and

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\mu}{\tau}\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}. \tag{16.4.11}$$

In the last step, we switched to the notation of partial derivatives because on the left we differentiate only with respect to x and on the right we differentiate only with respect to t. Finally, substituting from Eq. 16.2.5 ($v = \sqrt{\tau/\mu}$), we find

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{v^2}\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2} \quad \text{(wave equation)}. \tag{16.4.12}$$

This is the general differential equation that governs the travel of waves of all types.

Checkpoint 16.4.1

Is a string element at its zero displacement or its extreme displacement when (a) its curvature ($\partial^2 y/\partial x^2$) is maximum and (b) its acceleration ($\partial^2 y/\partial t^2$) is maximum?

16.5 INTERFERENCE OF WAVES

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

16.5.1 Apply the principle of superposition to show that two overlapping waves add algebraically to give a resultant (or net) wave.

16.5.2 For two transverse waves with the same amplitude and wavelength and that travel together, find the displacement equation for the resultant wave and calculate the amplitude in terms of the individual wave amplitude and the phase difference.

16.5.3 Describe how the phase difference between two transverse waves (with the same amplitude and wavelength) can result in fully constructive interference, fully destructive interference, and intermediate interference.

16.5.4 With the phase difference between two interfering waves expressed in terms of wavelengths, quickly determine the type of interference the waves have.

Key Ideas

- When two or more waves traverse the same medium, the displacement of any particle of the medium is the sum of the displacements that the individual waves would give it, an effect known as the principle of superposition for waves.
- Two sinusoidal waves on the same string exhibit interference, adding or canceling according to the principle of superposition. If the two are traveling in the same direction and have the same amplitude y_m and frequency (hence the same wavelength) but differ in phase by a phase constant ϕ, the result is a single wave with this same frequency:

$$y'(x,t) = \left[2y_m \cos \tfrac{1}{2}\phi\right] \sin (kx - \omega t + \tfrac{1}{2}\phi).$$

If $\phi = 0$, the waves are exactly in phase and their interference is fully constructive; if $\phi = \pi$ rad, they are exactly out of phase and their interference is fully destructive.

The Principle of Superposition for Waves

It often happens that two or more waves pass simultaneously through the same region. When we listen to a concert, for example, sound waves from many instruments fall simultaneously on our eardrums. The electrons in the antennas of our radio and television receivers are set in motion by the net effect of many electromagnetic waves from many different broadcasting centers. The water of a lake or harbor may be churned up by waves in the wakes of many boats.

Suppose that two waves travel simultaneously along the same stretched string. Let $y_1(x, t)$ and $y_2(x, t)$ be the displacements that the string would experience if each wave traveled alone. The displacement of the string when the waves overlap is then the algebraic sum

$$y'(x, t) = y_1(x, t) + y_2(x, t). \tag{16.5.1}$$

This summation of displacements along the string means that

> Overlapping waves algebraically add to produce a **resultant wave** (or **net wave**).

When two waves overlap, we see the resultant wave, not the individual waves.

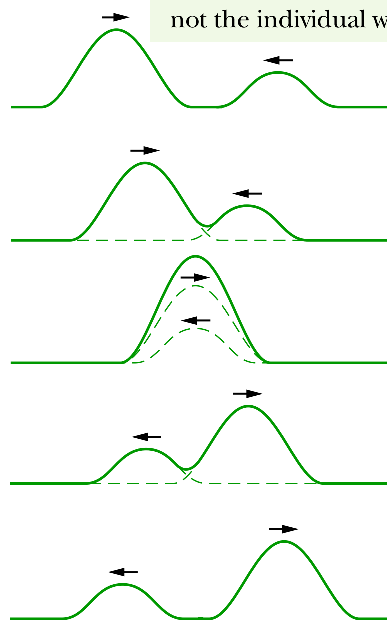

Figure 16.5.1 A series of snapshots that shows two pulses traveling in opposite directions along a stretched string. The superposition principle applies as the pulses move through each other.

This is another example of the **principle of superposition,** which says that when several effects occur simultaneously, their net effect is the sum of the individual effects. (We should be thankful that only a simple sum is needed. If two effects somehow amplified each other, the resulting nonlinear world would be very difficult to manage and understand.)

Figure 16.5.1 shows a sequence of snapshots of two pulses traveling in opposite directions on the same stretched string. When the pulses overlap, the resultant pulse is their sum. Moreover,

> Overlapping waves do not in any way alter the travel of each other.

Interference of Waves

Suppose we send two sinusoidal waves of the same wavelength and amplitude in the same direction along a stretched string. The superposition principle applies. What resultant wave does it predict for the string?

The resultant wave depends on the extent to which the waves are *in phase* (in step) with respect to each other—that is, how much one wave form is shifted from the other wave form. If the waves are exactly in phase (so that the peaks and valleys of one are exactly aligned with those of the other), they combine to double the displacement of either wave acting alone. If they are exactly out of phase (the peaks of one are exactly aligned with the valleys of the other), they combine to cancel everywhere, and the string remains straight. We call this phenomenon of combining waves **interference,** and the waves are said to **interfere.** (These terms refer only to the wave displacements; the travel of the waves is unaffected.)

Let one wave traveling along a stretched string be given by

$$y_1(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx - \omega t) \tag{16.5.2}$$

and another, shifted from the first, by

$$y_2(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx - \omega t + \phi). \tag{16.5.3}$$

These waves have the same angular frequency ω (and thus the same frequency f), the same angular wave number k (and thus the same wavelength λ), and the same amplitude y_m. They both travel in the positive direction of the x axis, with the same speed, given by Eq. 16.2.5. They differ only by a constant angle ϕ, the phase constant. These waves are said to be *out of phase* by ϕ or to have a *phase difference* of ϕ, or one wave is said to be *phase-shifted* from the other by ϕ.

From the principle of superposition (Eq. 16.5.1), the resultant wave is the algebraic sum of the two interfering waves and has displacement

$$\begin{aligned} y'(x, t) &= y_1(x, t) + y_2(x, t) \\ &= y_m \sin(kx - \omega t) + y_m \sin(kx - \omega t + \phi). \end{aligned} \tag{16.5.4}$$

In Appendix E we see that we can write the sum of the sines of two angles α and β as

$$\sin \alpha + \sin \beta = 2 \sin \tfrac{1}{2}(\alpha + \beta) \cos \tfrac{1}{2}(\alpha - \beta). \tag{16.5.5}$$

Applying this relation to Eq. 16.5.4 leads to

$$y'(x, t) = [2y_m \cos \tfrac{1}{2}\phi] \sin(kx - \omega t + \tfrac{1}{2}\phi). \tag{16.5.6}$$

$$\overbrace{y'(x,t)}^{\text{Displacement}} = \underbrace{[2y_m \cos \tfrac{1}{2}\phi]}_{\substack{\text{Magnitude}\\ \text{gives}\\ \text{amplitude}}} \underbrace{\sin(kx - \omega t + \tfrac{1}{2}\phi)}_{\substack{\text{Oscillating}\\ \text{term}}}$$

Figure 16.5.2 The resultant wave of Eq. 16.5.6, due to the interference of two sinusoidal transverse waves, is also a sinusoidal transverse wave, with an amplitude and an oscillating term.

As Fig. 16.5.2 shows, the resultant wave is also a sinusoidal wave traveling in the direction of increasing x. It is the only wave you would actually see on the string (you would *not* see the two interfering waves of Eqs. 16.5.2 and 16.5.3).

> If two sinusoidal waves of the same amplitude and wavelength travel in the *same* direction along a stretched string, they interfere to produce a resultant sinusoidal wave traveling in that direction.

The resultant wave differs from the interfering waves in two respects: (1) its phase constant is $\frac{1}{2}\phi$, and (2) its amplitude y'_m is the magnitude of the quantity in the brackets in Eq. 16.5.6:

$$y'_m = |2y_m \cos \tfrac{1}{2}\phi| \quad \text{(amplitude)}. \tag{16.5.7}$$

If $\phi = 0$ rad (or 0°), the two interfering waves are exactly in phase and Eq. 16.5.6 reduces to

$$y'(x, t) = 2y_m \sin(kx - \omega t) \quad (\phi = 0). \tag{16.5.8}$$

The two waves are shown in Fig. 16.5.3*a*, and the resultant wave is plotted in Fig. 16.5.3*d*. Note from both that plot and Eq. 16.5.8 that the amplitude of the resultant wave is twice the amplitude of either interfering wave. That is the greatest amplitude the resultant wave can have, because the cosine term in Eqs. 16.5.6 and 16.5.7 has its greatest value (unity) when $\phi = 0$. Interference that produces the greatest possible amplitude is called *fully constructive interference.*

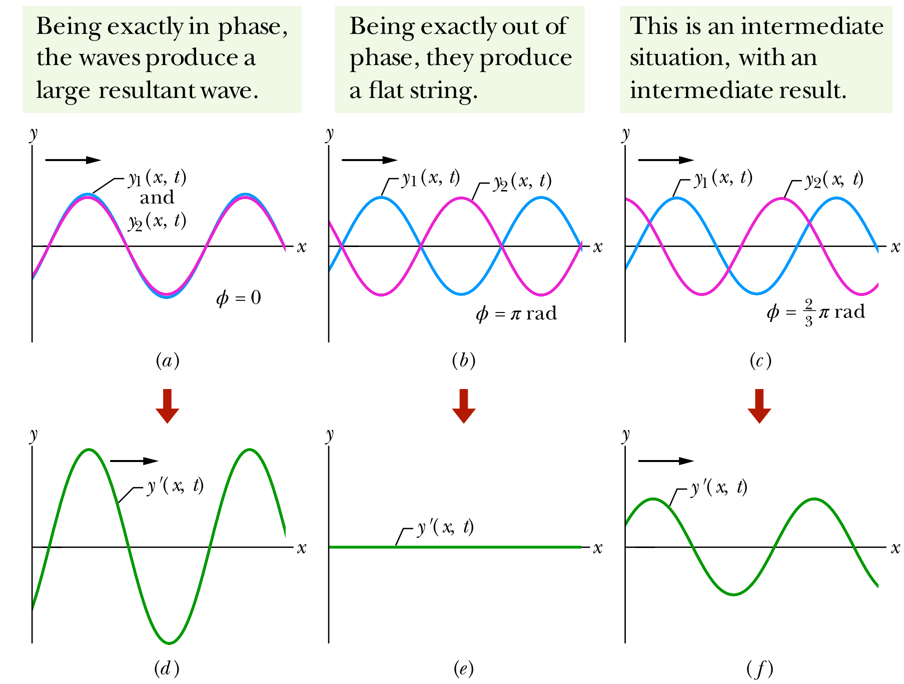

Figure 16.5.3 Two identical sinusoidal waves, $y_1(x, t)$ and $y_2(x, t)$, travel along a string in the positive direction of an x axis. They interfere to give a resultant wave $y'(x, t)$. The resultant wave is what is actually seen on the string. The phase difference ϕ between the two interfering waves is (a) 0 rad or 0°, (b) π rad or 180°, and (c) $\frac{2}{3}\pi$ rad or 120°. The corresponding resultant waves are shown in (d), (e), and (f).

If $\phi = \pi$ rad (or 180°), the interfering waves are exactly out of phase as in Fig. 16.5.3b. Then $\cos \frac{1}{2}\phi$ becomes $\cos \pi/2 = 0$, and the amplitude of the resultant wave as given by Eq. 16.5.7 is zero. We then have, for all values of x and t,

$$y'(x, t) = 0 \qquad (\phi = \pi \text{ rad}). \tag{16.5.9}$$

The resultant wave is plotted in Fig. 16.5.3e. Although we sent two waves along the string, we see no motion of the string. This type of interference is called *fully destructive interference.*

Because a sinusoidal wave repeats its shape every 2π rad, a phase difference of $\phi = 2\pi$ rad (or 360°) corresponds to a shift of one wave relative to the other wave by a distance equivalent to one wavelength. Thus, phase differences can be described in terms of wavelengths as well as angles. For example, in Fig. 16.5.3b the waves may be said to be 0.50 wavelength out of phase. Table 16.5.1

Table 16.5.1 Phase Difference and Resulting Interference Types[a]

Phase Difference, in			Amplitude of Resultant Wave	Type of Interference
Degrees	Radians	Wavelengths		
0	0	0	$2y_m$	Fully constructive
120	$\frac{2}{3}\pi$	0.33	y_m	Intermediate
180	π	0.50	0	Fully destructive
240	$\frac{4}{3}\pi$	0.67	y_m	Intermediate
360	2π	1.00	$2y_m$	Fully constructive
865	15.1	2.40	$0.60y_m$	Intermediate

[a]The phase difference is between two otherwise identical waves, with amplitude y_m, moving in the same direction.

shows some other examples of phase differences and the interference they produce. Note that when interference is neither fully constructive nor fully destructive, it is called *intermediate interference*. The amplitude of the resultant wave is then intermediate between 0 and $2y_m$. For example, from Table 16.5.1, if the interfering waves have a phase difference of 120° ($\phi = \frac{2}{3}\pi$ rad $= 0.33$ wavelength), then the resultant wave has an amplitude of y_m, the same as that of the interfering waves (see Fig. 16.5.3*c* and *f*).

Two waves with the same wavelength are in phase if their phase difference is zero or any integer number of wavelengths. Thus, the integer part of any phase difference *expressed in wavelengths* may be discarded. For example, a phase difference of 0.40 wavelength (an intermediate interference, close to fully destructive interference) is equivalent in every way to one of 2.40 wavelengths, and so the simpler of the two numbers can be used in computations. Thus, by looking at only the decimal number and comparing it to 0, 0.5, or 1.0 wavelength, you can quickly tell what type of interference two waves have.

Checkpoint 16.5.1

Here are four possible phase differences between two identical waves, expressed in wavelengths: 0.20, 0.45, 0.60, and 0.80. Rank them according to the amplitude of the resultant wave, greatest first.

Sample Problem 16.5.1 Interference of two waves, same direction, same amplitude

Two identical sinusoidal waves, moving in the same direction along a stretched string, interfere with each other. The amplitude y_m of each wave is 9.8 mm, and the phase difference ϕ between them is 100°.

(a) What is the amplitude y'_m of the resultant wave due to the interference, and what is the type of this interference?

KEY IDEA

These are identical sinusoidal waves traveling in the *same direction* along a string, so they interfere to produce a sinusoidal traveling wave.

Calculations: Because they are identical, the waves have the *same amplitude*. Thus, the amplitude y'_m of the resultant wave is given by Eq. 16.5.7:

$$y'_m = |2y_m \cos \tfrac{1}{2}\phi| = |(2)(9.8\,\text{mm}) \cos(100°/2)| = 13\ \text{mm}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

We can tell that the interference is *intermediate* in two ways. The phase difference is between 0 and 180°, and, correspondingly, the amplitude y'_m is between 0 and $2y_m$ (= 19.6 mm).

(b) What phase difference, in radians and wavelengths, will give the resultant wave an amplitude of 4.9 mm?

Calculations: Now we are given y'_m and seek ϕ. From Eq. 16.5.7,

$$y'_m = |2y_m \cos \tfrac{1}{2}\phi|,$$

we now have

$$4.9\ \text{mm} = (2)(9.8\ \text{mm}) \cos \tfrac{1}{2}\phi,$$

which gives us (with a calculator in the radian mode)

$$\phi = 2 \cos^{-1} \frac{4.9\ \text{mm}}{(2)(9.8\ \text{mm})} = \pm 2.636\ \text{rad} \approx \pm 2.6\ \text{rad}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

There are two solutions because we can obtain the same resultant wave by letting the first wave *lead* (travel ahead of) or *lag* (travel behind) the second wave by 2.6 rad. In wavelengths, the phase difference is

$$\frac{\phi}{2\pi\ \text{rad/wavelength}} = \frac{\pm 2.636\ \text{rad}}{2\pi\ \text{rad/wavelength}} = \pm 0.42\ \text{wavelength}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

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16.6 PHASORS

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

16.6.1 Using sketches, explain how a phasor can represent the oscillations of a string element as a wave travels through its location.

16.6.2 Sketch a phasor diagram for two overlapping waves traveling together on a string, indicating their amplitudes and phase difference on the sketch.

16.6.3 By using phasors, find the resultant wave of two transverse waves traveling together along a string, calculating the amplitude and phase and writing out the displacement equation, and then displaying all three phasors in a phasor diagram that shows the amplitudes, the leading or lagging, and the relative phases.

Key Idea

- A wave $y(x, t)$ can be represented with a phasor. This is a vector that has a magnitude equal to the amplitude y_m of the wave and that rotates about an origin with an angular speed equal to the angular frequency ω of the wave. The projection of the rotating phasor on a vertical axis gives the displacement y of a point along the wave's travel.

Phasors

Adding two wavesas discussed in the preceding module is strictly limited to waves with *identical* amplitudes. If we have such waves, that technique is easy enough to use, but we need a more general technique that can be applied to any waves, whether or not they have the same amplitudes. One neat way is to use phasors to represent the waves. Although this may seem bizarre at first, it is essentially a graphical technique that uses the vector addition rules of Chapter 3 instead of messy trig additions.

A **phasor** is a vector that rotates around its tail, which is pivoted at the origin of a coordinate system. The magnitude of the vector is equal to the amplitude y_m of the wave that it represents. The angular speed of the rotation is equal to the angular frequency ω of the wave. For example, the wave

$$y_1(x, t) = y_{m1} \sin(kx - \omega t) \tag{16.6.1}$$

is represented by the phasor shown in Figs. 16.6.1*a* to *d*. The magnitude of the phasor is the amplitude y_{m1} of the wave. As the phasor rotates around the origin at angular speed ω, its projection y_1 on the vertical axis varies sinusoidally, from a maximum of y_{m1} through zero to a minimum of $-y_{m1}$ and then back to y_{m1}. This variation corresponds to the sinusoidal variation in the displacement y_1 of any point along the string as the wave passes through that point. (All this is shown as an animation with voiceover in *WileyPLUS*.)

When two waves travel along the same string in the same direction, we can represent them and their resultant wave in a *phasor diagram*. The phasors in Fig. 16.6.1*e* represent the wave of Eq. 16.6.1 and a second wave given by

$$y_2(x, t) = y_{m2} \sin(kx - \omega t + \phi). \tag{16.6.2}$$

This second wave is phase-shifted from the first wave by phase constant ϕ. Because the phasors rotate at the same angular speed ω, the angle between the two phasors is always ϕ. If ϕ is a *positive* quantity, then the phasor for wave 2 *lags* the phasor for wave 1 as they rotate, as drawn in Fig. 16.6.1*e*. If ϕ is a negative quantity, then the phasor for wave 2 *leads* the phasor for wave 1.

Because waves y_1 and y_2 have the same angular wave number k and angular frequency ω, we know from Eqs. 16.5.6 and 16.5.7 that their resultant wave is of the form

$$y'(x, t) = y'_m \sin(kx - \omega t + \beta), \tag{16.6.3}$$

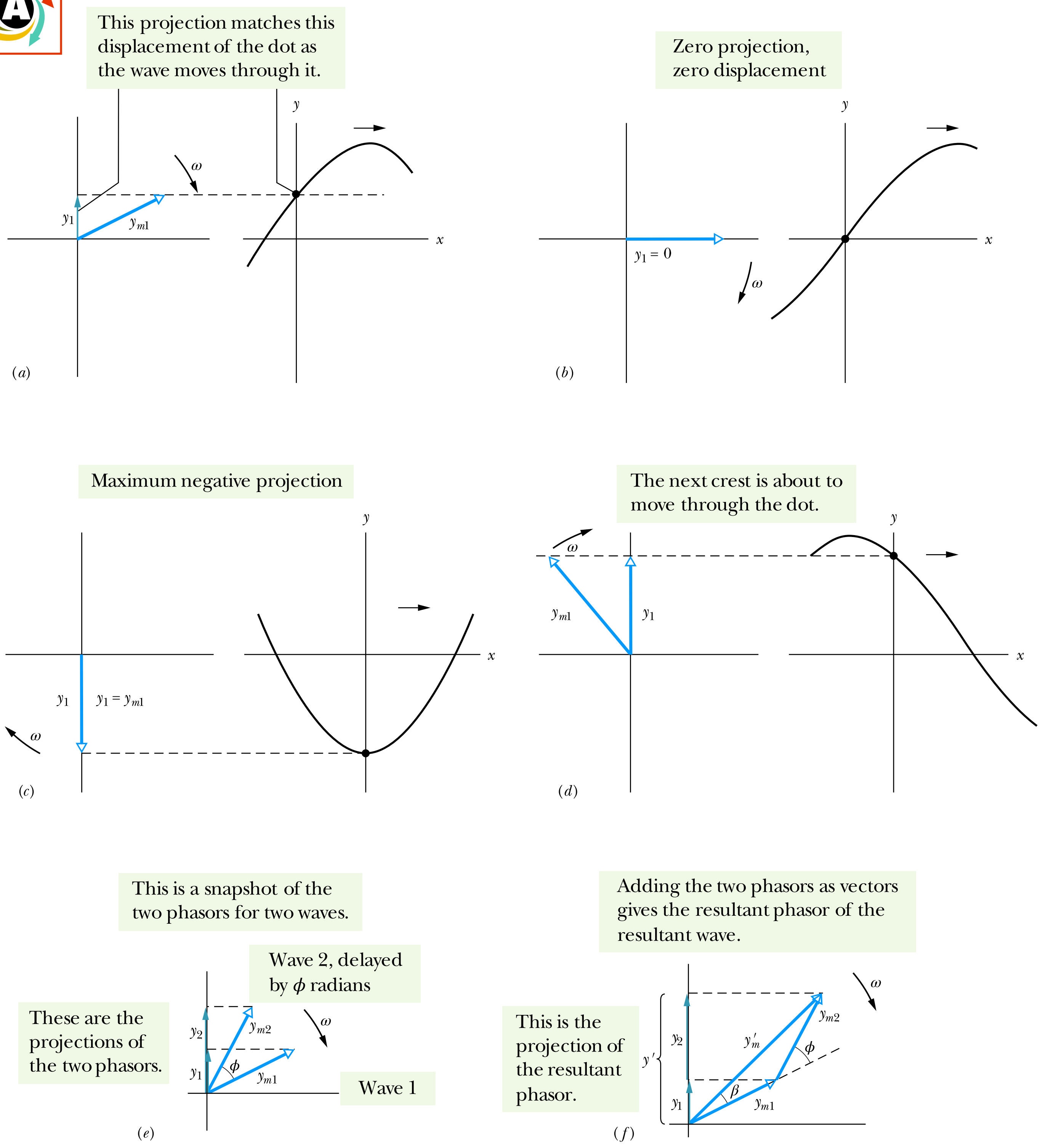

Figure 16.6.1 (*a*)–(*d*) A phasor of magnitude y_{m1} rotating about an origin at angular speed ω represents a sinusoidal wave. The phasor's projection y_1 on the vertical axis represents the displacement of a point through which the wave passes. (*e*) A second phasor, also of angular speed ω but of magnitude y_{m2} and rotating at a constant angle ϕ from the first phasor, represents a second wave, with a phase constant ϕ. (*f*) The resultant wave is represented by the vector sum y'_m of the two phasors.

where y'_m is the amplitude of the resultant wave and β is its phase constant. To find the values of y'_m and β, we would have to sum the two combining waves, as we did to obtain Eq. 16.5.6. To do this on a phasor diagram, we vectorially add the two phasors at any instant during their rotation, as in Fig. 16.6.1*f* where phasor y_{m2} has been shifted to the head of phasor y_{m1}. The magnitude of the vector sum equals the amplitude y'_m in Eq. 16.6.3. The angle between the vector sum and the phasor for y_1 equals the phase constant β in Eq. 16.6.3.

Note that, in contrast to the method of Module 16.5:

We can use phasors to combine waves *even if their amplitudes are different.*

Checkpoint 16.6.1

Here are two waves on a string:

$$y_1(x,t) = (3.00 \text{ mm}) \sin(kx - \omega t)$$
$$y_2(x,t) = (5.00 \text{ mm}) \sin(kx - \omega t + \phi).$$

Here are four choices of the phase constant ϕ.

$$\text{A: } \phi = \pi/3, \text{ B: } \phi = \pi, \text{ C: } \phi = 2\pi/3, \text{ D: } \phi = \pi/2.$$

Rank the choices according to the amplitude of the resultant wave, greatest amplitude first.

Sample Problem 16.6.1 Interference of two waves, same direction, phasors, any amplitudes

Two sinusoidal waves $y_1(x, t)$ and $y_2(x, t)$ have the same wavelength and travel together in the same direction along a string. Their amplitudes are $y_{m1} = 4.0$ mm and $y_{m2} = 3.0$ mm, and their phase constants are 0 and $\pi/3$ rad, respectively. What are the amplitude y'_m and phase constant β of the resultant wave? Write the resultant wave in the form of Eq. 16.6.3.

KEY IDEAS

(1) The two waves have a number of properties in common: Because they travel along the same string, they must have the same speed v, as set by the tension and linear density of the string according to Eq. 16.2.5. With the same wavelength λ, they have the same angular wave number k $(= 2\pi/\lambda)$. Also, because they have the same wave number k and speed v, they must have the same angular frequency ω $(= kv)$.

(2) The waves (call them waves 1 and 2) can be represented by phasors rotating at the same angular speed ω about an origin. Because the phase constant for wave 2 is *greater* than that for wave 1 by $\pi/3$, phasor 2 must *lag* phasor 1 by $\pi/3$ rad in their clockwise rotation, as shown in Fig. 16.6.2*a*. The resultant wave due to the interference of waves 1 and 2 can then be represented by a phasor that is the vector sum of phasors 1 and 2.

Calculations: To simplify the vector summation, we drew phasors 1 and 2 in Fig. 16.6.2*a* at the instant when phasor 1 lies along the horizontal axis. We then drew lagging phasor 2 at positive angle $\pi/3$ rad. In Fig. 16.6.2*b* we shifted phasor 2 so its tail is at the head of phasor 1. Then we can draw the phasor y'_m of the resultant wave from the tail of phasor 1 to the head of phasor 2. The phase constant β is the angle phasor y'_m makes with phasor 1.

To find values for y'_m and β, we can sum phasors 1 and 2 as vectors on a vector-capable calculator. However, here we shall sum them by components. (They are

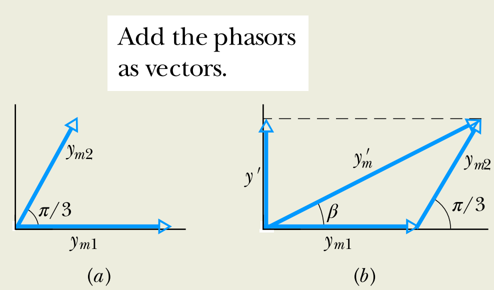

Figure 16.6.2 (*a*) Two phasors of magnitudes y_{m1} and y_{m2} and with phase difference $\pi/3$. (*b*) Vector addition of these phasors at any instant during their rotation gives the magnitude y'_m of the phasor for the resultant wave.

called horizontal and vertical components, because the symbols x and y are already used for the waves themselves.) For the horizontal components we have

$$y'_{mh} = y_{m1} \cos 0 + y_{m2} \cos \pi/3$$
$$= 4.0 \text{ mm} + (3.0 \text{ mm}) \cos \pi/3 = 5.50 \text{ mm}.$$

For the vertical components we have

$$y'_{mv} = y_{m1} \sin 0 + y_{m2} \sin \pi/3$$
$$= 0 + (3.0 \text{ mm}) \sin \pi/3 = 2.60 \text{ mm}.$$

Thus, the resultant wave has an amplitude of

$$y'_m = \sqrt{(5.50 \text{ mm})^2 + (2.60 \text{ mm})^2}$$
$$= 6.1 \text{ mm} \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

and a phase constant of

$$\beta = \tan^{-1} \frac{2.60 \text{ mm}}{5.50 \text{ mm}} = 0.44 \text{ rad.} \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

From Fig. 16.6.2*b*, phase constant β is a *positive* angle relative to phasor 1. Thus, the resultant wave *lags* wave 1 in their travel by phase constant $\beta = +0.44$ rad. From Eq. 16.6.3, we can write the resultant wave as

$$y'(x, t) = (6.1 \text{ mm}) \sin(kx - \omega t + 0.44 \text{ rad}). \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

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16.7 STANDING WAVES AND RESONANCE

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

16.7.1 For two overlapping waves (same amplitude and wavelength) that are traveling in opposite directions, sketch snapshots of the resultant wave, indicating nodes and antinodes.

16.7.2 For two overlapping waves (same amplitude and wavelength) that are traveling in opposite directions, find the displacement equation for the resultant wave and calculate the amplitude in terms of the individual wave amplitude.

16.7.3 Describe the SHM of a string element at an antinode of a standing wave.

16.7.4 For a string element at an antinode of a standing wave, write equations for the displacement, transverse velocity, and transverse acceleration as functions of time.

16.7.5 Distinguish between "hard" and "soft" reflections of string waves at a boundary.

16.7.6 Describe resonance on a string tied taut between two supports, and sketch the first several standing wave patterns, indicating nodes and antinodes.

16.7.7 In terms of string length, determine the wavelengths required for the first several harmonics on a string under tension.

16.7.8 For any given harmonic, apply the relationship between frequency, wave speed, and string length.

Key Ideas

- The interference of two identical sinusoidal waves moving in opposite directions produces standing waves. For a string with fixed ends, the standing wave is given by

$$y'(x, t) = [2y_m \sin kx] \cos \omega t.$$

Standing waves are characterized by fixed locations of zero displacement called nodes and fixed locations of maximum displacement called antinodes.

- Standing waves on a string can be set up by reflection of traveling waves from the ends of the string. If an end is fixed, it must be the position of a node. This limits the frequencies at which standing waves will occur on a given string. Each possible frequency is a resonant frequency, and the corresponding standing wave pattern is an oscillation mode. For a stretched string of length L with fixed ends, the resonant frequencies are

$$f = \frac{v}{\lambda} = n\frac{v}{2L}, \qquad \text{for } n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots.$$

The oscillation mode corresponding to $n = 1$ is called the *fundamental mode* or the *first harmonic*; the mode corresponding to $n = 2$ is the *second harmonic*; and so on.

Standing Waves

In Module 16.5, we discussed two sinusoidal waves of the same wavelength and amplitude traveling *in the same direction* along a stretched string. What if they travel in opposite directions? We can again find the resultant wave by applying the superposition principle.

Figure 16.7.1 suggests the situation graphically. It shows the two combining waves, one traveling to the left in Fig. 16.7.1*a*, the other to the right in Fig. 16.7.1*b*. Figure 16.7.1*c* shows their sum, obtained by applying the superposition principle graphically. The outstanding feature of the resultant wave is that there are places along the string, called **nodes,** where the string never moves. Four such nodes are marked by dots in Fig. 16.7.1*c*. Halfway between adjacent nodes are **antinodes,** where the amplitude of the resultant wave is a maximum. Wave patterns such as that of Fig. 16.7.1*c* are called **standing waves** because the wave patterns do not move left or right; the locations of the maxima and minima do not change.

If two sinusoidal waves of the same amplitude and wavelength travel in *opposite* directions along a stretched string, their interference with each other produces a standing wave.

To analyze a standing wave, we represent the two waves with the equations

$$y_1(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx - \omega t) \tag{16.7.1}$$

and

$$y_2(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx + \omega t). \tag{16.7.2}$$

The principle of superposition gives, for the combined wave,

$$y'(x, t) = y_1(x, t) + y_2(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx - \omega t) + y_m \sin(kx + \omega t).$$

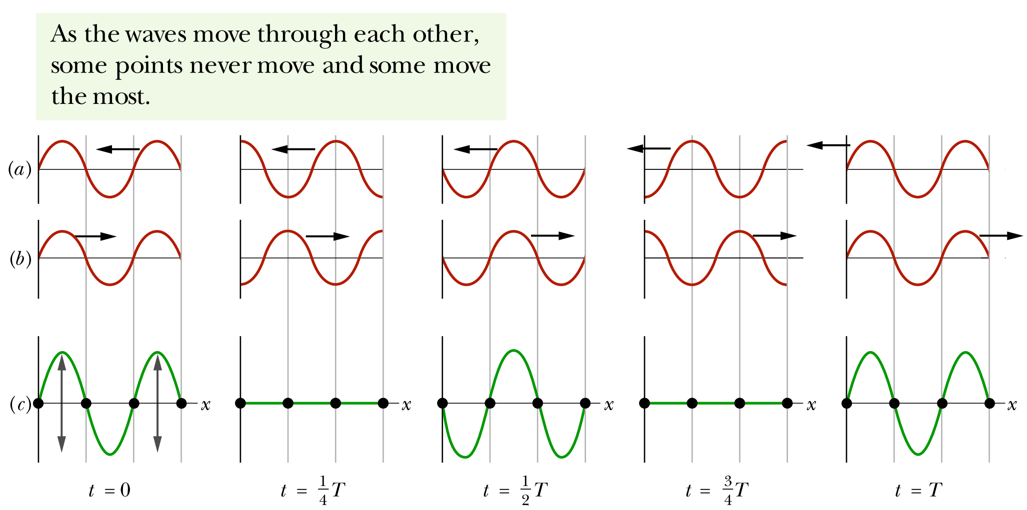
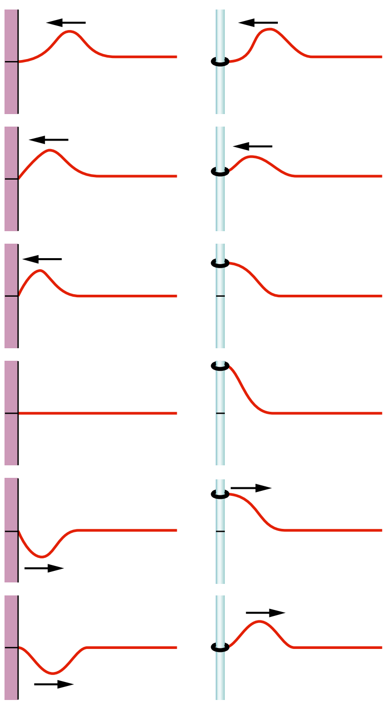


Figure 16.7.1 (*a*) Five snapshots of a wave traveling to the left, at the times t indicated below part (*c*) (T is the period of oscillation). (*b*) Five snapshots of a wave identical to that in (*a*) but traveling to the right, at the same times t. (*c*) Corresponding snapshots for the superposition of the two waves on the same string. At $t = 0, \frac{1}{2}T$, and T, fully constructive interference occurs because of the alignment of peaks with peaks and valleys with valleys. At $t = \frac{1}{4}T$ and $\frac{3}{4}T$, fully destructive interference occurs because of the alignment of peaks with valleys. Some points (the nodes, marked with dots) never oscillate; some points (the antinodes) oscillate the most.

$$\overbrace{y'(x,t)}^{\text{Displacement}} = \underbrace{[2y_m \sin kx]}_{\substack{\text{Magnitude}\\ \text{gives}\\ \text{amplitude}\\ \text{at position } x}}\underbrace{\cos \omega t}_{\substack{\text{Oscillating}\\ \text{term}}}$$

Figure 16.7.2 The resultant wave of Eq. 16.7.3 is a standing wave and is due to the interference of two sinusoidal waves of the same amplitude and wavelength that travel in opposite directions.

There are two ways a pulse can reflect from the end of a string.



(*a*) (*b*)

Figure 16.7.3 (*a*) A pulse incident from the right is reflected at the left end of the string, which is tied to a wall. Note that the reflected pulse is inverted from the incident pulse. (*b*) Here the left end of the string is tied to a ring that can slide without friction up and down the rod. Now the pulse is not inverted by the reflection.

Applying the trigonometric relation of Eq. 16.5.5 leads to Fig. 16.7.2 and

$$y'(x, t) = [2y_m \sin kx] \cos \omega t. \tag{16.7.3}$$

This equation does not describe a traveling wave because it is not of the form of Eq. 16.1.17. Instead, it describes a standing wave.

The quantity $2y_m \sin kx$ in the brackets of Eq. 16.7.3 can be viewed as the amplitude of oscillation of the string element that is located at position x. However, since an amplitude is always positive and $\sin kx$ can be negative, we take the absolute value of the quantity $2y_m \sin kx$ to be the amplitude at x.

In a traveling sinusoidal wave, the amplitude of the wave is the same for all string elements. That is not true for a standing wave, in which the amplitude *varies with position*. In the standing wave of Eq. 16.7.3, for example, the amplitude is zero for values of kx that give $\sin kx = 0$. Those values are

$$kx = n\pi, \qquad \text{for } n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots. \tag{16.7.4}$$

Substituting $k = 2\pi/\lambda$ in this equation and rearranging, we get

$$x = n\frac{\lambda}{2}, \qquad \text{for } n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots \quad \text{(nodes)}, \tag{16.7.5}$$

as the positions of zero amplitude—the nodes—for the standing wave of Eq. 16.7.3. Note that adjacent nodes are separated by $\lambda/2$, half a wavelength.

The amplitude of the standing wave of Eq. 16.7.3 has a maximum value of $2y_m$, which occurs for values of kx that give $|\sin kx| = 1$. Those values are

$$\begin{aligned} kx &= \tfrac{1}{2}\pi, \tfrac{3}{2}\pi, \tfrac{5}{2}\pi, \ldots \\ &= (n + \tfrac{1}{2})\pi, \qquad \text{for } n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots. \end{aligned} \tag{16.7.6}$$

Substituting $k = 2\pi/\lambda$ in Eq. 16.7.6 and rearranging, we get

$$x = \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right)\frac{\lambda}{2}, \qquad \text{for } n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots \quad \text{(antinodes)}, \tag{16.7.7}$$

as the positions of maximum amplitude—the antinodes—of the standing wave of Eq. 16.7.3. Antinodes are separated by $\lambda/2$ and are halfway between nodes.

Reflections at a Boundary

We can set up a standing wave in a stretched string by allowing a traveling wave to be reflected from the far end of the string so that the wave travels back through itself. The incident (original) wave and the reflected wave can then be described by Eqs. 16.7.1 and 16.7.2, respectively, and they can combine to form a pattern of standing waves.

In Fig. 16.7.3, we use a single pulse to show how such reflections take place. In Fig. 16.7.3*a*, the string is fixed at its left end. When the pulse arrives at that end, it exerts an upward force on the support (the wall). By Newton's third law, the support exerts an opposite force of equal magnitude on the string. This second force generates a pulse at the support, which travels back along the string in the direction opposite that of the incident pulse. In a "hard" reflection of this kind, there must be a node at the support because the string is fixed there. The reflected and incident pulses must have opposite signs, so as to cancel each other at that point.

In Fig. 16.7.3*b*, the left end of the string is fastened to a light ring that is free to slide without friction along a rod. When the incident pulse arrives, the ring moves up the rod. As the ring moves, it pulls on the string, stretching the string and producing a reflected pulse with the same sign and amplitude as the incident pulse. Thus, in such a "soft" reflection, the incident and reflected pulses reinforce each other, creating an antinode at the end of the string; the maximum displacement of the ring is twice the amplitude of either of these two pulses.

Checkpoint 16.7.1

Two waves with the same amplitude and wavelength interfere in three different situations to produce resultant waves with the following equations:

(1) $y'(x, t) = 4 \sin(5x - 4t)$

(2) $y'(x, t) = 4 \sin(5x) \cos(4t)$

(3) $y'(x, t) = 4 \sin(5x + 4t)$

In which situation are the two combining waves traveling (a) toward positive x, (b) toward negative x, and (c) in opposite directions?

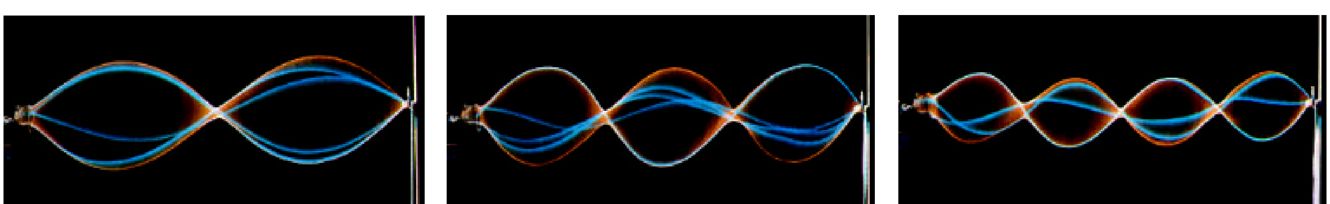
Standing Waves and Resonance

Consider a string, such as a guitar string, that is stretched between two clamps. Suppose we send a continuous sinusoidal wave of a certain frequency along the string, say, toward the right. When the wave reaches the right end, it reflects and begins to travel back to the left. That left-going wave then overlaps the wave that is still traveling to the right. When the left-going wave reaches the left end, it reflects again and the newly reflected wave begins to travel to the right, overlapping the left-going and right-going waves. In short, we very soon have many overlapping traveling waves, which interfere with one another.

For certain frequencies, the interference produces a standing wave pattern (or **oscillation mode**) with nodes and large antinodes like those in Fig. 16.7.4. Such a standing wave is said to be produced at **resonance,** and the string is said to *resonate* at these certain frequencies, called **resonant frequencies.** If the string is oscillated at some frequency other than a resonant frequency, a standing wave is not set up. Then the interference of the right-going and left-going traveling waves results in only small, temporary (perhaps even imperceptible) oscillations of the string.

Let a string be stretched between two clamps separated by a fixed distance L. To find expressions for the resonant frequencies of the string, we note that a node must exist at each of its ends, because each end is fixed and cannot oscillate. The simplest pattern that meets this key requirement is that in Fig. 16.7.5*a*, which shows the string at both its extreme displacements (one solid and one dashed, together forming a single "loop"). There is only one antinode, which is at the center of the string. Note that half a wavelength spans the length L, which we take to be the string's length. Thus, for this pattern, $\lambda/2 = L$. This condition tells us that if the left-going and right-going traveling waves are to set up this pattern by their interference, they must have the wavelength $\lambda = 2L$.

A second simple pattern meeting the requirement of nodes at the fixed ends is shown in Fig. 16.7.5*b*. This pattern has three nodes and two antinodes and is



Richard Megna/Fundamental Photographs

Richard Megna/Fundamental Photographs

Figure 16.7.4 Stroboscopic photographs reveal (imperfect) standing wave patterns on a string being made to oscillate by an oscillator at the left end. The patterns occur at certain frequencies of oscillation.

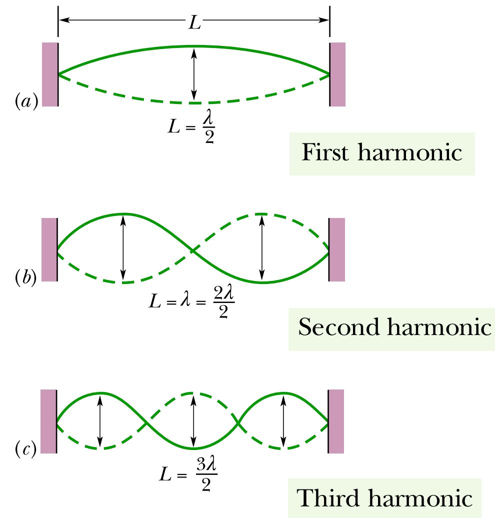


Figure 16.7.5 A string, stretched between two clamps, is made to oscillate in standing wave patterns. (*a*) The simplest possible pattern consists of one *loop,* which refers to the composite shape formed by the string in its extreme displacements (the solid and dashed lines). (*b*) The next simplest pattern has two loops. (*c*) The next has three loops.

said to be a two-loop pattern. For the left-going and right-going waves to set it up, they must have a wavelength $\lambda = L$. A third pattern is shown in Fig. 16.7.5*c*. It has four nodes, three antinodes, and three loops, and the wavelength is $\lambda = \frac{2}{3}L$. We could continue this progression by drawing increasingly more complicated patterns. In each step of the progression, the pattern would have one more node and one more antinode than the preceding step, and an additional $\lambda/2$ would be fitted into the distance L.

Thus, a standing wave can be set up on a string of length L by a wave with a wavelength equal to one of the values

$$\lambda = \frac{2L}{n}, \qquad \text{for } n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots. \tag{16.7.8}$$

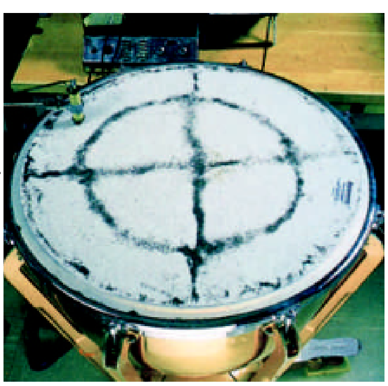
The resonant frequencies that correspond to these wavelengths follow from Eq. 16.1.13:

$$f = \frac{v}{\lambda} = n\frac{v}{2L}, \qquad \text{for } n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots. \tag{16.7.9}$$

Here v is the speed of traveling waves on the string.

Equation 16.7.9 tells us that the resonant frequencies are integer multiples of the lowest resonant frequency, $f = v/2L$, which corresponds to $n = 1$. The oscillation mode with that lowest frequency is called the *fundamental mode* or the *first harmonic.* The *second harmonic* is the oscillation mode with $n = 2$, the *third harmonic* is that with $n = 3$, and so on. The frequencies associated with these modes are often labeled f_1, f_2, f_3, and so on. The collection of all possible oscillation modes is called the **harmonic series,** and n is called the **harmonic number** of the nth harmonic.

For a given string under a given tension, each resonant frequency corresponds to a particular oscillation pattern. Thus, if the frequency is in the audible range, you can hear the shape of the string. Resonance can also occur in two dimensions (such as on the surface of the kettledrum in Fig. 16.7.6) and in three dimensions (such as in the wind-induced swaying and twisting of a tall building). FCP



Courtesy of Thomas D. Rossing, Northern Illinois University

Figure 16.7.6 One of many possible standing wave patterns for a kettledrum head, made visible by dark powder sprinkled on the drumhead. As the head is set into oscillation at a single frequency by a mechanical oscillator at the upper left of the photograph, the powder collects at the nodes, which are circles and straight lines in this two-dimensional example.

Checkpoint 16.7.2

In the following series of resonant frequencies, one frequency (lower than 400 Hz) is missing: 150, 225, 300, 375 Hz. (a) What is the missing frequency? (b) What is the frequency of the seventh harmonic?

Sample Problem 16.7.1 Electric shaver standing wave

Figure 16.7.7 shows a string of linear mass density $\mu = 3.73 \times 10^{-4}$ kg/m and length L = 30.3 cm that is pulled taut between the hand on the right and an oscillating electric shaver held in the other hand. The tension has been adjusted until the standing wave appears. The shaver oscillates at frequency f = 62.0 Hz. (a) What is the period of the string's oscillations at any point other than a node? What are (b) the wavelength and (c) the speed of the waves on the string? (d) What is the tension? You can also set up a standing wave with string attached to your cell phone. In vibration mode, it oscillates at about 160 Hz, depending on the model.

KEY IDEAS

(1) The transverse waves that produce a standing wave pattern must have a wavelength such that an integer number n of half-wavelengths fit into the string length L. (2) The frequency of those waves and of the oscillations of the string elements is given by Eq. 16.7.9 ($f = nv/2L$).

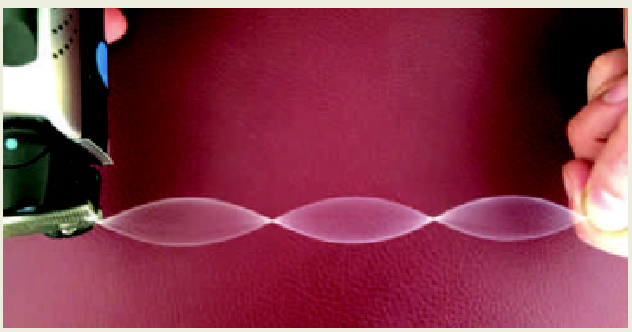


Figure 16.7.7 Standing wave produced by an oscillating electric shaver.

Calculations: (a) The period T of the string oscillations matches that of the shaver, which we can find from the frequency:

$$T = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{62.0\text{ Hz}} = 1.612 \times 10^{-2}\text{ s} \approx 16.1\text{ ms}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

(b) From the figure we see that the string is oscillating in the third harmonic, with 1.5 wavelengths in the string length L. Thus

$$\tfrac{3}{2}\lambda = L$$

$$\lambda = \tfrac{2}{3}L = \tfrac{2}{3}(30.3\text{ cm}) = 20.2\text{ cm}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

(c) We find the speed v of the waves on the string from the frequency of the third harmonic:

$$f = \frac{3v}{2L}$$

$$v = \tfrac{2}{3}Lf = \tfrac{2}{3}(30.3 \times 10^{-2}\text{ m})(62.0\text{ Hz})$$

$$= 12.52\text{ m/s} \approx 12.5\text{ m/s}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

(d) Next, we find the tension from the speed and the linear mass density:

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{\mu}}$$

$$\tau = \mu v^2 = (3.73 \times 10^{-4}\text{ kg/m})(12.52\text{ m/s})^2$$

$$= 5.85 \times 10^{-2}\text{ N}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

Review & Summary

Transverse and Longitudinal Waves Mechanical waves can exist only in material media and are governed by Newton's laws. **Transverse** mechanical waves, like those on a stretched string, are waves in which the particles of the medium oscillate perpendicular to the wave's direction of travel. Waves in which the particles of the medium oscillate parallel to the wave's direction of travel are **longitudinal** waves.

Sinusoidal Waves A sinusoidal wave moving in the positive direction of an x axis has the mathematical form

$$y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx - \omega t), \quad (16.1.2)$$

where y_m is the **amplitude** of the wave, k is the **angular wave number,** ω is the **angular frequency,** and $kx - \omega t$ is the **phase.** The **wavelength** λ is related to k by

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}. \quad (16.1.5)$$

The **period** T and **frequency** f of the wave are related to ω by

$$\frac{\omega}{2\pi} = f = \frac{1}{T}. \quad (16.1.9)$$

Finally, the **wave speed** v is related to these other parameters by

$$v = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{\lambda}{T} = \lambda f. \quad (16.1.13)$$

Equation of a Traveling Wave Any function of the form

$$y(x, t) = h(kx \pm \omega t) \quad (16.1.17)$$

can represent a **traveling wave** with a wave speed given by Eq. 16.1.13 and a wave shape given by the mathematical form of h.

The plus sign denotes a wave traveling in the negative direction of the x axis, and the minus sign a wave traveling in the positive direction.

Wave Speed on Stretched String The speed of a wave on a stretched string is set by properties of the string. The speed on a string with tension τ and linear density μ is

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{\mu}}. \qquad (16.2.5)$$

Power The **average power** of, or average rate at which energy is transmitted by, a sinusoidal wave on a stretched string is given by

$$P_{\text{avg}} = \tfrac{1}{2}\mu v \omega^2 y_m^2. \qquad (16.3.7)$$

Superposition of Waves When two or more waves traverse the same medium, the displacement of any particle of the medium is the sum of the displacements that the individual waves would give it.

Interference of Waves Two sinusoidal waves on the same string exhibit **interference,** adding or canceling according to the principle of superposition. If the two are traveling in the same direction and have the same amplitude y_m and frequency (hence the same wavelength) but differ in phase by a **phase constant** ϕ, the result is a single wave with this same frequency:

$$y'(x, t) = [2y_m \cos \tfrac{1}{2}\phi] \sin(kx - \omega t + \tfrac{1}{2}\phi). \qquad (16.5.6)$$

If $\phi = 0$, the waves are exactly in phase and their interference is fully constructive; if $\phi = \pi$ rad, they are exactly out of phase and their interference is fully destructive.

Phasors A wave $y(x, t)$ can be represented with a **phasor.** This is a vector that has a magnitude equal to the amplitude y_m of the wave and that rotates about an origin with an angular speed equal to the angular frequency ω of the wave. The projection of the rotating phasor on a vertical axis gives the displacement y of a point along the wave's travel.

Standing Waves The interference of two identical sinusoidal waves moving in opposite directions produces **standing waves.** For a string with fixed ends, the standing wave is given by

$$y'(x, t) = [2y_m \sin kx] \cos \omega t. \qquad (16.7.3)$$

Standing waves are characterized by fixed locations of zero displacement called **nodes** and fixed locations of maximum displacement called **antinodes.**

Resonance Standing waves on a string can be set up by reflection of traveling waves from the ends of the string. If an end is fixed, it must be the position of a node. This limits the frequencies at which standing waves will occur on a given string. Each possible frequency is a **resonant frequency,** and the corresponding standing wave pattern is an **oscillation mode.** For a stretched string of length L with fixed ends, the resonant frequencies are

$$f = \frac{v}{\lambda} = n\frac{v}{2L}, \quad \text{for } n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots. \qquad (16.7.9)$$

The oscillation mode corresponding to $n = 1$ is called the *fundamental mode* or the *first harmonic*; the mode corresponding to $n = 2$ is the *second harmonic*; and so on.

Questions

1 The following four waves are sent along strings with the same linear densities (x is in meters and t is in seconds). Rank the waves according to (a) their wave speed and (b) the tension in the strings along which they travel, greatest first:

(1) $y_1 = (3 \text{ mm}) \sin(x - 3t)$,
(2) $y_2 = (6 \text{ mm}) \sin(2x - t)$,
(3) $y_3 = (1 \text{ mm}) \sin(4x - t)$,
(4) $y_4 = (2 \text{ mm}) \sin(x - 2t)$.

2 In Fig. 16.1, wave 1 consists of a rectangular peak of height 4 units and width d, and a rectangular valley of depth 2 units and width d. The wave travels rightward along an x axis. Choices 2, 3, and 4 are similar waves, with the same heights, depths, and widths, that will travel leftward along that axis and through wave 1. Right-going wave 1 and one of the left-going waves will interfere as they pass through each other. With which left-going wave will the interference give, for an instant, (a) the deepest valley, (b) a flat line, and (c) a flat peak $2d$ wide?

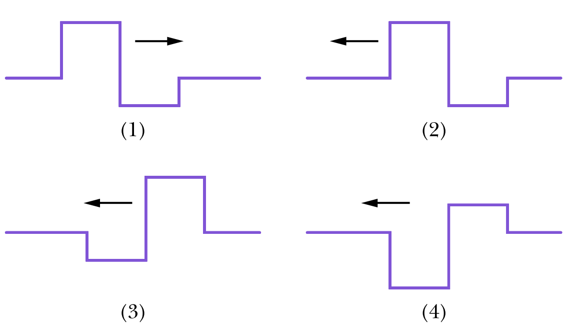


Figure 16.1 Question 2.

3 Figure 16.2a gives a snapshot of a wave traveling in the direction of positive x along a string under tension. Four string elements are indicated by the lettered points. For each of those elements, determine whether, at the instant of the snapshot, the element is moving upward or downward or is momentarily at rest. (*Hint:* Imagine the wave as it moves through the four string elements, as if you were watching a video of the wave as it traveled rightward.)

Figure 16.2b gives the displacement of a string element located at, say, $x = 0$ as a function of time. At the lettered times, is the element moving upward or downward or is it momentarily at rest?

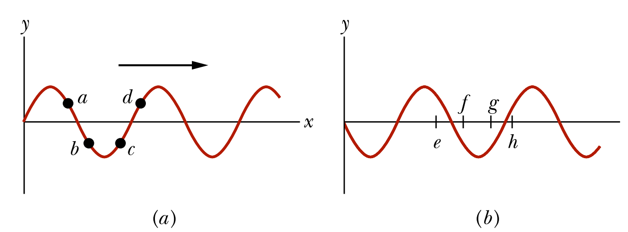


Figure 16.2 Question 3.

4 Figure 16.3 shows three waves that are *separately* sent along a string that is stretched under a certain tension along an x axis. Rank the waves according to their (a) wavelengths, (b) speeds, and (c) angular frequencies, greatest first.

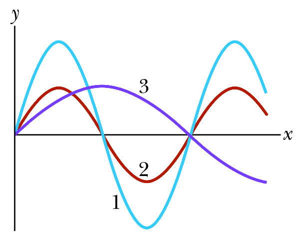


Figure 16.3 Question 4.

5 If you start with two sinusoidal waves of the same amplitude traveling in phase on a string and then somehow phase-shift one of them by 5.4 wavelengths, what type of interference will occur on the string?

6 The amplitudes and phase differences for four pairs of waves of equal wavelengths are (a) 2 mm, 6 mm, and π rad; (b) 3 mm, 5 mm, and π rad; (c) 7 mm, 9 mm, and π rad; (d) 2 mm, 2 mm, and 0 rad. Each pair travels in the same direction along the same string. Without written calculation, rank the four pairs according to the amplitude of their resultant wave, greatest first. (*Hint:* Construct phasor diagrams.)

7 A sinusoidal wave is sent along a cord under tension, transporting energy at the average rate of $P_{\text{avg},1}$. Two waves, identical to that first one, are then to be sent along the cord with a phase difference ϕ of either 0, 0.2 wavelength, or 0.5 wavelength. (a) With only mental calculation, rank those choices of ϕ according to the average rate at which the waves will transport energy, greatest first. (b) For the first choice of ϕ, what is the average rate in terms of $P_{\text{avg},1}$?

8 (a) If a standing wave on a string is given by

$$y'(t) = (3\text{ mm})\sin(5x)\cos(4t),$$

is there a node or an antinode of the oscillations of the string at $x = 0$? (b) If the standing wave is given by

$$y'(t) = (3\text{ mm})\sin(5x + \pi/2)\cos(4t),$$

is there a node or an antinode at $x = 0$?

9 Strings A and B have identical lengths and linear densities, but string B is under greater tension than string A. Figure 16.4 shows four situations, (a) through (d), in which standing wave patterns exist on the two strings. In which situations is there the possibility that strings A and B are oscillating at the same resonant frequency?

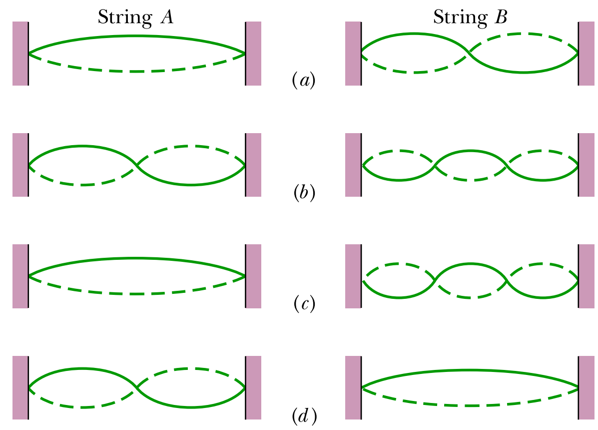


Figure 16.4 Question 9.

10 If you set up the seventh harmonic on a string, (a) how many nodes are present, and (b) is there a node, antinode, or some intermediate state at the midpoint? If you next set up the sixth harmonic, (c) is its resonant wavelength longer or shorter than that for the seventh harmonic, and (d) is the resonant frequency higher or lower?

11 Figure 16.5 shows phasor diagrams for three situations in which two waves travel along the same string. All six waves have the same amplitude. Rank the situations according to the amplitude of the net wave on the string, greatest first.

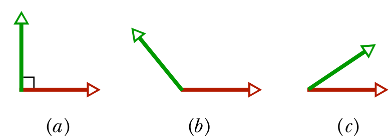


Figure 16.5 Question 11.

Problems

GO Tutoring problem available (at instructor's discretion) in *WileyPLUS*
SSM Worked-out solution available in Student Solutions Manual
E Easy **M** Medium **H** Hard
FCP Additional information available in *The Flying Circus of Physics* and at flyingcircusofphysics.com
CALC Requires calculus
BIO Biomedical application

Module 16.1 Transverse Waves

1 **E** If a wave $y(x, t) = (6.0\text{ mm})\sin(kx + (600\text{ rad/s})t + \phi)$ travels along a string, how much time does any given point on the string take to move between displacements $y = +2.0$ mm and $y = -2.0$ mm?

2 **E** **BIO** **FCP** *A human wave.* During sporting events within large, densely packed stadiums, spectators will send a wave (or pulse) around the stadium (Fig. 16.6). As the wave reaches a group of spectators, they stand with a cheer and then sit. At any instant, the width w of the wave is the distance from the leading edge (people are just about to stand) to the trailing edge (people have just sat down). Suppose a human wave travels a distance of 853 seats around a stadium in 39 s, with spectators requiring about 1.8 s to respond to the wave's passage by standing and then sitting. What are (a) the wave speed v (in seats per second) and (b) width w (in number of seats)?

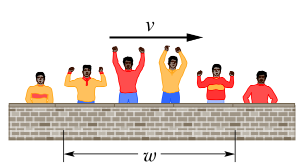


Figure 16.6 Problem 2.

3 **E** A wave has an angular frequency of 110 rad/s and a wavelength of 1.80 m. Calculate (a) the angular wave number and (b) the speed of the wave.

4 **E** **BIO** **FCP** A sand scorpion can detect the motion of a nearby beetle (its prey) by the waves the motion sends along the sand surface (Fig. 16.7). The waves are of two types: transverse waves traveling at v_t = 50 m/s and longitudinal waves traveling at v_l = 150 m/s. If a sudden motion sends out such waves, a scorpion can tell the distance of the beetle from the difference Δt in the arrival times of the waves at its leg nearest the beetle. If Δt = 4.0 ms, what is the beetle's distance?

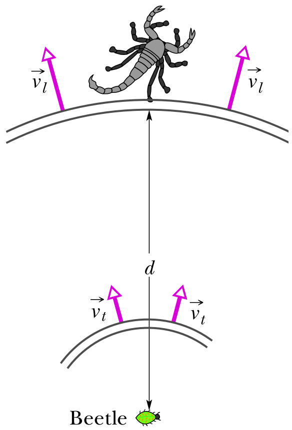


Figure 16.7 Problem 4.

5 E A sinusoidal wave travels along a string. The time for a particular point to move from maximum displacement to zero is 0.170 s. What are the (a) period and (b) frequency? (c) The wavelength is 1.40 m; what is the wave speed?

6 M CALC GO A sinusoidal wave travels along a string under tension. Figure 16.8 gives the slopes along the string at time t = 0. The scale of the x axis is set by x_s = 0.80 m. What is the amplitude of the wave?

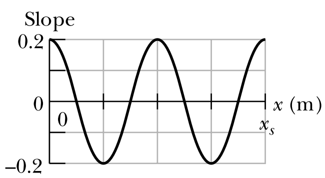


Figure 16.8 Problem 6.

7 M A transverse sinusoidal wave is moving along a string in the positive direction of an x axis with a speed of 80 m/s. At t = 0, the string particle at x = 0 has a transverse displacement of 4.0 cm from its equilibrium position and is not moving. The maximum transverse speed of the string particle at x = 0 is 16 m/s. (a) What is the frequency of the wave? (b) What is the wavelength of the wave? If $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx \pm \omega t + \phi)$ is the form of the wave equation, what are (c) y_m, (d) k, (e) ω, (f) ϕ, and (g) the correct choice of sign in front of ω?

8 M CALC GO Figure 16.9 shows the transverse velocity u versus time t of the point on a string at x = 0, as a wave passes through it. The scale on the vertical axis is set by u_s = 4.0 m/s. The wave has the generic form $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx - \omega t + \phi)$. What then is ϕ? (*Caution:* A calculator does not always give the proper inverse trig function, so check your answer by substituting it and an assumed value of ω into $y(x, t)$ and then plotting the function.)

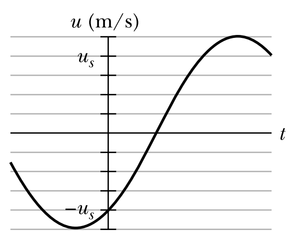


Figure 16.9 Problem 8.

9 M A sinusoidal wave moving along a string is shown twice in Fig. 16.10, as crest A travels in the positive direction of an x axis by distance d = 6.0 cm in 4.0 ms. The tick marks along the axis are separated by 10 cm; height H = 6.00 mm. The equation for the wave is in the form $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx \pm \omega t)$, so what are (a) y_m, (b) k, (c) ω, and (d) the correct choice of sign in front of ω?

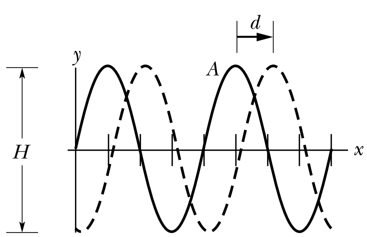


Figure 16.10 Problem 9.

10 M The equation of a transverse wave traveling along a very long string is $y = 6.0 \sin(0.020\pi x + 4.0\pi t)$, where x and y are expressed in centimeters and t is in seconds. Determine (a) the amplitude, (b) the wavelength, (c) the frequency, (d) the speed, (e) the direction of propagation of the wave, and (f) the maximum transverse speed of a particle in the string. (g) What is the transverse displacement at x = 3.5 cm when t = 0.26 s?

11 M CALC GO A sinusoidal transverse wave of wavelength 20 cm travels along a string in the positive direction of an x axis. The displacement y of the string particle at x = 0 is given in Fig. 16.11 as a function of time t. The scale of the vertical axis is set by y_s = 4.0 cm. The wave equation is to be in the form $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx \pm \omega t + \phi)$. (a) At t = 0, is a plot of y versus x in the shape of a positive sine function or a negative sine function? What are (b) y_m, (c) k, (d) ω, (e) ϕ, (f) the sign in front of ω, and (g) the speed of the wave? (h) What is the transverse velocity of the particle at x = 0 when t = 5.0 s?

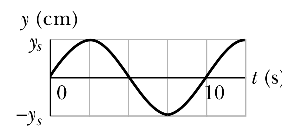


Figure 16.11 Problem 11.

12 M CALC GO The function $y(x, t) = (15.0 \text{ cm}) \cos(\pi x - 15\pi t)$, with x in meters and t in seconds, describes a wave on a taut string. What is the transverse speed for a point on the string at an instant when that point has the displacement y = +12.0 cm?

13 M A sinusoidal wave of frequency 500 Hz has a speed of 350 m/s. (a) How far apart are two points that differ in phase by $\pi/3$ rad? (b) What is the phase difference between two displacements at a certain point at times 1.00 ms apart?

Module 16.2 Wave Speed on a Stretched String

14 E The equation of a transverse wave on a string is

$$y = (2.0 \text{ mm}) \sin[(20 \text{ m}^{-1})x - (600 \text{ s}^{-1})t].$$

The tension in the string is 15 N. (a) What is the wave speed? (b) Find the linear density of this string in grams per meter.

15 E SSM A stretched string has a mass per unit length of 5.00 g/cm and a tension of 10.0 N. A sinusoidal wave on this string has an amplitude of 0.12 mm and a frequency of 100 Hz and is traveling in the negative direction of an x axis. If the wave equation is of the form $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx \pm \omega t)$, what are (a) y_m, (b) k, (c) ω, and (d) the correct choice of sign in front of ω?

16 E The speed of a transverse wave on a string is 170 m/s when the string tension is 120 N. To what value must the tension be changed to raise the wave speed to 180 m/s?

17 E The linear density of a string is 1.6×10^{-4} kg/m. A transverse wave on the string is described by the equation

$$y = (0.021 \text{ m}) \sin[(2.0 \text{ m}^{-1})x + (30 \text{ s}^{-1})t].$$

What are (a) the wave speed and (b) the tension in the string?

18 E The heaviest and lightest strings on a certain violin have linear densities of 3.0 and 0.29 g/m. What is the ratio of the diameter of the heaviest string to that of the lightest string, assuming that the strings are of the same material?

19 **E** **SSM** What is the speed of a transverse wave in a rope of length 2.00 m and mass 60.0 g under a tension of 500 N?

20 **E** The tension in a wire clamped at both ends is doubled without appreciably changing the wire's length between the clamps. What is the ratio of the new to the old wave speed for transverse waves traveling along this wire?

21 **M** A 100 g wire is held under a tension of 250 N with one end at $x = 0$ and the other at $x = 10.0$ m. At time $t = 0$, pulse 1 is sent along the wire from the end at $x = 10.0$ m. At time $t = 30.0$ ms, pulse 2 is sent along the wire from the end at $x = 0$. At what position x do the pulses begin to meet?

22 **M** A sinusoidal wave is traveling on a string with speed 40 cm/s. The displacement of the particles of the string at $x = 10$ cm varies with time according to $y = (5.0\text{ cm})\sin[1.0 - (4.0\text{ s}^{-1})t]$. The linear density of the string is 4.0 g/cm. What are (a) the frequency and (b) the wavelength of the wave? If the wave equation is of the form $y(x,t) = y_m \sin(kx \pm \omega t)$, what are (c) y_m, (d) k, (e) ω, and (f) the correct choice of sign in front of ω? (g) What is the tension in the string?

23 **M** **SSM** A sinusoidal transverse wave is traveling along a string in the negative direction of an x axis. Figure 16.12 shows a plot of the displacement as a function of position at time $t = 0$; the scale of the y axis is set by $y_s = 4.0$ cm. The string tension is 3.6 N, and its linear density is 25 g/m. Find the (a) amplitude, (b) wavelength, (c) wave speed, and (d) period of the wave. (e) Find the maximum transverse speed of a particle in the string. If the wave is of the form $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx \pm \omega t + \phi)$, what are (f) k, (g) ω, (h) ϕ, and (i) the correct choice of sign in front of ω?

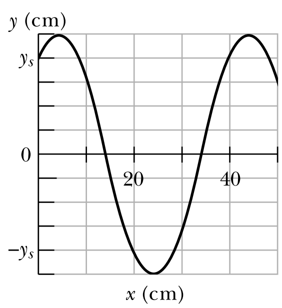


Figure 16.12 Problem 23.

24 **H** In Fig. 16.13*a*, string 1 has a linear density of 3.00 g/m, and string 2 has a linear density of 5.00 g/m. They are under tension due to the hanging block of mass $M = 500$ g. Calculate the wave speed on (a) string 1 and (b) string 2. (*Hint:* When a string loops halfway around a pulley, it pulls on the pulley with a net force that is twice the tension in the string.) Next the block is divided into two blocks (with $M_1 + M_2 = M$) and the apparatus is rearranged as shown in Fig. 16.13*b*. Find (c) M_1 and (d) M_2 such that the wave speeds in the two strings are equal.

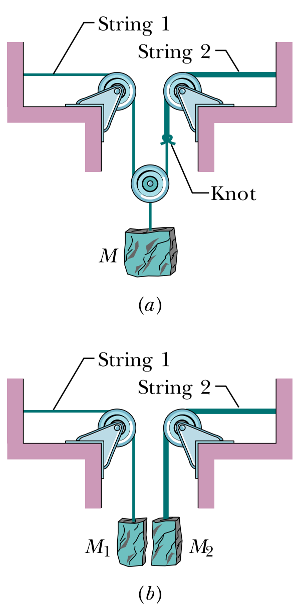


Figure 16.13 Problem 24.

25 **H** **CALC** A uniform rope of mass m and length L hangs from a ceiling. (a) Show that the speed of a transverse wave on the rope is a function of y, the distance from the lower end, and is given by $v = \sqrt{gy}$. (b) Show that the time a transverse wave takes to travel the length of the rope is given by $t = 2\sqrt{L/g}$.

Module 16.3 Energy and Power of a Wave Traveling Along a String

26 **E** A string along which waves can travel is 2.70 m long and has a mass of 260 g. The tension in the string is 36.0 N. What must be the frequency of traveling waves of amplitude 7.70 mm for the average power to be 85.0 W?

27 **M** **GO** A sinusoidal wave is sent along a string with a linear density of 2.0 g/m. As it travels, the kinetic energies of the mass elements along the string vary. Figure 16.14*a* gives the rate dK/dt at which kinetic energy passes through the string elements at a particular instant, plotted as a function of distance x along the string. Figure 16.14*b* is similar except that it gives the rate at which kinetic energy passes through a particular mass element (at a particular location), plotted as a function of time t. For both figures, the scale on the vertical (rate) axis is set by $R_s = 10$ W. What is the amplitude of the wave?

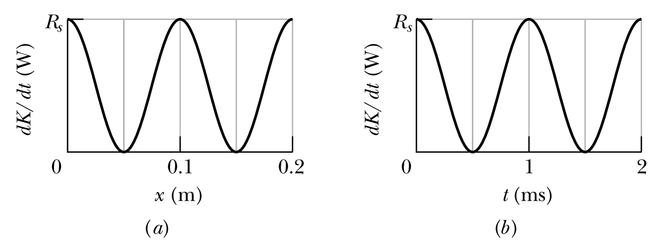


Figure 16.14 Problem 27.

Module 16.4 The Wave Equation

28 **E** Use the wave equation to find the speed of a wave given by

$$y(x, t) = (3.00\text{ mm})\sin[(4.00\text{ m}^{-1})x - (7.00\text{ s}^{-1})t].$$

29 **M** Use the wave equation to find the speed of a wave given by

$$y(x, t) = (2.00\text{ mm})[(20\text{ m}^{-1})x - (4.0\text{ s}^{-1})t]^{0.5}.$$

30 **H** Use the wave equation to find the speed of a wave given in terms of the general function $h(x, t)$:

$$y(x, t) = (4.00\text{ mm})\, h[(30\text{ m}^{-1})x + (6.0\text{ s}^{-1})t].$$

Module 16.5 Interference of Waves

31 **E** **SSM** Two identical traveling waves, moving in the same direction, are out of phase by $\pi/2$ rad. What is the amplitude of the resultant wave in terms of the common amplitude y_m of the two combining waves?

32 **E** What phase difference between two identical traveling waves, moving in the same direction along a stretched string, results in the combined wave having an amplitude 1.50 times that of the common amplitude of the two combining waves? Express your answer in (a) degrees, (b) radians, and (c) wavelengths.

33 **M** **GO** Two sinusoidal waves with the same amplitude of 9.00 mm and the same wavelength travel together along a string that is stretched along an x axis. Their resultant wave is shown twice in Fig. 16.15, as valley A travels in the negative direction of the x axis by distance $d = 56.0$ cm in 8.0 ms. The tick marks along the axis are separated by 10 cm, and height H is 8.0 mm. Let the equation for one wave be of the form $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx \pm \omega t + \phi_1)$, where $\phi_1 = 0$ and you must choose the correct sign in front of ω. For the equation for the other wave, what are (a) y_m, (b) k, (c) ω, (d) ϕ_2, and (e) the sign in front of ω?

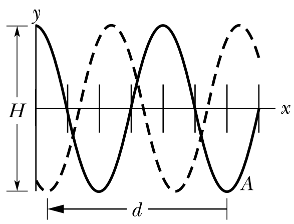


Figure 16.15 Problem 33.

34 H GO A sinusoidal wave of angular frequency 1200 rad/s and amplitude 3.00 mm is sent along a cord with linear density 2.00 g/m and tension 1200 N. (a) What is the average rate at which energy is transported by the wave to the opposite end of the cord? (b) If, simultaneously, an identical wave travels along an adjacent, identical cord, what is the total average rate at which energy is transported to the opposite ends of the two cords by the waves? If, instead, those two waves are sent along the *same* cord simultaneously, what is the total average rate at which they transport energy when their phase difference is (c) 0, (d) 0.4π rad, and (e) π rad?

Module 16.6 Phasors

35 E SSM Two sinusoidal waves of the same frequency travel in the same direction along a string. If $y_{m1} = 3.0$ cm, $y_{m2} = 4.0$ cm, $\phi_1 = 0$, and $\phi_2 = \pi/2$ rad, what is the amplitude of the resultant wave?

36 M Four waves are to be sent along the same string, in the same direction:

$$y_1(x, t) = (4.00 \text{ mm}) \sin(2\pi x - 400\pi t)$$
$$y_2(x, t) = (4.00 \text{ mm}) \sin(2\pi x - 400\pi t + 0.7\pi)$$
$$y_3(x, t) = (4.00 \text{ mm}) \sin(2\pi x - 400\pi t + \pi)$$
$$y_4(x, t) = (4.00 \text{ mm}) \sin(2\pi x - 400\pi t + 1.7\pi).$$

What is the amplitude of the resultant wave?

37 M GO These two waves travel along the same string:

$$y_1(x, t) = (4.60 \text{ mm}) \sin(2\pi x - 400\pi t)$$
$$y_2(x, t) = (5.60 \text{ mm}) \sin(2\pi x - 400\pi t + 0.80\pi \text{ rad}).$$

What are (a) the amplitude and (b) the phase angle (relative to wave 1) of the resultant wave? (c) If a third wave of amplitude 5.00 mm is also to be sent along the string in the same direction as the first two waves, what should be its phase angle in order to maximize the amplitude of the new resultant wave?

38 M Two sinusoidal waves of the same frequency are to be sent in the same direction along a taut string. One wave has an amplitude of 5.0 mm, the other 8.0 mm. (a) What phase difference ϕ_1 between the two waves results in the smallest amplitude of the resultant wave? (b) What is that smallest amplitude? (c) What phase difference ϕ_2 results in the largest amplitude of the resultant wave? (d) What is that largest amplitude? (e) What is the resultant amplitude if the phase angle is $(\phi_1 - \phi_2)/2$?

39 M Two sinusoidal waves of the same period, with amplitudes of 5.0 and 7.0 mm, travel in the same direction along a stretched string; they produce a resultant wave with an amplitude of 9.0 mm. The phase constant of the 5.0 mm wave is 0. What is the phase constant of the 7.0 mm wave?

Module 16.7 Standing Waves and Resonance

40 E Two sinusoidal waves with identical wavelengths and amplitudes travel in opposite directions along a string with a speed of 10 cm/s. If the time interval between instants when the string is flat is 0.50 s, what is the wavelength of the waves?

41 E SSM A string fixed at both ends is 8.40 m long and has a mass of 0.120 kg. It is subjected to a tension of 96.0 N and set oscillating. (a) What is the speed of the waves on the string? (b) What is the longest possible wavelength for a standing wave? (c) Give the frequency of that wave.

42 E A string under tension τ_i oscillates in the third harmonic at frequency f_3, and the waves on the string have wavelength λ_3. If the tension is increased to $\tau_f = 4\tau_i$ and the string is again made to oscillate in the third harmonic, what then are (a) the frequency of oscillation in terms of f_3 and (b) the wavelength of the waves in terms of λ_3?

43 E SSM What are (a) the lowest frequency, (b) the second lowest frequency, and (c) the third lowest frequency for standing waves on a wire that is 10.0 m long, has a mass of 100 g, and is stretched under a tension of 250 N?

44 E A 125 cm length of string has mass 2.00 g and tension 7.00 N. (a) What is the wave speed for this string? (b) What is the lowest resonant frequency of this string?

45 E SSM A string that is stretched between fixed supports separated by 75.0 cm has resonant frequencies of 420 and 315 Hz, with no intermediate resonant frequencies. What are (a) the lowest resonant frequency and (b) the wave speed?

46 E String A is stretched between two clamps separated by distance L. String B, with the same linear density and under the same tension as string A, is stretched between two clamps separated by distance $4L$. Consider the first eight harmonics of string B. For which of these eight harmonics of B (if any) does the frequency match the frequency of (a) A's first harmonic, (b) A's second harmonic, and (c) A's third harmonic?

47 E One of the harmonic frequencies for a particular string under tension is 325 Hz. The next higher harmonic frequency is 390 Hz. What harmonic frequency is next higher after the harmonic frequency 195 Hz?

48 E FCP If a transmission line in a cold climate collects ice, the increased diameter tends to cause vortex formation in a passing wind. The air pressure variations in the vortexes tend to cause the line to oscillate (*gallop*), especially if the frequency of the variations matches a resonant frequency of the line. In long lines, the resonant frequencies are so close that almost any wind speed can set up a resonant mode vigorous enough to pull down support towers or cause the line to *short out* with an adjacent line. If a transmission line has a length of 347 m, a linear density of 3.35 kg/m, and a tension of 65.2 MN, what are (a) the frequency of the fundamental mode and (b) the frequency difference between successive modes?

49 E A nylon guitar string has a linear density of 7.20 g/m and is under a tension of 150 N. The fixed supports are distance $D = 90.0$ cm apart. The string is oscillating in the standing wave pattern shown in Fig. 16.16. Calculate the (a) speed, (b) wavelength, and (c) frequency of the traveling waves whose superposition gives this standing wave.

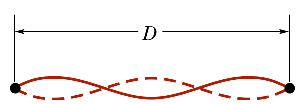


Figure 16.16 Problem 49.

50 M CALC For a particular transverse standing wave on a long string, one of the antinodes is at $x = 0$ and an adjacent node is at $x = 0.10$ m. The displacement $y(t)$ of the string particle at $x = 0$ is shown in Fig. 16.17, where the scale of the y axis is set by $y_s =$ 4.0 cm. When $t = 0.50$ s, what is the displacement of the string particle at (a) $x = 0.20$ m and (b) $x = 0.30$ m? What is the transverse velocity of the string particle at $x = 0.20$ m at (c) $t = 0.50$ s and (d) $t = 1.0$ s? (e) Sketch the standing wave at $t = 0.50$ s for the range $x = 0$ to $x = 0.40$ m.

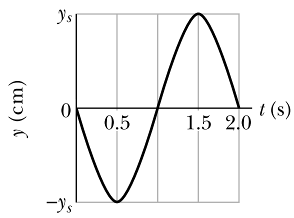


Figure 16.17 Problem 50.

51 M SSM Two waves are generated on a string of length 3.0 m to produce a three-loop standing wave with an amplitude of 1.0 cm. The wave speed is 100 m/s. Let the equation for one of the waves be of the form $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx + \omega t)$. In the equation for the other wave, what are (a) y_m, (b) k, (c) ω, and (d) the sign in front of ω?

52 M A rope, under a tension of 200 N and fixed at both ends, oscillates in a second-harmonic standing wave pattern. The displacement of the rope is given by

$$y = (0.10\text{ m})(\sin \pi x/2) \sin 12\pi t,$$

where $x = 0$ at one end of the rope, x is in meters, and t is in seconds. What are (a) the length of the rope, (b) the speed of the waves on the rope, and (c) the mass of the rope? (d) If the rope oscillates in a third-harmonic standing wave pattern, what will be the period of oscillation?

53 M A string oscillates according to the equation

$$y' = (0.50\text{ cm}) \sin\left[\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\text{cm}^{-1}\right)x\right] \cos\left[(40\pi\text{ s}^{-1})t\right].$$

What are the (a) amplitude and (b) speed of the two waves (identical except for direction of travel) whose superposition gives this oscillation? (c) What is the distance between nodes? (d) What is the transverse speed of a particle of the string at the position $x = 1.5$ cm when $t = \frac{9}{8}$ s?

54 M GO Two sinusoidal waves with the same amplitude and wavelength travel through each other along a string that is stretched along an x axis. Their resultant wave is shown twice in Fig. 16.18, as the antinode A travels from an extreme upward displacement to an extreme downward displacement in 6.0 ms. The tick marks along the axis are separated by 10 cm; height H is 1.80 cm. Let the equation for one of the two waves be of the form $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx + \omega t)$. In the equation for the other wave, what are (a) y_m, (b) k, (c) ω, and (d) the sign in front of ω?

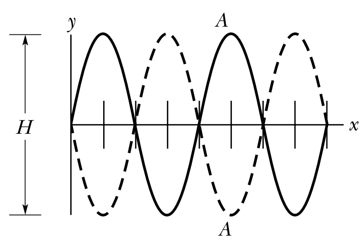


Figure 16.18 Problem 54.

55 M GO The following two waves are sent in opposite directions on a horizontal string so as to create a standing wave in a vertical plane:

$$y_1(x, t) = (6.00\text{ mm}) \sin(4.00\pi x - 400\pi t)$$
$$y_2(x, t) = (6.00\text{ mm}) \sin(4.00\pi x + 400\pi t),$$

with x in meters and t in seconds. An antinode is located at point A. In the time interval that point takes to move from maximum upward displacement to maximum downward displacement, how far does each wave move along the string?

56 M CALC A standing wave pattern on a string is described by

$$y(x, t) = 0.040 (\sin 5\pi x)(\cos 40\pi t),$$

where x and y are in meters and t is in seconds. For $x \geq 0$, what is the location of the node with the (a) smallest, (b) second smallest, and (c) third smallest value of x? (d) What is the period of the oscillatory motion of any (nonnode) point? What are the (e) speed and (f) amplitude of the two traveling waves that interfere to produce this wave? For $t \geq 0$, what are the (g) first, (h) second, and (i) third time that all points on the string have zero transverse velocity?

57 M A generator at one end of a very long string creates a wave given by

$$y = (6.0\text{ cm}) \cos\frac{\pi}{2}\left[(2.00\text{ m}^{-1})x + (8.00\text{ s}^{-1})t\right],$$

and a generator at the other end creates the wave

$$y = (6.0\text{ cm}) \cos\frac{\pi}{2}\left[(2.00\text{ m}^{-1})x - (8.00\text{ s}^{-1})t\right].$$

Calculate the (a) frequency, (b) wavelength, and (c) speed of each wave. For $x \geq 0$, what is the location of the node having the (d) smallest, (e) second smallest, and (f) third smallest value of x? For $x \geq 0$, what is the location of the antinode having the (g) smallest, (h) second smallest, and (i) third smallest value of x?

58 M GO In Fig. 16.19, a string, tied to a sinusoidal oscillator at P and running over a support at Q, is stretched by a block of mass m. Separation $L = 1.20$ m, linear density $\mu = 1.6$ g/m, and the oscillator frequency $f = 120$ Hz. The amplitude of the motion at P is small enough for that point to be considered a node. A node also exists at Q. (a) What mass m allows the oscillator to set up the fourth harmonic on the string? (b) What standing wave mode, if any, can be set up if $m = 1.00$ kg?

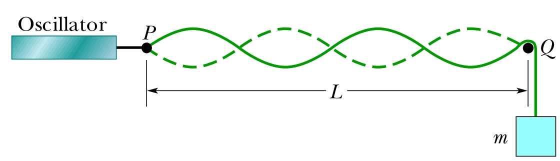


Figure 16.19 Problems 58 and 60.

59 H GO In Fig. 16.20, an aluminum wire, of length $L_1 = 60.0$ cm, cross-sectional area 1.00×10^{-2} cm^2, and density 2.60 g/cm^3, is joined to a steel wire, of density 7.80 g/cm^3 and the same cross-sectional area. The compound wire, loaded with a block of mass $m = 10.0$ kg, is arranged so that the distance L_2 from the joint to the supporting pulley is 86.6 cm.

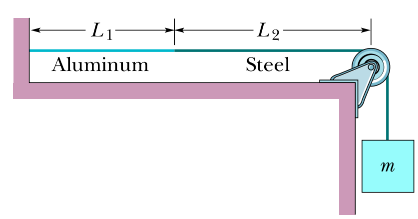


Figure 16.20 Problem 59.

Transverse waves are set up on the wire by an external source of variable frequency; a node is located at the pulley. (a) Find the lowest frequency that generates a standing wave having the joint as one of the nodes. (b) How many nodes are observed at this frequency?

60 H GO In Fig. 16.19, a string, tied to a sinusoidal oscillator at P and running over a support at Q, is stretched by a block of mass m. The separation L between P and Q is 1.20 m, and the frequency f of the oscillator is fixed at 120 Hz. The amplitude of the motion at P is small enough for that point to be considered a node. A node also exists at Q. A standing wave appears when the mass of the hanging block is 286.1 g or 447.0 g, but not for any intermediate mass. What is the linear density of the string?

Additional Problems

61 GO In an experiment on standing waves, a string 90 cm long is attached to the prong of an electrically driven tuning fork that oscillates perpendicular to the length of the string at a frequency of 60 Hz. The mass of the string is 0.044 kg. What tension must the string be under (weights are attached to the other end) if it is to oscillate in four loops?

62 A sinusoidal transverse wave traveling in the positive direction of an x axis has an amplitude of 2.0 cm, a wavelength of 10 cm, and a frequency of 400 Hz. If the wave equation is of the form $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx \pm \omega t)$, what are (a) y_m, (b) k, (c) ω, and (d) the correct choice of sign in front of ω? What are (e) the maximum transverse speed of a point on the cord and (f) the speed of the wave?

63 A wave has a speed of 240 m/s and a wavelength of 3.2 m. What are the (a) frequency and (b) period of the wave?

64 The equation of a transverse wave traveling along a string is

$$y = 0.15 \sin(0.79x - 13t),$$

in which x and y are in meters and t is in seconds. (a) What is the displacement y at $x = 2.3$ m, $t = 0.16$ s? A second wave is to be added to the first wave to produce standing waves on the string. If the second wave is of the form $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx \pm \omega t)$, what are (b) y_m, (c) k, (d) ω, and (e) the correct choice of sign in front of ω for this second wave? (f) What is the displacement of the resultant standing wave at $x = 2.3$ m, $t = 0.16$ s?

65 The equation of a transverse wave traveling along a string is

$$y = (2.0 \text{ mm}) \sin[(20 \text{ m}^{-1})x - (600 \text{ s}^{-1})t].$$

Find the (a) amplitude, (b) frequency, (c) velocity (including sign), and (d) wavelength of the wave. (e) Find the maximum transverse speed of a particle in the string.

66 CALC Figure 16.21 shows the displacement y versus time t of the point on a string at $x = 0$, as a wave passes through that point. The scale of the y axis is set by $y_s = 6.0$ mm. The wave is given by $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx - \omega t + \phi)$. What is ϕ? (*Caution:* A calculator does not always give the proper inverse trig function, so check your answer by substituting it and an assumed value of ω into $y(x, t)$ and then plotting the function.)

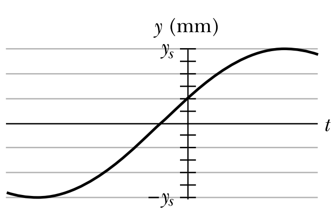


Figure 16.21 Problem 66.

67 Two sinusoidal waves, identical except for phase, travel in the same direction along a string, producing the net wave $y'(x, t) = (3.0 \text{ mm}) \sin(20x - 4.0t + 0.820 \text{ rad})$, with x in meters and t in seconds. What are (a) the wavelength λ of the two waves, (b) the phase difference between them, and (c) their amplitude y_m?

68 A single pulse, given by $h(x - 5.0t)$, is shown in Fig. 16.22 for $t = 0$. The scale of the vertical axis is set by $h_s = 2$. Here x is in centimeters and t is in seconds. What are the (a) speed and (b) direction of travel of the pulse? (c) Plot $h(x - 5t)$ as a function of x for $t = 2$ s. (d) Plot $h(x - 5t)$ as a function of t for $x = 10$ cm.

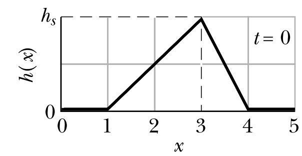


Figure 16.22 Problem 68.

69 SSM Three sinusoidal waves of the same frequency travel along a string in the positive direction of an x axis. Their amplitudes are y_1, $y_1/2$, and $y_1/3$, and their phase constants are 0, $\pi/2$, and π, respectively. What are the (a) amplitude and (b) phase constant of the resultant wave? (c) Plot the wave form of the resultant wave at $t = 0$, and discuss its behavior as t increases.

70 GO Figure 16.23 shows transverse acceleration a_y versus t of the point on a string at $x = 0$, as a wave in the form of $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx - \omega t + \phi)$ passes through that point. The scale of the vertical axis is set by $a_s = 400$ m/s². What is ϕ? (*Caution:* A calculator does not always give the proper inverse trig function, so check your answer by substituting it and an assumed value of ω into $y(x, t)$ and then plotting the function.)

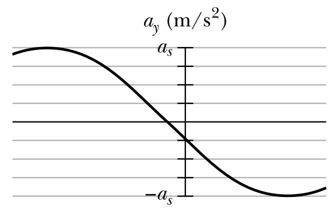


Figure 16.23 Problem 70.

71 A transverse sinusoidal wave is generated at one end of a long, horizontal string by a bar that moves up and down through a distance of 1.00 cm. The motion is continuous and is repeated regularly 120 times per second. The string has linear density 120 g/m and is kept under a tension of 90.0 N. Find the maximum value of (a) the transverse speed u and (b) the transverse component of the tension τ.

(c) Show that the two maximum values calculated above occur at the same phase values for the wave. What is the transverse displacement y of the string at these phases? (d) What is the maximum rate of energy transfer along the string? (e) What is the transverse displacement y when this maximum transfer occurs? (f) What is the minimum rate of energy transfer along the string? (g) What is the transverse displacement y when this minimum transfer occurs?

72 Two sinusoidal 120 Hz waves, of the same frequency and amplitude, are to be sent in the positive direction of an x axis that is directed along a cord under tension. The waves can be sent in phase, or they can be phase-shifted. Figure 16.24 shows the amplitude

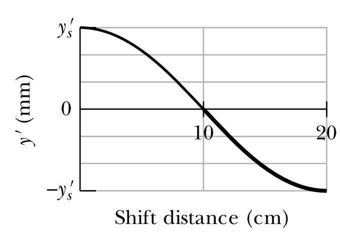


Figure 16.24 Problem 72.

y' of the resulting wave versus the distance of the shift (how far one wave is shifted from the other wave). The scale of the vertical axis is set by $y'_s = 6.0$ mm. If the equations for the two waves are of the form $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx \pm \omega t)$, what are (a) y_m, (b) k, (c) ω, and (d) the correct choice of sign in front of ω?

73 At time $t = 0$ and at position $x = 0$ m along a string, a traveling sinusoidal wave with an angular frequency of 440 rad/s has displacement $y = +4.5$ mm and transverse velocity $u = -0.75$ m/s. If the wave has the general form $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx - \omega t + \phi)$, what is phase constant ϕ?

74 Energy is transmitted at rate P_1 by a wave of frequency f_1 on a string under tension τ_1. What is the new energy transmission rate P_2 in terms of P_1 (a) if the tension is increased to $\tau_2 = 4\tau_1$ and (b) if, instead, the frequency is decreased to $f_2 = f_1/2$?

75 (a) What is the fastest transverse wave that can be sent along a steel wire? For safety reasons, the maximum tensile stress to which steel wires should be subjected is 7.00×10^8 N/m^2. The density of steel is 7800 kg/m^3. (b) Does your answer depend on the diameter of the wire?

76 A standing wave results from the sum of two transverse traveling waves given by

$$y_1 = 0.050 \cos(\pi x - 4\pi t)$$

and

$$y_2 = 0.050 \cos(\pi x + 4\pi t),$$

where x, y_1, and y_2 are in meters and t is in seconds. (a) What is the smallest positive value of x that corresponds to a node? Beginning at $t = 0$, what is the value of the (b) first, (c) second, and (d) third time the particle at $x = 0$ has zero velocity?

77 SSM The type of rubber band used inside some baseballs and golf balls obeys Hooke's law over a wide range of elongation of the band. A segment of this material has an unstretched length ℓ and a mass m. When a force F is applied, the band stretches an additional length $\Delta\ell$. (a) What is the speed (in terms of m, $\Delta\ell$, and the spring constant k) of transverse waves on this stretched rubber band? (b) Using your answer to (a), show that the time required for a transverse pulse to travel the length of the rubber band is proportional to $1/\sqrt{\Delta\ell}$, if $\Delta\ell \ll \ell$, and is constant if $\Delta\ell \gg \ell$.

78 The speed of electromagnetic waves (which include visible light, radio, and x rays) in vacuum is 3.0×10^8 m/s. (a) Wavelengths of visible light waves range from about 400 nm in the violet to about 700 nm in the red. What is the range of frequencies of these waves? (b) The range of frequencies for shortwave radio (for example, FM radio and VHF television) is 1.5 to 300 MHz. What is the corresponding wavelength range? (c) X-ray wavelengths range from about 5.0 nm to about 1.0×10^{-2} nm. What is the frequency range for x rays?

79 SSM A 1.50 m wire has a mass of 8.70 g and is under a tension of 120 N. The wire is held rigidly at both ends and set into oscillation. (a) What is the speed of waves on the wire? What is the wavelength of the waves that produce (b) one-loop and (c) two-loop standing waves? What is the frequency of the waves that produce (d) one-loop and (e) two-loop standing waves?

80 When played in a certain manner, the lowest resonant frequency of a certain violin string is concert A (440 Hz). What is the frequency of the (a) second and (b) third harmonic of the string?

81 A sinusoidal transverse wave traveling in the negative direction of an x axis has an amplitude of 1.00 cm, a frequency of 550 Hz, and a speed of 330 m/s. If the wave equation is of the form $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx \pm \omega t)$, what are (a) y_m, (b) ω, (c) k, and (d) the correct choice of sign in front of ω?

82 Two sinusoidal waves of the same wavelength travel in the same direction along a stretched string. For wave 1, $y_m = 3.0$ mm and $\phi = 0$; for wave 2, $y_m = 5.0$ mm and $\phi = 70°$. What are the (a) amplitude and (b) phase constant of the resultant wave?

83 SSM A sinusoidal transverse wave of amplitude y_m and wavelength λ travels on a stretched cord. (a) Find the ratio of the maximum particle speed (the speed with which a single particle in the cord moves transverse to the wave) to the wave speed. (b) Does this ratio depend on the material of which the cord is made?

84 Oscillation of a 600 Hz tuning fork sets up standing waves in a string clamped at both ends. The wave speed for the string is 400 m/s. The standing wave has four loops and an amplitude of 2.0 mm. (a) What is the length of the string? (b) Write an equation for the displacement of the string as a function of position and time.

85 A 120 cm length of string is stretched between fixed supports. What are the (a) longest, (b) second longest, and (c) third longest wavelength for waves traveling on the string if standing waves are to be set up? (d) Sketch those standing waves.

86 (a) Write an equation describing a sinusoidal transverse wave traveling on a cord in the positive direction of a y axis with an angular wave number of 60 cm^{-1}, a period of 0.20 s, and an amplitude of 3.0 mm. Take the transverse direction to be the z direction. (b) What is the maximum transverse speed of a point on the cord?

87 A wave on a string is described by

$$y(x, t) = 15.0 \sin(\pi x/8 - 4\pi t),$$

where x and y are in centimeters and t is in seconds. (a) What is the transverse speed for a point on the string at $x = 6.00$ cm when $t = 0.250$ s? (b) What is the maximum transverse speed of any point on the string? (c) What is the magnitude of the transverse acceleration for a point on the string at $x = 6.00$ cm when $t = 0.250$ s? (d) What is the magnitude of the maximum transverse acceleration for any point on the string?

88 FCP *Body armor.* When a high-speed projectile such as a bullet or bomb fragment strikes modern body armor, the fabric of the armor stops the projectile and prevents penetration by quickly spreading the projectile's energy over a large area. This spreading is done by longitudinal and transverse pulses that move *radially* from the impact point, where the projectile pushes a cone-shaped dent into the fabric. The longitudinal pulse, racing along the fibers of the fabric at speed v_l ahead of the denting, causes the fibers to thin and stretch, with material flowing radially inward into the dent. One such radial fiber is shown in Fig. 16.25*a*. Part of the projectile's energy goes into this motion and stretching. The transverse pulse, moving at a slower speed v_t, is due to the denting. As the projectile increases the dent's depth, the dent increases in radius, causing the material in the fibers to move in the same direction as the projectile (perpendicular to the transverse pulse's direction of travel). The rest of the projectile's energy goes into this motion. All the energy that does not eventually go into permanently deforming the fibers ends up as thermal energy.

Figure 16.25*b* is a graph of speed v versus time t for a bullet of mass 10.2 g fired from a .38 Special revolver directly into body armor. The scales of the vertical and horizontal axes are set by $v_s = 300$ m/s and $t_s = 40.0\ \mu$s. Take $v_l = 2000$ m/s, and assume that the half-angle θ of the conical dent is 60°. At the end of the collision, what are the radii of (a) the thinned region and (b) the dent (assuming that the person wearing the armor remains stationary)?

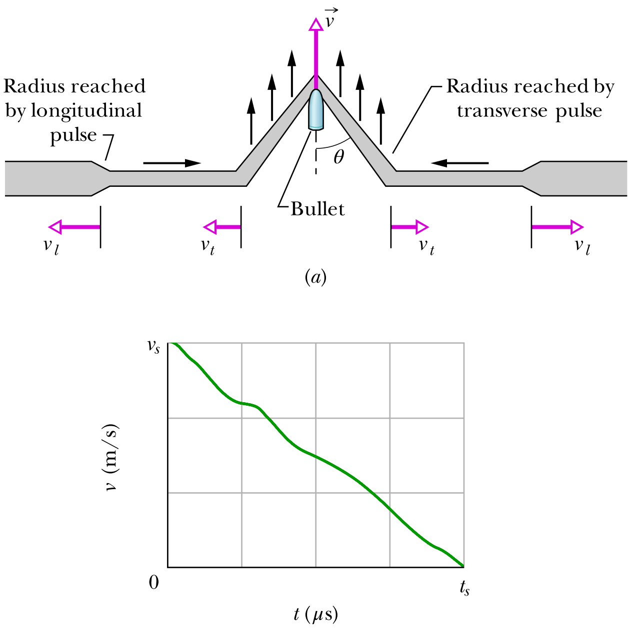


Figure 16.25 Problem 88.

89 Two waves are described by

$$y_1 = 0.30 \sin[\pi(5x - 200t)]$$

and $$y_2 = 0.30 \sin[\pi(5x - 200t) + \pi/3],$$

where y_1, y_2, and x are in meters and t is in seconds. When these two waves are combined, a traveling wave is produced. What are the (a) amplitude, (b) wave speed, and (c) wavelength of that traveling wave?

90 A certain transverse sinusoidal wave of wavelength 20 cm is moving in the positive direction of an x axis. The transverse velocity of the particle at $x = 0$ as a function of time is shown in Fig. 16.26, where the scale of the vertical axis is set by $u_s = 5.0$ cm/s. What are the (a) wave speed, (b) amplitude, and (c) frequency? (d) Sketch the wave between $x = 0$ and $x = 20$ cm at $t = 2.0$ s.

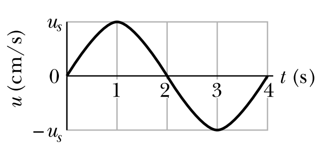


Figure 16.26 Problem 90.

91 SSM In a demonstration, a 1.2 kg horizontal rope is fixed in place at its two ends ($x = 0$ and $x = 2.0$ m) and made to oscillate up and down in the fundamental mode, at frequency 5.0 Hz. At $t = 0$, the point at $x = 1.0$ m has zero displacement and is moving upward in the positive direction of a y axis with a transverse velocity of 5.0 m/s. What are (a) the amplitude of the motion of that point and (b) the tension in the rope? (c) Write the standing wave equation for the fundamental mode.

92 Two waves,

$$y_1 = (2.50\text{ mm}) \sin[(25.1\text{ rad/m})x - (440\text{ rad/s})t]$$

and $$y_2 = (1.50\text{ mm}) \sin[(25.1\text{ rad/m})x + (440\text{ rad/s})t],$$

travel along a stretched string. (a) Plot the resultant wave as a function of t for $x = 0$, $\lambda/8$, $\lambda/4$, $3\lambda/8$, and $\lambda/2$, where λ is the wavelength. The graphs should extend from $t = 0$ to a little over one period. (b) The resultant wave is the superposition of a standing wave and a traveling wave. In which direction does the traveling wave move? (c) How can you change the original waves so the resultant wave is the superposition of standing and traveling waves with the same amplitudes as before but with the traveling wave moving in the opposite direction? Next, use your graphs to find the place at which the oscillation amplitude is (d) maximum and (e) minimum. (f) How is the maximum amplitude related to the amplitudes of the original two waves? (g) How is the minimum amplitude related to the amplitudes of the original two waves?

93 *Rock-climbing rescue.* A stranded rock climber has hooked himself onto the bottom of a rope lowered from a cliff edge by a rescuer. The rope consists of two sections connected by a knot: The lower section has length L_1 and linear density μ_1 and the upper section has length $L_2 = 2L_1$ and linear density $\mu_2 = 4\mu_1$. The climber happens to pluck the bottom end of the rope (as a "ready" signal) at the same time the rescuer plucks the top end. The mass of the rope sections is negligible compared to the mass of the climber. (a) What is the speed v_1 of the pulse in section 1 in terms of the speed v_2 of the pulse in section 2? (b) In terms of L_2, at what distance below the rescuer do the two pulses pass through each other?

94 CALC *Tightening a guitar string.* A guitar string with a linear density of 3.0 g/m and a length of 0.80 m is oscillating in the first harmonic and second harmonic as the tension is gradually increased. When the tension τ passes through the value of 150 N, what is the rate $df/d\tau$ of the frequency change for (a) the first harmonic and (b) the second harmonic?

95 CALC *Velocity u graph.* Figure 16.27 shows the transverse velocity u versus time t of the point on a string at $x = 0$, as a wave passes through it. The wave has the form $y(x, t) = y_m \sin(kx - \omega t + \phi)$. What is ϕ? (*Caution:* A calculator does not always give the proper inverse trig function, so check your answer by substituting it and an assumed value of ω into $y(x, t)$ and then plotting the function.)

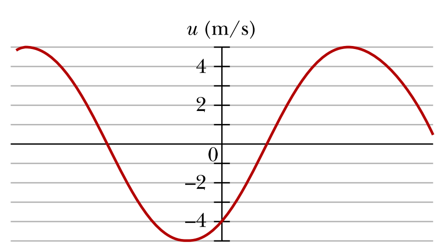


Figure 16.27 Problem 95.

96 *Ratios.* Four sinusoidal waves travel in the positive x direction along the same string. Their frequencies are in the ratio 1:2:3:4, and their amplitudes are in the ratio $1:\frac{1}{2}:\frac{1}{3}:\frac{1}{4}$, respectively. When $t = 0$, at $x = 0$, the first and third waves are 180° out of phase with the second and fourth. What wave functions satisfy these conditions?