



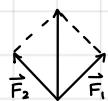
ch2: scalars & vectors

2-1: DEFINITIONS OF SCALARS AND VECTORS

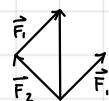
- scalars require only # + unit
- vectors require a magnitude, unit, + direction
 - ↳ to describe them, need frame of reference (convention abt what's "at rest") + coordinate system
- polar notation is used to describe 2D vector in terms of magnitude + angle it makes w/tve x-axis
 - ↳ e.g. 30 m/s [25°]
- orthogonal coordinate system has perpendicular axes
 - ↳ e.g. xyz - coordinate system
 - ↳ can be described in terms of their components
 - $v_x = v \cos \theta$
 - $v_y = v \sin \theta$
 - $v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2}$
 - $\tan \theta = \frac{v_y}{v_x}$
- scalar notation: rep of vector using components

2-2: VECTOR ADDITION

- geometric method:
 - ↳ parallelogram rule is tail-to-tail
 - ↳ triangle construction is head-to-tail



$$\Rightarrow \vec{F}_R = \vec{F}_1 + \vec{F}_2$$



- algebraic method:

$$\Rightarrow F_{Rx} = F_{1x} + F_{2x} + \dots + F_{Nx}$$

$$\Rightarrow F_{Ry} = F_{1y} + F_{2y} + \dots + F_{Ny}$$

$$\Rightarrow F_R = \sqrt{F_{Rx}^2 + F_{Ry}^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \tan \theta = \frac{F_{Ry}}{F_{Rx}}$$

- vector subtraction: $\vec{F}_1 - \vec{F}_2 = \vec{F}_1 + (-\vec{F}_2)$

2-3: CARTESIAN VECTOR NOTATION

- unit vector has dimensionless magnitude of 1
- in Cartesian notation, any 3D vector can be rep as $\vec{F} = F_x \hat{i} + F_y \hat{j} + F_z \hat{k}$
 - ↳ vector addition: $\vec{F}_R = (\sum_{a=1}^N F_{ax}) \hat{i} + (\sum_{a=1}^N F_{ay}) \hat{j} + (\sum_{a=1}^N F_{az}) \hat{k}$
 - to find unit vector in direction of given force: $\hat{u}_F = \frac{\vec{F}}{F} = \frac{F_x}{F} \hat{i} + \frac{F_y}{F} \hat{j} + \frac{F_z}{F} \hat{k}$
 - ↳ \hat{u}_F is dimensionless vector in direction of \vec{F}
 - ↳ $\vec{F} = F \hat{u}_F$
- position vector \vec{r} describes location of point in space relative to some fixed point (usually origin)
 - ↳ $\vec{r}_A = x_A \hat{i} + y_A \hat{j} + z_A \hat{k}$ for point A(x_A, y_A, z_A)
- displacement vector from A to B: $\vec{r}_{A \rightarrow B} = (x_B - x_A) \hat{i} + (y_B - y_A) \hat{j} + (z_B - z_A) \hat{k}$
 - horizontal latitude lines are parallels
 - vertical longitude lines are meridians

- coordinate direction angles are angles that vector makes w/each coordinate axis
 - denoted as α, β, γ
 - $\cos^2\alpha + \cos^2\beta + \cos^2\gamma = 1$
 - for 2D vectors, $\alpha + \beta$ are complementary (i.e. $\alpha + \beta = 90^\circ$)

2-4. DOT PRODUCT OF TWO VECTORS

- dot/scalar product used to find projection of vector onto any given axis
- $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = AB \cos\theta$
 - θ is angle btwn vectors
- properties of dot product:
 - unit is units of vectors being multiplied
 - btwn 2 \perp vectors is 0
 - greatest when vectors are parallel & smallest when antiparallel (b/c $\cos 180^\circ = -1$)
 - btwn \vec{A} & \hat{u}_B rep projection of vector \vec{A} onto direction of vector \vec{B}
 - commutative
 - distributive
 - $\vec{A} \cdot (\vec{B} + \vec{C}) = \vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} + \vec{A} \cdot \vec{C}$
 - $= AB \cos\theta_{A-B} + AC \cos\theta_{A-C}$
- Cartesian notation: $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = A_x B_x + A_y B_y + A_z B_z$
- translation of coordinate system, components (except for position vector) & magnitudes remain same
- rotation of coordinate system abt origin, components change but magnitudes remain same

2-5: CROSS PRODUCT OF VECTORS

- cross/vector product defines vector \perp to 2 given vectors
- $\vec{A} \times \vec{B} = \vec{C}$
 - $C = AB \sin\theta$
 - direction using RHR: curl fingers from \vec{A} to \vec{B} , thumb points in direction of \vec{C}
- properties of cross product:
 - unit is units of vectors being multiplied
 - magnitude is area of parallelogram w/ \vec{A} & \vec{B} as its side
 - btwn parallel & antiparallel vectors is 0 (b/c $\sin 0^\circ = \sin 180^\circ = 0$)
 - greatest when vectors are \perp
 - anticommutative
 - $\vec{A} \times \vec{B} = -\vec{B} \times \vec{A}$
 - can be multiplied by scalar
 - $a(\vec{A} \times \vec{B}) = (a\vec{A}) \times \vec{B} = \vec{A} \times (a\vec{B})$
 - $|a(\vec{A} \times \vec{B})| = aAB \sin\theta$
 - $\vec{A} \times (\vec{B} + \vec{C}) = \vec{A} \times \vec{B} + \vec{A} \times \vec{C}$
- Cartesian notation: $\vec{A} \times \vec{B} = (x_A \hat{i} + y_A \hat{j} + z_A \hat{k}) \times (x_B \hat{i} + y_B \hat{j} + z_B \hat{k})$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x_A \\ y_A \\ z_A \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} x_B \\ y_B \\ z_B \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} y_A z_B - z_A y_B \\ z_A x_B - x_A z_B \\ x_A y_B - y_A x_B \end{bmatrix}$$

ch 3: motion in 1D

3-1: DISTANCE AND DISPLACEMENT

- displacement is vector connecting object's initial & final positions
 - $\Delta \vec{x} = \vec{x} - \vec{x}_0$ [$\Delta x = m$]
 - SI units are m
 - straight-line path btwn endpoints of trajectory (path in space followed by moving object)
- distance is path length covered by object
 - $d = \sum_i |\Delta x_i|$

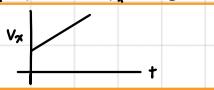
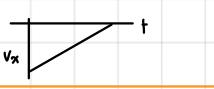
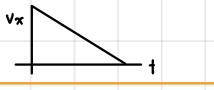
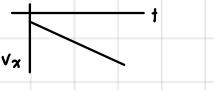
3-2: SPEED AND VELOCITY

NOTE: $\frac{\frac{m}{s} \times 3.6}{\frac{km}{h}} = \frac{\frac{m}{s} \times 3.6}{\frac{m}{h}}$

- speed is scalar quantity describing how fast object is moving
- velocity is vector indicating both how fast & direction of motion
- average speed $v_{avg} = \frac{d}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta x}{t - t_0}$ [$v_{avg} = \frac{m}{s}$]
- average velocity: $\vec{v}_{avg} = \frac{\Delta \vec{x}}{\Delta t}$ [$\vec{v}_{avg} = \frac{m}{s}$]
- slope of chord btwn 2 points on position vs time plot
- instantaneous velocity is derivative of position wrt time
 - $v_x(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} v_{x,avg} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{dx(t)}{dt} = x'(t)$
 - instantaneous speed is magnitude of instantaneous velocity

3-3: ACCELERATION

- average acceleration is $a_{x,avg} = \frac{\Delta v_x}{\Delta t} = \frac{v_x - v_{x,0}}{t - t_0}$ [$a = \frac{m}{s^2}$]
- slope of chord btwn 2 points on velocity vs time graph
- can be non-zero w/ constant speed b/c direction can change
- instantaneous acceleration is derivative of velocity wrt time
 - $a_x = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta v_x(t)}{\Delta t} = \frac{dv_x(t)}{dt} = v_x'(t)$
 - second derivative of position wrt time : $a_x = v_x'(t) = x''(t)$
- Description of motion

	v_x	a_x	v_x when $a_x = \text{const}$
Speeding up in +ve x -dir	+	+	
Slowing down in -ve x -dir	-	+	
Slowing down in +ve x -dir	+	-	
Speeding up in -ve x -dir	-	-	

- object is in free fall if gravity is only force acting on object
 - experiences gravitational acceleration \vec{g}
 - avg value of g (i.e. magnitude of \vec{g}) is 9.81 m/s^2

3-4. MATHEMATICAL DESCRIPTION OF 1D MOTION WITH CONSTANT ACCELERATION

if object has constant acceleration, $a_{x,\text{avg}} = a_x$

$$\vec{v}_2 = \vec{v}_1 + \vec{a} \Delta t$$

$$\vec{v}_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2}{2}$$

$$x_2 = x_1 + \vec{v}_1 \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} \vec{a} (\Delta t)^2$$

$$\vec{v}_2^2 = \vec{v}_1^2 + 2 \vec{a} \Delta x$$

$$x_2 - x_1 = \left(\frac{\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2}{2} \right) \Delta t$$

when \vec{a} is constant

3-5: ANALYZING RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN $x(t)$, $v(t)$, AND $a(t)$ PLOTS

$x(t)$ is integral of $v(t)$ which is integral of $a(t)$

$$a = \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}$$

3-6: FREE FALL

free fall means object is only acted upon by force of gravity

sign for acceleration in free fall motion depends on choice of coordination system

3-7: RELATIVE MOTION IN 1D

a frame of reference consists of coordinate system that includes position of origin, direction of axes, & units of measurement

↳ include spatial (e.g. x, y, z) & temporal (e.g. t) coordinates

$$\vec{v}_{1,2} = \vec{v}_{1g} - \vec{v}_{2g}$$

↳ velocity of object 1 relative to object 2

relative positions & displacements:

$$x_{1,2} = x_{1g} - x_{2g}$$

$$\Delta x_{1,2} = \vec{v}_{1,2} \Delta t = (\vec{v}_{1g} - \vec{v}_{2g}) \Delta t = \Delta x_{1g} - \Delta x_{2g}$$

$$\text{relative acceleration } \vec{a}_{1,2} = \frac{\vec{v}_{1,2}}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta x_{1g}}{\Delta t} - \frac{\Delta x_{2g}}{\Delta t} = \vec{a}_{1g} - \vec{a}_{2g}$$

$$\vec{v}_{1,2} = -\vec{v}_{2,1}$$

acceleration due to gravity makes no contribution to relative quantities if acting on both objects

3-8: CALCULUS OF KINEMATICS

$$\vec{v}(t) = \vec{v}_0 + \int_0^t \vec{a}(t) dt$$

$$x(t) = x_0 + \int_0^t \vec{v}(t) dt = x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t (\vec{a}(t) t + \vec{v}_0) dt$$

ch 4: motion in 2D & 3D

4-1: POSITION, VELOCITY, AND ACCELERATION

- position vector is $\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$
- displacement is $\vec{\Delta r} = \vec{r}_2 - \vec{r}_1$
 $= (x_2 - x_1)\hat{i} + (y_2 - y_1)\hat{j} + (z_2 - z_1)\hat{k}$
- average velocity is $\vec{v}_{avg} = \frac{\vec{\Delta r}}{\Delta t}$
↳ vector is parallel to $\vec{\Delta r}$ vector
- instantaneous velocity is $\vec{v} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\vec{\Delta r}}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}$
 $= \frac{dx}{dt}\hat{i} + \frac{dy}{dt}\hat{j} + \frac{dz}{dt}\hat{k}$
- average acceleration is $\vec{a}_{avg} = \frac{\vec{\Delta v}}{\Delta t}$
 $\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\vec{\Delta v}}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt}$
- instantaneous acceleration is $\vec{a} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\vec{\Delta v}}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt}$
- acceleration can result in either speed or direction of velocity changing

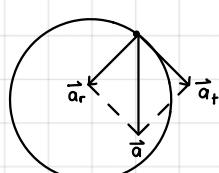
4-2: PROJECTILE MOTION

- for an object that experiences constant acceleration, the motion occurs in a plane
- in component form: $x_2\hat{i} + y_2\hat{j} = x_1\hat{i} + y_1\hat{j} + (\vec{v}_{ix}\hat{i} + \vec{v}_{iy}\hat{j})\Delta t - \frac{1}{2}g(\Delta t)^2\hat{j}$
↳ $\vec{x}_2 = \vec{x}_1 + \vec{v}_{ix}\Delta t$
↳ $\vec{y}_2 = \vec{y}_1 + \vec{v}_{iy}\Delta t - \frac{1}{2}g(\Delta t)^2$
↳ $\vec{v}_{2x} = \vec{v}_{1x}$
° velocity is constant in x -dir
↳ $\vec{v}_{2y} = \vec{v}_{1y} - g\Delta t$

4-3: CIRCULAR MOTION

- object moving w/uniform circular motion moves along circular path of fixed radius at constant speed
- at every point on circle, velocity of object is tangent to circle $\nparallel \perp$ to position vector
- avg acceleration is $\vec{a}_{avg} = \frac{\vec{\Delta v}}{\Delta t}$
↳ parallel to \vec{v}
- both $\vec{\Delta v}$ & \vec{a}_{avg} are \perp to \vec{r}
- objects experience radial acceleration, which means continuous acceleration toward centre of circle
 $a_r = \frac{v^2}{r}$
↳ period is $T = \frac{2\pi r}{v}$

- tangential acceleration, \vec{a}_t , is when speed changes as object travels in circle
- total acceleration is vector sum: $\vec{a} = \vec{a}_r + \vec{a}_t$
- \vec{a}_r is always \perp to \vec{r}
↳ total acceleration magnitude: $a = \sqrt{\vec{a}_t^2 + \vec{a}_r^2}$



4-4: RELATIVE MOTION IN 2D AND 3D

- relative motion compares results of 2 observers who move at a constant velocity wrt each other
- in notation used, 1st subscript is object being observed & 2nd subscript is ref frame in which it's

being observed in

if there's a particle P being observed by 2 observers ; one's in ref frame A + other in ref frame B

$$\hookrightarrow \vec{v}_{PA} = \vec{v}_{PB} + \vec{v}_{BA}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \vec{v}_{AB} = - \vec{v}_{BA}$$

for relative acceleration :

$$\hookrightarrow \frac{d\vec{v}_{PA}}{dt} = \frac{d\vec{v}_{PB}}{dt} + \frac{d\vec{v}_{BA}}{dt}$$

$$\vec{a}_{PA} = \vec{a}_{PB} \text{ since } \frac{d\vec{v}_{BA}}{dt} = \vec{a}_{BA} = 0$$

ch 5: forces & motion

DYNAMICS AND FORCES

SI unit of force is newton (N)

$$\hookrightarrow 1 \text{ N} = 1 \frac{\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}}{\text{s}^2}$$

- net force is resultant when all forces on an object are added as vectors
- FBD is core tool where object is rep by a point & all forces acting on it are drawn as vectors starting on that point

MASS AND FORCE OF GRAVITY

- attractive gravitational force is $\vec{F}_g = mg$

↳ m is mass of object

↳ \vec{g} is acceleration due to gravity ($-9.81 \text{ m/s}^2 [\uparrow]$)

- gravitational force is sometimes referred to weight

NEWTON'S LAWS OF MOTION

- Newton's 1st law: if no net force is exerted on an object, the object's velocity won't change

↳ law of inertia

- Newton's 2nd law: acceleration of a mass is proportional to net applied force & inversely proportional to mass

$$\hookrightarrow \vec{F}_{\text{net}} = m\vec{a}$$

- inertia refers to object's resistance to being accelerated

↳ quantitative measure is mass

◦ requires large force to produce same acceleration

- inertial mass is defined by force required to produce a certain acceleration

Newton's 3rd law: if object 1 exerts force \vec{F}_{12} on object 2, then object 2 will exert force \vec{F}_{21} on object 1 that's equal in magnitude & opposite in direction

$$\hookrightarrow \vec{F}_{21} = -\vec{F}_{12}$$

↳ true whether or not motion is involved

APPLYING NEWTON'S LAWS

- normal force is \perp to a surface

$$\hookrightarrow \vec{F}_N \text{ or } \vec{N}$$

- tension force is being exerted rope/wire is being used to pull an object

$$\hookrightarrow \vec{F}_T \text{ or } \vec{T}$$

- to solve Newton's 2nd law problems:

↳ identify object & all of forces that act on object

↳ draw an FBD

↳ decide on orientation of the axes

◦ acceleration direction is usually along one of the axes

↳ define +ve direction

↳ divide forces into components

↳ write $\sum \vec{F} = m\vec{a}$ for each axis direction

↳ simultaneously solve equations

◦ clearly state & interpret directions

- if objects are joined by ideal ropes, accelerations must have same magnitude
 - ↳ if ideal + massless, tension will also have same magnitude
- when pulleys have multiple complex rope connections, can't all parts have same acceleration magnitude
- when multiple objects are connected, simplify by drawing FBD for composite total object

FRICITION

- static friction is friction that acts btwn objects not moving relative to each other
- max force of static friction btwn 2 surfaces is directly proportional to normal force btwn 2 surfaces:

$$f_s^{\max} = \mu_s N$$
 - ↳ μ_s is coeff of static friction (unitless b/c it's ratio)
 - ↳ $0 \leq f_s \leq f_s^{\max}$
- \vec{f}_s is in direction to oppose tendency to move
- force of friction decreases when object starts moving
- kinetic friction is friction that acts on a moving object
- magnitude is directly proportional to magnitude of normal force btwn object + surface it's moving on:

$$f_k = \mu_k N$$
 - ↳ μ_k is coeff of kinetic friction (usually less than μ_s)

SPRING FORCES AND HOOKE'S LAW

- equilibrium position is where spring is unstretched + exerts no force on mass
- as long as spring isn't extended beyond its elastic limit, F_s is directly proportional to $\vec{\Delta x}$ of free end of spring
- ideal springs follow Hooke's Law: $\vec{F}_s = -k \vec{\Delta x}$
 - ↳ k is spring constant (units are $N/m = kg/s^2$)
 - ° k always has +ve value
 - ↳ $\vec{\Delta x}$ is extension/compression of spring from equilibrium state
 - ↳ minus sign indicates that force acts in opposite direction of $\vec{\Delta x}$
- system of 2 parallel springs has spring constant $k = k_1 + k_2$
- when 2 springs are connected in series, total $\vec{\Delta x}$ is equal to elongation of each spring

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{\Delta x}_T &= \vec{\Delta x}_1 + \vec{\Delta x}_2 \\ &= \frac{\vec{F}}{k_1} + \frac{\vec{F}}{k_2} \\ &= \vec{F} \left(\frac{1}{k_1} + \frac{1}{k_2} \right) \\ \therefore k &= \left(\frac{1}{k_1} + \frac{1}{k_2} \right)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

FUNDAMENTAL AND NON-FUNDAMENTAL FORCES

- fundamental forces result from fundamental interactions in nature
 - ↳ act at a distance + don't require contact
- 4 fundamental interactions:
 - ↳ gravitational affects everything that has mass
 - ↳ electromagnetic affects electrically charged objects
 - ↳ weak affects subatomic particles called quarks + leptons (electrons, muons, tau particles, + their neutrinos)
 - ↳ strong has 2 sub-branches
 - ° fundamental interaction btwn quarks + gluons
 - ° residual interaction btwn hadrons, such as protons + neutrons
- non-fundamental forces depend on 1+ fundamental forces
 - ↳ e.g. friction, elastic, tension, + normal forces

↳ most involve contact/ near contact

UNIFORM CIRCULAR MOTION

- an object moving w/uniform speed v along circular trajectory of radius r has radially inward centripetal acceleration

$$\hookrightarrow a_r = \frac{v^2}{r}$$

↳ inward toward centre of circle

$$\hookrightarrow v = \frac{2\pi r}{T}$$

- centripetal force is sum of forces pointing in radial direction

REFERENCE FRAMES AND FICTITIOUS FORCES

- in an inertial reference frame, object will only accelerate if there's net force

- fictitious forces are only present in non-inertial reference frame

↳ these frames are accelerated reference frames

- acceleration in non-inertial ref frames can be linear or rotational

↳ in non-inertial rotating ref frame, there will be fictitious force pushing object radially outward
• called centrifugal force

• opposite in direction to centripetal force

- fictitious forces can always be eliminated by choosing inertial ref frame

MOMENTUM AND NEWTON'S SECOND LAW

- linear momentum (\vec{p}) is defined as : $\vec{p} = m\vec{v}$

Newton's 2nd law can be written in terms of time derivative of linear momentum

$$\hookrightarrow \vec{F}_{\text{net}} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}$$

- impulse can be calculated as $\vec{J} = \int d\vec{p} = \int \vec{F}_{\text{net}} dt$

↳ impulse is vector change in linear momentum

$$\hookrightarrow \vec{J} = \vec{F}_{\text{avg}} \Delta t = \vec{\Delta p}$$

ch 6: work & energy

WORK DONE BY CONSTANT FORCE IN 1D

- preliminary definition of work: $W_F = \pm Fd$
 - ↳ i.e. work done by force on rigid body on frictionless surface is product of constant force F acting parallel to direction of motion & distance d it moves
 - ↳ +ve if force parallel to \vec{d} is in same dir & -ve if they're opposite dir
 - ↳ if $d=0$, no work is done even if force is applied
- work is a scalar quantity
 - ↳ unit is Joule
 - ° 1 J = 1 N·m

WORK DONE BY CONSTANT FORCE IN 2D AND 3D

- $W_F = F_{\parallel} d = (F \cos \theta) d = F(d \cos \theta)$
 - ↳ work done by constant force that makes angle θ in dir of displacement
- formal definition of work by constant force: $W = \vec{F} \cdot \vec{d}$
 - sign convention for 2D/3D motion:
 - ↳ $0^\circ \leq \theta < 90^\circ$ or $270^\circ < \theta < 360^\circ$: work is +ve
 - ↳ $\theta = 90^\circ$ or $\theta = 270^\circ$: work is 0
 - ↳ $90^\circ < \theta < 270^\circ$: work is -ve
- $W_{\text{net}} = \vec{F}_{\text{net}} \cdot \vec{d}$

WORK DONE BY VARIABLE FORCES

- work done by force in displacing object from x_1 to x_2 is area under graph of $F(x)$ btwn x_1 & x_2
 - $W_F = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \vec{F}(\vec{r}) \cdot d\vec{r}$
 $= \int_{x_1}^{x_2} F_x(\vec{r}) dx + \int_{x_1}^{x_2} F_y(\vec{r}) dy + \int_{x_1}^{x_2} F_z(\vec{r}) dz$
- force exerted by spring: $\vec{F} = -k \vec{x}$
 - ↳ dir of force is opposite to dir of displacement
 - ↳ type is called restoring force
- work done by spring: $W_{\text{by-spring}} = \frac{1}{2} k x_1^2 - \frac{1}{2} k x_2^2$
 - ↳ if $x_1 = 0$ (unstretched position) & $x_2 = x$ (final position), then:
 - ° $W_{\text{by-spring}} = -\frac{1}{2} k x^2$
 - ° $W_{\text{on-spring}} = \frac{1}{2} k x^2$

KINETIC ENERGY: WORK-ENERGY THEOREM

- kinetic energy is $K = \frac{1}{2} mv^2$
- work done by force to object's initial & final speeds: $W_F = \frac{1}{2} mv_2^2 - \frac{1}{2} mv_1^2$
 - $= K_2 - K_1$
 - $= \Delta K$
- work-energy theorem: work done on an object is equal to change in object's kinetic energy
 - ↳ when +ve work is done, speed increases
 - ↳ when -ve work is done, speed decreases
- $W_{\text{net}} = K_f - K_i$
- work done by force of gravity is mgh

CONSERVATIVE FORCES AND POTENTIAL ENERGY

- a force \vec{F} is conservative when net work done by force in moving object over any closed path is 0
 - ↳ $\oint \vec{F}(\vec{r}) \cdot d\vec{r} = 0$
 - \oint means taken over closed path
 - ↳ closed path starts & ends at same point
 - ↳ work done by conservative force in moving object btwn 2 points is independent of path
 - ↳ e.g. gravity & spring are conservative but friction is non-conservative
- potential energy is capacity of object to do work
 - ↳ $\Delta U = - \int_a^b \vec{F}(\vec{r}) \cdot d\vec{r}$
 - work done by conservative force in moving object from a to b (w/no change in its kinetic energy) is equal to change in PE
- gravitational potential energy (GPE) is $\Delta U_g = mg\Delta h$
 - ↳ GPE at certain height h wrt ground level is $U_g = mgh$
 - ↳ assumed that g is constant
- elastic potential energy (EPE) is $\Delta U_s = \frac{1}{2}kx_2^2 - \frac{1}{2}kx_1^2$
 - ↳ if start w/ unstretched spring, $U_s = \frac{1}{2}kx_2^2$
 - ↳ valid as long as elastic limit of spring isn't exceeded

CONSERVATION OF MECHANICAL ENERGY

- total work done on object classified into 2 categories: work done by conservative forces (W_c) & by non-conservative forces (W_{nc})
 - ↳ $\Delta K = W_{net} = W_{nc} + W_c$
 - $\Delta K = -\Delta U + W_c$
 - $\Delta K + \Delta U = W_{nc}$
- mechanical energy is sum of changes in KE & PE of system
 - ↳ rep by E/E_m
- in absence of non-conservative forces, ME is zero
 - ↳ $\Delta K + \Delta U = 0$
- law of conservation of mechanical energy: in absence of non-conservative forces, sum of KE & PE of an object / system remains constant
 - ↳ $K_1 + U_1 = K_2 + U_2 = \text{constant}$

FORCE FROM POTENTIAL ENERGY

- potential energy related to constant conservative force, $\vec{F} = F_x \hat{i} + F_y \hat{j} + F_z \hat{k}$, that displaces object by distance $\Delta \vec{r} = \Delta x \hat{i} + \Delta y \hat{j} + \Delta z \hat{k}$ is $\Delta U = -\vec{F} \cdot \Delta \vec{r}$
- in 1D, conservative force is -ve of derivative of PE wrt/ displacement
 - ↳ $F_x = -\frac{dU}{dx}$
 - ↳ e.g. elastic restoring force: $F_x = -\frac{dU}{dx} = -\frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{2}kx^2 \right) = -kx$
- in 3D, when taking derivative of PE wrt/x, keep y & z constant
 - ↳ i.e. partial derivative & denoted as $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$
 - $F_x = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial x}, F_y = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial y}, F_z = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial z}$
 - ↳ define vector differential operator called gradient/del: $\vec{\nabla} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \hat{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \hat{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \hat{k}$
 - ↳ in compact notation: $\vec{F}(x,y,z) = -\vec{\nabla} U(x,y,z)$
 - ↳ e.g. particle in region has PE given by $U = (3x^2 - 2xy + zx)$ & coeff have units J/m^2 ; find expression for force acting on particle & determine magnitude of force at A(0.5m, -1.0m, 0.5m)

SOLUTION

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_x &= -\frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (3x^2 - 2xy + zx) \\
 &= -(6x - 2y + z) \\
 &= -6x + 2y - z \\
 F_y &= -\frac{\partial U}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y} (3x^2 - 2xy + zx) \\
 &= -(-2x) \\
 &= 2x \\
 F_z &= -\frac{\partial U}{\partial z} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial z} (3x^2 - 2xy + zx) \\
 &= -(x) \\
 &= -x
 \end{aligned}$$

Subbing in A:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \vec{F} &= (-6x + 2y - z)\hat{i} + (2x)\hat{j} + (-x)\hat{k} \\
 &= -5.5\hat{i} - 1\hat{j} - 0.5\hat{k} \\
 F &= \sqrt{(-5.5)^2 + (-1)^2 + (-0.5)^2} \\
 &\approx 5.612
 \end{aligned}$$

∴ The magnitude of force at A is 5.6N.

POWER

· power is rate at which work is done

$$\hookrightarrow P_{avg} = \frac{\Delta W}{\Delta t}$$

· to calculate instantaneous power:

$$P = \frac{dW}{dt}$$

$$P = \frac{d}{dt} (Fd\vec{x})$$

$$P = \vec{F} \cdot \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}$$

$$P = Fv$$

↳ for forces acting in more than 1D: $P = \vec{F} \cdot \vec{v}$

· SI unit for power is watt(W)

$$\hookrightarrow 1W = 1J/s$$

↳ another common unit is horsepower

$$\circ 1hp = 746W$$

ch 7: linear momentum, collisions, & systems of particles

LINEAR MOMENTUM

- linear momentum is a conserved quantity
 - $\vec{p} = m\vec{v}$
 - units are $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m/s}$
- can write kinetic energy in terms of momentum
 - $K = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$ and $\vec{v} = \frac{\vec{p}}{m}$
 - $v^2 = \frac{p^2}{m^2}$
 - $K = \frac{p^2}{2m}$ or $p = \sqrt{2mK}$
- momentum is vector quantity that depends on velocity while kinetic energy is scalar quantity that depends on speed
- there's only one type of linear momentum & it can't be converted like energy does

RATE OF CHANGE OF LINEAR MOMENTUM AND NEWTON'S LAWS

- Newton's second law written in terms of momentum: $\vec{F}_{\text{net}} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}$
- $\sum \vec{F}_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\Delta \vec{p}}{\Delta t}$
 - average net force is equal to finite change in momentum over time interval

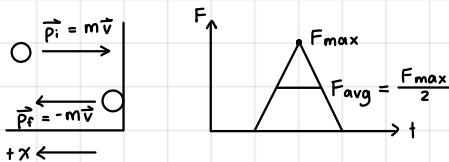
IMPULSE

impulse is change in momentum

$$\vec{I} = \vec{p}_f - \vec{p}_i = \int_{t_i}^{t_f} \vec{F}_{\text{net}} dt = \sum \vec{F}_{\text{avg}} \Delta t$$

- linear momentum remains constant when $\sum \vec{F} = 0$
- e.g. golf ball of mass 46.0 g strikes wall horizontally at speed 130 km/h & bounces back w/same speed in time of 0.900 ms; find impulse to ball by wall, avg force experienced by ball, plot graph assuming force changes linearly w/time, & estimate max value of force of impact

NOTE: when using linear apx graph for force of impact,
 $F_{\text{max}} = \frac{F_{\text{avg}}}{2}$



$$130 \frac{\text{km}}{\text{h}} \times \frac{1000 \text{m}}{3600 \text{s}} = 36.111 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{p}_i &= (0.046)(-36.111) \\ &= -1.661 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m/s} [\rightarrow] \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{p}_f &= (0.046)(36.111) \\ &= 1.661 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m/s} [\rightarrow] \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{I} &= \vec{p}_f - \vec{p}_i \\ &= 1.661 - (-1.661) \\ &= 3.322 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m/s} [\rightarrow] \end{aligned}$$

$$\sum \vec{F}_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\Delta \vec{p}}{\Delta t} = \frac{3.322}{0.0009}$$

$$= 3691.111 \text{ N} [\rightarrow]$$

$$\vec{F}_{\text{max}} = 2(\sum \vec{F}_{\text{avg}}) = 2(3691.111)$$

$$= 7382.222 \text{ N} [\rightarrow]$$

SYSTEMS OF PARTICLES AND CENTRE OF MASS

- point mass is object w/ non-zero mass but zero size
- centre of mass is point corresponding to avg position of mass in system
 - mass of system/object usually treated as point mass, located at centre of mass
- position of centre of mass of system of n particles: $x_{cm} = \frac{m_1 x_1 + m_2 x_2 + \dots + m_n x_n}{m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_n} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n m_i x_i}{M_T}$
- M_T is total mass of all particles
- for systems in more than 1D, use \vec{r}_i for each particle: $\vec{r}_{cm} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n m_i \vec{r}_i}{M_T}$
- in component form:
 - $x_{cm} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n m_i x_i}{M_T}$
 - $y_{cm} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n m_i y_i}{M_T}$
 - $z_{cm} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n m_i z_i}{M_T}$
- centre of mass of continuous distribution of mass: $\vec{r}_{cm} = \frac{\int_V \vec{r} dm}{\int_V dm}$
- integration limit V means integral taken over volume of object

SYSTEMS OF PARTICLES AND CONSERVATION OF MOMENTUM

- $\vec{p}_{cm} = \vec{p}_1 + \vec{p}_2 + \dots + \vec{p}_n$
- $\frac{d\vec{p}_{cm}}{dt} = \sum \vec{F}_{net}$
- if $\sum \vec{F}_{net} = 0$, acceleration of centre of mass of system is zero
- in system of particles, internal forces btwn particles don't contribute to net force
 - $\frac{d\vec{p}_{cm}}{dt} = \vec{F}_{ext}$
 - if $\vec{F}_{ext} = 0$, then $\frac{d\vec{p}_{cm}}{dt} = 0$ so $\vec{p}_i = \vec{p}_f$
- conservation of momentum states that if mechanical system experiences zero net external force, momentum is conserved
 - $\vec{p}_i = \vec{p}_f$
 - if $\vec{F}_{ext} = 0$, centre of mass of system doesn't move

COLLISIONS

- inelastic collision is when colliding objects lose KE
 - in completely inelastic collision, 2 objects stick together after colliding
 - after collision, $\vec{p}_f = (m_1 + m_2) \vec{v}$ meaning they can be treated as one object
 - although KE is lost, momentum is conserved
- during elastic collision, both total linear momentum & total KE of system are conserved
 - $\vec{p}_i = m\vec{v} + M\vec{u}$ and $\vec{p}_f = m\vec{v}' + M\vec{u}'$
 - \vec{v} & \vec{u} rep the 2 masses' velocities
 - $\vec{u}' = \frac{2m}{m+M} \vec{v} + \frac{M-m}{m+M} \vec{u}$
 - $\vec{v}' = \frac{m-M}{m+M} \vec{v} + \frac{2M}{m+M} \vec{u}$

ch 8: rotational kinematics & dynamics

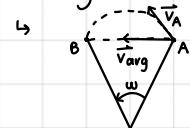
ANGULAR VARIABLES

- for particle moving along circumference of circle w/radius r, length of arc is $\Delta s = r \Delta \theta$

↳ $\Delta \theta$ is angular displacement in radians

- differential displacement along circumference is $ds = r d\theta$

↳ tangential speed: $\frac{ds}{dt} = r \frac{d\theta}{dt}$



- angular velocity is IROC of angular position wrt time

↳ angular speed equation: $\omega = \frac{d\theta}{dt}$

↳ SI units are rad/s

- tangential speed written as function of time: $v(t) = \omega(t)r$

- take derivative of tangential speed to get tangential acceleration: $\frac{dv}{dt} = r \frac{d\omega}{dt}$

↳ angular acceleration: $\alpha = \frac{d\omega}{dt} = \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2}$

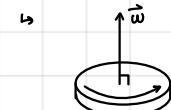
- tangential acceleration as function of time: $a_t(t) = \alpha(t)r$

- $\omega = \text{constant}$ $\omega \neq \text{constant}$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline a_t & 0 \\ \hline a_r & \frac{v^2}{r} = \omega^2 r \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline & \frac{dw}{dt} r \\ \hline & \frac{v^2}{r} = \omega^2 r \\ \hline \end{array}$$

- use RHR to find dir of angular velocity: curl fingers in dir of motion of rotating object + thumb will point in correct dir

↳ angular velocity vector is \perp to plane of rotation



↳ if angular speed is increasing, angular acceleration is same dir; if it's decreasing, angular acceleration is opp dir

KINEMATIC EQUATIONS FOR ROTATION

NOTE: to find # of revolutions, $\Delta\theta \left(\frac{1 \text{ rev}}{2\pi} \right)$

- rotational kinematics equations when angular acceleration is constant are same as kinematics equations developed for constant linear acceleration

Angular Quantity Symbol / Expression

angular position	θ
angular velocity	ω
angular acceleration	α

Kinematic equations

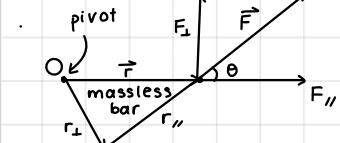
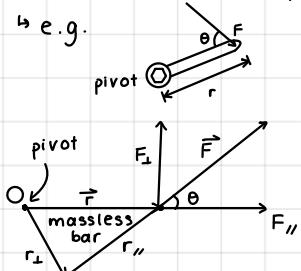
for constant α

- $\omega_2 = \omega_1 + \alpha \Delta t$
- $\omega_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\omega_1 + \omega_2}{2}$
- $\Delta\theta = \omega_1 \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} \alpha (\Delta t)^2$
- $\omega_2^2 = \omega_1^2 + 2\alpha \Delta\theta$
- $\Delta\theta = \left(\frac{\omega_1 + \omega_2}{2} \right) \Delta t$

TORQUE

- net torque causes rotation \nrightarrow angular acceleration
- axis of rotation runs through the pivot (centre of rotation)
- torque is measure of effectiveness of force in causing rotations
 - \hookrightarrow depends on 3 things:
 - strength of applied force
 - angle θ btwn applied force & arm to point of application of force
 - distance r btwn pivot & point where force is applied

\hookrightarrow e.g.



\hookrightarrow torque of force \vec{F} abt pivot O is $\tau_o = r F \sin \theta$

- SI units are N·m

\hookrightarrow moment arm r_{\perp} (aka torque/lever arm) is \perp distance btwn point of application of force & pivot

$$\circ \tau = (r \sin \theta) F = r_{\perp} F$$

torque is cross product btwn 2 vectors: $\vec{\tau}_o = \vec{r} \times \vec{F}$

use RHR to find dir of torque

\hookrightarrow move all vectors to common origin

\hookrightarrow line up thumb w/axis of rotation

\hookrightarrow \vec{r} vector is sitting in plane of palm of hand & curl fingers twd \vec{F} so then, thumb is aligned w/ $\vec{\tau}$

can also use 3-finger RHLR to find dir of torque

\hookrightarrow esp useful when taking cross product of 2 orthogonal vectors

\hookrightarrow line up thumb w/ \vec{r} & index finger w/ \vec{F}_{\perp} so middle finger points in dir of $\vec{\tau}$

- keep all fingers orthogonal

MOMENT OF INERTIA OF A POINT MASS

$$\vec{\tau}_{\text{net}} = m r^2 \vec{\alpha}$$

\hookrightarrow rotational equivalent of $\vec{F} = m \vec{a}$

\hookrightarrow resistance to acceleration depends on both mass & distance from rotation axis

rotational inertia/moment of inertia is $I_o = m r^2$

- SI units are kg·m²

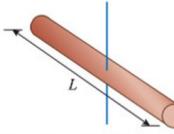
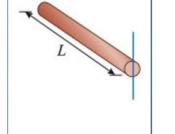
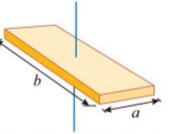
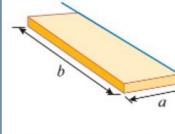
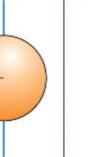
\hookrightarrow only for point mass

$$\hookrightarrow \vec{\tau}_{\text{net}} = I \vec{\alpha}$$

SYSTEMS OF PARTICLES AND RIGID BODIES

- moment of inertia of 2D system of point masses abt an axis a \perp to plane of particles is equal to sum of individual moments of inertia: $I_a = \sum_{i=1}^N m_i r_i^2$
 - \hookrightarrow N is # of particles
 - \hookrightarrow can be used as long as system is held tgt as rigid body (i.e. non-deformable)
 - when object has continuous mass distribution, $I = \int_{\text{object}} r^2 dm$
 - \hookrightarrow object is uniform/homogeneous when its properties (e.g. density) don't change over its volume

- ↳ differential mass is $dm = \rho dV$
 - ρ is mass density
- moment of inertia of thin ring: $I_{cm} = MR^2$
- moment of inertia of solid disk: $I_{cm} = \frac{MR^2}{2}$
- for composite object, add all moments of inertia for individual parts abt their common axis of rotation
- parallel-axis theorem: $I_a^{object} = I_{cm}^{object} + Md^2$
 - ↳ moment of inertia of an object abt arbitrary axis is equal to moment of inertia of that object abt a parallel axis running through its centre of mass, plus product of total mass + square of distance btwn axis_{cm} & axis_a

Thin rod, mass M and length L ; centre-of-mass axis perpendicular to bar; $I_{cm}^{bar} = \frac{1}{12}ML^2$	Thin rod, mass M and length L ; axis running through edge perpendicular to bar; $I_a^{bar} = \frac{1}{3}ML^2$	Rectangular block, mass M , sides lengths a and b ; centre-of-mass axis perpendicular to plane of rectangle: $I = \frac{1}{12}M(a^2 + b^2)$	Rectangular block, mass M , side lengths a and b ; axis along one of the sides of length b : $I = \frac{1}{3}Ma^2$
			
Cylinder, mass M , inner radius R_1 , outer radius R_2 ; axis of symmetry: $I_{cm}^{cyl} = \frac{1}{2}MR_2^2 - \frac{1}{2}MR_1^2$	Solid cylinder, mass M , radius R , length L ; axis of symmetry: $I_{cm}^{cyl} = \frac{1}{2}MR^2$	Ring, or hollow cylinder, thin shell, mass M and radius R ; axis of symmetry: $I_{cm}^{ring} = MR^2$	Sphere, mass M and radius R ; axis through centre of sphere: $I_{cm}^{sphere} = \frac{2}{5}MR^2$
			

ROTATIONAL KINETIC ENERGY AND WORK

rotational kinetic energy for point mass: $K_{rot} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2r^2 = \frac{1}{2}I_0\omega^2$

- ↳ rotational translational speed $v = wr$
- for a constant torque: $W_T = \tau_{net} \Delta\theta = \frac{1}{2}I\omega_f^2 - \frac{1}{2}I\omega_i^2$
- ↳ for varying torque: $W_T = \int \tau_{net} d\theta = \frac{1}{2}I\omega_f^2 - \frac{1}{2}I\omega_i^2$

ANGULAR MOMENTUM

- angular momentum of point mass abt an axis through point O is cross product of position vector of object wrt pivot/axis & linear momentum of object: $\vec{L}_0 = \vec{r} \times \vec{p}$
 - ↳ magnitude is $L_0 = rpsin\theta$
 - $= rmvsin\theta$

any particle that has linear momentum also has angular momentum abt specified axis/pivot

- ↳ $\vec{L}_0 = 0$ when \vec{r} & \vec{p} are collinear (or either is 0)
- ↳ particle can have angular momentum wrt axis even when it doesn't rotate around it
- only ⊥ components of linear momentum & position of particle relative to axis/pivot matter

· use RTIR or 3-finger rule used for torque to determine dir of angular momentum

for rotations in 2D: $\vec{L}_0 = I_0\vec{\omega}$

↳ angular momentum & angular velocity are in same dir

↳ can apply for any rigid rotating body

· $\vec{T}_{net} = \vec{r} \times \vec{F}_{net} = \frac{d\vec{L}}{dt}$

↳ $\vec{T}_{net}^{avg} = \frac{\Delta \vec{L}_{net}}{\Delta t}$

- change in linear momentum is angular impulse $\vec{\Delta L}$
 $\hookrightarrow \vec{\Delta L} = \int_{\text{interval}} \vec{T}_{\text{net}} dt = \vec{T}_{\text{net}} \Delta t$
- conservation of angular momentum states that in absence of net external torque , angular momentum won't change

ch 9: rolling motion

ROLLING AND SLIPPING

- rolling is rotation abt an axis that's translating
 - ↳ e.g. rolling pin to flatten dough
- spinning is when rotational speed of surface of object is too high in comparison to translational speed of axis abt which object rotates
 - ↳ e.g. truck trying to emerge from muddy hole & wheels spinning fast while truck moves slowly/doesn't move
- skidding is when translational speed of rolling object is too high compared to rotational speed of its surface
 - ↳ e.g. wheels lock when depress brake pedal so wheels stop rotating while car still moves
- slipping refers to either slipping/skidding
 - ↳ e.g. presence of kinetic friction btwn tire & road
- rolling w/o slipping means object neither spins nor skids as it rolls
 - ↳ i.e. ideal rolling, perfect rolling
 - ↳ e.g. relative speed btwn part of wheel in contact w/road & pavement surface is 0

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ROTATION AND TRANSLATION FOR A ROLLING OBJECT

- consider wheel of radius r rotating in clockwise dir abt fixed axis through centre of symmetry; choose right to be +ve dir so $\vec{v}_{top} = wr$, $\vec{v}_{bottom} = -wr$, & $\vec{v}_{cm} = 0$
 - ↳ $v_{cm} = v_{bottom} + wr$
 - ↳ $v_{cm} = v_{top} - wr$
 - ↳ $v_{top} = v_{bottom} + 2wr$
- same relationship btwn acceleration of cm & tangential component of acceleration at top & bottom of wheel
 - ↳ $a_{cm} = a_{bottom} + dr$
 - ↳ $a_{cm} = a_{top} - dr$
 - ↳ $a_{top} = a_{bottom} + 2dr$
- above relationships apply regardless of whether rotation axis is stationary/moving

ROLLING MOTION: 2 PERSPECTIVES

- for object that rolls w/o slipping, velocity of part of object in contact w/surface is 0: $v_{bottom} = 0$
 - ↳ $v_{cm} = wr$
 - ° $v_{top} = 2wr$
 - ↳ $a_{cm} = dr$
 - ° $a_{top} = 2dr$, which gives tangential component of acceleration
 - ° $a_{bottom} = 0$
- rolling is translation of cm combined w/rotation of object abt an axis through cm
 - ↳ for translational dynamics of cm, $\sum \vec{F} = m\vec{a}_{cm}$
 - ↳ for rotational dynamics abt cm, $\sum \vec{T}_{cm} = I_{cm}\vec{\alpha}$

as object rolls, successive points on its circumference will touch surface & each of them will be stationary wrt/surface

- rolling can also be considered as continuous series of rotations abt a contact point, called momentary pivot
 - ↳ label point b as momentary centre of rotation
 - ↳ since b is at rest, sum up torques abt pivot point & apply rotational equivalent of Newton's 2nd law:

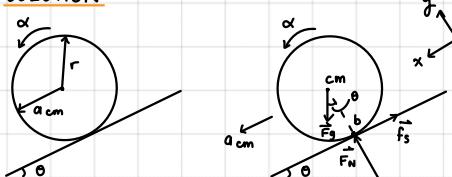
$$\sum \vec{T}_b = I_b \vec{\alpha}$$

◦ must use I_b rather than I_{cm}

NEWTON'S 2ND LAW AND ROLLING

- e.g. solid uniform disk starts from rest & rolls w/o slipping down ramp at angle θ ; derive expressions for acceleration of cm & force of friction btwn surface of ramp & disk

SOLUTION



Approach A: translation of cm + rotation of object abt cm

$$\hookrightarrow \text{translation: } \sum F_x = F_g \sin \theta - f_s$$

$$ma_{cmx} = mgs \sin \theta - f_s$$

$$f_s = mgs \sin \theta - ma_{cmx} \quad 1)$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{rotation: } \sum T_{cm} = r f_s$$

$$I_{cm}\alpha = r f_s \quad 2)$$

◦ \vec{F}_N & \vec{F}_g exert no torque on cm b/c their lines of action pass through cm ($r = 0$)

$$\hookrightarrow a_{cm} = \alpha r$$

$$\alpha = \frac{a_{cm}}{r} \quad 3)$$

Sub 1) & 3) into 2):

$$I_{cm}\alpha = r f_s$$

$$I_{cm}\left(\frac{a_{cm}}{r}\right) = r(mgs \sin \theta - ma_{cm})$$

$$I_{cm}a_{cm} = r^2 mgs \sin \theta - r^2 ma_{cm}$$

$$a_{cm}(I_{cm} + r^2 m) = r^2 mgs \sin \theta$$

$$a_{cm} = \frac{r^2 mgs \sin \theta}{I_{cm} + r^2 m} \longrightarrow I_{cm} = \frac{mr^2}{2}$$

$$= \frac{mr^2}{2 + r^2 m}$$

$$= r^2 mgs \sin \theta \left(\frac{2}{r^2 m + 2r^2 m} \right)$$

$$= r^2 mgs \sin \theta \left(\frac{2}{3r^2 m} \right)$$

$$= \frac{2gs \sin \theta}{3}$$

To calculate f_s , sub a_{cm} into 1):

$$f_s = mgs \sin \theta - ma_{cmx}$$

$$= mgs \sin \theta - m \frac{2gs \sin \theta}{3}$$

$$= \frac{3mgs \sin \theta - 2mgs \sin \theta}{3}$$

$$= \frac{mgs \sin \theta}{3}$$

$$\text{As such, } a_{cm} = \frac{2gs \sin \theta}{3} \text{ & } f_s = \frac{mgs \sin \theta}{3}.$$

Approach B: successive rotations abt momentary pivot

$$\sum T_b = r F_g \sin \theta$$

$$I_{bd} = rmgs \sin \theta$$

◦ \vec{F}_N , \vec{f}_s , & $\vec{F}_g \cos \theta$ exert no torque on b b/c their lines of action pass through b ($r = 0$)

$$\alpha = \frac{rmgs \sin \theta}{I_b}$$

$$a = \alpha r$$

$$= \frac{r^2 mgs \sin \theta}{I_b} \longrightarrow I_b = I_{cm} + md^2$$

$$= \frac{r^2 mgs \sin \theta}{\frac{3mr^2}{2}}$$

$$= \frac{2gs \sin \theta}{3}$$

$$= \frac{mr^2}{2} + mr^2$$

$$= \frac{3mr^2}{2}$$

MECHANICAL ENERGY AND ROLLING

- using rotation/translation approach:

NOTE: advantage of approach B is that it eliminates f_s b/c moment arm points straight away from b & is 0

$$\hookrightarrow K_{\text{trans}} = \frac{1}{2} m v_{\text{cm}}^2$$

$$\hookrightarrow K_{\text{rot}} = \frac{1}{2} I_{\text{cm}} \omega^2$$

↳ total kinetic energy is sum of K_{trans} & K_{rot} : $K = \frac{1}{2} m v_{\text{cm}}^2 + \frac{1}{2} I_{\text{cm}} \omega^2$

· using momentary-pivot approach:

$$\hookrightarrow K = \frac{1}{2} I_b \omega^2$$

ROLLING WITHOUT FRICTION

- for car wheel rolling down incline, frictional force can be 0 if engine delivers enough torque (T_e) to accelerate it as required
- free rolling on smooth horizontal surface means there's no frictional force
- if object w/non-zero angular velocity is thrown on frictionless surface, initial condition of $v_{\text{cm}} = \omega r$ maintained indefinitely
 - ↳ since this is condition for rolling w/o slipping, will roll indefinitely

ROLLING FRICTION

- rolling friction/resistance can be caused by adhesion btwn surface & object or deformation
- rolling friction opposes dir of motion, acting to slow down rolling object
 - ↳ can be apx quantified using coeff of rolling friction μ_r
 - ↳ $f_r = \mu_r N$

ch 10: equilibrium

CONDITIONS FOR EQUILIBRIUM

- for point mass to be in equilibrium, net force acting on it must be 0 so acceleration is also 0
 - ↳ if it's stationary, it's in static equilibrium
 - ↳ if it's moving at a constant velocity, it's in dynamic equilibrium
- when object is on verge of tipping, normal force acts at pivot point b/c it'll be only point of contact btwn surface & object
- in order for extended object to be in equilibrium:
 - ↳ vector sum of external forces on object must be 0
 - $\sum \vec{F} = 0$
 - i.e. translational equilibrium
 - linear momentum is constant: $\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = 0$
 - ↳ vector sum of all external torques acting on object abt any pivot/axis must be 0
 - $\sum \vec{T} = 0$
 - i.e. rotational equilibrium
 - angular momentum abt any axis is constant: $\frac{d\vec{L}}{dt} = 0$
- for extended object to be in static equilibrium, speed of cm & rotational speed must both be 0
 - ↳ if not, object's in dynamic equilibrium
- classify states of equilibrium by considering what will happen to object if it undergoes small displacements from its equilibrium position
 - ↳ stable equilibrium: object tends to return to its equilibrium position
 - e.g. ball resting at bottom of bowl
 - ↳ unstable equilibrium: small displacement will cause object to leave its equilibrium position
 - e.g. ball resting on top of bowl
 - ↳ neutral equilibrium: if object is displaced, it'll remain in new position
 - e.g. ball on horizontal surface

CENTRE OF GRAVITY

- centre of gravity is single point on object where we treat force of gravity to be acting on
- can find object's centre of gravity by suspending it & allowing it to come to static, stable equilibrium
 - ↳ centre of gravity must be directly below point of suspension
- for objects in uniform gravitational field, centre of gravity coincides w/cm
 - ↳ can treat as if total mass of object is located at centre of mass
 - ↳ torque exerted on continuous mass distribution in presence of uniform gravitational field is $r_{cm} \times (M\vec{g})$

APPLYING CONDITIONS FOR EQUILIBRIUM

NOTE: incorrect choice for dir of unknown force doesn't affect magnitude of force

- guidelines when approaching equilibrium problems:
 - ↳ look for points on object where single unknown force produces torque, then sum torques abt that point to find unknown force
 - ↳ remember torque equilibrium condition valid for any point on object & can be used multiple times in any solution
 - ↳ monitor if there's a single unknown force/force component in any dir b/c summing forces in that dir will immediately give value for unknown

ch 13: oscillations

PERIODIC MOTION

- periodic / harmonic motion is motion that repeats after finite amount of time
 - ↳ period of motion is amount of time after which motion repeats
 - denoted by T
 - when object repeats motion periodically, both displacement & velocity of object will be same at start & end of any interval of T seconds
 - ↳ $x(t+nT) = x(t)$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}$
 - ↳ $v(t+nT) = v(t)$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}$
- oscillation is one complete back-and-forth motion
- frequency f is # of oscillations completed in 1s
 - ↳ $f = \frac{1}{T}$
 - ↳ SI units are hertz ($1 \text{ Hz} = 1 \text{ s}^{-1}$)

SIMPLE HARMONIC MOTION

- when displacement of oscillating object from equilibrium position varies w/time as cosine (or sine) function, periodic motion called simple harmonic motion

↳ object undergoing simple harmonic motion is simple harmonic oscillator

- $x(t) = A \cos(\omega t + \phi)$

↳ A is amplitude

◦ +ve # & describes max displacement of oscillator from its equilibrium

◦ constant & doesn't change w/time

◦ SI units are metres (m)

↳ ω is angular frequency

$$\circ \omega = 2\pi f = \frac{2\pi}{T}$$

◦ measured in rad/s but radians are dimensionless so simply use s^{-1}

↳ ϕ is phase constant

◦ angle in rad determined by position & velocity of motion at given time (usually $t=0$)

- velocity of simple harmonic oscillator is $v(t) = -\omega A \sin(\omega t + \phi)$

$$\hookrightarrow v_{\max} = \omega A$$

↳ in displacement vs time graph, dir of velocity is given by slope of graph at that time
 $x(t)$ & $v(t)$ are $\frac{\pi}{2}$ rad out of phase

$$\hookrightarrow v(t) = \omega A \cos(\omega t + \phi + \frac{\pi}{2})$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{phase of } v(t) - \text{phase of } x(t) = (\omega t + \phi + \frac{\pi}{2}) - (\omega t + \phi) = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

↳ when $x = \pm A$, then $v = 0$; when $x = 0$, then $v = \pm \omega A$

- acceleration of simple harmonic oscillator is $a(t) = -\omega^2 A \cos(\omega t + \phi)$

$$\hookrightarrow a_{\max} = \omega^2 A$$

$$\hookrightarrow a(t) = -\omega^2 x(t)$$

◦ for motion to be simple harmonic motion, acceleration of object must be proportional to its displacement from equilibrium position & opp in dir at all times

$x(t)$ & $a(t)$ are π rad out of phase

$$\hookrightarrow a(t) = \omega A \cos(\omega t + \phi + \pi)$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{phase of } a(t) - \text{phase of } x(t) = (\omega t + \phi + \pi) - (\omega t + \phi) = \pi$$

NOTE: can also use sine function since $\cos(\theta - \frac{\pi}{2}) = \sin \theta$

- as object executes simple harmonic motion, acceleration changes w/time so there must be time-dependent force acting on object
 - $\hookrightarrow F(t) = m\alpha(t)$
 - $= -m\omega^2 x(t)$
 - since $m\omega^2$ is constant, then $F(t) \propto -x(t)$ (known as Hooke's law)
- simple harmonic motion is motion by object that's subjected to restoring force
 - \hookrightarrow restoring force causes object to return to equilibrium position
 - to determine whether object will undergo simple harmonic motion under influence of external force:
 - displace object from equilibrium position by small displacement x
 - calculate net force F on object at displaced position
 - determine whether F can be written as $F = -\text{constant} \cdot x$
 - if so, $\text{constant} = m\omega^2$

UNIFORM CIRCULAR MOTION AND SHM

Uniform Circular Motion	Simple Harmonic Motion
Radius: R	Amplitude: A
Angular speed: ω	Angular frequency: ω
1 complete revolution	1 complete oscillation
Time taken for 1 complete revolution: $\frac{2\pi}{\omega}$	Time period for 1 complete oscillation: $\frac{2\pi}{\omega}$
Starting angle: ϕ	Phase constant: ϕ

MASS - SPRING SYSTEMS

- for a horizontal mass-spring system, gravity doesn't play any role in motion
 - $\hookrightarrow \omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$
 - $\hookrightarrow T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{m}{k}} \quad \dot{f} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$
 - frequency of oscillation is directly proportional to stiffness of spring (k) & inversely proportional to mass
 - light mass attached to stiff spring has large frequency & small period
- frequency of oscillation is independent of amplitude of motion
- for mass suspended vertically from spring of unstretched length L_0 , at equilibrium, spring stretches by length ΔL st elastic restoring force on mass balances force of gravity
 - $\hookrightarrow \Delta L = \frac{mg}{k}$
- vertical mass-spring system also undergoes SHM
 - can use same equations for angular frequency of oscillation as horizontal system
 - displaced harmonic oscillator is when origin of coordinate system isn't located at equilibrium

ENERGY CONSERVATION IN SHM

- in absence of frictional forces, total energy of oscillating horizontal mass-spring system is sum of $K + U_s$
- when mass is at max compression $x=A$, $E = K + U_s$

$$= 0 + \frac{1}{2}kA^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}kA^2$$
 - energy at some time t is $E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2(t) + \frac{1}{2}kx^2(t)$
 - $\frac{1}{2}kA^2 = \frac{1}{2}mv^2(t) + \frac{1}{2}kx^2(t)$
 - \hookrightarrow velocity for given position x is $v = \pm \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}(A^2 - x^2)}$
 - \hookrightarrow position for given velocity v is $x = \pm \sqrt{A^2 - \frac{m}{k}v^2}$
 - mass moves w/max speed at equilibrium b/c $U_s = 0$

$$\hookrightarrow E = \frac{1}{2}mv_m^2$$

$$\frac{1}{2}kA^2 = \frac{1}{2}mv_m^2$$

$$v_m = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}} A = \omega A$$

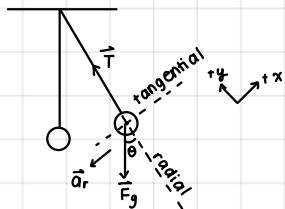
$$\cdot U_s = \frac{1}{2}kx^2(t) = \frac{1}{2}kA^2 \cos^2(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cdot K &= \frac{1}{2}mv^2(t) = \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2 A^2 \sin^2(\omega t + \phi) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}kA^2 \sin^2(\omega t + \phi) \end{aligned}$$

total energy of mass-spring oscillator is proportional to square of its amplitude

SIMPLE PENDULUM

- simple pendulum consists of point mass attached to string of negligible mass that doesn't stretch
- when displaced from vertical equilibrium, swings back & forth w/gravity as restoring force



$$\text{radial axis: } ma_r = T - F_g \cos \theta$$

$$\frac{mv^2}{L} = T - mg \cos \theta$$

$$T = \frac{mv^2}{L} + mg \cos \theta$$

$$\cdot \text{tangential axis: } ma_t = -F_g \sin \theta$$

$$a_t = -g \sin \theta$$

$$a_t = -g \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{L}\right)$$

$\hookrightarrow s$ is length of arc travelled so $s = L\theta$

\hookrightarrow in general, pendulum motion isn't SHM since a_t isn't proportional to s

use small-angle approx (reasonable for ~ 0.2 rad), $a_t = -\left(\frac{g}{L}\right)s$

for small angular displacements, motion of pendulum is SHM

$$\hookrightarrow \omega = \sqrt{\frac{g}{L}}$$

$$\hookrightarrow T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega} = 2\pi\sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}$$

$$\hookrightarrow f = \frac{1}{T} = \frac{1}{2\pi}\sqrt{\frac{g}{L}}$$

at max angular displacements ($\pm \theta_m$), pendulum is momentarily stationary & its energy is all GPE

$$\hookrightarrow E = mgL(1 - \cos \theta_m)$$

at equilibrium, all energy is kinetic so $\frac{1}{2}mv_{max}^2 = mgL(1 - \cos \theta_m)$

\hookrightarrow max speed is independent of mass

$$E = K + U_g$$

$$mgL(1 - \cos \theta_m) = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + mgL(1 - \cos \theta)$$

$$v^2 = 2gL(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_m)$$

$\hookrightarrow v$ is 0 at turning points ($\theta = \pm \theta_m$) & max at $\theta = 0$

relationship btwn period & length of pendulum string is $T \propto \sqrt{L}$

PHYSICAL PENDULUM

physical pendulum is extended object displaced from equilibrium & oscillates abt axis

magnitude of torque is $\tau = -(Mg)(L_{cm}) \sin \theta$

$\hookrightarrow L_{cm} = L + R$ is distance btwn pivot point & cm of rod-sphere pendulum

$$\hookrightarrow I_p \alpha = \tau$$

$$\alpha = -\left(\frac{Mg_{cm}}{I_p}\right) \sin \theta$$

by parallel-axis theorem, $I_p = I_{cm} + M(L_{cm})^2$

- for small angular displacements, use $\sin\theta \approx \theta$ so $\alpha = -\left(\frac{MgL}{I_p}\right)\theta$
- ↪ sphere undergoes SHM
- ↪ $\omega = \sqrt{\frac{MgL}{I_p}}$
- ↪ $T = 2\pi\sqrt{\frac{I_p}{MgL}}$

- angular displacement of oscillating sphere is $\theta(t) = \theta_m \cos(\omega t + \phi)$
- physical & simple pendulum have same time period when $L = \frac{I_p}{ML}$