••60 In Fig. 11-53, a 1.0 g bullet is fired into a 0.50 kg block attached to the end of a 0.60 m nonuniform rod of mass 0.50 kg. The block–rod–bullet system then rotates in the plane of the figure, about a fixed axis at A. The rotational inertia of the rod alone about that axis at A is 0.060 kg·m². Treat the block as a particle. (a) What then is the rotational inertia of the block–rod–bullet system about point A? (b) If the angular speed of the system about A just after impact is 4.5 rad/s, what is the bullet's speed just before impact?

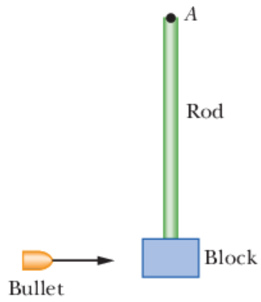


Figure 11-53 Problem 60.

••61 The uniform rod (length 0.60 m, mass 1.0 kg) in Fig. 11-54 rotates in the plane of the figure about an axis through one end, with a rotational inertia of 0.12 kg·m². As the rod swings through its lowest position, it collides with a 0.20 kg putty wad that sticks to the end of the rod. If the rod's angular speed just before collision is 2.4 rad/s, what is the angular speed of the rod–putty system immediately after collision?

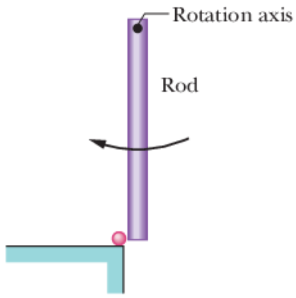


Figure 11-54 Problem 61.

•••62 GO During a jump to his partner, an aerialist is to make a quadruple somersault lasting a time t = 1.87 s. For the first and last quarter-revolution, he is in the extended orientation shown in Fig. 11-55, with rotational inertia I_1 = 19.9 kg·m² around his center of mass (the dot). During the rest of the flight he is in a tight tuck, with rotational inertia I_2 = 3.93 kg·m². What must be his angular speed ω_2 around his center of mass during the tuck?

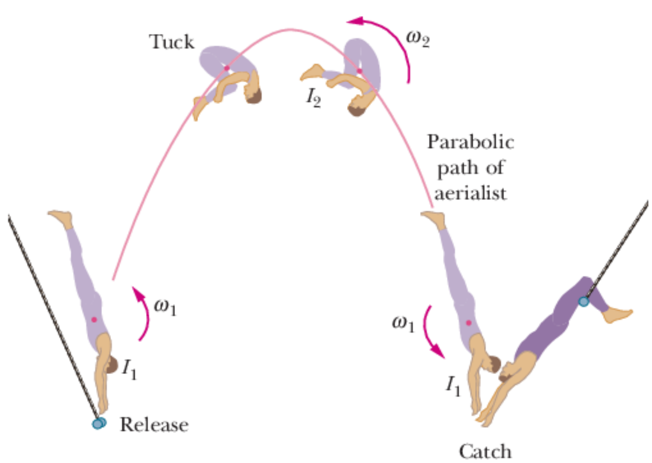


Figure 11-55 Problem 62.

•••63 GO In Fig. 11-56, a 30 kg child stands on the edge of a stationary merry-go-round of radius 2.0 m. The rotational inertia of the merry-go-round about its rotation axis is 150 kg·m². The child catches a ball of mass 1.0 kg thrown by a friend. Just before the ball is caught, it has a horizontal velocity $\vec{v}$ of magnitude 12 m/s, at angle ϕ = 37° with a line tangent to the outer edge of the merry-go-round, as shown. What is the angular speed of the merry-go-round just after the ball is caught?

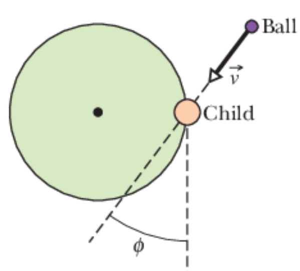


Figure 11-56 Problem 63.

•••64 A ballerina begins a tour jeté (Fig. 11-19a) with angular speed ω_i and a rotational inertia consisting of two parts: I_{leg} = 1.44 kg·m² for her leg extended outward at angle θ = 90.0° to her body and I_{trunk} = 0.660 kg·m² for the rest of her body (primarily her trunk). Near her maximum height she holds both legs at angle θ = 30.0° to her body and has angular speed ω_f (Fig. 11-19b). Assuming that I_{trunk} has not changed, what is the ratio ω_f/ω_i?

•••65 SSM WWW Two 2.00 kg balls are attached to the ends of a thin rod of length 50.0 cm and negligible mass. The rod is free to rotate in a vertical plane without friction about a horizontal axis through its center. With the rod initially horizontal (Fig. 11-57), a 50.0 g wad of wet putty drops onto one of the balls, hitting it with a speed of 3.00 m/s and then sticking to it. (a) What is the angular speed of the system just after the putty wad hits? (b) What is the ratio of the kinetic energy of the system after the collision to that of the putty wad just before? (c) Through what angle will the system rotate before it momentarily stops?

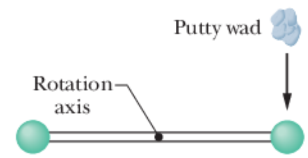


Figure 11-57 Problem 65.

•••66 GO In Fig. 11-58, a small 50 g block slides down a frictionless surface through height h = 20 cm and then sticks to a uniform rod of mass 100 g and length 40 cm. The rod pivots about point O through angle θ before momentarily stopping. Find θ.

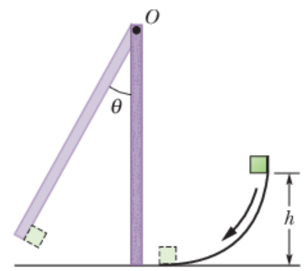


Figure 11-58 Problem 66.

•••67 GO Figure 11-59 is an overhead view of a thin uniform rod of length 0.600 m and mass M rotating horizontally at 80.0 rad/s counterclockwise about an axis through its center. A particle of mass M/3.00 and traveling horizontally at speed 40.0 m/s hits the rod and sticks. The particle's path is perpendicular to the rod at the instant of the hit, at a distance d from the rod's center. (a) At what value of d are rod and particle stationary after the hit? (b) In which direction do rod and particle rotate if d is greater than this value?

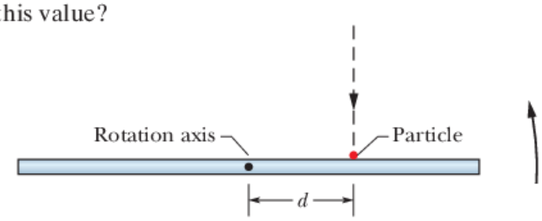


Figure 11-59 Problem 67.

Module 11-9 Precession of a Gyroscope

••68 A top spins at 30 rev/s about an axis that makes an angle of 30° with the vertical. The mass of the top is 0.50 kg, its rotational inertia about its central axis is 5.0×10^{-4} kg·m², and its center of mass is 4.0 cm from the pivot point. If the spin is clockwise from an overhead view, what are the (a) precession rate and (b) direction of the precession as viewed from overhead?

••69 A certain gyroscope consists of a uniform disk with a 50 cm radius mounted at the center of an axle that is 11 cm long and of negligible mass. The axle is horizontal and supported at one end. If the spin rate is 1000 rev/min, what is the precession rate?

Additional Problems

70 A uniform solid ball rolls smoothly along a floor, then up a ramp inclined at 15.0°. It momentarily stops when it has rolled 1.50 m along the ramp. What was its initial speed?

71 SSM In Fig. 11-60, a constant horizontal force $\vec{F}_{app}$ of magnitude 12 N is applied to a uniform solid cylinder by fishing line wrapped around the cylinder. The mass of the cylinder is 10 kg, its radius is 0.10 m, and the cylinder rolls smoothly on the horizontal surface. (a) What is the magnitude of the acceleration of the center of mass of the cylinder? (b) What is the magnitude of the angular acceleration of the cylinder about the center of mass? (c) In unit-vector notation, what is the frictional force acting on the cylinder?

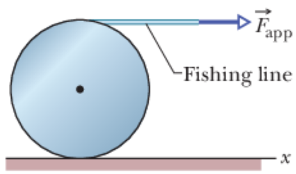


Figure 11-60 Problem 71.

72 A thin-walled pipe rolls along the floor. What is the ratio of its translational kinetic energy to its rotational kinetic energy about the central axis parallel to its length?

73 SSM A 3.0 kg toy car moves along an x axis with a velocity given by $\vec{v} = -2.0t^3\hat{i}$ m/s, with t in seconds. For $t > 0$, what are (a) the angular momentum $\vec{L}$ of the car and (b) the torque $\vec{\tau}$ on the car, both calculated about the origin? What are (c) $\vec{L}$ and (d) $\vec{\tau}$ about the point (2.0 m, 5.0 m, 0)? What are (e) $\vec{L}$ and (f) $\vec{\tau}$ about the point (2.0 m, −5.0 m, 0)?

74 A wheel rotates clockwise about its central axis with an angular momentum of 600 kg·m²/s. At time $t = 0$, a torque of magnitude 50 N·m is applied to the wheel to reverse the rotation. At what time t is the angular speed zero?

75 SSM In a playground, there is a small merry-go-round of radius 1.20 m and mass 180 kg. Its radius of gyration (see Problem 79 of Chapter 10) is 91.0 cm. A child of mass 44.0 kg runs at a speed of 3.00 m/s along a path that is tangent to the rim of the initially stationary merry-go-round and then jumps on. Neglect friction between the bearings and the shaft of the merry-go-round. Calculate (a) the rotational inertia of the merry-go-round about its axis of rotation, (b) the magnitude of the angular momentum of the running child about the axis of rotation of the merry-go-round, and (c) the angular speed of the merry-go-round and child after the child has jumped onto the merry-go-round.

76 A uniform block of granite in the shape of a book has face dimensions of 20 cm and 15 cm and a thickness of 1.2 cm. The density (mass per unit volume) of granite is 2.64 g/cm³. The block rotates around an axis that is perpendicular to its face and halfway between its center and a corner. Its angular momentum about that axis is 0.104 kg·m²/s. What is its rotational kinetic energy about that axis?

77 SSM Two particles, each of mass 2.90×10^{-4} kg and speed 5.46 m/s, travel in opposite directions along parallel lines separated by 4.20 cm. (a) What is the magnitude L of the angular momentum of the two-particle system around a point midway between the two lines? (b) Is the value different for a different location of the point? If the direction of either particle is reversed, what are the answers for (c) part (a) and (d) part (b)?

78 A wheel of radius 0.250 m, moving initially at 43.0 m/s, rolls to a stop in 225 m. Calculate the magnitudes of its (a) linear acceleration and (b) angular acceleration. (c) Its rotational inertia is 0.155 kg·m² about its central axis. Find the magnitude of the torque about the central axis due to friction on the wheel.

79 Wheels A and B in Fig. 11-61 are connected by a belt that does not slip. The radius of B is 3.00 times the radius of A. What would be the ratio of the rotational inertias I_A/I_B if the two wheels had (a) the same angular momentum about their central axes and (b) the same rotational kinetic energy?

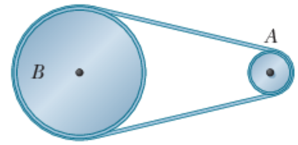


Figure 11-61 Problem 79.

80 A 2.50 kg particle that is moving horizontally over a floor with velocity $(-3.00\text{ m/s})\hat{j}$ undergoes a completely inelastic collision with a 4.00 kg particle that is moving horizontally over the floor with velocity $(4.50\text{ m/s})\hat{i}$. The collision occurs at xy coordinates (−0.500 m, −0.100 m). After the collision and in unit-vector notation, what is the angular momentum of the stuck-together particles with respect to the origin?

81 SSM A uniform wheel of mass 10.0 kg and radius 0.400 m is mounted rigidly on a massless axle through its center (Fig. 11-62). The radius of the axle is 0.200 m, and the rotational inertia of the wheel–axle combination about its central axis is 0.600 kg·m². The wheel is initially at rest at the top of a surface that is inclined at angle $\theta = 30.0°$ with the horizontal; the axle rests on the surface while the wheel extends into a groove in the surface without touching the surface. Once released, the axle rolls down along the surface smoothly and without slipping. When the wheel–axle combination has moved down the surface by 2.00 m, what are (a) its rotational kinetic energy and (b) its translational kinetic energy?

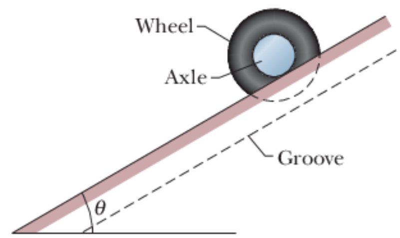


Figure 11-62 Problem 81.

82 A uniform rod rotates in a horizontal plane about a vertical axis through one end. The rod is 6.00 m long, weighs 10.0 N, and rotates at 240 rev/min. Calculate (a) its rotational inertia about the axis of rotation and (b) the magnitude of its angular momentum about that axis.

83 A solid sphere of weight 36.0 N rolls up an incline at an angle of 30.0°. At the bottom of the incline the center of mass of the sphere has a translational speed of 4.90 m/s. (a) What is the kinetic energy of the sphere at the bottom of the incline? (b) How far does the sphere travel up along the incline? (c) Does the answer to (b) depend on the sphere's mass?

84 Suppose that the yo-yo in Problem 17, instead of rolling from rest, is thrown so that its initial speed down the string is 1.3 m/s. (a) How long does the yo-yo take to reach the end of the string? As it reaches the end of the string, what are its (b) total kinetic energy, (c) linear speed, (d) translational kinetic energy, (e) angular speed, and (f) rotational kinetic energy?

85 A girl of mass M stands on the rim of a frictionless merry-go-round of radius R and rotational inertia I that is not moving. She throws a rock of mass m horizontally in a direction that is tangent to the outer edge of the merry-go-round. The speed of the rock, relative to the ground, is v. Afterward, what are (a) the angular speed of the merry-go-round and (b) the linear speed of the girl?

86 A body of radius R and mass m is rolling smoothly with speed v on a horizontal surface. It then rolls up a hill to a maximum height h. (a) If $h = 3v^2/4g$, what is the body's rotational inertia about the rotational axis through its center of mass? (b) What might the body be?

CHAPTER 12

Equilibrium and Elasticity

12-1 EQUILIBRIUM

Learning Objectives

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

12.01 Distinguish between equilibrium and static equilibrium.

12.02 Specify the four conditions for static equilibrium.

12.03 Explain center of gravity and how it relates to center of mass.

12.04 For a given distribution of particles, calculate the coordinates of the center of gravity and the center of mass.

Key Ideas

- A rigid body at rest is said to be in static equilibrium. For such a body, the vector sum of the external forces acting on it is zero:

$$\vec{F}_{\text{net}} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of forces).}$$

If all the forces lie in the xy plane, this vector equation is equivalent to two component equations:

$$F_{\text{net},x} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad F_{\text{net},y} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of forces).}$$

- Static equilibrium also implies that the vector sum of the external torques acting on the body about *any* point is zero, or

$$\vec{\tau}_{\text{net}} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of torques).}$$

If the forces lie in the xy plane, all torque vectors are parallel to the z axis, and the balance-of-torques equation is equivalent to the single component equation

$$\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of torques).}$$

- The gravitational force acts individually on each element of a body. The net effect of all individual actions may be found by imagining an equivalent total gravitational force $\vec{F}_g$ acting at the center of gravity. If the gravitational acceleration $\vec{g}$ is the same for all the elements of the body, the center of gravity is at the center of mass.

What Is Physics?

Human constructions are supposed to be stable in spite of the forces that act on them. A building, for example, should be stable in spite of the gravitational force and wind forces on it, and a bridge should be stable in spite of the gravitational force pulling it downward and the repeated jolting it receives from cars and trucks.

One focus of physics is on what allows an object to be stable in spite of any forces acting on it. In this chapter we examine the two main aspects of stability: the *equilibrium* of the forces and torques acting on rigid objects and the *elasticity* of nonrigid objects, a property that governs how such objects can deform. When this physics is done correctly, it is the subject of countless articles in physics and engineering journals; when it is done incorrectly, it is the subject of countless articles in newspapers and legal journals.

Equilibrium

Consider these objects: (1) a book resting on a table, (2) a hockey puck sliding with constant velocity across a frictionless surface, (3) the rotating blades of a ceiling fan, and (4) the wheel of a bicycle that is traveling along a straight path at constant speed. For each of these four objects,

Kanwarjit Singh Boparai/Shutterstock

Figure 12-1 A balancing rock. Although its perch seems precarious, the rock is in static equilibrium.

1. The linear momentum $\vec{P}$ of its center of mass is constant.
2. Its angular momentum $\vec{L}$ about its center of mass, or about any other point, is also constant.

We say that such objects are in **equilibrium.** The two requirements for equilibrium are then

$$\vec{P} = \text{a constant} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{L} = \text{a constant}. \tag{12-1}$$

Our concern in this chapter is with situations in which the constants in Eq. 12-1 are zero; that is, we are concerned largely with objects that are not moving in any way—either in translation or in rotation—in the reference frame from which we observe them. Such objects are in **static equilibrium.** Of the four objects mentioned near the beginning of this module, only one—the book resting on the table—is in static equilibrium.

The balancing rock of Fig. 12-1 is another example of an object that, for the present at least, is in static equilibrium. It shares this property with countless other structures, such as cathedrals, houses, filing cabinets, and taco stands, that remain stationary over time.

As we discussed in Module 8-3, if a body returns to a state of static equilibrium after having been displaced from that state by a force, the body is said to be in *stable* static equilibrium. A marble placed at the bottom of a hemispherical bowl is an example. However, if a small force can displace the body and end the equilibrium, the body is in *unstable* static equilibrium.

A Domino. For example, suppose we balance a domino with the domino's center of mass vertically above the supporting edge, as in Fig. 12-2*a*. The torque about the supporting edge due to the gravitational force $\vec{F}_g$ on the domino is zero because the line of action of $\vec{F}_g$ is through that edge. Thus, the domino is in equilibrium. Of course, even a slight force on it due to some chance disturbance ends the equilibrium. As the line of action of $\vec{F}_g$ moves to one side of the supporting edge (as in Fig. 12-2*b*), the torque due to $\vec{F}_g$ increases the rotation of the domino. Therefore, the domino in Fig. 12-2*a* is in unstable static equilibrium.

The domino in Fig. 12-2*c* is not quite as unstable. To topple this domino, a force would have to rotate it through and then beyond the balance position of Fig. 12-2*a*, in which the center of mass is above a supporting edge. A slight force will not topple this domino, but a vigorous flick of the finger against the domino certainly will. (If we arrange a chain of such upright dominos, a finger flick against the first can cause the whole chain to fall.)

A Block. The child's square block in Fig. 12-2*d* is even more stable because its center of mass would have to be moved even farther to get it to pass above a supporting edge. A flick of the finger may not topple the block. (This is why you

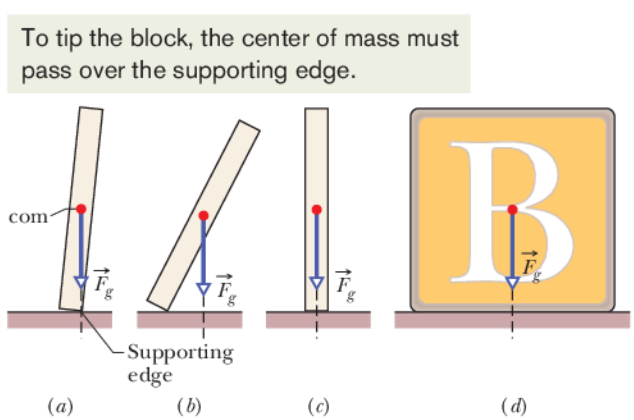


Figure 12-2 (*a*) A domino balanced on one edge, with its center of mass vertically above that edge. The gravitational force $\vec{F}_g$ on the domino is directed through the supporting edge. (*b*) If the domino is rotated even slightly from the balanced orientation, then $\vec{F}_g$ causes a torque that increases the rotation. (*c*) A domino upright on a narrow side is somewhat more stable than the domino in (*a*). (*d*) A square block is even more stable.

never see a chain of toppling square blocks.) The worker in Fig. 12-3 is like both the domino and the square block: Parallel to the beam, his stance is wide and he is stable; perpendicular to the beam, his stance is narrow and he is unstable (and at the mercy of a chance gust of wind).

The analysis of static equilibrium is very important in engineering practice. The design engineer must isolate and identify all the external forces and torques that may act on a structure and, by good design and wise choice of materials, ensure that the structure will remain stable under these loads. Such analysis is necessary to ensure, for example, that bridges do not collapse under their traffic and wind loads and that the landing gear of aircraft will function after the shock of rough landings.

Robert Brenner/PhotoEdit

Figure 12-3 A construction worker balanced on a steel beam is in static equilibrium but is more stable parallel to the beam than perpendicular to it.

The Requirements of Equilibrium

The translational motion of a body is governed by Newton's second law in its linear momentum form, given by Eq. 9-27 as

$$\vec{F}_{\text{net}} = \frac{d\vec{P}}{dt}. \tag{12-2}$$

If the body is in translational equilibrium—that is, if $\vec{P}$ is a constant—then $d\vec{P}/dt = 0$ and we must have

$$\vec{F}_{\text{net}} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of forces).} \tag{12-3}$$

The rotational motion of a body is governed by Newton's second law in its angular momentum form, given by Eq. 11-29 as

$$\vec{\tau}_{\text{net}} = \frac{d\vec{L}}{dt}. \tag{12-4}$$

If the body is in rotational equilibrium—that is, if $\vec{L}$ is a constant—then $d\vec{L}/dt = 0$ and we must have

$$\vec{\tau}_{\text{net}} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of torques).} \tag{12-5}$$

Thus, the two requirements for a body to be in equilibrium are as follows:

1. The vector sum of all the external forces that act on the body must be zero.
2. The vector sum of all external torques that act on the body, measured about *any* possible point, must also be zero.

These requirements obviously hold for *static* equilibrium. They also hold for the more general equilibrium in which $\vec{P}$ and $\vec{L}$ are constant but not zero.

Equations 12-3 and 12-5, as vector equations, are each equivalent to three independent component equations, one for each direction of the coordinate axes:

Balance of forces	Balance of torques
$F_{\text{net},x} = 0$	$\tau_{\text{net},x} = 0$
$F_{\text{net},y} = 0$	$\tau_{\text{net},y} = 0$
$F_{\text{net},z} = 0$	$\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0$

(12-6)

The Main Equations. We shall simplify matters by considering only situations in which the forces that act on the body lie in the xy plane. This means that the only torques that can act on the body must tend to cause rotation around an axis parallel to the z axis. With this assumption, we eliminate one force equation and two torque equations from Eqs. 12-6, leaving

$$F_{\text{net},x} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of forces)}, \tag{12-7}$$

$$F_{\text{net},y} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of forces)}, \tag{12-8}$$

$$\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of torques)}. \tag{12-9}$$

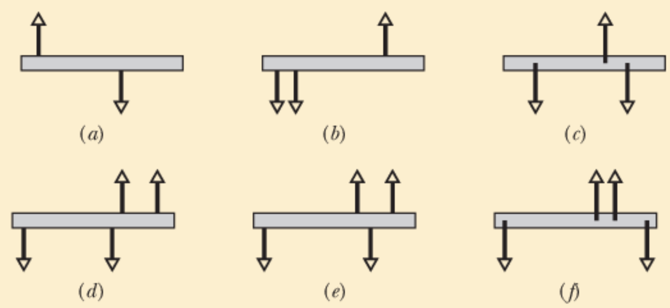
Here, $\tau_{\text{net},z}$ is the net torque that the external forces produce either about the z axis or about *any* axis parallel to it.

A hockey puck sliding at constant velocity over ice satisfies Eqs. 12-7, 12-8, and 12-9 and is thus in equilibrium *but not in static equilibrium.* For static equilibrium, the linear momentum $\vec{P}$ of the puck must be not only constant but also zero; the puck must be at rest on the ice. Thus, there is another requirement for static equilibrium:

3. The linear momentum $\vec{P}$ of the body must be zero.

Checkpoint 1

The figure gives six overhead views of a uniform rod on which two or more forces act perpendicularly to the rod. If the magnitudes of the forces are adjusted properly (but kept nonzero), in which situations can the rod be in static equilibrium?



The Center of Gravity

The gravitational force on an extended body is the vector sum of the gravitational forces acting on the individual elements (the atoms) of the body. Instead of considering all those individual elements, we can say that

The gravitational force $\vec{F}_g$ on a body effectively acts at a single point, called the **center of gravity** (cog) of the body.

Here the word "effectively" means that if the gravitational forces on the individual elements were somehow turned off and the gravitational force $\vec{F}_g$ at the center of gravity were turned on, the net force and the net torque (about any point) acting on the body would not change.

Until now, we have assumed that the gravitational force $\vec{F}_g$ acts at the center of mass (com) of the body. This is equivalent to assuming that the center of gravity is at the center of mass. Recall that, for a body of mass M, the force $\vec{F}_g$ is equal to $M\vec{g}$, where $\vec{g}$ is the acceleration that the force would produce if the body were to fall freely. In the proof that follows, we show that

> If $\vec{g}$ is the same for all elements of a body, then the body's center of gravity (cog) is coincident with the body's center of mass (com).

This is approximately true for everyday objects because $\vec{g}$ varies only a little along Earth's surface and decreases in magnitude only slightly with altitude. Thus, for objects like a mouse or a moose, we have been justified in assuming that the gravitational force acts at the center of mass. After the following proof, we shall resume that assumption.

Proof

First, we consider the individual elements of the body. Figure 12-4*a* shows an extended body, of mass M, and one of its elements, of mass m_i. A gravitational force $\vec{F}_{gi}$ acts on each such element and is equal to $m_i\vec{g}_i$. The subscript on $\vec{g}_i$ means $\vec{g}_i$ is the gravitational acceleration *at the location of the element i* (it can be different for other elements).

For the body in Fig. 12-4*a*, each force $\vec{F}_{gi}$ acting on an element produces a torque τ_i on the element about the origin O, with a moment arm x_i. Using Eq. 10-41 ($\tau = r_\perp F$) as a guide, we can write each torque τ_i as

$$\tau_i = x_i F_{gi}. \tag{12-10}$$

The net torque on all the elements of the body is then

$$\tau_{\text{net}} = \sum \tau_i = \sum x_i F_{gi}. \tag{12-11}$$

Next, we consider the body as a whole. Figure 12-4*b* shows the gravitational force $\vec{F}_g$ acting at the body's center of gravity. This force produces a torque τ on the body about O, with moment arm x_{cog}. Again using Eq. 10-41, we can write this torque as

$$\tau = x_{\text{cog}} F_g. \tag{12-12}$$

The gravitational force $\vec{F}_g$ on the body is equal to the sum of the gravitational forces $\vec{F}_{gi}$ on all its elements, so we can substitute ΣF_{gi} for F_g in Eq. 12-12 to write

$$\tau = x_{\text{cog}} \sum F_{gi}. \tag{12-13}$$

Now recall that the torque due to force $\vec{F}_g$ acting at the center of gravity is equal to the net torque due to all the forces $\vec{F}_{gi}$ acting on all the elements of the body. (That is how we defined the center of gravity.) Thus, τ in Eq. 12-13 is equal to τ_{net} in Eq. 12-11. Putting those two equations together, we can write

$$x_{\text{cog}} \sum F_{gi} = \sum x_i F_{gi}.$$

Substituting $m_i g_i$ for F_{gi} gives us

$$x_{\text{cog}} \sum m_i g_i = \sum x_i m_i g_i. \tag{12-14}$$

Now here is a key idea: If the accelerations g_i at all the locations of the elements are the same, we can cancel g_i from this equation to write

$$x_{\text{cog}} \sum m_i = \sum x_i m_i. \tag{12-15}$$

The sum Σm_i of the masses of all the elements is the mass M of the body. Therefore, we can rewrite Eq. 12-15 as

$$x_{\text{cog}} = \frac{1}{M} \sum x_i m_i. \tag{12-16}$$

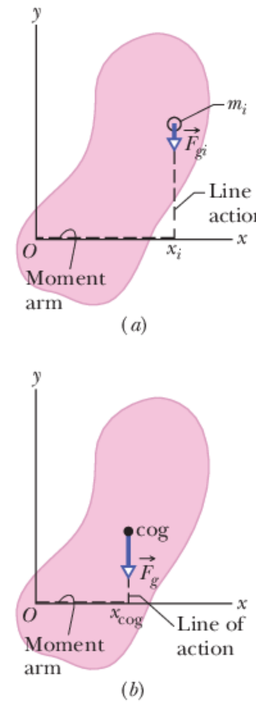


Figure 12-4 (*a*) An element of mass m_i in an extended body. The gravitational force $\vec{F}_{gi}$ on the element has moment arm x_i about the origin O of the coordinate system. (*b*) The gravitational force $\vec{F}_g$ on a body is said to act at the center of gravity (cog) of the body. Here $\vec{F}_g$ has moment arm x_{cog} about origin O.

The right side of this equation gives the coordinate x_{com} of the body's center of mass (Eq. 9-4). We now have what we sought to prove. If the acceleration of gravity is the same at all locations of the elements in a body, then the coordinates of the body's com and cog are identical:

$$x_{cog} = x_{com}. \tag{12-17}$$

12-2 SOME EXAMPLES OF STATIC EQUILIBRIUM

Learning Objectives

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

12.05 Apply the force and torque conditions for static equilibrium.

12.06 Identify that a wise choice about the placement of the origin (about which to calculate torques) can simplify the calculations by eliminating one or more unknown forces from the torque equation.

Key Ideas

- A rigid body at rest is said to be in static equilibrium. For such a body, the vector sum of the external forces acting on it is zero:

$$\vec{F}_{net} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of forces)}.$$

If all the forces lie in the xy plane, this vector equation is equivalent to two component equations:

$$F_{net,x} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad F_{net,y} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of forces)}.$$

- Static equilibrium also implies that the vector sum of the external torques acting on the body about *any* point is zero, or

$$\vec{\tau}_{net} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of torques)}.$$

If the forces lie in the xy plane, all torque vectors are parallel to the z axis, and the balance-of-torques equation is equivalent to the single component equation

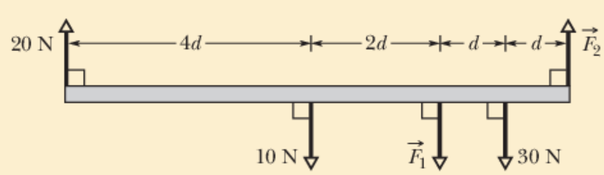
$$\tau_{net,z} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of torques)}.$$

Some Examples of Static Equilibrium

Here we examine several sample problems involving static equilibrium. In each, we select a system of one or more objects to which we apply the equations of equilibrium (Eqs. 12-7, 12-8, and 12-9). The forces involved in the equilibrium are all in the xy plane, which means that the torques involved are parallel to the z axis. Thus, in applying Eq. 12-9, the balance of torques, we select an axis parallel to the z axis about which to calculate the torques. Although Eq. 12-9 is satisfied for *any* such choice of axis, you will see that certain choices simplify the application of Eq. 12-9 by eliminating one or more unknown force terms.

Checkpoint 2

The figure gives an overhead view of a uniform rod in static equilibrium. (a) Can you find the magnitudes of unknown forces $\vec{F}_1$ and $\vec{F}_2$ by balancing the forces? (b) If you wish to find the magnitude of force $\vec{F}_2$ by using a balance of torques equation, where should you place a rotation axis to eliminate $\vec{F}_1$ from the equation? (c) The magnitude of $\vec{F}_2$ turns out to be 65 N. What then is the magnitude of $\vec{F}_1$?



Sample Problem 12.01 Balancing a horizontal beam

In Fig. 12-5*a*, a uniform beam, of length L and mass $m = 1.8$ kg, is at rest on two scales. A uniform block, with mass $M = 2.7$ kg, is at rest on the beam, with its center a distance $L/4$ from the beam's left end. What do the scales read?

KEY IDEAS

The first steps in the solution of *any* problem about static equilibrium are these: Clearly define the system to be analyzed and then draw a free-body diagram of it, indicating all the forces on the system. Here, let us choose the system as the beam and block taken together. Then the forces on the system are shown in the free-body diagram of Fig. 12-5*b*. (Choosing the system takes experience, and often there can be more than one good choice.) Because the system is in static equilibrium, we can apply the balance of forces equations (Eqs. 12-7 and 12-8) and the balance of torques equation (Eq. 12-9) to it.

Calculations: The normal forces on the beam from the scales are $\vec{F}_l$ on the left and $\vec{F}_r$ on the right. The scale readings that we want are equal to the magnitudes of those forces. The gravitational force $\vec{F}_{g,beam}$ on the beam acts at the beam's center of mass and is equal to $m\vec{g}$. Similarly, the gravitational force $\vec{F}_{g,block}$ on the block acts at the block's center of mass and is equal to $M\vec{g}$. However, to simplify Fig. 12-5*b*, the block is represented by a dot within the boundary of the beam and vector $\vec{F}_{g,block}$ is drawn with its tail on that dot. (This shift of the vector $\vec{F}_{g,block}$ along its line of action does not alter the torque due to $\vec{F}_{g,block}$ about any axis perpendicular to the figure.)

The forces have no x components, so Eq. 12-7 ($F_{\text{net},x} = 0$) provides no information. For the y components, Eq. 12-8 ($F_{\text{net},y} = 0$) gives us

$$F_l + F_r - Mg - mg = 0. \qquad (12\text{-}18)$$

This equation contains two unknowns, the forces F_l and F_r, so we also need to use Eq. 12-9, the balance of torques equation. We can apply it to *any* rotation axis perpendicular to the plane of Fig. 12-5. Let us choose a rotation axis through the left end of the beam. We shall also use our general rule for assigning signs to torques: If a torque would cause an initially stationary body to rotate clockwise about the rotation axis, the torque is negative. If the rotation would be counterclockwise, the torque is positive. Finally, we shall write the torques in the form $r_\perp F$, where the moment arm $r_\perp$ is 0 for $\vec{F}_l$, $L/4$ for $M\vec{g}$, $L/2$ for $m\vec{g}$, and L for $\vec{F}_r$.

We now can write the balancing equation ($\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0$) as

$$(0)(F_l) - (L/4)(Mg) - (L/2)(mg) + (L)(F_r) = 0,$$

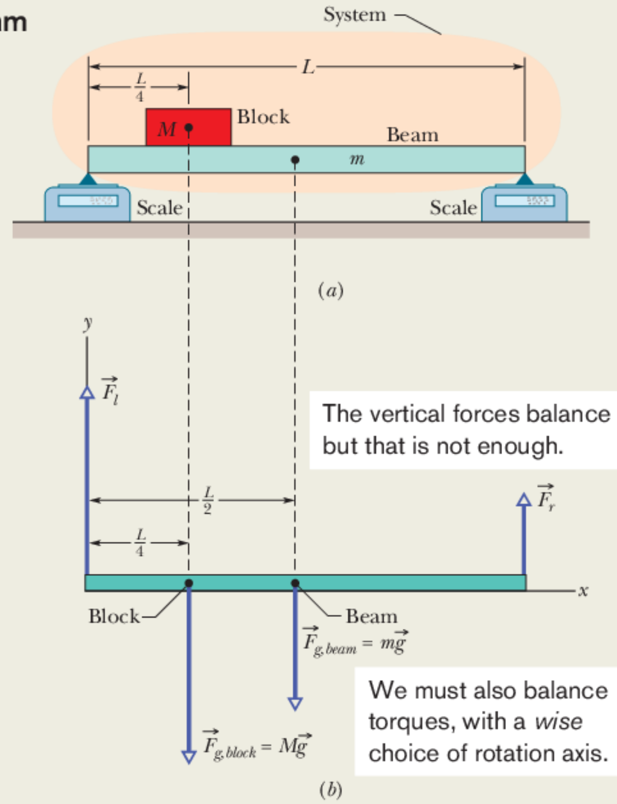


Figure 12-5 (*a*) A beam of mass m supports a block of mass M. (*b*) A free-body diagram, showing the forces that act on the system *beam* + *block*.

which gives us

$$F_r = \tfrac{1}{4}Mg + \tfrac{1}{2}mg$$
$$= \tfrac{1}{4}(2.7\text{ kg})(9.8\text{ m/s}^2) + \tfrac{1}{2}(1.8\text{ kg})(9.8\text{ m/s}^2)$$
$$= 15.44\text{ N} \approx 15\text{ N}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

Now, solving Eq. 12-18 for F_l and substituting this result, we find

$$F_l = (M + m)g - F_r$$
$$= (2.7\text{ kg} + 1.8\text{ kg})(9.8\text{ m/s}^2) - 15.44\text{ N}$$
$$= 28.66\text{ N} \approx 29\text{ N}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

Notice the strategy in the solution: When we wrote an equation for the balance of force components, we got stuck with two unknowns. If we had written an equation for the balance of torques around some *arbitrary* axis, we would have again gotten stuck with those two unknowns. However, because we chose the axis to pass through the point of application of one of the unknown forces, here $\vec{F}_l$, we did not get stuck. Our choice neatly eliminated that force from the torque equation, allowing us to solve for the other unknown force magnitude F_r. Then we returned to the equation for the balance of force components to find the remaining unknown force magnitude.

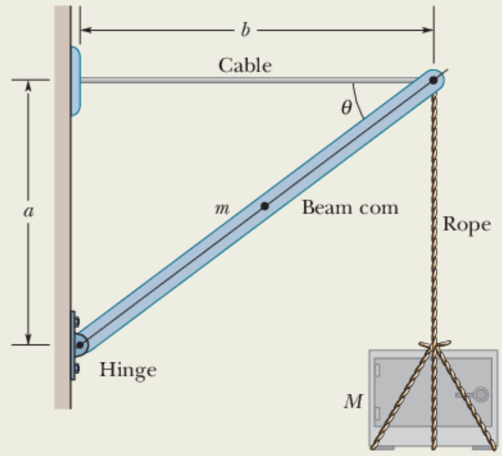
Sample Problem 12.02 Balancing a leaning boom

Figure 12-6*a* shows a safe (mass $M = 430$ kg) hanging by a rope (negligible mass) from a boom ($a = 1.9$ m and $b = 2.5$ m) that consists of a uniform hinged beam ($m = 85$ kg) and horizontal cable (negligible mass).

(a) What is the tension T_c in the cable? In other words, what is the magnitude of the force $\vec{T}_c$ on the beam from the cable?

KEY IDEAS

The system here is the beam alone, and the forces on it are shown in the free-body diagram of Fig. 12-6*b*. The force from the cable is $\vec{T}_c$. The gravitational force on the beam acts at the beam's center of mass (at the beam's center) and is represented by its equivalent $m\vec{g}$. The vertical component of the force on the beam from the hinge is $\vec{F}_v$, and the horizontal component of the force from the hinge is $\vec{F}_h$. The force from the rope supporting the safe is $\vec{T}_r$. Because beam, rope, and safe are stationary, the magnitude of $\vec{T}_r$ is equal to the weight of the safe: $T_r = Mg$. We place the origin O of an xy coordinate system at the hinge. Because the system is in static equilibrium, the balancing equations apply to it.



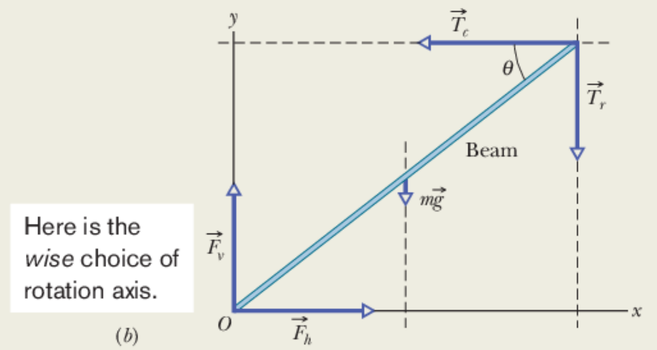


Figure 12-6 (*a*) A heavy safe is hung from a boom consisting of a horizontal steel cable and a uniform beam. (*b*) A free-body diagram for the beam.

Calculations: Let us start with Eq. 12-9 ($\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0$). Note that we are asked for the magnitude of force $\vec{T}_c$ and not of forces $\vec{F}_h$ and $\vec{F}_v$ acting at the hinge, at point O. To eliminate $\vec{F}_h$ and $\vec{F}_v$ from the torque calculation, we should calculate torques about an axis that is perpendicular to the figure at point O. Then $\vec{F}_h$ and $\vec{F}_v$ will have moment arms of zero. The lines of action for $\vec{T}_c$, $\vec{T}_r$, and $m\vec{g}$ are dashed in Fig. 12-6*b*. The corresponding moment arms are a, b, and $b/2$.

Writing torques in the form of $r_\perp F$ and using our rule about signs for torques, the balancing equation $\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0$ becomes

$$(a)(T_c) - (b)(T_r) - (\tfrac{1}{2}b)(mg) = 0. \qquad (12\text{-}19)$$

Substituting Mg for T_r and solving for T_c, we find that

$$T_c = \frac{gb(M + \frac{1}{2}m)}{a} = \frac{(9.8\ \text{m/s}^2)(2.5\ \text{m})(430\ \text{kg} + 85/2\ \text{kg})}{1.9\ \text{m}}$$

$$= 6093\ \text{N} \approx 6100\ \text{N}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

(b) Find the magnitude F of the net force on the beam from the hinge.

KEY IDEA

Now we want the horizontal component F_h and vertical component F_v so that we can combine them to get the magnitude F of the net force. Because we know T_c, we apply the force balancing equations to the beam.

Calculations: For the horizontal balance, we can rewrite $F_{\text{net},x} = 0$ as

$$F_h - T_c = 0, \qquad (12\text{-}20)$$

and so

$$F_h = T_c = 6093\ \text{N}.$$

For the vertical balance, we write $F_{\text{net},y} = 0$ as

$$F_v - mg - T_r = 0.$$

Substituting Mg for T_r and solving for F_v, we find that

$$F_v = (m + M)g = (85\ \text{kg} + 430\ \text{kg})(9.8\ \text{m/s}^2) = 5047\ \text{N}.$$

From the Pythagorean theorem, we now have

$$F = \sqrt{F_h^2 + F_v^2} = \sqrt{(6093\ \text{N})^2 + (5047\ \text{N})^2} \approx 7900\ \text{N}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

Note that F is substantially greater than either the combined weights of the safe and the beam, 5000 N, or the tension in the horizontal wire, 6100 N.

Sample Problem 12.03 Balancing a leaning ladder

In Fig. 12-7*a*, a ladder of length $L = 12$ m and mass $m = 45$ kg leans against a slick wall (that is, there is no friction between the ladder and the wall). The ladder's upper end is at height $h = 9.3$ m above the pavement on which the lower end is supported (the pavement is not frictionless). The ladder's center of mass is $L/3$ from the lower end, along the length of the ladder. A firefighter of mass $M = 72$ kg climbs the ladder until her center of mass is $L/2$ from the lower end. What then are the magnitudes of the forces on the ladder from the wall and the pavement?

KEY IDEAS

First, we choose our system as being the firefighter and ladder, together, and then we draw the free-body diagram of Fig. 12-7*b* to show the forces acting on the system. Because the system is in static equilibrium, the balancing equations for both forces and torques (Eqs. 12-7 through 12-9) can be applied to it.

Calculations: In Fig. 12-7*b*, the firefighter is represented with a dot within the boundary of the ladder. The gravitational force on her is represented with its equivalent expression $M\vec{g}$, and that vector has been shifted along its line of action (the line extending through the force vector), so that its tail is on the dot. (The shift does not alter a torque due to $M\vec{g}$ about any axis perpendicular to the figure. Thus, the shift does not affect the torque balancing equation that we shall be using.)

The only force on the ladder from the wall is the horizontal force $\vec{F}_w$ (there cannot be a frictional force along a frictionless wall, so there is no vertical force on the ladder from the wall). The force $\vec{F}_p$ on the ladder from the pavement has two components: a horizontal component $\vec{F}_{px}$ that is a static frictional force and a vertical component $\vec{F}_{py}$ that is a normal force.

To apply the balancing equations, let's start with the torque balancing of Eq. 12-9 ($\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0$). To choose an axis about which to calculate the torques, note that we have unknown forces ($\vec{F}_w$ and $\vec{F}_p$) at the two ends of the ladder. To eliminate, say, $\vec{F}_p$ from the calculation, we place the axis at point O, perpendicular to the figure (Fig. 12-7*b*). We also place the origin of an xy coordinate system at O. We can find torques about O with any of Eqs. 10-39 through 10-41, but Eq. 10-41 ($\tau = r_\perp F$) is easiest to use here. *Making a wise choice about the placement of the origin can make our torque calculation much easier.*

To find the moment arm $r_\perp$ of the horizontal force $\vec{F}_w$ from the wall, we draw a line of action through that vector

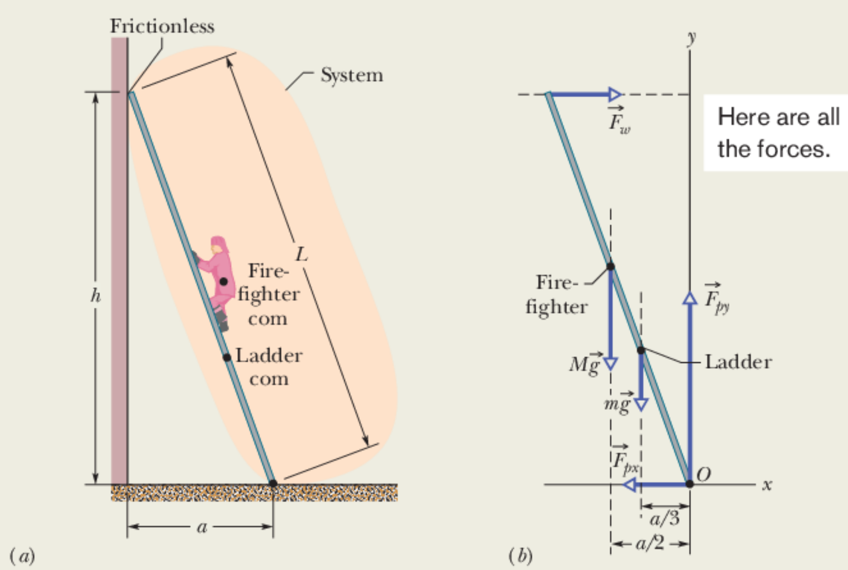


Figure 12-7 (*a*) A firefighter climbs halfway up a ladder that is leaning against a frictionless wall. The pavement beneath the ladder is not frictionless. (*b*) A free-body diagram, showing the forces that act on the *firefighter + ladder* system. The origin O of a coordinate system is placed at the point of application of the unknown force $\vec{F}_p$ (whose vector components $\vec{F}_{px}$ and $\vec{F}_{py}$ are shown). (*Figure 12-7 continues on following page.*)

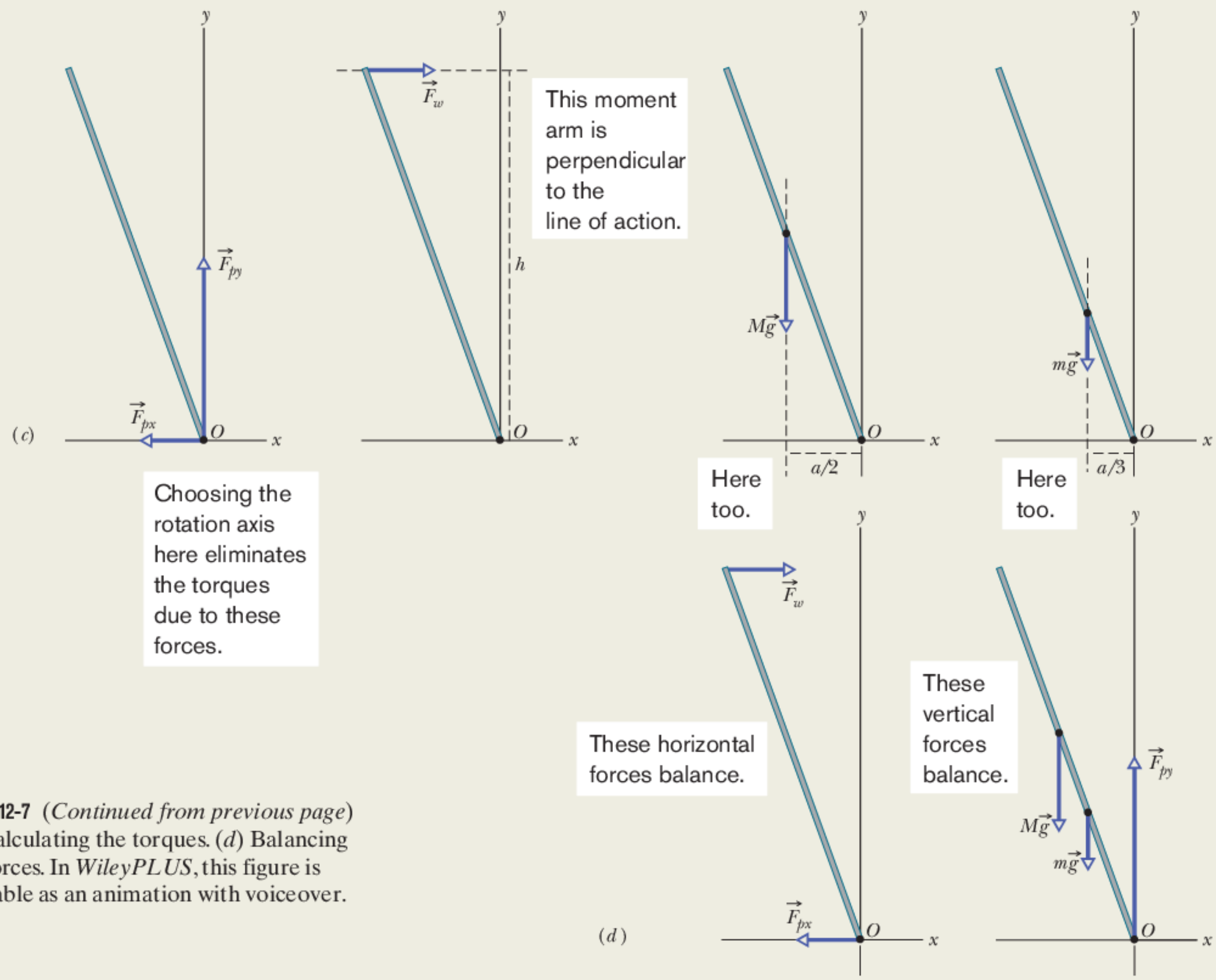


Figure 12-7 *(Continued from previous page)* (*c*) Calculating the torques. (*d*) Balancing the forces. In *WileyPLUS*, this figure is available as an animation with voiceover.

(it is the horizontal dashed line shown in Fig. 12-7*c*). Then $r_\perp$ is the perpendicular distance between O and the line of action. In Fig. 12-7*c*, $r_\perp$ extends along the y axis and is equal to the height h. We similarly draw lines of action for the gravitational force vectors $M\vec{g}$ and $m\vec{g}$ and see that their moment arms extend along the x axis. For the distance a shown in Fig. 12-7*a*, the moment arms are $a/2$ (the firefighter is halfway up the ladder) and $a/3$ (the ladder's center of mass is one-third of the way up the ladder), respectively. The moment arms for $\vec{F}_{px}$ and $\vec{F}_{py}$ are zero because the forces act at the origin.

Now, with torques written in the form $r_\perp F$, the balancing equation $\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0$ becomes

$$-(h)(F_w) + (a/2)(Mg) + (a/3)(mg) + (0)(F_{px}) + (0)(F_{py}) = 0. \quad (12\text{-}21)$$

(A positive torque corresponds to counterclockwise rotation and a negative torque corresponds to clockwise rotation.)

Using the Pythagorean theorem for the right triangle made by the ladder in Fig. 11-7*a*, we find that

$$a = \sqrt{L^2 - h^2} = 7.58 \text{ m}.$$

Then Eq. 12-21 gives us

$$F_w = \frac{ga(M/2 + m/3)}{h} = \frac{(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2)(7.58 \text{ m})(72/2 \text{ kg} + 45/3 \text{ kg})}{9.3 \text{ m}}$$

$$= 407 \text{ N} \approx 410 \text{ N}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

Now we need to use the force balancing equations and Fig. 12-7*d*. The equation $F_{\text{net},x} = 0$ gives us

$$F_w - F_{px} = 0,$$

so

$$F_{px} = F_w = 410 \text{ N}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

The equation $F_{\text{net},y} = 0$ gives us

$$F_{py} - Mg - mg = 0,$$

so

$$F_{py} = (M + m)g = (72 \text{ kg} + 45 \text{ kg})(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2) = 1146.6 \text{ N} \approx 1100 \text{ N}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

Sample Problem 12.04 Balancing the leaning Tower of Pisa

Let's assume that the Tower of Pisa is a uniform hollow cylinder of radius $R = 9.8$ m and height $h = 60$ m. The center of mass is located at height $h/2$, along the cylinder's central axis. In Fig. 12-8*a*, the cylinder is upright. In Fig. 12-8*b*, it leans rightward (toward the tower's southern wall) by $\theta = 5.5°$, which shifts the com by a distance d. Let's assume that the ground exerts only two forces on the tower. A normal force $\vec{F}_{NL}$ acts on the left (northern) wall, and a normal force $\vec{F}_{NR}$ acts on the right (southern) wall. By what percent does the magnitude F_{NR} increase because of the leaning?

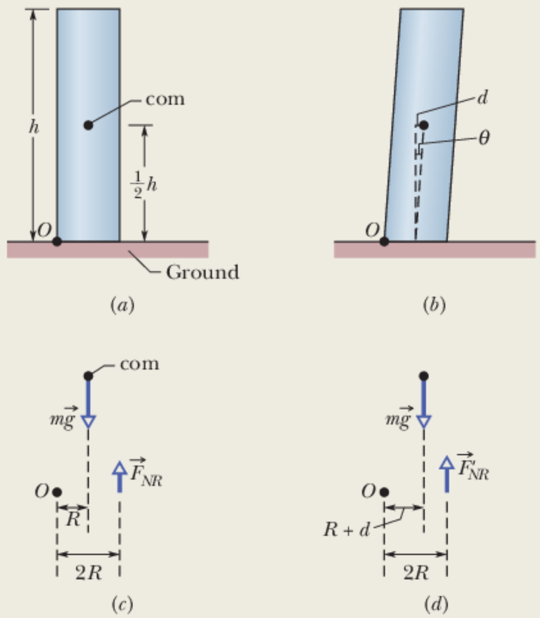


Figure 12-8 A cylinder modeling the Tower of Pisa: (*a*) upright and (*b*) leaning, with the center of mass shifted rightward. The forces and moment arms to find torques about a pivot at point O for the cylinder (*c*) upright and (*d*) leaning.

KEY IDEA

Because the tower is still standing, it is in equilibrium and thus the sum of torques calculated around any point must be zero.

Calculations: Because we want to calculate F_{NR} on the right side and do not know or want F_{NL} on the left side, we use a pivot point on the left side to calculate torques. The forces on the upright tower are represented in Fig. 12-8*c*. The gravitational force $m\vec{g}$, taken to act at the com, has a vertical line of action and a moment arm of R (the perpendicular distance from the pivot to the line of action). About the pivot, the torque associated with this force would tend to create clockwise rotation and thus is negative. The normal force $\vec{F}_{NR}$ on the southern wall also has a vertical line of action, and its moment arm is $2R$. About the pivot, the torque associated with this force would tend to create counterclockwise rotation and thus is positive. We now can write the torque-balancing equation ($\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0$) as

$$-(R)(mg) + (2R)(F_{NR}) = 0,$$

which yields

$$F_{NR} = \tfrac{1}{2}mg.$$

We should have been able to guess this result: With the center of mass located on the central axis (the cylinder's line of symmetry), the right side supports half the cylinder's weight.

In Fig. 12-8*b*, the com is shifted rightward by distance

$$d = \tfrac{1}{2}h \tan\theta.$$

The only change in the balance of torques equation is that the moment arm for the gravitational force is now $R + d$ and the normal force at the right has a new magnitude F'_{NR} (Fig. 12-8*d*). Thus, we write

$$-(R + d)(mg) + (2R)(F'_{NR}) = 0,$$

which gives us

$$F'_{NR} = \frac{(R + d)}{2R}mg.$$

Dividing this new result for the normal force at the right by the original result and then substituting for d, we obtain

$$\frac{F'_{NR}}{F_{NR}} = \frac{R + d}{R} = 1 + \frac{d}{R} = 1 + \frac{0.5h\tan\theta}{R}.$$

Substituting the values of $h = 60$ m, $R = 9.8$ m, and $\theta = 5.5°$ leads to

$$\frac{F'_{NR}}{F_{NR}} = 1.29.$$

Thus, our simple model predicts that, although the tilt is modest, the normal force on the tower's southern wall has increased by about 30%. One danger to the tower is that the force may cause the southern wall to buckle and explode outward. The cause of the leaning is the compressible soil beneath the tower, which worsened with each rainfall. Recently engineers have stabilized the tower and partially reversed the leaning by installing a drainage system.

12-3 ELASTICITY

Learning Objectives

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

12.07 Explain what an indeterminate situation is.
12.08 For tension and compression, apply the equation that relates stress to strain and Young's modulus.
12.09 Distinguish between yield strength and ultimate strength.
12.10 For shearing, apply the equation that relates stress to strain and the shear modulus.
12.11 For hydraulic stress, apply the equation that relates fluid pressure to strain and the bulk modulus.

Key Ideas

- Three elastic moduli are used to describe the elastic behavior (deformations) of objects as they respond to forces that act on them. The strain (fractional change in length) is linearly related to the applied stress (force per unit area) by the proper modulus, according to the general stress–strain relation

$$\text{stress} = \text{modulus} \times \text{strain}.$$

- When an object is under tension or compression, the stress–strain relation is written as

$$\frac{F}{A} = E\frac{\Delta L}{L},$$

where $\Delta L/L$ is the tensile or compressive strain of the object, F is the magnitude of the applied force $\vec{F}$ causing the strain, A is the cross-sectional area over which $\vec{F}$ is applied (perpendicular to A), and E is the Young's modulus for the object. The stress is F/A.

- When an object is under a shearing stress, the stress–strain relation is written as

$$\frac{F}{A} = G\frac{\Delta x}{L},$$

where $\Delta x/L$ is the shearing strain of the object, Δx is the displacement of one end of the object in the direction of the applied force $\vec{F}$, and G is the shear modulus of the object. The stress is F/A.

- When an object undergoes hydraulic compression due to a stress exerted by a surrounding fluid, the stress–strain relation is written as

$$p = B\frac{\Delta V}{V},$$

where p is the pressure (hydraulic stress) on the object due to the fluid, $\Delta V/V$ (the strain) is the absolute value of the fractional change in the object's volume due to that pressure, and B is the bulk modulus of the object.

Indeterminate Structures

For the problems of this chapter, we have only three independent equations at our disposal, usually two balance of forces equations and one balance-of-torques equation about a given rotation axis. Thus, if a problem has more than three unknowns, we cannot solve it.

Consider an unsymmetrically loaded car. What are the forces—all different—on the four tires? Again, we cannot find them because we have only three independent equations. Similarly, we can solve an equilibrium problem for a table with three legs but not for one with four legs. Problems like these, in which there are more unknowns than equations, are called **indeterminate.**

Yet solutions to indeterminate problems exist in the real world. If you rest the tires of the car on four platform scales, each scale will register a definite reading, the sum of the readings being the weight of the car. What is eluding us in our efforts to find the individual forces by solving equations?

The problem is that we have assumed—without making a great point of it—that the bodies to which we apply the equations of static equilibrium are perfectly rigid. By this we mean that they do not deform when forces are applied to them. Strictly, there are no such bodies. The tires of the car, for example, deform easily under load until the car settles into a position of static equilibrium.

We have all had experience with a wobbly restaurant table, which we usually level by putting folded paper under one of the legs. If a big enough elephant sat on such a table, however, you may be sure that if the table did not collapse, it would deform just like the tires of a car. Its legs would all touch the floor, the forces acting upward on the table legs would all assume definite (and different) values as in Fig. 12-9, and the table would no longer wobble. Of course, we (and the elephant) would be thrown out onto the street but, in principle, how do we find the individual values of those forces acting on the legs in this or similar situations where there is deformation?

To solve such indeterminate equilibrium problems, we must supplement equilibrium equations with some knowledge of *elasticity,* the branch of physics and engineering that describes how real bodies deform when forces are applied to them.

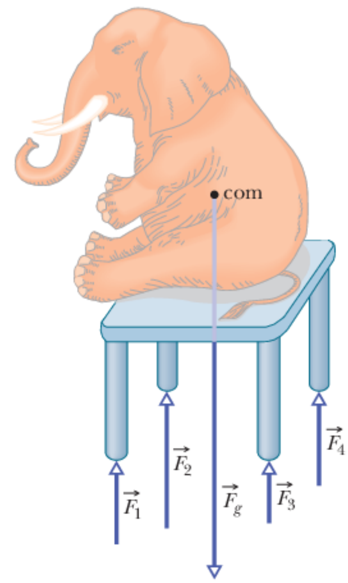
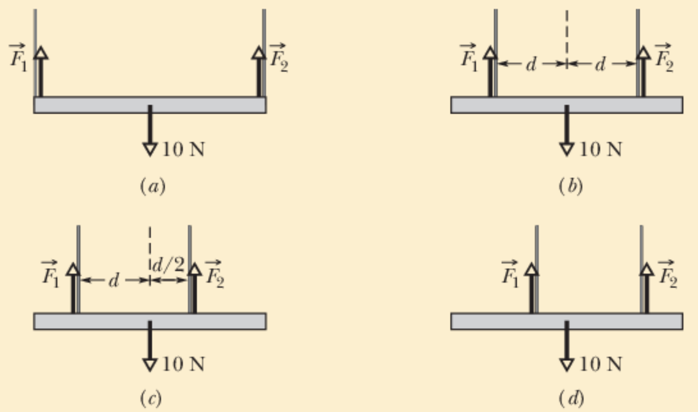


Figure 12-9 The table is an indeterminate structure. The four forces on the table legs differ from one another in magnitude and cannot be found from the laws of static equilibrium alone.

Checkpoint 3

A horizontal uniform bar of weight 10 N is to hang from a ceiling by two wires that exert upward forces $\vec{F}_1$ and $\vec{F}_2$ on the bar. The figure shows four arrangements for the wires. Which arrangements, if any, are indeterminate (so that we cannot solve for numerical values of $\vec{F}_1$ and $\vec{F}_2$)?



Elasticity

When a large number of atoms come together to form a metallic solid, such as an iron nail, they settle into equilibrium positions in a three-dimensional *lattice,* a repetitive arrangement in which each atom is a well-defined equilibrium distance from its nearest neighbors. The atoms are held together by interatomic forces that are modeled as tiny springs in Fig. 12-10. The lattice is remarkably rigid, which is another way of saying that the "interatomic springs" are extremely stiff. It is for this reason that we perceive many ordinary objects, such as metal ladders, tables, and spoons, as perfectly rigid. Of course, some ordinary objects, such as garden hoses or rubber gloves, do not strike us as rigid at all. The atoms that make up these objects *do not* form a rigid lattice like that of Fig. 12-10 but are aligned in long, flexible molecular chains, each chain being only loosely bound to its neighbors.

All real "rigid" bodies are to some extent **elastic,** which means that we can change their dimensions slightly by pulling, pushing, twisting, or compressing them. To get a feeling for the orders of magnitude involved, consider a vertical steel rod 1 m long and 1 cm in diameter attached to a factory ceiling. If you hang a subcompact car from the free end of such a rod, the rod will stretch but only by about 0.5 mm, or 0.05%. Furthermore, the rod will return to its original length when the car is removed.

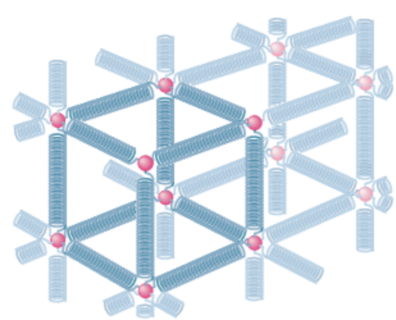


Figure 12-10 The atoms of a metallic solid are distributed on a repetitive three-dimensional lattice. The springs represent interatomic forces.

If you hang two cars from the rod, the rod will be permanently stretched and will not recover its original length when you remove the load. If you hang three cars from the rod, the rod will break. Just before rupture, the elongation of the

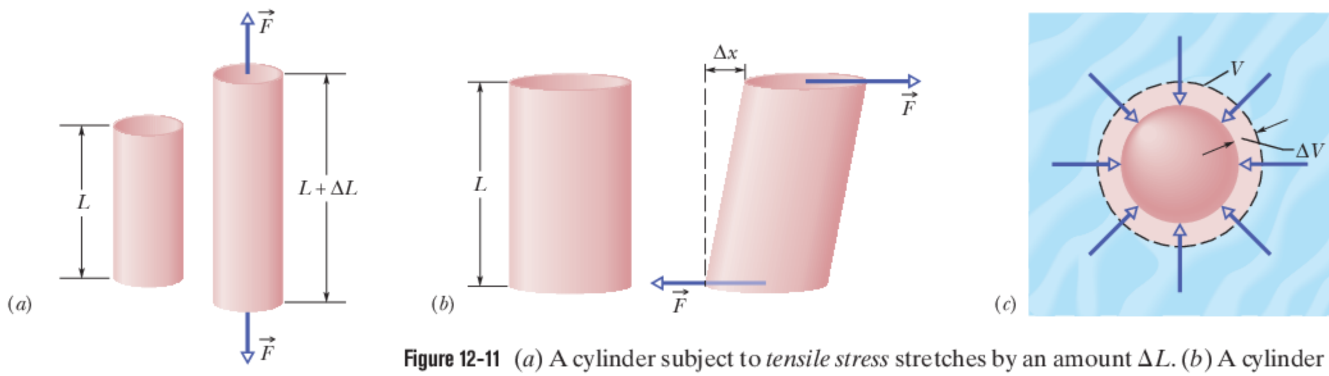


Figure 12-11 (*a*) A cylinder subject to *tensile stress* stretches by an amount ΔL. (*b*) A cylinder subject to *shearing stress* deforms by an amount Δx, somewhat like a pack of playing cards would. (*c*) A solid sphere subject to uniform *hydraulic stress* from a fluid shrinks in volume by an amount ΔV. All the deformations shown are greatly exaggerated.

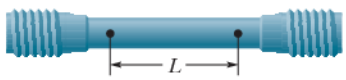


Figure 12-12 A test specimen used to determine a stress–strain curve such as that of Fig. 12-13. The change ΔL that occurs in a certain length L is measured in a tensile stress–strain test.

rod will be less than 0.2%. Although deformations of this size seem small, they are important in engineering practice. (Whether a wing under load will stay on an airplane is obviously important.)

Three Ways. Figure 12-11 shows three ways in which a solid might change its dimensions when forces act on it. In Fig. 12-11*a*, a cylinder is stretched. In Fig. 12-11*b*, a cylinder is deformed by a force perpendicular to its long axis, much as we might deform a pack of cards or a book. In Fig. 12-11*c*, a solid object placed in a fluid under high pressure is compressed uniformly on all sides. What the three deformation types have in common is that a **stress,** or deforming force per unit area, produces a **strain,** or unit deformation. In Fig. 12-11, *tensile stress* (associated with stretching) is illustrated in (*a*), *shearing stress* in (*b*), and *hydraulic stress* in (*c*).

The stresses and the strains take different forms in the three situations of Fig. 12-11, but—over the range of engineering usefulness—stress and strain are proportional to each other. The constant of proportionality is called a **modulus of elasticity,** so that

$$\text{stress} = \text{modulus} \times \text{strain}. \tag{12-22}$$

In a standard test of tensile properties, the tensile stress on a test cylinder (like that in Fig. 12-12) is slowly increased from zero to the point at which the cylinder fractures, and the strain is carefully measured and plotted. The result is a graph of stress versus strain like that in Fig. 12-13. For a substantial range of applied stresses, the stress–strain relation is linear, and the specimen recovers its original dimensions when the stress is removed; it is here that Eq. 12-22 applies. If the stress is increased beyond the **yield strength** S_y of the specimen, the specimen becomes permanently deformed. If the stress continues to increase, the specimen eventually ruptures, at a stress called the **ultimate strength** S_u.

Tension and Compression

For simple tension or compression, the stress on the object is defined as F/A, where F is the magnitude of the force applied perpendicularly to an area A on the object. The strain, or unit deformation, is then the dimensionless quantity $\Delta L/L$, the fractional (or sometimes percentage) change in a length of the specimen. If the specimen is a long rod and the stress does not exceed the yield strength, then not only the entire rod but also every section of it experiences the same strain when a given stress is applied. Because the strain is dimensionless, the modulus in Eq. 12-22 has the same dimensions as the stress—namely, force per unit area.

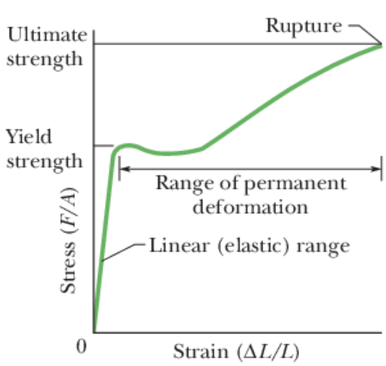


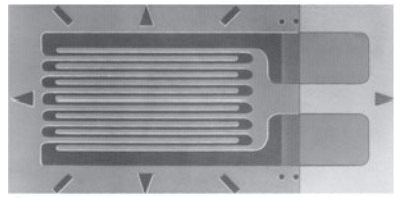
Figure 12-13 A stress–strain curve for a steel test specimen such as that of Fig. 12-12. The specimen deforms permanently when the stress is equal to the *yield strength* of the specimen's material. It ruptures when the stress is equal to the *ultimate strength* of the material.

The modulus for tensile and compressive stresses is called the **Young's modulus** and is represented in engineering practice by the symbol E. Equation 12-22 becomes

$$\frac{F}{A} = E\,\frac{\Delta L}{L}. \tag{12-23}$$

The strain $\Delta L/L$ in a specimen can often be measured conveniently with a *strain gage* (Fig. 12-14), which can be attached directly to operating machinery with an adhesive. Its electrical properties are dependent on the strain it undergoes.

Although the Young's modulus for an object may be almost the same for tension and compression, the object's ultimate strength may well be different for the two types of stress. Concrete, for example, is very strong in compression but is so weak in tension that it is almost never used in that manner. Table 12-1 shows the Young's modulus and other elastic properties for some materials of engineering interest.



Courtesy Micro Measurements, a Division of Vishay Precision Group, Raleigh, NC

Figure 12-14 A strain gage of overall dimensions 9.8 mm by 4.6 mm. The gage is fastened with adhesive to the object whose strain is to be measured; it experiences the same strain as the object. The electrical resistance of the gage varies with the strain, permitting strains up to 3% to be measured.

Shearing

In the case of shearing, the stress is also a force per unit area, but the force vector lies in the plane of the area rather than perpendicular to it. The strain is the dimensionless ratio $\Delta x/L$, with the quantities defined as shown in Fig. 12-11*b*. The corresponding modulus, which is given the symbol G in engineering practice, is called the **shear modulus.** For shearing, Eq. 12-22 is written as

$$\frac{F}{A} = G\,\frac{\Delta x}{L}. \tag{12-24}$$

Shearing occurs in rotating shafts under load and in bone fractures due to bending.

Hydraulic Stress

In Fig. 12-11*c*, the stress is the fluid pressure p on the object, and, as you will see in Chapter 14, pressure is a force per unit area. The strain is $\Delta V/V$, where V is the original volume of the specimen and ΔV is the absolute value of the change in volume. The corresponding modulus, with symbol B, is called the **bulk modulus** of the material. The object is said to be under *hydraulic compression,* and the pressure can be called the *hydraulic stress.* For this situation, we write Eq. 12-22 as

$$p = B\,\frac{\Delta V}{V}. \tag{12-25}$$

The bulk modulus is $2.2 \times 10^9\ \mathrm{N/m^2}$ for water and $1.6 \times 10^{11}\ \mathrm{N/m^2}$ for steel. The pressure at the bottom of the Pacific Ocean, at its average depth of about 4000 m, is $4.0 \times 10^7\ \mathrm{N/m^2}$. The fractional compression $\Delta V/V$ of a volume of water due to this pressure is 1.8%; that for a steel object is only about 0.025%. In general, solids—with their rigid atomic lattices—are less compressible than liquids, in which the atoms or molecules are less tightly coupled to their neighbors.

Table 12-1 **Some Elastic Properties of Selected Materials of Engineering Interest**

Material	Density ρ ($\mathrm{kg/m^3}$)	Young's Modulus E ($10^9\ \mathrm{N/m^2}$)	Ultimate Strength S_u ($10^6\ \mathrm{N/m^2}$)	Yield Strength S_y ($10^6\ \mathrm{N/m^2}$)
Steel[a]	7860	200	400	250
Aluminum	2710	70	110	95
Glass	2190	65	50[b]	—
Concrete[c]	2320	30	40[b]	—
Wood[d]	525	13	50[b]	—
Bone	1900	9[b]	170[b]	—
Polystyrene	1050	3	48	—

[a]Structural steel (ASTM-A36).
[b]In compression.
[c]High strength
[d]Douglas fir.

Sample Problem 12.05 Stress and strain of elongated rod

One end of a steel rod of radius $R = 9.5$ mm and length $L = 81$ cm is held in a vise. A force of magnitude $F = 62$ kN is then applied perpendicularly to the end face (uniformly across the area) at the other end, pulling directly away from the vise. What are the stress on the rod and the elongation ΔL and strain of the rod?

KEY IDEAS

(1) Because the force is perpendicular to the end face and uniform, the stress is the ratio of the magnitude F of the force to the area A. The ratio is the left side of Eq. 12-23. (2) The elongation ΔL is related to the stress and Young's modulus E by Eq. 12-23 ($F/A = E\,\Delta L/L$). (3) Strain is the ratio of the elongation to the initial length L.

Calculations: To find the stress, we write

$$\text{stress} = \frac{F}{A} = \frac{F}{\pi R^2} = \frac{6.2 \times 10^4\ \text{N}}{(\pi)(9.5 \times 10^{-3}\ \text{m})^2}$$
$$= 2.2 \times 10^8\ \text{N/m}^2. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

The yield strength for structural steel is 2.5×10^8 N/m^2, so this rod is dangerously close to its yield strength.

We find the value of Young's modulus for steel in Table 12-1. Then from Eq. 12-23 we find the elongation:

$$\Delta L = \frac{(F/A)L}{E} = \frac{(2.2 \times 10^8\ \text{N/m}^2)(0.81\ \text{m})}{2.0 \times 10^{11}\ \text{N/m}^2}$$
$$= 8.9 \times 10^{-4}\ \text{m} = 0.89\ \text{mm}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

For the strain, we have

$$\frac{\Delta L}{L} = \frac{8.9 \times 10^{-4}\ \text{m}}{0.81\ \text{m}}$$
$$= 1.1 \times 10^{-3} = 0.11\%. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

Sample Problem 12.06 Balancing a wobbly table

A table has three legs that are 1.00 m in length and a fourth leg that is longer by $d = 0.50$ mm, so that the table wobbles slightly. A steel cylinder with mass $M = 290$ kg is placed on the table (which has a mass much less than M) so that all four legs are compressed but unbuckled and the table is level but no longer wobbles. The legs are wooden cylinders with cross-sectional area $A = 1.0$ cm^2; Young's modulus is $E = 1.3 \times 10^{10}$ N/m^2. What are the magnitudes of the forces on the legs from the floor?

KEY IDEAS

We take the table plus steel cylinder as our system. The situation is like that in Fig. 12-9, except now we have a steel cylinder on the table. If the tabletop remains level, the legs must be compressed in the following ways: Each of the short legs must be compressed by the same amount (call it ΔL_3) and thus by the same force of magnitude F_3. The single long leg must be compressed by a larger amount ΔL_4 and thus by a force with a larger magnitude F_4. In other words, for a level tabletop, we must have

$$\Delta L_4 = \Delta L_3 + d. \qquad (12\text{-}26)$$

From Eq. 12-23, we can relate a change in length to the force causing the change with $\Delta L = FL/AE$, where L is the original length of a leg. We can use this relation to replace ΔL_4 and ΔL_3 in Eq. 12-26. However, note that we can approximate the original length L as being the same for all four legs.

Calculations: Making those replacements and that approximation gives us

$$\frac{F_4 L}{AE} = \frac{F_3 L}{AE} + d. \qquad (12\text{-}27)$$

We cannot solve this equation because it has two unknowns, F_4 and F_3.

To get a second equation containing F_4 and F_3, we can use a vertical y axis and then write the balance of vertical forces ($F_{\text{net},y} = 0$) as

$$3F_3 + F_4 - Mg = 0, \qquad (12\text{-}28)$$

where Mg is equal to the magnitude of the gravitational force on the system. (*Three* legs have force $\vec{F}_3$ on them.) To solve the simultaneous equations 12-27 and 12-28 for, say, F_3, we first use Eq. 12-28 to find that $F_4 = Mg - 3F_3$. Substituting that into Eq. 12-27 then yields, after some algebra,

$$F_3 = \frac{Mg}{4} - \frac{dAE}{4L}$$
$$= \frac{(290\ \text{kg})(9.8\ \text{m/s}^2)}{4} - \frac{(5.0 \times 10^{-4}\ \text{m})(10^{-4}\ \text{m}^2)(1.3 \times 10^{10}\ \text{N/m}^2)}{(4)(1.00\ \text{m})}$$
$$= 548\ \text{N} \approx 5.5 \times 10^2\ \text{N}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

From Eq. 12-28 we then find

$$F_4 = Mg - 3F_3 = (290\ \text{kg})(9.8\ \text{m/s}^2) - 3(548\ \text{N})$$
$$\approx 1.2\ \text{kN}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

You can show that the three short legs are each compressed by 0.42 mm and the single long leg by 0.92 mm.

WILEY PLUS Additional examples, video, and practice available at *WileyPLUS*

Review & Summary

Static Equilibrium A rigid body at rest is said to be in **static equilibrium.** For such a body, the vector sum of the external forces acting on it is zero:

$$\vec{F}_{\text{net}} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of forces).} \tag{12-3}$$

If all the forces lie in the xy plane, this vector equation is equivalent to two component equations:

$$F_{\text{net},x} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad F_{\text{net},y} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of forces).} \tag{12-7, 12-8}$$

Static equilibrium also implies that the vector sum of the external torques acting on the body about *any* point is zero, or

$$\vec{\tau}_{\text{net}} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of torques).} \tag{12-5}$$

If the forces lie in the xy plane, all torque vectors are parallel to the z axis, and Eq. 12-5 is equivalent to the single component equation

$$\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0 \quad \text{(balance of torques).} \tag{12-9}$$

Center of Gravity The gravitational force acts individually on each element of a body. The net effect of all individual actions may be found by imagining an equivalent total gravitational force $\vec{F}_g$ acting at the **center of gravity.** If the gravitational acceleration $\vec{g}$ is the same for all the elements of the body, the center of gravity is at the center of mass.

Elastic Moduli Three **elastic moduli** are used to describe the elastic behavior (deformations) of objects as they respond to forces that act on them. The **strain** (fractional change in length) is linearly related to the applied **stress** (force per unit area) by the proper modulus, according to the general relation

$$\text{stress} = \text{modulus} \times \text{strain.} \tag{12-22}$$

Tension and Compression When an object is under tension or compression, Eq. 12-22 is written as

$$\frac{F}{A} = E\,\frac{\Delta L}{L}, \tag{12-23}$$

where $\Delta L/L$ is the tensile or compressive strain of the object, F is the magnitude of the applied force $\vec{F}$ causing the strain, A is the cross-sectional area over which $\vec{F}$ is applied (perpendicular to A, as in Fig. 12-11a), and E is the **Young's modulus** for the object. The stress is F/A.

Shearing When an object is under a shearing stress, Eq. 12-22 is written as

$$\frac{F}{A} = G\,\frac{\Delta x}{L}, \tag{12-24}$$

where $\Delta x/L$ is the shearing strain of the object, Δx is the displacement of one end of the object in the direction of the applied force $\vec{F}$ (as in Fig. 12-11b), and G is the **shear modulus** of the object. The stress is F/A.

Hydraulic Stress When an object undergoes *hydraulic compression* due to a stress exerted by a surrounding fluid, Eq. 12-22 is written as

$$p = B\,\frac{\Delta V}{V}, \tag{12-25}$$

where p is the pressure (*hydraulic stress*) on the object due to the fluid, $\Delta V/V$ (the strain) is the absolute value of the fractional change in the object's volume due to that pressure, and B is the **bulk modulus** of the object.

Questions

1 Figure 12-15 shows three situations in which the same horizontal rod is supported by a hinge on a wall at one end and a cord at its other end. Without written calculation, rank the situations according to the magnitudes of (a) the force on the rod from the cord, (b) the vertical force on the rod from the hinge, and (c) the horizontal force on the rod from the hinge, greatest first.

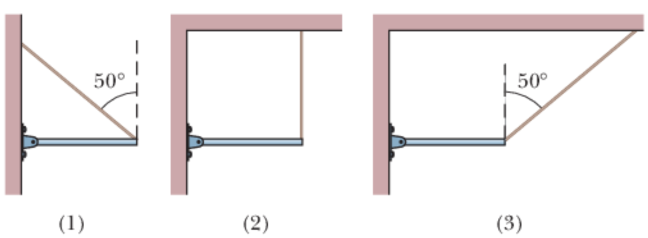


Figure 12-15 Question 1.

2 In Fig. 12-16, a rigid beam is attached to two posts that are fastened to a floor. A small but heavy safe is placed at the six positions indicated, in turn. Assume that the mass of the beam is negligible compared to that of the safe. (a) Rank the positions according to the force on post A due to the safe, greatest compression first, greatest tension last, and indicate where, if anywhere, the force is zero. (b) Rank them according to the force on post B.

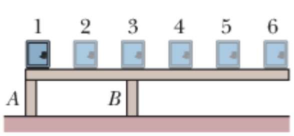


Figure 12-16 Question 2.

3 Figure 12-17 shows four overhead views of rotating uniform disks that are sliding across a frictionless floor. Three forces, of magnitude F, $2F$, or $3F$, act on each disk, either at the rim, at the center, or halfway between rim and center. The force vectors rotate along with the disks, and, in the "snapshots" of Fig. 12-17, point left or right. Which disks are in equilibrium?

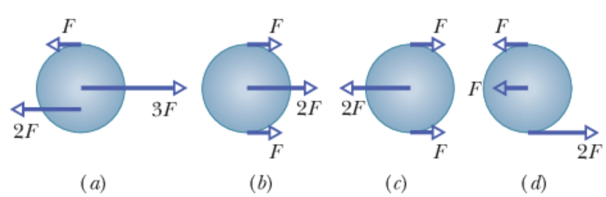


Figure 12-17 Question 3.

4 A ladder leans against a frictionless wall but is prevented from falling because of friction between it and the ground. Suppose you shift the base of the ladder toward the wall. Determine whether the following become larger, smaller, or stay the same (in magnitude): (a) the normal force on the ladder from the ground, (b) the force on the ladder from the wall, (c) the static frictional force on the ladder from the ground, and (d) the maximum value $f_{s,\max}$ of the static frictional force.

5 Figure 12-18 shows a mobile of toy penguins hanging from a ceiling. Each crossbar is horizontal, has negligible mass, and extends three times as far to the right of the wire supporting it as to the left. Penguin 1 has mass $m_1 = 48$ kg. What are the masses of (a) penguin 2, (b) penguin 3, and (c) penguin 4?

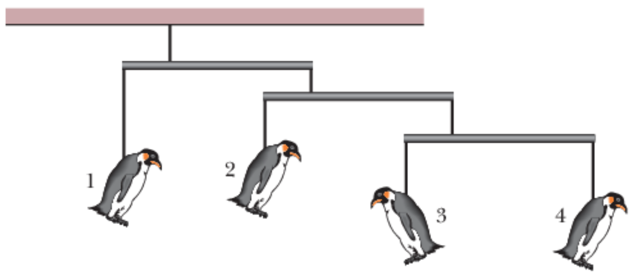


Figure 12-18 Question 5.

6 Figure 12-19 shows an overhead view of a uniform stick on which four forces act. Suppose we choose a rotation axis through point O, calculate the torques about that axis due to the forces, and find that these torques balance. Will the torques balance if, instead, the rotation axis is chosen to be at (a) point A (on the stick), (b) point B (on line with the stick), or (c) point C (off to one side of the stick)? (d) Suppose, instead, that we find that the torques about point O do not balance. Is there another point about which the torques will balance?

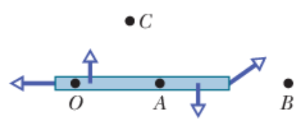


Figure 12-19 Question 6.

7 In Fig. 12-20, a stationary 5 kg rod AC is held against a wall by a rope and friction between rod and wall. The uniform rod is 1 m long, and angle $\theta = 30°$. (a) If you are to find the magnitude of the force $\vec{T}$ on the rod from the rope with a single equation, at what labeled point should a rotation axis be placed? With that choice of axis and counterclockwise torques positive, what is the sign of (b) the torque τ_w due to the rod's weight and (c) the torque τ_r due to the pull on the rod by the rope? (d) Is the magnitude of τ_r greater than, less than, or equal to the magnitude of τ_w?

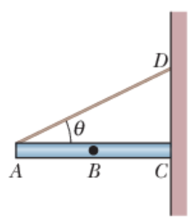


Figure 12-20 Question 7.

8 Three piñatas hang from the (stationary) assembly of massless pulleys and cords seen in Fig. 12-21. One long cord runs from the ceiling at the right to the lower pulley at the left, looping halfway around all the pulleys. Several shorter cords suspend pulleys from the ceiling or piñatas from the pulleys. The weights (in newtons) of two piñatas are given. (a) What is the weight of the third piñata? (*Hint:* A cord that loops halfway around a pulley pulls on the pulley with a net force that is twice the tension in the cord.) (b) What is the tension in the short cord labeled with T?

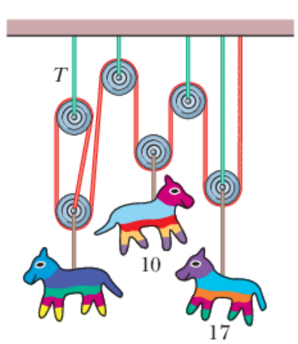


Figure 12-21 Question 8.

9 In Fig. 12-22, a vertical rod is hinged at its lower end and attached to a cable at its upper end. A horizontal force $\vec{F}_a$ is to be applied to the rod as shown. If the point at which the force is applied is moved up the rod, does the tension in the cable increase, decrease, or remain the same?

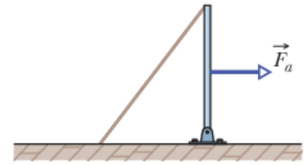


Figure 12-22 Question 9.

10 Figure 12-23 shows a horizontal block that is suspended by two wires, A and B, which are identical except for their original lengths. The center of mass of the block is closer to wire B than to wire A. (a) Measuring torques about the block's center of mass, state whether the magnitude of the torque due to wire A is greater than, less than, or equal to the magnitude of the torque due to wire B. (b) Which wire exerts more force on the block? (c) If the wires are now equal in length, which one was originally shorter (before the block was suspended)?

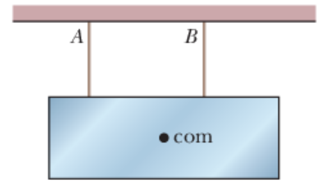


Figure 12-23 Question 10.

11 The table gives the initial lengths of three rods and the changes in their lengths when forces are applied to their ends to put them under strain. Rank the rods according to their strain, greatest first.

	Initial Length	Change in Length
Rod A	$2L_0$	ΔL_0
Rod B	$4L_0$	$2\Delta L_0$
Rod C	$10L_0$	$4\Delta L_0$

12 A physical therapist gone wild has constructed the (stationary) assembly of massless pulleys and cords seen in Fig. 12-24. One long cord wraps around all the pulleys, and shorter cords suspend pulleys from the ceiling or weights from the pulleys. Except for one, the weights (in newtons) are indicated. (a) What is that last weight? (*Hint:* When a cord loops halfway around a pulley as here, it pulls on the pulley with a net force that is twice the tension in the cord.) (b) What is the tension in the short cord labeled T?

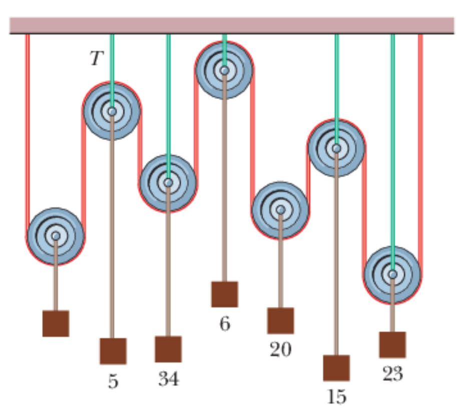


Figure 12-24 Question 12.

Problems

GO Tutoring problem available (at instructor's discretion) in *WileyPLUS* and WebAssign
SSM Worked-out solution available in Student Solutions Manual
• – ••• Number of dots indicates level of problem difficulty
Additional information available in *The Flying Circus of Physics* and at flyingcircusofphysics.com
WWW Worked-out solution is at
ILW Interactive solution is at
http://www.wiley.com/college/halliday

Module 12-1 Equilibrium

•1 Because g varies so little over the extent of most structures, any structure's center of gravity effectively coincides with its center of mass. Here is a fictitious example where g varies more significantly. Figure 12-25 shows an array of six particles, each with mass m, fixed to the edge of a rigid structure of negligible mass. The distance between adjacent particles along the edge is 2.00 m. The following table gives the value of g (m/s^2) at each particle's location. Using the coordinate system shown, find (a) the x coordinate x_{com} and (b) the y coordinate y_{com} of the center of mass of the six-particle system. Then find (c) the x coordinate x_{cog} and (d) the y coordinate y_{cog} of the center of gravity of the six-particle system.

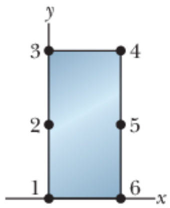


Figure 12-25 Problem 1.

Particle	g	Particle	g
1	8.00	4	7.40
2	7.80	5	7.60
3	7.60	6	7.80

Module 12-2 Some Examples of Static Equilibrium

•2 An automobile with a mass of 1360 kg has 3.05 m between the front and rear axles. Its center of gravity is located 1.78 m behind the front axle. With the automobile on level ground, determine the magnitude of the force from the ground on (a) each front wheel (assuming equal forces on the front wheels) and (b) each rear wheel (assuming equal forces on the rear wheels).

•3 SSM WWW In Fig. 12-26, a uniform sphere of mass $m = 0.85$ kg and radius $r = 4.2$ cm is held in place by a massless rope attached to a frictionless wall a distance $L = 8.0$ cm above the center of the sphere. Find (a) the tension in the rope and (b) the force on the sphere from the wall.

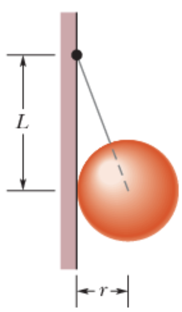


Figure 12-26 Problem 3.

•4 An archer's bow is drawn at its midpoint until the tension in the string is equal to the force exerted by the archer. What is the angle between the two halves of the string?

•5 ILW A rope of negligible mass is stretched horizontally between two supports that are 3.44 m apart. When an object of weight 3160 N is hung at the center of the rope, the rope is observed to sag by 35.0 cm. What is the tension in the rope?

•6 A scaffold of mass 60 kg and length 5.0 m is supported in a horizontal position by a vertical cable at each end. A window washer of mass 80 kg stands at a point 1.5 m from one end. What is the tension in (a) the nearer cable and (b) the farther cable?

•7 A 75 kg window cleaner uses a 10 kg ladder that is 5.0 m long. He places one end on the ground 2.5 m from a wall, rests the upper end against a cracked window, and climbs the ladder. He is 3.0 m up along the ladder when the window breaks. Neglect friction between the ladder and window and assume that the base of the ladder does not slip. When the window is on the verge of breaking, what are (a) the magnitude of the force on the window from the ladder, (b) the magnitude of the force on the ladder from the ground, and (c) the angle (relative to the horizontal) of that force on the ladder?

•8 A physics Brady Bunch, whose weights in newtons are indicated in Fig. 12-27, is balanced on a seesaw. What is the number of the person who causes the largest torque about the rotation axis at *fulcrum f* directed (a) out of the page and (b) into the page?

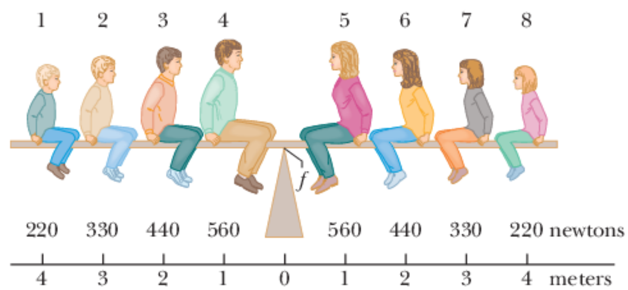


Figure 12-27 Problem 8.

•9 SSM A meter stick balances horizontally on a knife-edge at the 50.0 cm mark. With two 5.00 g coins stacked over the 12.0 cm mark, the stick is found to balance at the 45.5 cm mark. What is the mass of the meter stick?

•10 GO The system in Fig. 12-28 is in equilibrium, with the string in the center exactly horizontal. Block A weighs 40 N, block B weighs 50 N, and angle ϕ is 35°. Find (a) tension T_1, (b) tension T_2, (c) tension T_3, and (d) angle θ.

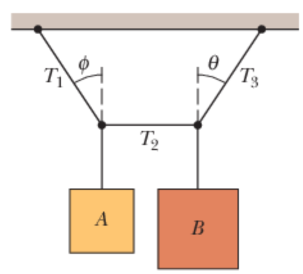


Figure 12-28 Problem 10.

•11 SSM Figure 12-29 shows a diver of weight 580 N standing at the end of a diving board with a length of $L = 4.5$ m and negligible mass. The board is fixed to two pedestals (supports) that are separated by distance $d = 1.5$ m. Of the forces acting on the board, what are the (a) magnitude and (b) direction (up or down) of the force from the left pedestal and the (c) magnitude and (d) direction (up or down) of the force from the right pedestal? (e) Which pedestal (left or right) is being stretched, and (f) which pedestal is being compressed?

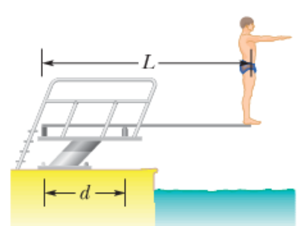


Figure 12-29 Problem 11.

•12 In Fig. 12-30, trying to get his car out of mud, a man ties one end of a rope around the front bumper and the other end tightly around a utility pole 18 m away. He then pushes sideways on the rope at its midpoint with a force of 550 N, displacing the center of the rope 0.30 m, but the car barely moves. What is the magnitude of the force on the car from the rope? (The rope stretches somewhat.)

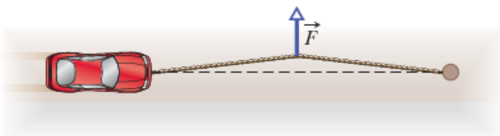


Figure 12-30 Problem 12.

•13 Figure 12-31 shows the anatomical structures in the lower leg and foot that are involved in standing on tiptoe, with the heel raised slightly off the floor so that the foot effectively contacts the floor only at point P. Assume distance $a = 5.0$ cm, distance $b = 15$ cm, and the person's weight $W = 900$ N. Of the forces acting on the foot, what are the (a) magnitude and (b) direction (up or down) of the force at point A from the calf muscle and the (c) magnitude and (d) direction (up or down) of the force at point B from the lower leg bones?

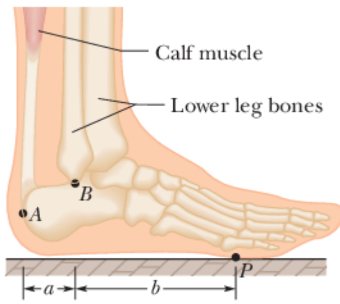


Figure 12-31 Problem 13.

•14 In Fig. 12-32, a horizontal scaffold, of length 2.00 m and uniform mass 50.0 kg, is suspended from a building by two cables. The scaffold has dozens of paint cans stacked on it at various points. The total mass of the paint cans is 75.0 kg. The tension in the cable at the right is 722 N. How far horizontally from *that* cable is the center of mass of the system of paint cans?

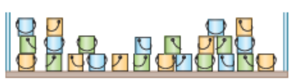


Figure 12-32 Problem 14.

•15 ILW Forces $\vec{F}_1$, $\vec{F}_2$, and $\vec{F}_3$ act on the structure of Fig. 12-33, shown in an overhead view. We wish to put the structure in equilibrium by applying a fourth force, at a point such as P. The fourth force has vector components $\vec{F}_h$ and $\vec{F}_v$. We are given that $a = 2.0$ m, $b = 3.0$ m, $c = 1.0$ m, $F_1 = 20$ N, $F_2 = 10$ N, and $F_3 = 5.0$ N. Find (a) F_h, (b) F_v, and (c) d.

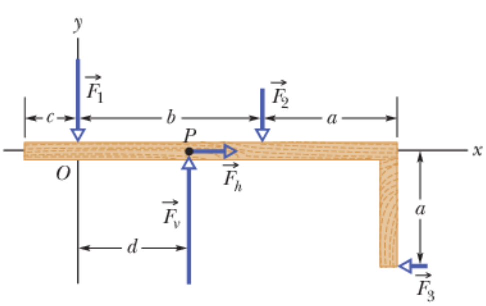


Figure 12-33 Problem 15.

•16 A uniform cubical crate is 0.750 m on each side and weighs 500 N. It rests on a floor with one edge against a very small, fixed obstruction. At what least height above the floor must a horizontal force of magnitude 350 N be applied to the crate to tip it?

•17 In Fig. 12-34, a uniform beam of weight 500 N and length 3.0 m is suspended horizontally. On the left it is hinged to a wall; on the right it is supported by a cable bolted to the wall at distance D above the beam. The least tension that will snap the cable is 1200 N. (a) What value of D corresponds to that tension? (b) To prevent the cable from snapping, should D be increased or decreased from that value?

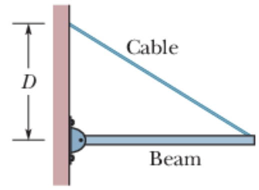


Figure 12-34 Problem 17.

•18 GO In Fig. 12-35, horizontal scaffold 2, with uniform mass $m_2 = 30.0$ kg and length $L_2 = 2.00$ m, hangs from horizontal scaffold 1, with uniform mass $m_1 = 50.0$ kg. A 20.0 kg box of nails lies on scaffold 2, centered at distance $d = 0.500$ m from the left end. What is the tension T in the cable indicated?

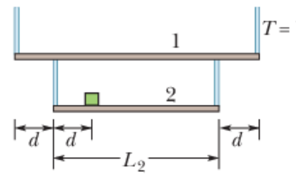


Figure 12-35 Problem 18.

•19 To crack a certain nut in a nutcracker, forces with magnitudes of at least 40 N must act on its shell from both sides. For the nutcracker of Fig. 12-36, with distances $L = 12$ cm and $d = 2.6$ cm, what are the force components $F_\perp$ (perpendicular to the handles) corresponding to that 40 N?

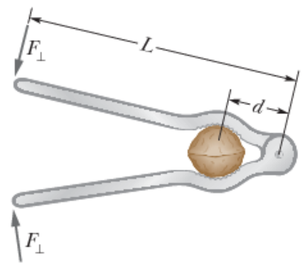


Figure 12-36 Problem 19.

•20 A bowler holds a bowling ball ($M = 7.2$ kg) in the palm of his hand (Fig. 12-37). His upper arm is vertical; his lower arm (1.8 kg) is horizontal. What is the magnitude of (a) the force of the biceps muscle on the lower arm and (b) the force between the bony structures at the elbow contact point?

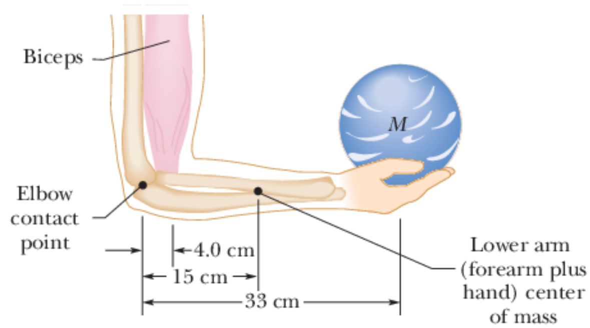


Figure 12-37 Problem 20.

••21 ILW The system in Fig. 12-38 is in equilibrium. A concrete block of mass 225 kg hangs from the end of the uniform strut of mass 45.0 kg. A cable runs from the ground, over the top of the strut, and down to the block, holding the block in place. For angles $\phi = 30.0°$ and $\theta = 45.0°$, find (a) the tension T in the cable and the (b) horizontal and (c) vertical components of the force on the strut from the hinge.

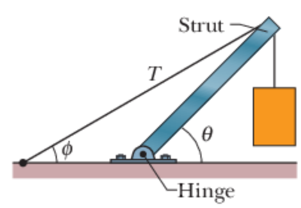


Figure 12-38 Problem 21.

••22 GO In Fig. 12-39, a 55 kg rock climber is in a lie-back climb along a fissure, with hands pulling on one side of the fissure and feet pressed against the opposite side. The fissure has width $w = 0.20$ m, and the center of mass of the climber is a horizontal distance $d = 0.40$ m from the fissure. The coefficient of static friction between hands and rock is $\mu_1 = 0.40$, and between boots and rock it is $\mu_2 = 1.2$. (a) What is the least horizontal pull by the hands and push by the feet that will keep the climber stable? (b) For the horizontal pull of (a), what must be the vertical distance h between hands and feet? If the climber encounters wet rock, so that μ_1 and μ_2 are reduced, what happens to (c) the answer to (a) and (d) the answer to (b)?

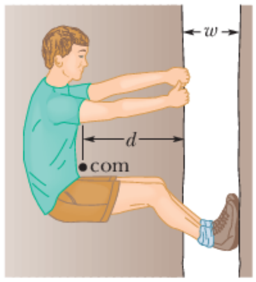


Figure 12-39 Problem 22.

••23 GO In Fig. 12-40, one end of a uniform beam of weight 222 N is hinged to a wall; the other end is supported by a wire that makes angles $\theta = 30.0°$ with both wall and beam. Find (a) the tension in the wire and the (b) horizontal and (c) vertical components of the force of the hinge on the beam.

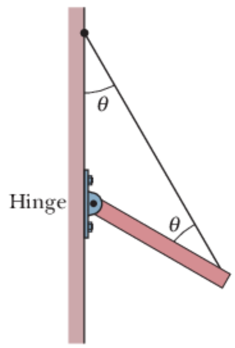


Figure 12-40 Problem 23.

••24 GO In Fig. 12-41, a climber with a weight of 533.8 N is held by a belay rope connected to her climbing harness and belay device; the force of the rope on her has a line of action through her center of mass. The indicated angles are $\theta = 40.0°$ and $\phi = 30.0°$. If her feet are on the verge of sliding on the vertical wall, what is the coefficient of static friction between her climbing shoes and the wall?

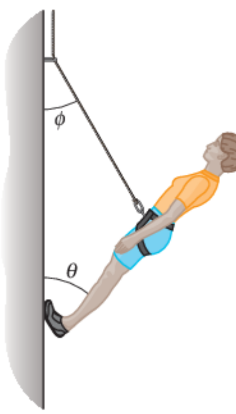


Figure 12-41 Problem 24.

••25 SSM WWW In Fig. 12-42, what magnitude of (constant) force $\vec{F}$ applied horizontally at the axle of the wheel is necessary to raise the wheel over a step obstacle of height $h = 3.00$ cm? The wheel's radius is $r = 6.00$ cm, and its mass is $m = 0.800$ kg.

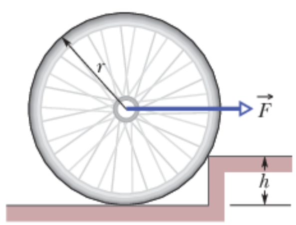


Figure 12-42 Problem 25.

••26 GO In Fig. 12-43, a climber leans out against a vertical ice wall that has negligible friction. Distance a is 0.914 m and distance L is 2.10 m. His center of mass is distance $d = 0.940$ m from the feet–ground contact point. If he is on the verge of sliding, what is the coefficient of static friction between feet and ground?

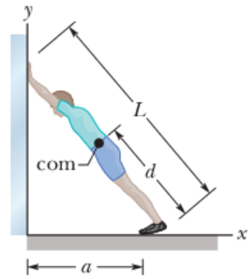


Figure 12-43 Problem 26.

••27 GO In Fig. 12-44, a 15 kg block is held in place via a pulley system. The person's upper arm is vertical; the forearm is at angle $\theta = 30°$ with the horizontal. Forearm and hand together have a mass of 2.0 kg, with a center of mass at distance $d_1 = 15$ cm from the contact point of the forearm bone and the upper-arm bone (humerus). The triceps muscle pulls vertically upward on the forearm at distance $d_2 = 2.5$ cm behind that contact point. Distance d_3 is 35 cm. What are the (a) magnitude and (b) direction (up or down) of the force on the forearm from the triceps muscle and the (c) magnitude and (d) direction (up or down) of the force on the forearm from the humerus?

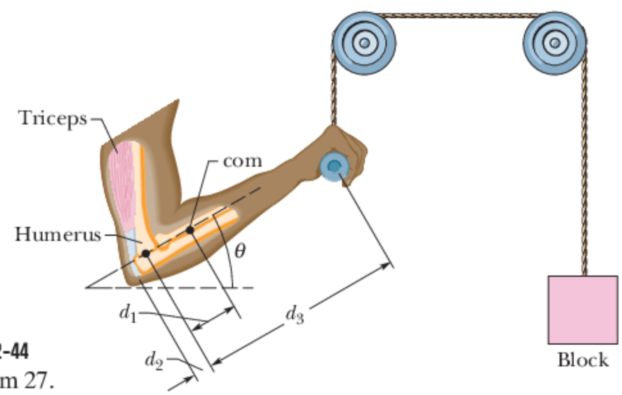


Figure 12-44 Problem 27.

••28 GO In Fig. 12-45, suppose the length L of the uniform bar is 3.00 m and its weight is 200 N. Also, let the block's weight $W = 300$ N and the angle $\theta = 30.0°$. The wire can withstand a maximum tension of 500 N. (a) What is the maximum possible distance x before the wire breaks? With the block placed at this maximum x, what are the (b) horizontal and (c) vertical components of the force on the bar from the hinge at A?

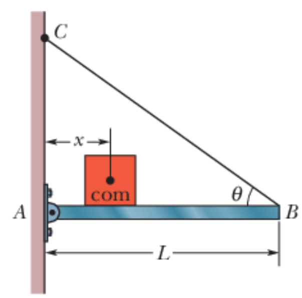


Figure 12-45 Problems 28 and 34.

••29 A door has a height of 2.1 m along a y axis that extends vertically upward and a width of 0.91 m along an x axis that extends outward from the hinged edge of the door. A hinge 0.30 m from the top and a hinge 0.30 m from the bottom each support half the door's mass, which is 27 kg. In unit-vector notation, what are the forces on the door at (a) the top hinge and (b) the bottom hinge?

••30 GO In Fig. 12-46, a 50.0 kg uniform square sign, of edge length $L = 2.00$ m, is hung from a horizontal rod of length $d_h = 3.00$ m and negligible mass. A cable is attached to the end of the rod

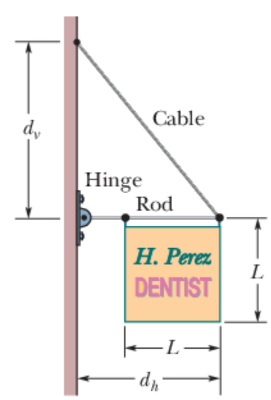


Figure 12-46 Problem 30.

and to a point on the wall at distance $d_v = 4.00$ m above the point where the rod is hinged to the wall. (a) What is the tension in the cable? What are the (b) magnitude and (c) direction (left or right) of the horizontal component of the force on the rod from the wall, and the (d) magnitude and (e) direction (up or down) of the vertical component of this force?

••31 GO In Fig. 12-47, a nonuniform bar is suspended at rest in a horizontal position by two massless cords. One cord makes the angle $\theta = 36.9°$ with the vertical; the other makes the angle $\phi = 53.1°$ with the vertical. If the length L of the bar is 6.10 m, compute the distance x from the left end of the bar to its center of mass.

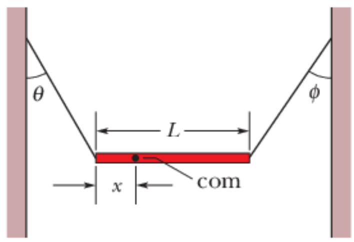


Figure 12-47 Problem 31.

••32 In Fig. 12-48, the driver of a car on a horizontal road makes an emergency stop by applying the brakes so that all four wheels lock and skid along the road. The coefficient of kinetic friction between tires and road is 0.40. The separation between the front and rear axles is $L = 4.2$ m, and the center of mass of the car is located at distance $d = 1.8$ m behind the front axle and distance $h = 0.75$ m above the road. The car weighs 11 kN. Find the magnitude of (a) the braking acceleration of the car, (b) the normal force on each rear wheel, (c) the normal force on each front wheel, (d) the braking force on each rear wheel, and (e) the braking force on each front wheel. (*Hint:* Although the car is not in translational equilibrium, it *is* in rotational equilibrium.)

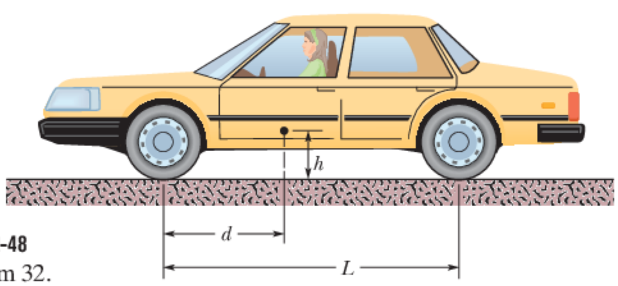


Figure 12-48 Problem 32.

••33 Figure 12-49*a* shows a vertical uniform beam of length L that is hinged at its lower end. A horizontal force $\vec{F}_a$ is applied to the beam at distance y from the lower end. The beam remains vertical because of a cable attached at the upper end, at angle θ with the horizontal. Figure 12-49*b* gives the tension T in the cable as a function of the position of the applied force given as a fraction y/L of the beam length. The scale of the T axis is set by $T_s = 600$ N. Figure 12-49*c* gives the magnitude F_h of the horizontal force on the beam from the hinge, also as a function of y/L. Evaluate (a) angle θ and (b) the magnitude of $\vec{F}_a$.

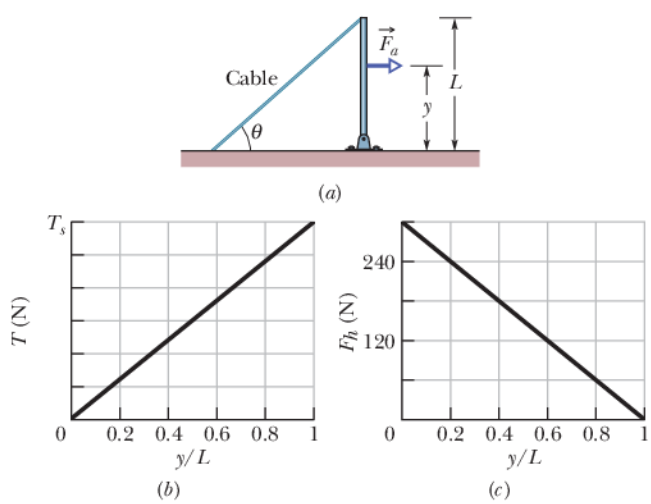


Figure 12-49 Problem 33.

••34 In Fig. 12-45, a thin horizontal bar AB of negligible weight and length L is hinged to a vertical wall at A and supported at B by a thin wire BC that makes an angle θ with the horizontal. A block of weight W can be moved anywhere along the bar; its position is defined by the distance x from the wall to its center of mass. As a function of x, find (a) the tension in the wire, and the (b) horizontal and (c) vertical components of the force on the bar from the hinge at A.

••35 SSM WWW A cubical box is filled with sand and weighs 890 N. We wish to "roll" the box by pushing horizontally on one of the upper edges. (a) What minimum force is required? (b) What minimum coefficient of static friction between box and floor is required? (c) If there is a more efficient way to roll the box, find the smallest possible force that would have to be applied directly to the box to roll it. (*Hint:* At the onset of tipping, where is the normal force located?)

••36 Figure 12-50 shows a 70 kg climber hanging by only the *crimp hold* of one hand on the edge of a shallow horizontal ledge in a rock wall. (The fingers are pressed down to gain purchase.) Her feet touch the rock wall at distance $H = 2.0$ m directly below her crimped fingers but do not provide any support. Her center of mass is distance $a = 0.20$ m from the wall. Assume that the force from the ledge supporting her fingers is equally shared by the four fingers. What are the values of the (a) horizontal component F_h and (b) vertical component F_v of the force on *each* fingertip?

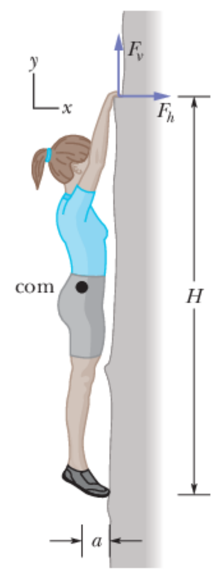


Figure 12-50 Problem 36.

••37 GO In Fig. 12-51, a uniform plank, with a length L of 6.10 m and a weight of 445 N, rests on the ground and against a frictionless roller at the top of a wall of height $h = 3.05$ m. The plank remains in equilibrium for any value of $\theta \geq 70°$ but slips if $\theta < 70°$. Find the coefficient of static friction between the plank and the ground.

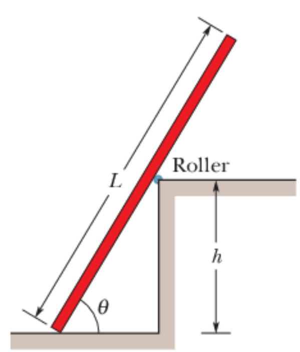


Figure 12-51 Problem 37.

••38 In Fig. 12-52, uniform beams A and B are attached to a wall with hinges and loosely bolted together (there is no torque of one on the other). Beam A has length $L_A = 2.40$ m and mass 54.0 kg; beam B has mass 68.0 kg. The two hinge points are separated by distance $d = 1.80$ m. In unit-vector notation, what is the force on (a) beam A due to its hinge, (b) beam A due to the bolt, (c) beam B due to its hinge, and (d) beam B due to the bolt?

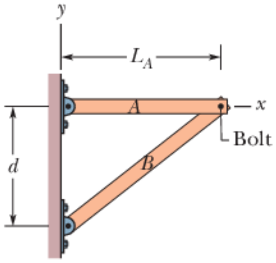


Figure 12-52 Problem 38.

•••39 For the stepladder shown in Fig. 12-53, sides AC and CE are each 2.44 m long and hinged at C. Bar BD is a tie-rod 0.762 m long, halfway up. A man weighing 854 N climbs 1.80 m along the ladder. Assuming that the floor is frictionless and neglecting the mass of the ladder, find (a) the tension in the tie-rod and the magnitudes of the forces on the ladder from the floor at (b) A and (c) E. (*Hint:* Isolate parts of the ladder in applying the equilibrium conditions.)

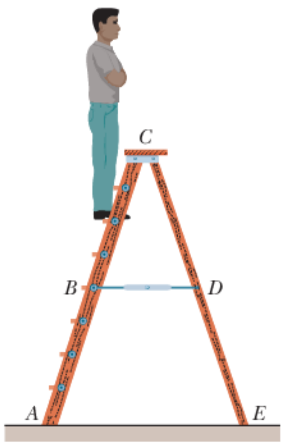


Figure 12-53 Problem 39.

•••40 Figure 12-54a shows a horizontal uniform beam of mass m_b and length L that is supported on the left by a hinge attached to a wall and on the right by a cable at angle θ with the horizontal. A package of mass m_p is positioned on the beam at a distance x from the left end. The total mass is $m_b + m_p = 61.22$ kg. Figure 12-54b gives the tension T in the cable as a function of the package's position given as a fraction x/L of the beam length. The scale of the T axis is set by $T_a = 500$ N and $T_b = 700$ N. Evaluate (a) angle θ, (b) mass m_b, and (c) mass m_p.

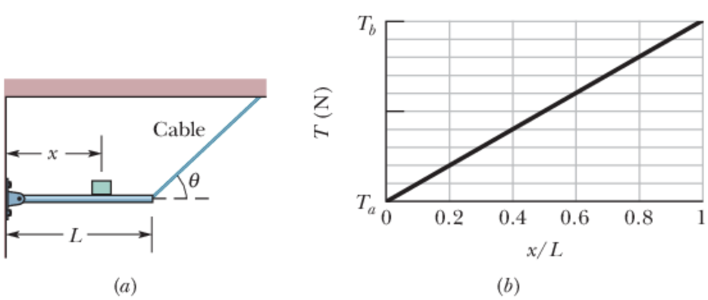


Figure 12-54 Problem 40.

•••41 A crate, in the form of a cube with edge lengths of 1.2 m, contains a piece of machinery; the center of mass of the crate and its contents is located 0.30 m above the crate's geometrical center. The crate rests on a ramp that makes an angle θ with the horizontal. As θ is increased from zero, an angle will be reached at which the crate will either tip over or start to slide down the ramp. If the coefficient of static friction μ_s between ramp and crate is 0.60, (a) does the crate tip or slide and (b) at what angle θ does this occur? If $\mu_s = 0.70$, (c) does the crate tip or slide and (d) at what angle θ does this occur? (*Hint:* At the onset of tipping, where is the normal force located?)

•••42 In Fig. 12-7 and the associated sample problem, let the coefficient of static friction μ_s between the ladder and the pavement be 0.53. How far (in percent) up the ladder must the firefighter go to put the ladder on the verge of sliding?

Module 12-3 Elasticity

•43 SSM ILW A horizontal aluminum rod 4.8 cm in diameter projects 5.3 cm from a wall. A 1200 kg object is suspended from the end of the rod. The shear modulus of aluminum is 3.0×10^{10} N/m^2. Neglecting the rod's mass, find (a) the shear stress on the rod and (b) the vertical deflection of the end of the rod.

•44 Figure 12-55 shows the stress–strain curve for a material. The scale of the stress axis is set by $s = 300$, in units of 10^6 N/m^2. What are (a) the Young's modulus and (b) the approximate yield strength for this material?

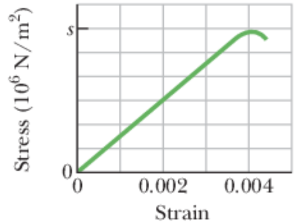


Figure 12-55 Problem 44.

••45 In Fig. 12-56, a lead brick rests horizontally on cylinders A and B. The areas of the top faces of the cylinders are related by $A_A = 2A_B$; the Young's moduli of the cylinders are related by $E_A = 2E_B$. The cylinders had identical lengths before the brick was placed on them. What fraction of the brick's mass is supported (a) by cylinder A and (b) by cylinder B? The horizontal distances between the center of mass of the brick and the centerlines of the cylinders are d_A for cylinder A and d_B for cylinder B. (c) What is the ratio d_A/d_B?

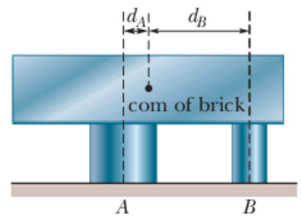


Figure 12-56 Problem 45.

••46 Figure 12-57 shows an approximate plot of stress versus strain for a spider-web thread, out to the point of breaking at a strain of 2.00. The vertical axis scale is set by values $a = 0.12$ GN/m^2, $b = 0.30$ GN/m^2, and $c = 0.80$ GN/m^2. Assume that the thread has an initial length of 0.80 cm, an initial cross-sectional area of 8.0×10^{-12} m^2, and (during stretching) a constant volume. The strain on the thread is the ratio of the change in the thread's length to that initial length, and the stress on the thread is the ratio of the collision force to that initial cross-sectional area. Assume that the work done on the thread by the collision force is given by the area under the curve on the graph. Assume also that when the single thread snares a flying insect, the insect's kinetic energy is transferred to the stretching of the thread. (a) How much kinetic energy would put the thread on the verge of breaking? What is the kinetic energy of (b) a fruit fly of mass 6.00 mg and speed 1.70 m/s and (c) a bumble bee of mass 0.388 g and speed 0.420 m/s? Would (d) the fruit fly and (e) the bumble bee break the thread?

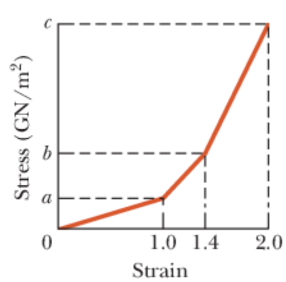


Figure 12-57 Problem 46.

••47 A tunnel of length $L = 150$ m, height $H = 7.2$ m, and width 5.8 m (with a flat roof) is to be constructed at distance $d = 60$ m beneath the ground. (See Fig. 12-58.) The tunnel roof is to be supported entirely by square steel columns, each with a cross-sectional area of 960 cm^2. The mass of 1.0 cm^3 of the ground material is 2.8 g. (a) What is the total weight of the ground material the columns must support? (b) How many columns are needed to keep the compressive stress on each column at one-half its ultimate strength?

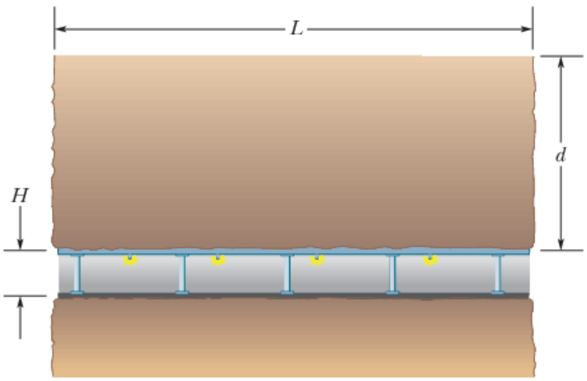


Figure 12-58 Problem 47.

••48 Figure 12-59 shows the stress versus strain plot for an aluminum wire that is stretched by a machine pulling in opposite directions at the two ends of the wire. The scale of the stress axis is set by $s = 7.0$, in units of 10^7 N/m^2. The wire has an initial length of 0.800 m and an initial cross-sectional area of 2.00×10^{-6} m^2. How much work does the force from the machine do on the wire to produce a strain of 1.00×10^{-3}?

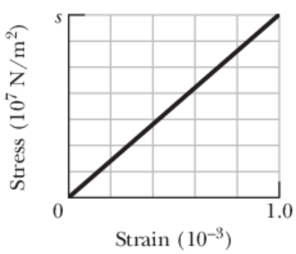


Figure 12-59 Problem 48.

••49 GO In Fig. 12-60, a 103 kg uniform log hangs by two steel wires, A and B, both of radius 1.20 mm. Initially, wire A was 2.50 m long and 2.00 mm shorter than wire B. The log is now horizontal. What are the magnitudes of the forces on it from (a) wire A and (b) wire B? (c) What is the ratio d_A/d_B?

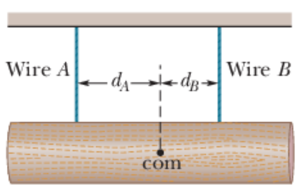


Figure 12-60 Problem 49.

•••50 GO Figure 12-61 represents an insect caught at the midpoint of a spider-web thread. The thread breaks under a stress of 8.20×10^8 N/m^2 and a strain of 2.00. Initially, it was horizontal and had a length of 2.00 cm and a cross-sectional area of 8.00×10^{-12} m^2. As the thread was stretched under the weight of the insect, its volume remained constant. If the weight of the insect puts the thread on the verge of breaking, what is the insect's mass? (A spider's web is built to break if a potentially harmful insect, such as a bumble bee, becomes snared in the web.)

Figure 12-61 Problem 50.

•••51 GO Figure 12-62 is an overhead view of a rigid rod that turns about a vertical axle until the identical rubber stoppers A and B are forced against rigid walls at distances $r_A = 7.0$ cm and $r_B = 4.0$ cm from the axle. Initially the stoppers touch the walls without being compressed. Then force $\vec{F}$ of magnitude 220 N is applied perpendicular to the rod at a distance $R = 5.0$ cm from the axle. Find the magnitude of the force compressing (a) stopper A and (b) stopper B.

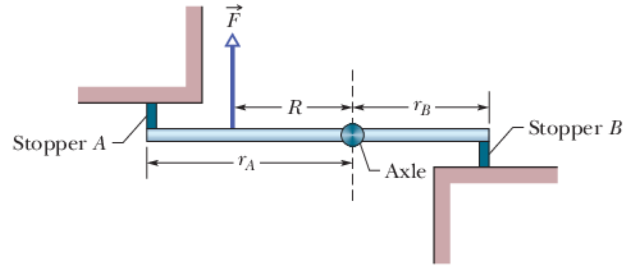


Figure 12-62 Problem 51.

Additional Problems

52 After a fall, a 95 kg rock climber finds himself dangling from the end of a rope that had been 15 m long and 9.6 mm in diameter but has stretched by 2.8 cm. For the rope, calculate (a) the strain, (b) the stress, and (c) the Young's modulus.

53 SSM In Fig. 12-63, a rectangular slab of slate rests on a bedrock surface inclined at angle $\theta = 26°$. The slab has length $L = 43$ m, thickness $T = 2.5$ m, and width $W = 12$ m, and 1.0 cm^3 of it has a mass of 3.2 g. The coefficient of static friction between slab and bedrock is 0.39. (a) Calculate the component of the gravitational force on the slab parallel to the bedrock surface. (b) Calculate the magnitude of the static frictional force on the slab. By comparing (a) and (b), you can see that the slab is in danger of sliding. This is prevented only by chance protrusions of bedrock. (c) To stabilize the slab, bolts are to be driven perpendicular to the bedrock surface (two bolts are shown). If each bolt has a cross-sectional area of 6.4 cm^2 and will snap under a shearing stress of 3.6×10^8 N/m^2, what is the minimum number of bolts needed? Assume that the bolts do not affect the normal force.

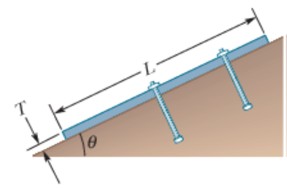


Figure 12-63 Problem 53.

54 A uniform ladder whose length is 5.0 m and whose weight is 400 N leans against a frictionless vertical wall. The coefficient of static friction between the level ground and the foot of the ladder is 0.46. What is the greatest distance the foot of the ladder can be placed from the base of the wall without the ladder immediately slipping?

55 SSM In Fig. 12-64, block A (mass 10 kg) is in equilibrium, but it would slip if block B (mass 5.0 kg) were any heavier. For angle $\theta = 30°$, what is the coefficient of static friction between block A and the surface below it?

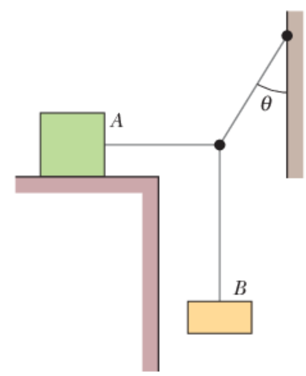


Figure 12-64 Problem 55.

56 Figure 12-65a shows a uniform ramp between two buildings that allows for motion between the buildings due to strong winds.

At its left end, it is hinged to the building wall; at its right end, it has a roller that can roll along the building wall. There is no vertical force on the roller from the building, only a horizontal force with magnitude F_h. The horizontal distance between the buildings is $D = 4.00$ m. The rise of the ramp is $h = 0.490$ m. A man walks across the ramp from the left. Figure 12-65b gives F_h as a function of the horizontal distance x of the man from the building at the left. The scale of the F_h axis is set by $a = 20$ kN and $b = 25$ kN. What are the masses of (a) the ramp and (b) the man?

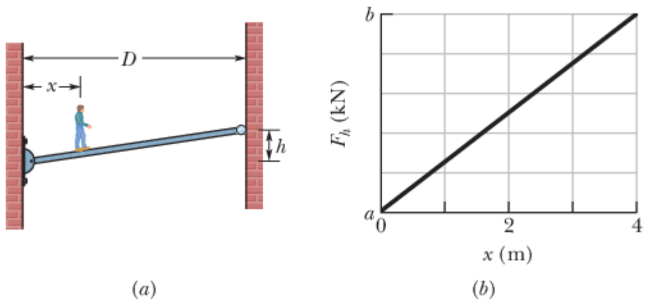


Figure 12-65 Problem 56.

57 GO In Fig. 12-66, a 10 kg sphere is supported on a frictionless plane inclined at angle $\theta = 45°$ from the horizontal. Angle ϕ is 25°. Calculate the tension in the cable.

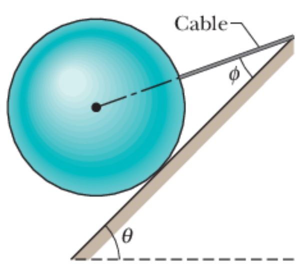


Figure 12-66 Problem 57.

58 In Fig. 12-67a, a uniform 40.0 kg beam is centered over two rollers. Vertical lines across the beam mark off equal lengths. Two of the lines are centered over the rollers; a 10.0 kg package of tamales is centered over roller B. What are the magnitudes of the forces on the beam from (a) roller A and (b) roller B? The beam is then rolled to the left until the right-hand end is centered over roller B (Fig. 12-67b). What now are the magnitudes of the forces on the beam from (c) roller A and (d) roller B? Next, the beam is rolled to the right. Assume that it has a length of 0.800 m. (e) What horizontal distance between the package and roller B puts the beam on the verge of losing contact with roller A?

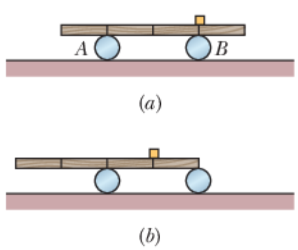


Figure 12-67 Problem 58.

59 SSM In Fig. 12-68, an 817 kg construction bucket is suspended by a cable A that is attached at O to two other cables B and C, making angles $\theta_1 = 51.0°$ and $\theta_2 = 66.0°$ with the horizontal. Find the tensions in (a) cable A, (b) cable B, and (c) cable C. (*Hint:* To avoid solving two equations in two unknowns, position the axes as shown in the figure.)

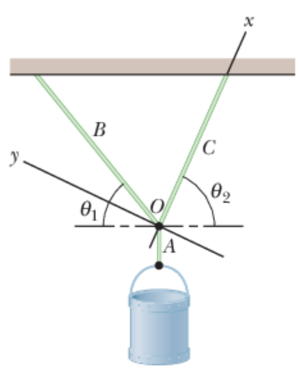


Figure 12-68 Problem 59.

60 In Fig. 12-69, a package of mass m hangs from a short cord that is tied to the wall via cord 1 and to the ceiling via cord 2. Cord 1 is at angle $\phi = 40°$ with the horizontal; cord 2 is at angle θ. (a) For what value of θ is the tension in cord 2 minimized? (b) In terms of mg, what is the minimum tension in cord 2?

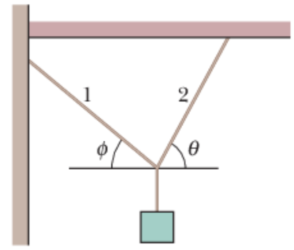


Figure 12-69 Problem 60.

61 ILW The force $\vec{F}$ in Fig. 12-70 keeps the 6.40 kg block and the pulleys in equilibrium. The pulleys have negligible mass and friction. Calculate the tension T in the upper cable. (*Hint:* When a cable wraps halfway around a pulley as here, the magnitude of its net force on the pulley is twice the tension in the cable.)

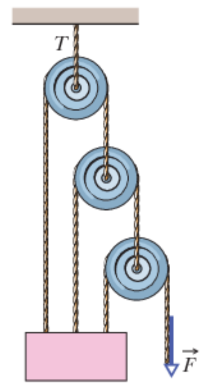


Figure 12-70 Problem 61.

62 A mine elevator is supported by a single steel cable 2.5 cm in diameter. The total mass of the elevator cage and occupants is 670 kg. By how much does the cable stretch when the elevator hangs by (a) 12 m of cable and (b) 362 m of cable? (Neglect the mass of the cable.)

63 Four bricks of length L, identical and uniform, are stacked on top of one another (Fig. 12-71) in such a way that part of each extends beyond the one beneath. Find, in terms of L, the maximum values of (a) a_1, (b) a_2, (c) a_3, (d) a_4, and (e) h, such that the stack is in equilibrium, on the verge of falling.

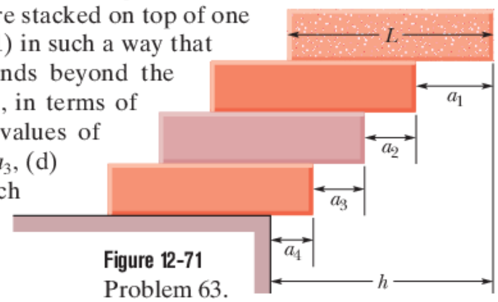


Figure 12-71 Problem 63.

64 In Fig. 12-72, two identical, uniform, and frictionless spheres, each of mass m, rest in a rigid rectangular container. A line connecting their centers is at 45° to the horizontal. Find the magnitudes of the forces on the spheres from (a) the bottom of the container, (b) the left side of the container, (c) the right side of the container, and (d) each other. (*Hint:* The force of one sphere on the other is directed along the center–center line.)

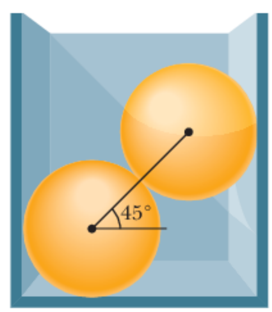


Figure 12-72 Problem 64.

65 In Fig. 12-73, a uniform beam with a weight of 60 N and a length of 3.2 m is hinged at its lower end, and a horizontal force $\vec{F}$ of magnitude 50 N acts at its upper end. The beam is held vertical by a cable that makes angle $\theta = 25°$ with the ground and is attached to the beam at height $h = 2.0$ m. What are (a) the tension in the cable and (b) the force on the beam from the hinge in unit-vector notation?

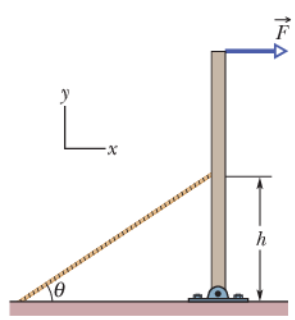


Figure 12-73 Problem 65.

66 A uniform beam is 5.0 m long and has a mass of 53 kg. In Fig. 12-74, the beam is supported in a horizontal position by a hinge and a cable, with angle $\theta = 60°$. In unit-vector notation, what is the force on the beam from the hinge?

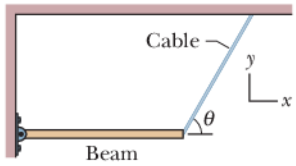


Figure 12-74 Problem 66.

67 A solid copper cube has an edge length of 85.5 cm. How much stress must be applied to the cube to reduce the edge length to 85.0 cm? The bulk modulus of copper is 1.4×10^{11} N/m^2.

68 A construction worker attempts to lift a uniform beam off the floor and raise it to a vertical position. The beam is 2.50 m long and weighs 500 N. At a certain instant the worker holds the beam momentarily at rest with one end at distance d = 1.50 m above the floor, as shown in Fig. 12-75, by exerting a force $\vec{P}$ on the beam, perpendicular to the beam. (a) What is the magnitude P? (b) What is the magnitude of the (net) force of the floor on the beam? (c) What is the minimum value the coefficient of static friction between beam and floor can have in order for the beam not to slip at this instant?

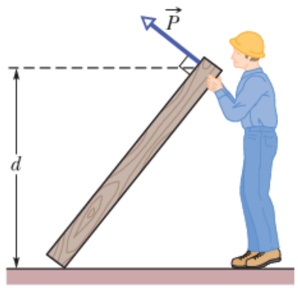


Figure 12-75 Problem 68.

69 SSM In Fig. 12-76, a uniform rod of mass m is hinged to a building at its lower end, while its upper end is held in place by a rope attached to the wall. If angle $\theta_1 = 60°$, what value must angle θ_2 have so that the tension in the rope is equal to $mg/2$?

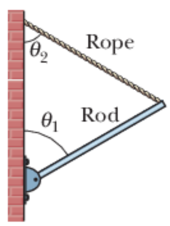


Figure 12-76 Problem 69.

70 A 73 kg man stands on a level bridge of length L. He is at distance $L/4$ from one end. The bridge is uniform and weighs 2.7 kN. What are the magnitudes of the vertical forces on the bridge from its supports at (a) the end farther from him and (b) the nearer end?

71 SSM A uniform cube of side length 8.0 cm rests on a horizontal floor. The coefficient of static friction between cube and floor is μ. A horizontal pull $\vec{P}$ is applied perpendicular to one of the vertical faces of the cube, at a distance 7.0 cm above the floor on the vertical midline of the cube face. The magnitude of $\vec{P}$ is gradually increased. During that increase, for what values of μ will the cube eventually (a) begin to slide and (b) begin to tip? (*Hint:* At the onset of tipping, where is the normal force located?)

72 The system in Fig. 12-77 is in equilibrium. The angles are $\theta_1 = 60°$ and $\theta_2 = 20°$, and the ball has mass M = 2.0 kg. What is the tension in (a) string ab and (b) string bc?

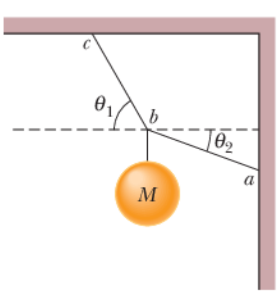


Figure 12-77 Problem 72.

73 SSM A uniform ladder is 10 m long and weighs 200 N. In Fig. 12-78, the ladder leans against a vertical, frictionless wall at height h = 8.0 m above the ground. A horizontal force $\vec{F}$ is applied to the ladder at distance d = 2.0 m from its base (measured along the ladder). (a) If force magnitude F = 50 N, what is the force of the ground on the ladder, in unit-vector notation? (b) If F = 150 N, what is the force of the ground on the ladder, also in unit-vector notation? (c) Suppose the coefficient of static friction between the ladder and the ground is 0.38; for what minimum value of the force magnitude F will the base of the ladder just barely start to move toward the wall?

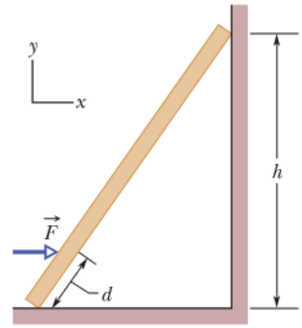


Figure 12-78 Problem 73.

74 A pan balance is made up of a rigid, massless rod with a hanging pan attached at each end. The rod is supported at and free to rotate about a point not at its center. It is balanced by unequal masses placed in the two pans. When an unknown mass m is placed in the left pan, it is balanced by a mass m_1 placed in the right pan; when the mass m is placed in the right pan, it is balanced by a mass m_2 in the left pan. Show that $m = \sqrt{m_1 m_2}$.

75 The rigid square frame in Fig. 12-79 consists of the four side bars AB, BC, CD, and DA plus two diagonal bars AC and BD, which pass each other freely at E. By means of the turnbuckle G, bar AB is put under tension, as if its ends were subject to horizontal, outward forces $\vec{T}$ of magnitude 535 N. (a) Which of the other bars are in tension? What are the magnitudes of (b) the forces causing the tension in those bars and (c) the forces causing compression in the other bars? (*Hint:* Symmetry considerations can lead to considerable simplification in this problem.)

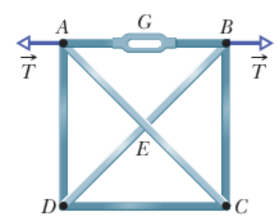


Figure 12-79 Problem 75.

76 A gymnast with mass 46.0 kg stands on the end of a uniform balance beam as shown in Fig. 12-80. The beam is 5.00 m long and has a mass of 250 kg (excluding the mass of the two supports). Each support is 0.540 m from its end of the beam. In unit-vector notation, what are the forces on the beam due to (a) support 1 and (b) support 2?

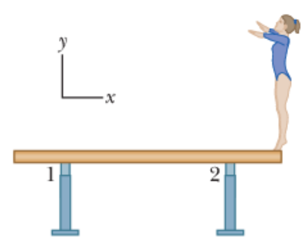


Figure 12-80 Problem 76.

77 Figure 12-81 shows a 300 kg cylinder that is horizontal. Three steel wires support the cylinder from a ceiling. Wires 1 and 3 are attached at the ends of the cylinder, and wire 2 is attached at the center. The wires each have a cross-sectional area of 2.00×10^{-6} m^2. Initially (before the cylinder was put in place) wires 1 and 3 were 2.0000 m long and wire 2 was 6.00 mm longer than that. Now (with the cylinder in place) all three wires have been stretched. What is the tension in (a) wire 1 and (b) wire 2?

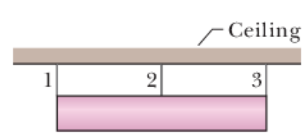


Figure 12-81 Problem 77.

78 In Fig. 12-82, a uniform beam of length 12.0 m is supported by a horizontal cable and a hinge at angle $\theta = 50.0°$. The tension in the cable is 400 N. In unit-vector notation, what are (a) the gravitational force on the beam and (b) the force on the beam from the hinge?

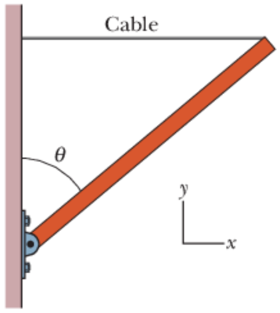


Figure 12-82 Problem 78.

79 Four bricks of length L, identical and uniform, are stacked on a table in two ways, as shown in Fig. 12-83 (compare with Problem 63). We seek to maximize the overhang distance h in both arrangements. Find the optimum distances a_1, a_2, b_1, and b_2, and calculate h for the two arrangements.

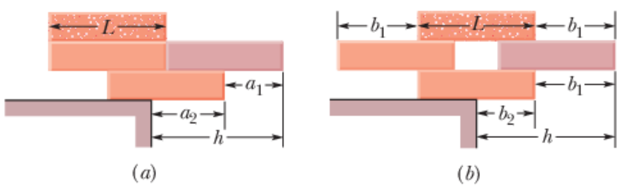


Figure 12-83 Problem 79.

80 A cylindrical aluminum rod, with an initial length of 0.8000 m and radius 1000.0 μm, is clamped in place at one end and then stretched by a machine pulling parallel to its length at its other end. Assuming that the rod's density (mass per unit volume) does not change, find the force magnitude that is required of the machine to decrease the radius to 999.9 μm. (The yield strength is not exceeded.)

81 A beam of length L is carried by three men, one man at one end and the other two supporting the beam between them on a crosspiece placed so that the load of the beam is equally divided among the three men. How far from the beam's free end is the crosspiece placed? (Neglect the mass of the crosspiece.)

82 If the (square) beam in Fig. 12-6*a* and the associated sample problem is of Douglas fir, what must be its thickness to keep the compressive stress on it to $\frac{1}{6}$ of its ultimate strength?

83 Figure 12-84 shows a stationary arrangement of two crayon boxes and three cords. Box A has a mass of 11.0 kg and is on a ramp at angle $\theta = 30.0°$; box B has a mass of 7.00 kg and hangs on a cord. The cord connected to box A is parallel to the ramp, which is frictionless. (a) What is the tension in the upper cord, and (b) what angle does that cord make with the horizontal?

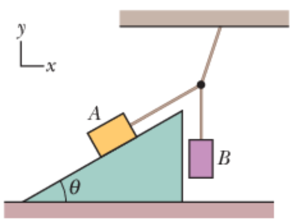


Figure 12-84 Problem 83.

84 A makeshift swing is constructed by making a loop in one end of a rope and tying the other end to a tree limb. A child is sitting in the loop with the rope hanging vertically when the child's father pulls on the child with a horizontal force and displaces the child to one side. Just before the child is released from rest, the rope makes an angle of 15° with the vertical and the tension in the rope is 280 N. (a) How much does the child weigh? (b) What is the magnitude of the (horizontal) force of the father on the child just before the child is released? (c) If the maximum horizontal force the father can exert on the child is 93 N, what is the maximum angle with the vertical the rope can make while the father is pulling horizontally?

85 Figure 12-85*a* shows details of a finger in the crimp hold of the climber in Fig. 12-50. A tendon that runs from muscles in the forearm is attached to the far bone in the finger. Along the way, the tendon runs through several guiding sheaths called *pulleys*. The A2 pulley is attached to the first finger bone; the A4 pulley is attached to the second finger bone. To pull the finger toward the palm, the forearm muscles pull the tendon through the pulleys, much like strings on a marionette can be pulled to move parts of the marionette. Figure 12-85*b* is a simplified diagram of the second finger bone, which has length d. The tendon's pull $\vec{F}_t$ on the bone acts at the point where the tendon enters the A4 pulley, at distance $d/3$ along the bone. If the force components on each of the four crimped fingers in Fig. 12-50 are $F_h = 13.4$ N and $F_v = 162.4$ N, what is the magnitude of $\vec{F}_t$? The result is probably tolerable, but if the climber hangs by only one or two fingers, the A2 and A4 pulleys can be ruptured, a common ailment among rock climbers.

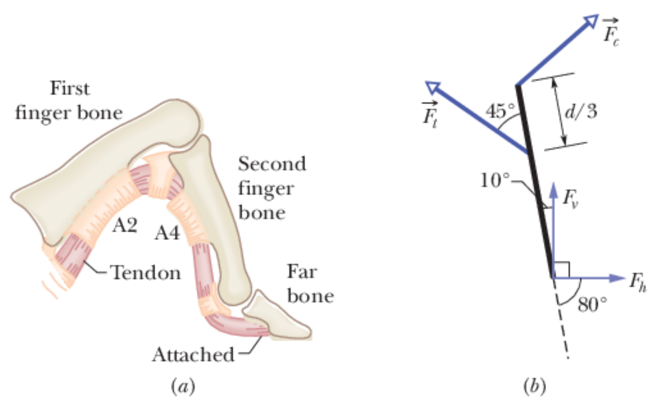


Figure 12-85 Problem 85.

86 A trap door in a ceiling is 0.91 m square, has a mass of 11 kg, and is hinged along one side, with a catch at the opposite side. If the center of gravity of the door is 10 cm toward the hinged side from the door's center, what are the magnitudes of the forces exerted by the door on (a) the catch and (b) the hinge?

87 A particle is acted on by forces given, in newtons, by $\vec{F}_1 = 8.40\hat{i} - 5.70\hat{j}$ and $\vec{F}_2 = 16.0\hat{i} + 4.10\hat{j}$. (a) What are the x component and (b) y component of the force $\vec{F}_3$ that balances the sum of these forces? (c) What angle does $\vec{F}_3$ have relative to the $+x$ axis?

88 The leaning Tower of Pisa is 59.1 m high and 7.44 m in diameter. The top of the tower is displaced 4.01 m from the vertical. Treat the tower as a uniform, circular cylinder. (a) What additional displacement, measured at the top, would bring the tower to the verge of toppling? (b) What angle would the tower then make with the vertical?

CHAPTER 13

Gravitation

13-1 NEWTON'S LAW OF GRAVITATION

Learning Objectives

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

13.01 Apply Newton's law of gravitation to relate the gravitational force between two particles to their masses and their separation.

13.02 Identify that a uniform spherical shell of matter attracts a particle that is outside the shell as if all the shell's mass were concentrated as a particle at its center.

13.03 Draw a free-body diagram to indicate the gravitational force on a particle due to another particle or a uniform, spherical distribution of matter.

Key Ideas

- Any particle in the universe attracts any other particle with a gravitational force whose magnitude is

$$F = G\frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2} \quad \text{(Newton's law of gravitation),}$$

where m_1 and m_2 are the masses of the particles, r is their separation, and $G\,(= 6.67 \times 10^{-11}\ \mathrm{N \cdot m^2/kg^2})$ is the gravitational constant.

- The gravitational force between extended bodies is found by adding (integrating) the individual forces on individual particles within the bodies. However, if either of the bodies is a uniform spherical shell or a spherically symmetric solid, the net gravitational force it exerts on an *external* object may be computed as if all the mass of the shell or body were located at its center.

What Is Physics?

One of the long-standing goals of physics is to understand the gravitational force—the force that holds you to Earth, holds the Moon in orbit around Earth, and holds Earth in orbit around the Sun. It also reaches out through the whole of our Milky Way galaxy, holding together the billions and billions of stars in the Galaxy and the countless molecules and dust particles between stars. We are located somewhat near the edge of this disk-shaped collection of stars and other matter, 2.6×10^4 light-years (2.5×10^{20} m) from the galactic center, around which we slowly revolve.

The gravitational force also reaches across intergalactic space, holding together the Local Group of galaxies, which includes, in addition to the Milky Way, the Andromeda Galaxy (Fig. 13-1) at a distance of 2.3×10^6 light-years away from Earth, plus several closer dwarf galaxies, such as the Large Magellanic Cloud. The Local Group is part of the Local Supercluster of galaxies that is being drawn by the gravitational force toward an exceptionally massive region of space called the Great Attractor. This region appears to be about 3.0×10^8 light-years from Earth, on the opposite side of the Milky Way. And the gravitational force is even more far-reaching because it attempts to hold together the entire universe, which is expanding.

This force is also responsible for some of the most mysterious structures in the universe: *black holes.* When a star considerably larger than our Sun burns out, the gravitational force between all its particles can cause the star to collapse in on itself and thereby to form a black hole. The gravitational force at the surface of such a collapsed star is so strong that neither particles nor light can escape from the surface (thus the term "black hole"). Any star coming too near a black hole can be ripped apart by the strong gravitational force and pulled into the hole. Enough captures like this yields a *supermassive black hole.* Such mysterious monsters appear to be common in the universe. Indeed, such a monster lurks at the center of our Milky Way galaxy—the black hole there, called Sagittarius A*, has a mass of about 3.7×10^6 solar masses. The gravitational force near this black hole is so strong that it causes orbiting stars to whip around the black hole, completing an orbit in as little as 15.2 y.

Although the gravitational force is still not fully understood, the starting point in our understanding of it lies in the *law of gravitation* of Isaac Newton.

Courtesy NASA

Figure 13-1 The Andromeda Galaxy. Located 2.3×10^6 light-years from us, and faintly visible to the naked eye, it is very similar to our home galaxy, the Milky Way.

Newton's Law of Gravitation

Before we get to the equations, let's just think for a moment about something that we take for granted. We are held to the ground just about right, not so strongly that we have to crawl to get to school (though an occasional exam may leave you crawling home) and not so lightly that we bump our heads on the ceiling when we take a step. It is also just about right so that we are held to the ground but not to each other (that would be awkward in any classroom) or to the objects around us (the phrase "catching a bus" would then take on a new meaning). The attraction obviously depends on how much "stuff" there is in ourselves and other objects: Earth has lots of "stuff" and produces a big attraction but another person has less "stuff" and produces a smaller (even negligible) attraction. Moreover, this "stuff" always attracts other "stuff," never repelling it (or a hard sneeze could put us into orbit).

In the past people obviously knew that they were being pulled downward (especially if they tripped and fell over), but they figured that the downward force was unique to Earth and unrelated to the apparent movement of astronomical bodies across the sky. But in 1665, the 23-year-old Isaac Newton recognized that this force is responsible for holding the Moon in its orbit. Indeed he showed that every body in the universe attracts every other body. This tendency of bodies to move toward one another is called **gravitation**, and the "stuff" that is involved is the mass of each body. If the myth were true that a falling apple inspired Newton to his **law of gravitation**, then the attraction is between the mass of the apple and the mass of Earth. It is appreciable because the mass of Earth is so large, but even then it is only about 0.8 N. The attraction between two people standing near each other on a bus is (thankfully) much less (less than 1 μN) and imperceptible.

The gravitational attraction between extended objects such as two people can be difficult to calculate. Here we shall focus on Newton's force law between two *particles* (which have no size). Let the masses be m_1 and m_2 and r be their separation. Then the magnitude of the gravitational force acting on each due to the presence of the other is given by

$$F = G\frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2} \quad \text{(Newton's law of gravitation).} \tag{13-1}$$

G is the **gravitational constant:**

$$\begin{aligned} G &= 6.67 \times 10^{-11}\ \mathrm{N \cdot m^2/kg^2} \\ &= 6.67 \times 10^{-11}\ \mathrm{m^3/kg \cdot s^2}. \end{aligned} \tag{13-2}$$

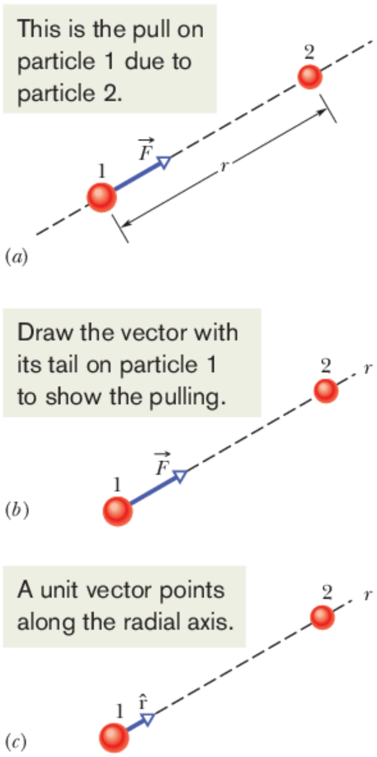


Figure 13-2 (*a*) The gravitational force $\vec{F}$ on particle 1 due to particle 2 is an attractive force because particle 1 is attracted to particle 2. (*b*) Force $\vec{F}$ is directed along a radial coordinate axis r extending from particle 1 through particle 2. (*c*) $\vec{F}$ is in the direction of a unit vector $\hat{r}$ along the r axis.

In Fig. 13-2*a*, $\vec{F}$ is the gravitational force acting on particle 1 (mass m_1) due to particle 2 (mass m_2). The force is directed toward particle 2 and is said to be an *attractive force* because particle 1 is attracted toward particle 2. The magnitude of the force is given by Eq. 13-1. We can describe $\vec{F}$ as being in the positive direction of an r axis extending radially from particle 1 through particle 2 (Fig. 13-2*b*). We can also describe $\vec{F}$ by using a radial unit vector $\hat{r}$ (a dimensionless vector of magnitude 1) that is directed away from particle 1 along the r axis (Fig. 13-2*c*). From Eq. 13-1, the force on particle 1 is then

$$\vec{F} = G\frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2}\hat{r}. \tag{13-3}$$

The gravitational force on particle 2 due to particle 1 has the same magnitude as the force on particle 1 but the opposite direction. These two forces form a third-law force pair, and we can speak of the gravitational force *between* the two particles as having a magnitude given by Eq. 13-1. This force between two particles is not altered by other objects, even if they are located between the particles. Put another way, no object can shield either particle from the gravitational force due to the other particle.

The strength of the gravitational force—that is, how strongly two particles with given masses at a given separation attract each other—depends on the value of the gravitational constant G. If G—by some miracle—were suddenly multiplied by a factor of 10, you would be crushed to the floor by Earth's attraction. If G were divided by this factor, Earth's attraction would be so weak that you could jump over a building.

Nonparticles. Although Newton's law of gravitation applies strictly to particles, we can also apply it to real objects as long as the sizes of the objects are small relative to the distance between them. The Moon and Earth are far enough apart so that, to a good approximation, we can treat them both as particles—but what about an apple and Earth? From the point of view of the apple, the broad and level Earth, stretching out to the horizon beneath the apple, certainly does not look like a particle.

Newton solved the apple–Earth problem with the *shell theorem:*

> A uniform spherical shell of matter attracts a particle that is outside the shell as if all the shell's mass were concentrated at its center.

Earth can be thought of as a nest of such shells, one within another and each shell attracting a particle outside Earth's surface as if the mass of that shell were at the center of the shell. Thus, from the apple's point of view, Earth *does* behave like a particle, one that is located at the center of Earth and has a mass equal to that of Earth.

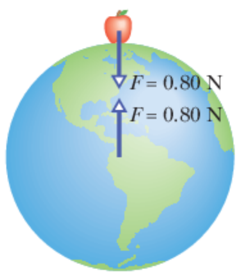


Figure 13-3 The apple pulls up on Earth just as hard as Earth pulls down on the apple.

Third-Law Force Pair. Suppose that, as in Fig. 13-3, Earth pulls down on an apple with a force of magnitude 0.80 N. The apple must then pull up on Earth with a force of magnitude 0.80 N, which we take to act at the center of Earth. In the language of Chapter 5, these forces form a force pair in Newton's third law. Although they are matched in magnitude, they produce different accelerations when the apple is released. The acceleration of the apple is about 9.8 m/s^2, the familiar acceleration of a falling body near Earth's surface. The acceleration of Earth, however, measured in a reference frame attached to the center of mass of the apple–Earth system, is only about 1×10^{-25} m/s^2.

Checkpoint 1

A particle is to be placed, in turn, outside four objects, each of mass m: (1) a large uniform solid sphere, (2) a large uniform spherical shell, (3) a small uniform solid sphere, and (4) a small uniform shell. In each situation, the distance between the particle and the center of the object is d. Rank the objects according to the magnitude of the gravitational force they exert on the particle, greatest first.

13-2 GRAVITATION AND THE PRINCIPLE OF SUPERPOSITION

Learning Objectives

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

13.04 If more than one gravitational force acts on a particle, draw a free-body diagram showing those forces, with the tails of the force vectors anchored on the particle.

13.05 If more than one gravitational force acts on a particle, find the net force by adding the individual forces as vectors.

Key Ideas

- Gravitational forces obey the principle of superposition; that is, if n particles interact, the net force $\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}}$ on a particle labeled particle 1 is the sum of the forces on it from all the other particles taken one at a time:

$$\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}} = \sum_{i=2}^{n} \vec{F}_{1i},$$

in which the sum is a vector sum of the forces $\vec{F}_{1i}$ on particle 1 from particles 2, 3, . . . , n.

- The gravitational force $\vec{F}_1$ on a particle from an extended body is found by first dividing the body into units of differential mass dm, each of which produces a differential force $d\vec{F}$ on the particle, and then integrating over all those units to find the sum of those forces:

$$\vec{F}_1 = \int d\vec{F}.$$

Gravitation and the Principle of Superposition

Given a group of particles, we find the net (or resultant) gravitational force on any one of them from the others by using the **principle of superposition.** This is a general principle that says a net effect is the sum of the individual effects. Here, the principle means that we first compute the individual gravitational forces that act on our selected particle due to each of the other particles. We then find the net force by adding these forces vectorially, just as we have done when adding forces in earlier chapters.

Let's look at two important points in that last (probably quickly read) sentence. (1) Forces are vectors and can be in different directions, and thus we must *add them as vectors*, taking into account their directions. (If two people pull on you in the opposite direction, their net force on you is clearly different than if they pull in the same direction.) (2) We *add* the individual forces. Think how impossible the world would be if the net force depended on some multiplying factor that varied from force to force depending on the situation, or if the presence of one force somehow amplified the magnitude of another force. No, thankfully, the world requires only simple vector addition of the forces.

For n interacting particles, we can write the principle of superposition for the gravitational forces on particle 1 as

$$\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}} = \vec{F}_{12} + \vec{F}_{13} + \vec{F}_{14} + \vec{F}_{15} + \cdots + \vec{F}_{1n}. \tag{13-4}$$

Here $\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}}$ is the net force on particle 1 due to the other particles and, for example, $\vec{F}_{13}$ is the force on particle 1 from particle 3. We can express this equation more compactly as a vector sum:

$$\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}} = \sum_{i=2}^{n} \vec{F}_{1i}. \tag{13-5}$$

Real Objects. What about the gravitational force on a particle from a real (extended) object? This force is found by dividing the object into parts small enough to treat as particles and then using Eq. 13-5 to find the vector sum of the forces on the particle from all the parts. In the limiting case, we can divide the extended object into differential parts each of mass dm and each producing a differential force $d\vec{F}$

Sample Problem 13.01 Net gravitational force, 2D, three particles

Figure 13-4*a* shows an arrangement of three particles, particle 1 of mass $m_1 = 6.0$ kg and particles 2 and 3 of mass $m_2 = m_3 = 4.0$ kg, and distance $a = 2.0$ cm. What is the net gravitational force $\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}}$ on particle 1 due to the other particles?

KEY IDEAS

(1) Because we have particles, the magnitude of the gravitational force on particle 1 due to either of the other particles is given by Eq. 13-1 ($F = Gm_1m_2/r^2$). (2) The direction of either gravitational force on particle 1 is toward the particle responsible for it. (3) Because the forces are not along a single axis, we *cannot* simply add or subtract their magnitudes or their components to get the net force. Instead, we must add them as vectors.

Calculations: From Eq. 13-1, the magnitude of the force $\vec{F}_{12}$ on particle 1 from particle 2 is

$$\begin{aligned} F_{12} &= \frac{Gm_1m_2}{a^2} \qquad (13\text{-}7) \\ &= \frac{(6.67 \times 10^{-11}\ \text{m}^3/\text{kg}\cdot\text{s}^2)(6.0\ \text{kg})(4.0\ \text{kg})}{(0.020\ \text{m})^2} \\ &= 4.00 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{N}. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, the magnitude of force $\vec{F}_{13}$ on particle 1 from particle 3 is

$$\begin{aligned} F_{13} &= \frac{Gm_1m_3}{(2a)^2} \qquad (13\text{-}8) \\ &= \frac{(6.67 \times 10^{-11}\ \text{m}^3/\text{kg}\cdot\text{s}^2)(6.0\ \text{kg})(4.0\ \text{kg})}{(0.040\ \text{m})^2} \\ &= 1.00 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{N}. \end{aligned}$$

Force $\vec{F}_{12}$ is directed in the positive direction of the y axis (Fig. 13-4*b*) and has only the y component F_{12}. Similarly, $\vec{F}_{13}$ is directed in the negative direction of the x axis and has only the x component $-F_{13}$ (Fig. 13-4*c*). (Note something important: We draw the force diagrams with the tail of a force vector anchored on the particle experiencing the force. Drawing them in other ways invites errors, especially on exams.)

To find the net force $\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}}$ on particle 1, we must add the two forces as vectors (Figs. 13-4*d* and *e*). We can do so on a vector-capable calculator. However, here we note that $-F_{13}$ and F_{12} are actually the x and y components of $\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}}$. Therefore, we can use Eq. 3-6 to find first the magnitude and then the direction of $\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}}$. The magnitude is

$$\begin{aligned} F_{1,\text{net}} &= \sqrt{(F_{12})^2 + (-F_{13})^2} \\ &= \sqrt{(4.00 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{N})^2 + (-1.00 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{N})^2} \\ &= 4.1 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{N}. \qquad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

Relative to the positive direction of the x axis, Eq. 3-6 gives the direction of $\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}}$ as

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\frac{F_{12}}{-F_{13}} = \tan^{-1}\frac{4.00 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{N}}{-1.00 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{N}} = -76°.$$

Is this a reasonable direction (Fig. 13-4*f*)? No, because the direction of $\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}}$ must be between the directions of $\vec{F}_{12}$ and $\vec{F}_{13}$. Recall from Chapter 3 that a calculator displays only one of the two possible answers to a $\tan^{-1}$ function. We find the other answer by adding 180°:

$$-76° + 180° = 104°, \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

which *is* a reasonable direction for $\vec{F}_{1,\text{net}}$ (Fig. 13-4*g*).

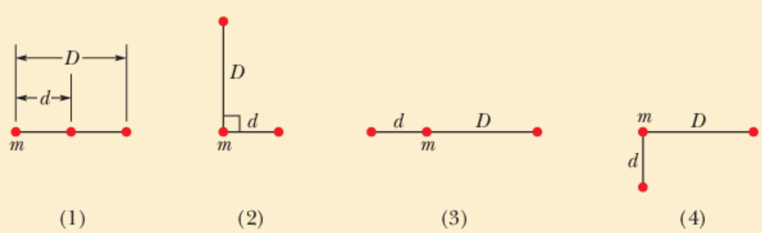
on the particle. In this limit, the sum of Eq. 13-5 becomes an integral and we have

$$\vec{F}_1 = \int d\vec{F}, \qquad (13\text{-}6)$$

in which the integral is taken over the entire extended object and we drop the subscript "net." If the extended object is a uniform sphere or a spherical shell, we can avoid the integration of Eq. 13-6 by assuming that the object's mass is concentrated at the object's center and using Eq. 13-1.

Checkpoint 2

The figure shows four arrangements of three particles of equal masses. (a) Rank the arrangements according to the magnitude of the net gravitational force on the particle labeled m, greatest first. (b) In arrangement 2, is the direction of the net force closer to the line of length d or to the line of length D?



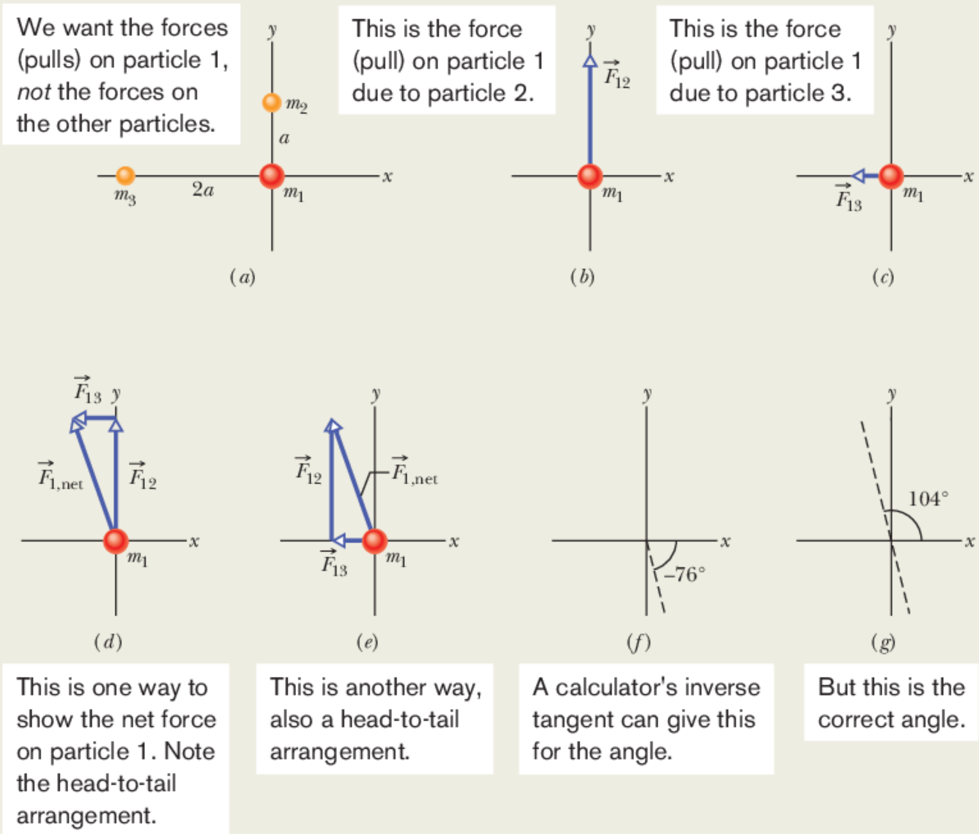


Figure 13-4 (*a*) An arrangement of three particles. The force on particle 1 due to (*b*) particle 2 and (*c*) particle 3. (*d*)–(*g*) Ways to combine the forces to get the net force magnitude and orientation. In *WileyPLUS*, this figure is available as an animation with voiceover.

13-3 GRAVITATION NEAR EARTH'S SURFACE

Learning Objectives

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

13.06 Distinguish between the free-fall acceleration and the gravitational acceleration.

13.07 Calculate the gravitational acceleration near but outside a uniform, spherical astronomical body.

13.08 Distinguish between measured weight and the magnitude of the gravitational force.

Key Ideas

- The gravitational acceleration a_g of a particle (of mass m) is due solely to the gravitational force acting on it. When the particle is at distance r from the center of a uniform, spherical body of mass M, the magnitude F of the gravitational force on the particle is given by Eq. 13-1. Thus, by Newton's second law,

$$F = ma_g,$$

which gives

$$a_g = \frac{GM}{r^2}.$$

- Because Earth's mass is not distributed uniformly, because the planet is not perfectly spherical, and because it rotates, the actual free-fall acceleration $\vec{g}$ of a particle near Earth differs slightly from the gravitational acceleration $\vec{a}_g$, and the particle's weight (equal to mg) differs from the magnitude of the gravitational force on it.

Table 13-1 Variation of a_g with Altitude

Altitude (km)	a_g (m/s^2)	Altitude Example
0	9.83	Mean Earth surface
8.8	9.80	Mt. Everest
36.6	9.71	Highest crewed balloon
400	8.70	Space shuttle orbit
35 700	0.225	Communications satellite

Gravitation Near Earth's Surface

Let us assume that Earth is a uniform sphere of mass M. The magnitude of the gravitational force from Earth on a particle of mass m, located outside Earth a distance r from Earth's center, is then given by Eq. 13-1 as

$$F = G\frac{Mm}{r^2}. \tag{13-9}$$

If the particle is released, it will fall toward the center of Earth, as a result of the gravitational force $\vec{F}$, with an acceleration we shall call the **gravitational acceleration** $\vec{a}_g$. Newton's second law tells us that magnitudes F and a_g are related by

$$F = ma_g. \tag{13-10}$$

Now, substituting F from Eq. 13-9 into Eq. 13-10 and solving for a_g, we find

$$a_g = \frac{GM}{r^2}. \tag{13-11}$$

Table 13-1 shows values of a_g computed for various altitudes above Earth's surface. Notice that a_g is significant even at 400 km.

Since Module 5-1, we have assumed that Earth is an inertial frame by neglecting its rotation. This simplification has allowed us to assume that the free-fall acceleration g of a particle is the same as the particle's gravitational acceleration (which we now call a_g). Furthermore, we assumed that g has the constant value 9.8 m/s^2 any place on Earth's surface. However, any g value measured at a given location will differ from the a_g value calculated with Eq. 13-11 for that location for three reasons: (1) Earth's mass is not distributed uniformly, (2) Earth is not a perfect sphere, and (3) Earth rotates. Moreover, because g differs from a_g, the same three reasons mean that the measured weight mg of a particle differs from the magnitude of the gravitational force on the particle as given by Eq. 13-9. Let us now examine those reasons.

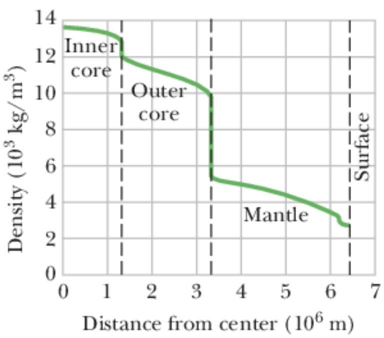


Figure 13-5 The density of Earth as a function of distance from the center. The limits of the solid inner core, the largely liquid outer core, and the solid mantle are shown, but the crust of Earth is too thin to show clearly on this plot.

1. ***Earth's mass is not uniformly distributed.*** The density (mass per unit volume) of Earth varies radially as shown in Fig. 13-5, and the density of the crust (outer section) varies from region to region over Earth's surface. Thus, g varies from region to region over the surface.
2. ***Earth is not a sphere.*** Earth is approximately an ellipsoid, flattened at the poles and bulging at the equator. Its equatorial radius (from its center point out to the equator) is greater than its polar radius (from its center point out to either north or south pole) by 21 km. Thus, a point at the poles is closer to the dense core of Earth than is a point on the equator. This is one reason the free-fall acceleration g increases if you were to measure it while moving at sea level from the equator toward the north or south pole. As you move, you are actually getting closer to the center of Earth and thus, by Newton's law of gravitation, g increases.
3. ***Earth is rotating.*** The rotation axis runs through the north and south poles of Earth. An object located on Earth's surface anywhere except at those poles must rotate in a circle about the rotation axis and thus must have a centripetal acceleration directed toward the center of the circle. This centripetal acceleration requires a centripetal net force that is also directed toward that center.

To see how Earth's rotation causes g to differ from a_g, let us analyze a simple situation in which a crate of mass m is on a scale at the equator. Figure 13-6*a* shows this situation as viewed from a point in space above the north pole.

Figure 13-6*b*, a free-body diagram for the crate, shows the two forces on the crate, both acting along a radial r axis that extends from Earth's center. The normal force $\vec{F}_N$ on the crate from the scale is directed outward, in the positive direction of the r axis. The gravitational force, represented with its equivalent $m\vec{a}_g$, is directed inward. Because it travels in a circle about the center of Earth

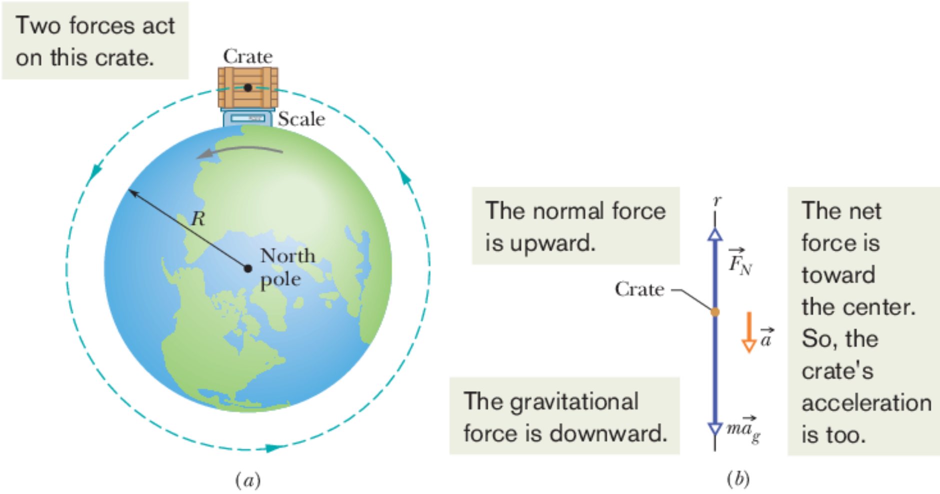


Figure 13-6 (*a*) A crate sitting on a scale at Earth's equator, as seen by an observer positioned on Earth's rotation axis at some point above the north pole. (*b*) A free-body diagram for the crate, with a radial r axis extending from Earth's center. The gravitational force on the crate is represented with its equivalent $m\vec{a}_g$. The normal force on the crate from the scale is $\vec{F}_N$. Because of Earth's rotation, the crate has a centripetal acceleration $\vec{a}$ that is directed toward Earth's center.

as Earth turns, the crate has a centripetal acceleration $\vec{a}$ directed toward Earth's center. From Eq. 10-23 ($a_r = \omega^2 r$), we know this acceleration is equal to $\omega^2 R$, where ω is Earth's angular speed and R is the circle's radius (approximately Earth's radius). Thus, we can write Newton's second law for forces along the r axis ($F_{\text{net},r} = ma_r$) as

$$F_N - ma_g = m(-\omega^2 R). \tag{13-12}$$

The magnitude F_N of the normal force is equal to the weight mg read on the scale. With mg substituted for F_N, Eq. 13-12 gives us

$$mg = ma_g - m(\omega^2 R), \tag{13-13}$$

which says

$$\begin{pmatrix}\text{measured}\\ \text{weight}\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\text{magnitude of}\\ \text{gravitational force}\end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix}\text{mass times}\\ \text{centripetal acceleration}\end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus, the measured weight is less than the magnitude of the gravitational force on the crate, because of Earth's rotation.

Acceleration Difference. To find a corresponding expression for g and a_g, we cancel m from Eq. 13-13 to write

$$g = a_g - \omega^2 R, \tag{13-14}$$

which says

$$\begin{pmatrix}\text{free-fall}\\ \text{acceleration}\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\text{gravitational}\\ \text{acceleration}\end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix}\text{centripetal}\\ \text{acceleration}\end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus, the measured free-fall acceleration is less than the gravitational acceleration because of Earth's rotation.

Equator. The difference between accelerations g and a_g is equal to $\omega^2 R$ and is greatest on the equator (for one reason, the radius of the circle traveled by the crate is greatest there). To find the difference, we can use Eq. 10-5 ($\omega = \Delta\theta/\Delta t$) and Earth's radius $R = 6.37 \times 10^6$ m. For one rotation of Earth, θ is 2π rad and the time period Δt is about 24 h. Using these values (and converting hours to seconds), we find that g is less than a_g by only about 0.034 m/s^2 (small compared to 9.8 m/s^2). Therefore, neglecting the difference in accelerations g and a_g is often justified. Similarly, neglecting the difference between weight and the magnitude of the gravitational force is also often justified.

Sample Problem 13.02 Difference in acceleration at head and feet

(a) An astronaut whose height h is 1.70 m floats "feet down" in an orbiting space shuttle at distance $r = 6.77 \times 10^6$ m away from the center of Earth. What is the difference between the gravitational acceleration at her feet and at her head?

KEY IDEAS

We can approximate Earth as a uniform sphere of mass M_E. Then, from Eq. 13-11, the gravitational acceleration at any distance r from the center of Earth is

$$a_g = \frac{GM_E}{r^2}. \tag{13-15}$$

We might simply apply this equation twice, first with $r = 6.77 \times 10^6$ m for the location of the feet and then with $r = 6.77 \times 10^6$ m $+ 1.70$ m for the location of the head. However, a calculator may give us the same value for a_g twice, and thus a difference of zero, because h is so much smaller than r. Here's a more promising approach: Because we have a differential change dr in r between the astronaut's feet and head, we should differentiate Eq. 13-15 with respect to r.

Calculations: The differentiation gives us

$$da_g = -2\frac{GM_E}{r^3}\,dr, \tag{13-16}$$

where da_g is the differential change in the gravitational acceleration due to the differential change dr in r. For the astronaut, $dr = h$ and $r = 6.77 \times 10^6$ m. Substituting data into Eq. 13-16, we find

$$da_g = -2\frac{(6.67 \times 10^{-11}\ \text{m}^3/\text{kg}\cdot\text{s}^2)(5.98 \times 10^{24}\ \text{kg})}{(6.77 \times 10^6\ \text{m})^3}(1.70\ \text{m})$$

$$= -4.37 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{m/s}^2, \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

where the M_E value is taken from Appendix C. This result means that the gravitational acceleration of the astronaut's feet toward Earth is slightly greater than the gravitational acceleration of her head toward Earth. This difference in acceleration (often called a *tidal effect*) tends to stretch her body, but the difference is so small that she would never even sense the stretching, much less suffer pain from it.

(b) If the astronaut is now "feet down" at the same orbital radius $r = 6.77 \times 10^6$ m about a black hole of mass $M_h = 1.99 \times 10^{31}$ kg (10 times our Sun's mass), what is the difference between the gravitational acceleration at her feet and at her head? The black hole has a mathematical surface (*event horizon*) of radius $R_h = 2.95 \times 10^4$ m. Nothing, not even light, can escape from that surface or anywhere inside it. Note that the astronaut is well outside the surface (at $r = 229R_h$).

Calculations: We again have a differential change dr in r between the astronaut's feet and head, so we can again use Eq. 13-16. However, now we substitute $M_h = 1.99 \times 10^{31}$ kg for M_E. We find

$$da_g = -2\frac{(6.67 \times 10^{-11}\ \text{m}^3/\text{kg}\cdot\text{s}^2)(1.99 \times 10^{31}\ \text{kg})}{(6.77 \times 10^6\ \text{m})^3}(1.70\ \text{m})$$

$$= -14.5\ \text{m/s}^2. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

This means that the gravitational acceleration of the astronaut's feet toward the black hole is noticeably larger than that of her head. The resulting tendency to stretch her body would be bearable but quite painful. If she drifted closer to the black hole, the stretching tendency would increase drastically.

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13-4 GRAVITATION INSIDE EARTH

Learning Objectives

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

13.09 Identify that a uniform shell of matter exerts no net gravitational force on a particle located inside it.

13.10 Calculate the gravitational force that is exerted on a particle at a given radius inside a nonrotating uniform sphere of matter.

Key Ideas

- A uniform shell of matter exerts no *net* gravitational force on a particle located inside it.
- The gravitational force $\vec{F}$ on a particle inside a uniform solid sphere, at a distance r from the center, is due only to mass M_{ins} in an "inside sphere" with that radius r:

$$M_{\text{ins}} = \tfrac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \rho = \frac{M}{R^3}r^3,$$

where ρ is the solid sphere's density, R is its radius, and M is its mass. We can assign this inside mass to be that of a particle at the center of the solid sphere and then apply Newton's law of gravitation for particles. We find that the magnitude of the force acting on mass m is

$$F = \frac{GmM}{R^3}r.$$

Gravitation Inside Earth

Newton's shell theorem can also be applied to a situation in which a particle is located *inside* a uniform shell, to show the following:

> A uniform shell of matter exerts no net gravitational force on a particle located inside it.

Caution: This statement does *not* mean that the gravitational forces on the particle from the various elements of the shell magically disappear. Rather, it means that the *sum* of the force vectors on the particle from all the elements is zero.

If Earth's mass were uniformly distributed, the gravitational force acting on a particle would be a maximum at Earth's surface and would decrease as the particle moved outward, away from the planet. If the particle were to move inward, perhaps down a deep mine shaft, the gravitational force would change for two reasons. (1) It would tend to increase because the particle would be moving closer to the center of Earth. (2) It would tend to decrease because the thickening shell of material lying outside the particle's radial position would not exert any net force on the particle.

To find an expression for the gravitational force inside a uniform Earth, let's use the plot in *Pole to Pole*, an early science fiction story by George Griffith. Three explorers attempt to travel by capsule through a naturally formed (and, of course, fictional) tunnel directly from the south pole to the north pole. Figure 13-7 shows the capsule (mass m) when it has fallen to a distance r from Earth's center. At that moment, the *net* gravitational force on the capsule is due to the mass M_{ins} inside the sphere with radius r (the mass enclosed by the dashed outline), not the mass in the outer spherical shell (outside the dashed outline). Moreover, we can assume that the inside mass M_{ins} is concentrated as a particle at Earth's center. Thus, we can write Eq. 13-1, for the magnitude of the gravitational force on the capsule, as

$$F = \frac{GmM_{ins}}{r^2}. \tag{13-17}$$

Because we assume a uniform density ρ, we can write this inside mass in terms of Earth's total mass M and its radius R:

$$\text{density} = \frac{\text{inside mass}}{\text{inside volume}} = \frac{\text{total mass}}{\text{total volume}},$$

$$\rho = \frac{M_{ins}}{\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3} = \frac{M}{\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3}.$$

Solving for M_{ins} we find

$$M_{ins} = \tfrac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \rho = \frac{M}{R^3} r^3. \tag{13-18}$$

Substituting the second expression for M_{ins} into Eq. 13-17 gives us the magnitude of the gravitational force on the capsule as a function of the capsule's distance r from Earth's center:

$$F = \frac{GmM}{R^3} r. \tag{13-19}$$

According to Griffith's story, as the capsule approaches Earth's center, the gravitational force on the explorers becomes alarmingly large and, exactly at the center, it suddenly but only momentarily disappears. From Eq. 13-19 we see that, in fact, the force magnitude decreases linearly as the capsule approaches the center, until it is zero at the center. At least Griffith got the zero-at-the-center detail correct.

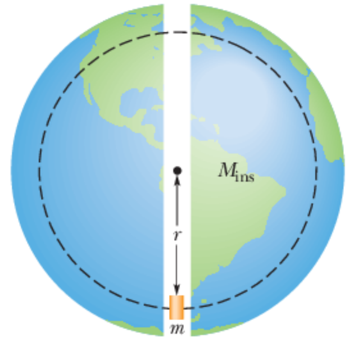

Figure 13-7 A capsule of mass m falls from rest through a tunnel that connects Earth's south and north poles. When the capsule is at distance r from Earth's center, the portion of Earth's mass that is contained in a sphere of that radius is M_{ins}.

Equation 13-19 can also be written in terms of the force vector $\vec{F}$ and the capsule's position vector $\vec{r}$ along a radial axis extending from Earth's center. Letting K represent the collection of constants in Eq. 13-19, we can rewrite the force in vector form as

$$\vec{F} = -K\vec{r}, \tag{13-20}$$

in which we have inserted a minus sign to indicate that $\vec{F}$ and $\vec{r}$ have opposite directions. Equation 13-20 has the form of Hooke's law (Eq. 7-20, $\vec{F} = -k\vec{d}$). Thus, under the idealized conditions of the story, the capsule would oscillate like a block on a spring, with the center of the oscillation at Earth's center. After the capsule had fallen from the south pole to Earth's center, it would travel from the center to the north pole (as Griffith said) and then back again, repeating the cycle forever.

For the real Earth, which certainly has a nonuniform distribution of mass (Fig. 13-5), the force on the capsule would initially *increase* as the capsule descends. The force would then reach a maximum at a certain depth, and only then would it begin to decrease as the capsule further descends.

13-5 GRAVITATIONAL POTENTIAL ENERGY

Learning Objectives

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

13.11 Calculate the gravitational potential energy of a system of particles (or uniform spheres that can be treated as particles).

13.12 Identify that if a particle moves from an initial point to a final point while experiencing a gravitational force, the work done by that force (and thus the change in gravitational potential energy) is independent of which path is taken.

13.13 Using the gravitational force on a particle near an astronomical body (or some second body that is fixed in place), calculate the work done by the force when the body moves.

13.14 Apply the conservation of mechanical energy (including gravitational potential energy) to a particle moving relative to an astronomical body (or some second body that is fixed in place).

13.15 Explain the energy requirements for a particle to escape from an astronomical body (usually assumed to be a uniform sphere).

13.16 Calculate the escape speed of a particle in leaving an astronomical body.

Key Ideas

- The gravitational potential energy $U(r)$ of a system of two particles, with masses M and m and separated by a distance r, is the negative of the work that would be done by the gravitational force of either particle acting on the other if the separation between the particles were changed from infinite (very large) to r. This energy is

$$U = -\frac{GMm}{r} \quad \text{(gravitational potential energy).}$$

- If a system contains more than two particles, its total gravitational potential energy U is the sum of the terms representing the potential energies of all the pairs. As an example, for three particles, of masses m_1, m_2, and m_3,

$$U = -\left(\frac{Gm_1m_2}{r_{12}} + \frac{Gm_1m_3}{r_{13}} + \frac{Gm_2m_3}{r_{23}}\right).$$

- An object will escape the gravitational pull of an astronomical body of mass M and radius R (that is, it will reach an infinite distance) if the object's speed near the body's surface is at least equal to the escape speed, given by

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2GM}{R}}.$$

Gravitational Potential Energy

In Module 8-1, we discussed the gravitational potential energy of a particle–Earth system. We were careful to keep the particle near Earth's surface, so that we could regard the gravitational force as constant. We then chose some reference configuration of the system as having a gravitational potential energy of zero. Often, in this configuration the particle was on Earth's surface. For particles not on Earth's surface, the gravitational potential energy decreased when the separation between the particle and Earth decreased.

Here, we broaden our view and consider the gravitational potential energy U of two particles, of masses m and M, separated by a distance r. We again choose a reference configuration with U equal to zero. However, to simplify the equations, the separation distance r in the reference configuration is now large enough to be approximated as *infinite.* As before, the gravitational potential energy decreases when the separation decreases. Since $U = 0$ for $r = \infty$, the potential energy is negative for any finite separation and becomes progressively more negative as the particles move closer together.

With these facts in mind and as we shall justify next, we take the gravitational potential energy of the two-particle system to be

$$U = -\frac{GMm}{r} \quad \text{(gravitational potential energy).} \tag{13-21}$$

Note that $U(r)$ approaches zero as r approaches infinity and that for any finite value of r, the value of $U(r)$ is negative.

Language. The potential energy given by Eq. 13-21 is a property of the system of two particles rather than of either particle alone. There is no way to divide this energy and say that so much belongs to one particle and so much to the other. However, if $M \gg m$, as is true for Earth (mass M) and a baseball (mass m), we often speak of "the potential energy of the baseball." We can get away with this because, when a baseball moves in the vicinity of Earth, changes in the potential energy of the baseball–Earth system appear almost entirely as changes in the kinetic energy of the baseball, since changes in the kinetic energy of Earth are too small to be measured. Similarly, in Module 13-7 we shall speak of "the potential energy of an artificial satellite" orbiting Earth, because the satellite's mass is so much smaller than Earth's mass. When we speak of the potential energy of bodies of comparable mass, however, we have to be careful to treat them as a system.

Multiple Particles. If our system contains more than two particles, we consider each pair of particles in turn, calculate the gravitational potential energy of that pair with Eq. 13-21 as if the other particles were not there, and then algebraically sum the results. Applying Eq. 13-21 to each of the three pairs of Fig. 13-8, for example, gives the potential energy of the system as

$$U = -\left(\frac{Gm_1m_2}{r_{12}} + \frac{Gm_1m_3}{r_{13}} + \frac{Gm_2m_3}{r_{23}}\right). \tag{13-22}$$

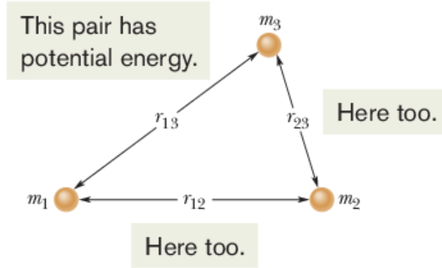

Figure 13-8 A system consisting of three particles. The gravitational potential energy *of the system* is the sum of the gravitational potential energies of all three pairs of particles.

Proof of Equation 13-21

Let us shoot a baseball directly away from Earth along the path in Fig. 13-9. We want to find an expression for the gravitational potential energy U of the ball at point P along its path, at radial distance R from Earth's center. To do so, we first find the work W done on the ball by the gravitational force as the ball travels from point P to a great (infinite) distance from Earth. Because the gravitational force $\vec{F}(r)$ is a variable force (its magnitude depends on r), we must use the techniques of Module 7-5 to find the work. In vector notation, we can write

$$W = \int_R^\infty \vec{F}(r) \cdot d\vec{r}. \tag{13-23}$$

The integral contains the scalar (or dot) product of the force $\vec{F}(r)$ and the differential displacement vector $d\vec{r}$ along the ball's path. We can expand that product as

$$\vec{F}(r) \cdot d\vec{r} = F(r)\, dr \cos\phi, \tag{13-24}$$

where ϕ is the angle between the directions of $\vec{F}(r)$ and $d\vec{r}$. When we substitute

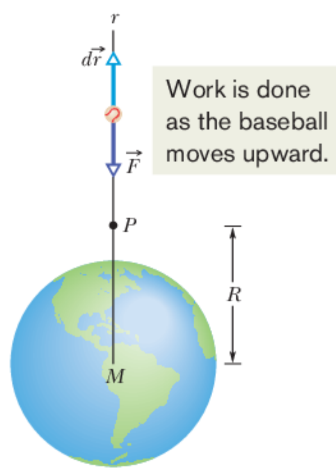

Figure 13-9 A baseball is shot directly away from Earth, through point P at radial distance R from Earth's center. The gravitational force $\vec{F}$ on the ball and a differential displacement vector $d\vec{r}$ are shown, both directed along a radial r axis.

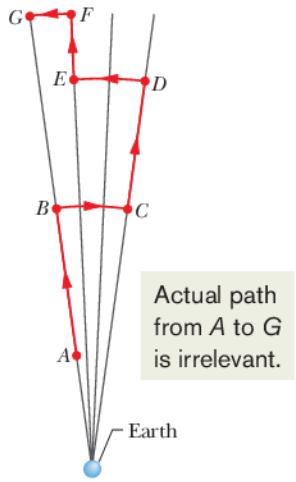

Figure 13-10 Near Earth, a baseball is moved from point A to point G along a path consisting of radial lengths and circular arcs.

180° for ϕ and Eq. 13-1 for $F(r)$, Eq. 13-24 becomes

$$\vec{F}(r) \cdot d\vec{r} = -\frac{GMm}{r^2}\,dr,$$

where M is Earth's mass and m is the mass of the ball.

Substituting this into Eq. 13-23 and integrating give us

$$W = -GMm \int_R^\infty \frac{1}{r^2}\,dr = \left[\frac{GMm}{r}\right]_R^\infty$$
$$= 0 - \frac{GMm}{R} = -\frac{GMm}{R}, \qquad (13\text{-}25)$$

where W is the work required to move the ball from point P (at distance R) to infinity. Equation 8-1 ($\Delta U = -W$) tells us that we can also write that work in terms of potential energies as

$$U_\infty - U = -W.$$

Because the potential energy U_∞ at infinity is zero, U is the potential energy at P, and W is given by Eq. 13-25, this equation becomes

$$U = W = -\frac{GMm}{R}.$$

Switching R to r gives us Eq. 13-21, which we set out to prove.

Path Independence

In Fig. 13-10, we move a baseball from point A to point G along a path consisting of three radial lengths and three circular arcs (centered on Earth). We are interested in the total work W done by Earth's gravitational force $\vec{F}$ on the ball as it moves from A to G. The work done along each circular arc is zero, because the direction of $\vec{F}$ is perpendicular to the arc at every point. Thus, W is the sum of only the works done by $\vec{F}$ along the three radial lengths.

Now, suppose we mentally shrink the arcs to zero. We would then be moving the ball directly from A to G along a single radial length. Does that change W? No. Because no work was done along the arcs, eliminating them does not change the work. The path taken from A to G now is clearly different, but the work done by $\vec{F}$ is the same.

We discussed such a result in a general way in Module 8-1. Here is the point: The gravitational force is a conservative force. Thus, the work done by the gravitational force on a particle moving from an initial point i to a final point f is independent of the path taken between the points. From Eq. 8-1, the change ΔU in the gravitational potential energy from point i to point f is given by

$$\Delta U = U_f - U_i = -W. \qquad (13\text{-}26)$$

Since the work W done by a conservative force is independent of the actual path taken, the change ΔU in gravitational potential energy is *also independent* of the path taken.

Potential Energy and Force

In the proof of Eq. 13-21, we derived the potential energy function $U(r)$ from the force function $\vec{F}(r)$. We should be able to go the other way—that is, to start from the potential energy function and derive the force function. Guided by Eq. 8-22 ($F(x) = -dU(x)/dx$), we can write

$$F = -\frac{dU}{dr} = -\frac{d}{dr}\left(-\frac{GMm}{r}\right)$$
$$= -\frac{GMm}{r^2}. \qquad (13\text{-}27)$$

This is Newton's law of gravitation (Eq. 13-1). The minus sign indicates that the force on mass m points radially inward, toward mass M.

Escape Speed

If you fire a projectile upward, usually it will slow, stop momentarily, and return to Earth. There is, however, a certain minimum initial speed that will cause it to move upward forever, theoretically coming to rest only at infinity. This minimum initial speed is called the (Earth) **escape speed.**

Consider a projectile of mass m, leaving the surface of a planet (or some other astronomical body or system) with escape speed v. The projectile has a kinetic energy K given by $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ and a potential energy U given by Eq. 13-21:

$$U = -\frac{GMm}{R},$$

in which M is the mass of the planet and R is its radius.

When the projectile reaches infinity, it stops and thus has no kinetic energy. It also has no potential energy because an infinite separation between two bodies is our zero-potential-energy configuration. Its total energy at infinity is therefore zero. From the principle of conservation of energy, its total energy at the planet's surface must also have been zero, and so

$$K + U = \tfrac{1}{2}mv^2 + \left(-\frac{GMm}{R}\right) = 0.$$

This yields

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2GM}{R}}. \tag{13-28}$$

Note that v does not depend on the direction in which a projectile is fired from a planet. However, attaining that speed is easier if the projectile is fired in the direction the launch site is moving as the planet rotates about its axis. For example, rockets are launched eastward at Cape Canaveral to take advantage of the Cape's eastward speed of 1500 km/h due to Earth's rotation.

Equation 13-28 can be applied to find the escape speed of a projectile from any astronomical body, provided we substitute the mass of the body for M and the radius of the body for R. Table 13-2 shows some escape speeds.

Table 13-2 Some Escape Speeds

Body	Mass (kg)	Radius (m)	Escape Speed (km/s)
Ceres[a]	1.17×10^{21}	3.8×10^{5}	0.64
Earth's moon[a]	7.36×10^{22}	1.74×10^{6}	2.38
Earth	5.98×10^{24}	6.37×10^{6}	11.2
Jupiter	1.90×10^{27}	7.15×10^{7}	59.5
Sun	1.99×10^{30}	6.96×10^{8}	618
Sirius B[b]	2×10^{30}	1×10^{7}	5200
Neutron star[c]	2×10^{30}	1×10^{4}	2×10^{5}

[a]The most massive of the asteroids.
[b]A *white dwarf* (a star in a final stage of evolution) that is a companion of the bright star Sirius.
[c]The collapsed core of a star that remains after that star has exploded in a *supernova* event.

Checkpoint 3

You move a ball of mass m away from a sphere of mass M. (a) Does the gravitational potential energy of the system of ball and sphere increase or decrease? (b) Is positive work or negative work done by the gravitational force between the ball and the sphere?

Sample Problem 13.03 Asteroid falling from space, mechanical energy

An asteroid, headed directly toward Earth, has a speed of 12 km/s relative to the planet when the asteroid is 10 Earth radii from Earth's center. Neglecting the effects of Earth's atmosphere on the asteroid, find the asteroid's speed v_f when it reaches Earth's surface.

KEY IDEAS

Because we are to neglect the effects of the atmosphere on the asteroid, the mechanical energy of the asteroid–Earth system is conserved during the fall. Thus, the final mechanical energy (when the asteroid reaches Earth's surface) is equal to the initial mechanical energy. With kinetic energy K and gravitational potential energy U, we can write this as

$$K_f + U_f = K_i + U_i. \tag{13-29}$$

Also, if we assume the system is isolated, the system's linear momentum must be conserved during the fall. Therefore, the momentum change of the asteroid and that of Earth must be equal in magnitude and opposite in sign. However, because Earth's mass is so much greater than the asteroid's mass, the change in Earth's speed is negligible relative to the change in the asteroid's speed. So, the change in Earth's kinetic energy is also negligible. Thus, we can assume that the kinetic energies in Eq. 13-29 are those of the asteroid alone.

Calculations: Let m represent the asteroid's mass and M represent Earth's mass (5.98×10^{24} kg). The asteroid is initially at distance $10R_E$ and finally at distance R_E, where R_E is Earth's radius (6.37×10^6 m). Substituting Eq. 13-21 for U and $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ for K, we rewrite Eq. 13-29 as

$$\tfrac{1}{2}mv_f^2 - \frac{GMm}{R_E} = \tfrac{1}{2}mv_i^2 - \frac{GMm}{10R_E}.$$

Rearranging and substituting known values, we find

$$\begin{aligned} v_f^2 &= v_i^2 + \frac{2GM}{R_E}\left(1 - \frac{1}{10}\right) \\ &= (12 \times 10^3\ \text{m/s})^2 \\ &\quad + \frac{2(6.67 \times 10^{-11}\ \text{m}^3/\text{kg}\cdot\text{s}^2)(5.98 \times 10^{24}\ \text{kg})}{6.37 \times 10^6\ \text{m}}\,0.9 \\ &= 2.567 \times 10^8\ \text{m}^2/\text{s}^2, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$v_f = 1.60 \times 10^4\ \text{m/s} = 16\ \text{km/s}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

At this speed, the asteroid would not have to be particularly large to do considerable damage at impact. If it were only 5 m across, the impact could release about as much energy as the nuclear explosion at Hiroshima. Alarmingly, about 500 million asteroids of this size are near Earth's orbit, and in 1994 one of them apparently penetrated Earth's atmosphere and exploded 20 km above the South Pacific (setting off nuclear-explosion warnings on six military satellites).

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13-6 PLANETS AND SATELLITES: KEPLER'S LAWS

Learning Objectives

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

13.17 Identify Kepler's three laws.

13.18 Identify which of Kepler's laws is equivalent to the law of conservation of angular momentum.

13.19 On a sketch of an elliptical orbit, identify the semimajor axis, the eccentricity, the perihelion, the aphelion, and the focal points.

13.20 For an elliptical orbit, apply the relationships between the semimajor axis, the eccentricity, the perihelion, and the aphelion.

13.21 For an orbiting natural or artificial satellite, apply Kepler's relationship between the orbital period and radius and the mass of the astronomical body being orbited.

Key Ideas

- The motion of satellites, both natural and artificial, is governed by Kepler's laws:

1. *The law of orbits.* All planets move in elliptical orbits with the Sun at one focus.
2. *The law of areas.* A line joining any planet to the Sun sweeps out equal areas in equal time intervals. (This statement is equivalent to conservation of angular momentum.)
3. *The law of periods.* The square of the period T of any planet is proportional to the cube of the semimajor axis a of its orbit. For circular orbits with radius r,

$$T^2 = \left(\frac{4\pi^2}{GM}\right)r^3 \quad \text{(law of periods)},$$

where M is the mass of the attracting body—the Sun in the case of the solar system. For elliptical planetary orbits, the semimajor axis a is substituted for r.

Planets and Satellites: Kepler's Laws

The motions of the planets, as they seemingly wander against the background of the stars, have been a puzzle since the dawn of history. The "loop-the-loop" motion of Mars, shown in Fig. 13-11, was particularly baffling. Johannes Kepler (1571–1630), after a lifetime of study, worked out the empirical laws that govern these motions. Tycho Brahe (1546–1601), the last of the great astronomers to make observations without the help of a telescope, compiled the extensive data from which Kepler was able to derive the three laws of planetary motion that now bear Kepler's name. Later, Newton (1642–1727) showed that his law of gravitation leads to Kepler's laws.

In this section we discuss each of Kepler's three laws. Although here we apply the laws to planets orbiting the Sun, they hold equally well for satellites, either natural or artificial, orbiting Earth or any other massive central body.

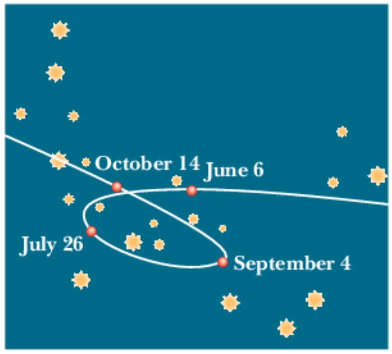


Figure 13-11 The path seen from Earth for the planet Mars as it moved against a background of the constellation Capricorn during 1971. The planet's position on four days is marked. Both Mars and Earth are moving in orbits around the Sun so that we see the position of Mars relative to us; this relative motion sometimes results in an apparent loop in the path of Mars.

1. THE LAW OF ORBITS: All planets move in elliptical orbits, with the Sun at one focus.

Figure 13-12 shows a planet of mass m moving in such an orbit around the Sun, whose mass is M. We assume that $M \gg m$, so that the center of mass of the planet–Sun system is approximately at the center of the Sun.

The orbit in Fig. 13-12 is described by giving its **semimajor axis** a and its **eccentricity** e, the latter defined so that ea is the distance from the center of the ellipse to either focus F or F'. *An eccentricity of zero corresponds to a circle,* in which the two foci merge to a single central point. The eccentricities of the planetary orbits are not large; so if the orbits are drawn to scale, they look circular. The eccentricity of the ellipse of Fig. 13-12, which has been exaggerated for clarity, is 0.74. The eccentricity of Earth's orbit is only 0.0167.

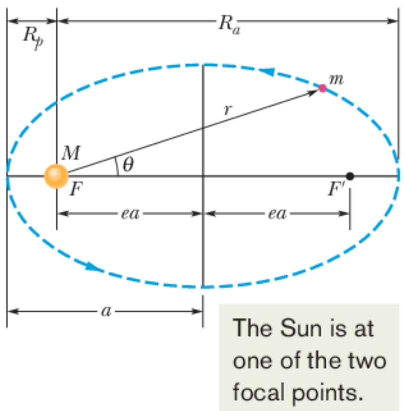


Figure 13-12 A planet of mass m moving in an elliptical orbit around the Sun. The Sun, of mass M, is at one focus F of the ellipse. The other focus is F', which is located in empty space. The semimajor axis a of the ellipse, the perihelion (nearest the Sun) distance R_p, and the aphelion (farthest from the Sun) distance R_a are also shown.

2. THE LAW OF AREAS: A line that connects a planet to the Sun sweeps out equal areas in the plane of the planet's orbit in equal time intervals; that is, the rate dA/dt at which it sweeps out area A is constant.

Qualitatively, this second law tells us that the planet will move most slowly when it is farthest from the Sun and most rapidly when it is nearest to the Sun. As it turns out, Kepler's second law is totally equivalent to the law of conservation of angular momentum. Let us prove it.

The area of the shaded wedge in Fig. 13-13*a* closely approximates the area swept out in time Δt by a line connecting the Sun and the planet, which are separated by distance r. The area ΔA of the wedge is approximately the area of

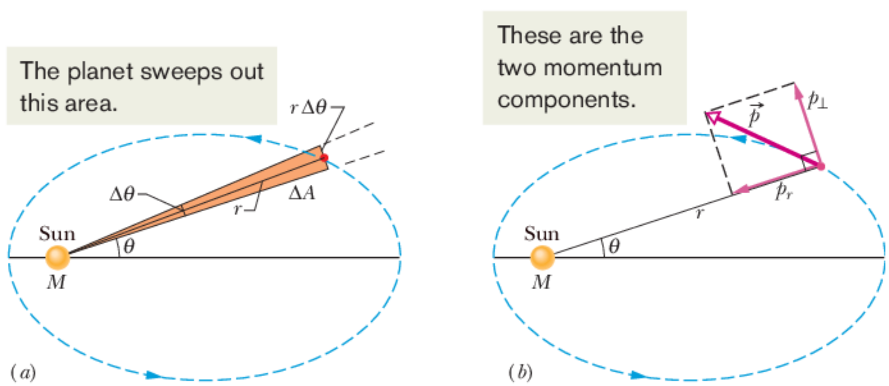


Figure 13-13 (*a*) In time Δt, the line r connecting the planet to the Sun moves through an angle $\Delta\theta$, sweeping out an area ΔA (shaded). (*b*) The linear momentum $\vec{p}$ of the planet and the components of $\vec{p}$.

a triangle with base $r\,\Delta\theta$ and height r. Since the area of a triangle is one-half of the base times the height, $\Delta A \approx \frac{1}{2}r^2\Delta\theta$. This expression for ΔA becomes more exact as Δt (hence $\Delta\theta$) approaches zero. The instantaneous rate at which area is being swept out is then

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{1}{2}r^2\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{1}{2}r^2\omega, \tag{13-30}$$

in which ω is the angular speed of the line connecting Sun and planet, as the line rotates around the Sun.

Figure 13-13*b* shows the linear momentum $\vec{p}$ of the planet, along with the radial and perpendicular components of $\vec{p}$. From Eq. 11-20 ($L = rp_\perp$), the magnitude of the angular momentum $\vec{L}$ of the planet about the Sun is given by the product of r and $p_\perp$, the component of $\vec{p}$ perpendicular to r. Here, for a planet of mass m,

$$\begin{aligned} L &= rp_\perp = (r)(mv_\perp) = (r)(m\omega r) \\ &= mr^2\omega, \end{aligned} \tag{13-31}$$

where we have replaced $v_\perp$ with its equivalent ωr (Eq. 10-18). Eliminating $r^2\omega$ between Eqs. 13-30 and 13-31 leads to

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{L}{2m}. \tag{13-32}$$

If dA/dt is constant, as Kepler said it is, then Eq. 13-32 means that L must also be constant—angular momentum is conserved. Kepler's second law is indeed equivalent to the law of conservation of angular momentum.

3. THE LAW OF PERIODS: The square of the period of any planet is proportional to the cube of the semimajor axis of its orbit.

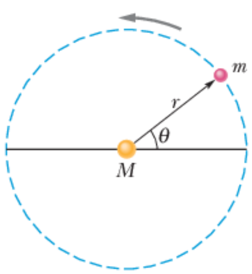


Figure 13-14 A planet of mass m moving around the Sun in a circular orbit of radius r.

To see this, consider the circular orbit of Fig. 13-14, with radius r (the radius of a circle is equivalent to the semimajor axis of an ellipse). Applying Newton's second law ($F = ma$) to the orbiting planet in Fig. 13-14 yields

$$\frac{GMm}{r^2} = (m)(\omega^2 r). \tag{13-33}$$

Here we have substituted from Eq. 13-1 for the force magnitude F and used Eq. 10-23 to substitute $\omega^2 r$ for the centripetal acceleration. If we now use Eq. 10-20 to replace ω with $2\pi/T$, where T is the period of the motion, we obtain Kepler's third law:

$$T^2 = \left(\frac{4\pi^2}{GM}\right)r^3 \quad \text{(law of periods).} \tag{13-34}$$

The quantity in parentheses is a constant that depends only on the mass M of the central body about which the planet orbits.

Equation 13-34 holds also for elliptical orbits, provided we replace r with a, the semimajor axis of the ellipse. This law predicts that the ratio T^2/a^3 has essentially the same value for every planetary orbit around a given massive body. Table 13-3 shows how well it holds for the orbits of the planets of the solar system.

Table 13-3 Kepler's Law of Periods for the Solar System

Planet	Semimajor Axis a (10^{10} m)	Period T (y)	T^2/a^3 (10^{-34} y^2/m^3)
Mercury	5.79	0.241	2.99
Venus	10.8	0.615	3.00
Earth	15.0	1.00	2.96
Mars	22.8	1.88	2.98
Jupiter	77.8	11.9	3.01
Saturn	143	29.5	2.98
Uranus	287	84.0	2.98
Neptune	450	165	2.99
Pluto	590	248	2.99

Checkpoint 4

Satellite 1 is in a certain circular orbit around a planet, while satellite 2 is in a larger circular orbit. Which satellite has (a) the longer period and (b) the greater speed?

Sample Problem 13.04 Kepler's law of periods, Comet Halley

Comet Halley orbits the Sun with a period of 76 years and, in 1986, had a distance of closest approach to the Sun, its *perihelion distance* R_p, of 8.9×10^{10} m. Table 13-3 shows that this is between the orbits of Mercury and Venus.

(a) What is the comet's farthest distance from the Sun, which is called its *aphelion distance* R_a?

KEY IDEAS

From Fig. 13-12, we see that $R_a + R_p = 2a$, where a is the semimajor axis of the orbit. Thus, we can find R_a if we first find a. We can relate a to the given period via the law of periods (Eq. 13-34) if we simply substitute the semimajor axis a for r.

Calculations: Making that substitution and then solving for a, we have

$$a = \left(\frac{GMT^2}{4\pi^2}\right)^{1/3}. \tag{13-35}$$

If we substitute the mass M of the Sun, 1.99×10^{30} kg, and the period T of the comet, 76 years or 2.4×10^9 s, into Eq. 13-35, we find that $a = 2.7 \times 10^{12}$ m. Now we have

$$\begin{aligned} R_a &= 2a - R_p \\ &= (2)(2.7 \times 10^{12}\text{ m}) - 8.9 \times 10^{10}\text{ m} \\ &= 5.3 \times 10^{12}\text{ m}. \qquad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

Table 13-3 shows that this is a little less than the semimajor axis of the orbit of Pluto. Thus, the comet does not get farther from the Sun than Pluto.

(b) What is the eccentricity e of the orbit of comet Halley?

KEY IDEA

We can relate e, a, and R_p via Fig. 13-12, in which we see that $ea = a - R_p$.

Calculation: We have

$$e = \frac{a - R_p}{a} = 1 - \frac{R_p}{a} \tag{13-36}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{8.9 \times 10^{10}\text{ m}}{2.7 \times 10^{12}\text{ m}} = 0.97. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

This tells us that, with an eccentricity approaching unity, this orbit must be a long thin ellipse.

WILEY PLUS Additional examples, video, and practice available at *WileyPLUS*

13-7 SATELLITES: ORBITS AND ENERGY

Learning Objectives

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

13.22 For a satellite in a circular orbit around an astronomical body, calculate the gravitational potential energy, the kinetic energy, and the total energy.

13.23 For a satellite in an elliptical orbit, calculate the total energy.

Key Ideas

- When a planet or satellite with mass m moves in a circular orbit with radius r, its potential energy U and kinetic energy K are given by

$$U = -\frac{GMm}{r} \quad \text{and} \quad K = \frac{GMm}{2r}.$$

The mechanical energy $E = K + U$ is then

$$E = -\frac{GMm}{2r}.$$

For an elliptical orbit of semimajor axis a,

$$E = -\frac{GMm}{2a}.$$

Satellites: Orbits and Energy

As a satellite orbits Earth in an elliptical path, both its speed, which fixes its kinetic energy K, and its distance from the center of Earth, which fixes its gravitational potential energy U, fluctuate with fixed periods. However, the mechanical energy E of the satellite remains constant. (Since the satellite's mass is so much smaller than Earth's mass, we assign U and E for the Earth–satellite system to the satellite alone.)

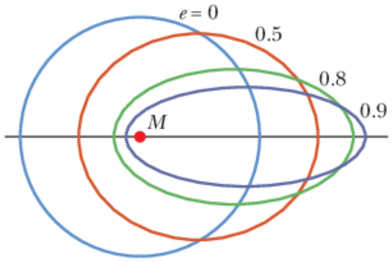


Figure 13-15 Four orbits with different eccentricities e about an object of mass M. All four orbits have the same semimajor axis a and thus correspond to the same total mechanical energy E.

The potential energy of the system is given by Eq. 13-21:

$$U = -\frac{GMm}{r}$$

(with $U = 0$ for infinite separation). Here r is the radius of the satellite's orbit, assumed for the time being to be circular, and M and m are the masses of Earth and the satellite, respectively.

To find the kinetic energy of a satellite in a circular orbit, we write Newton's second law ($F = ma$) as

$$\frac{GMm}{r^2} = m\frac{v^2}{r}, \tag{13-37}$$

where v^2/r is the centripetal acceleration of the satellite. Then, from Eq. 13-37, the kinetic energy is

$$K = \tfrac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{GMm}{2r}, \tag{13-38}$$

which shows us that for a satellite in a circular orbit,

$$K = -\frac{U}{2} \quad \text{(circular orbit)}. \tag{13-39}$$

The total mechanical energy of the orbiting satellite is

$$E = K + U = \frac{GMm}{2r} - \frac{GMm}{r}$$

or

$$E = -\frac{GMm}{2r} \quad \text{(circular orbit)}. \tag{13-40}$$

This tells us that for a satellite in a circular orbit, the total energy E is the negative of the kinetic energy K:

$$E = -K \quad \text{(circular orbit)}. \tag{13-41}$$

For a satellite in an elliptical orbit of semimajor axis a, we can substitute a for r in Eq. 13-40 to find the mechanical energy:

$$E = -\frac{GMm}{2a} \quad \text{(elliptical orbit)}. \tag{13-42}$$

Equation 13-42 tells us that the total energy of an orbiting satellite depends only on the semimajor axis of its orbit and not on its eccentricity e. For example, four orbits with the same semimajor axis are shown in Fig. 13-15; the same satellite would have the same total mechanical energy E in all four orbits. Figure 13-16 shows the variation of K, U, and E with r for a satellite moving in a circular orbit about a massive central body. Note that as r is increased, the kinetic energy (and thus also the orbital speed) decreases.

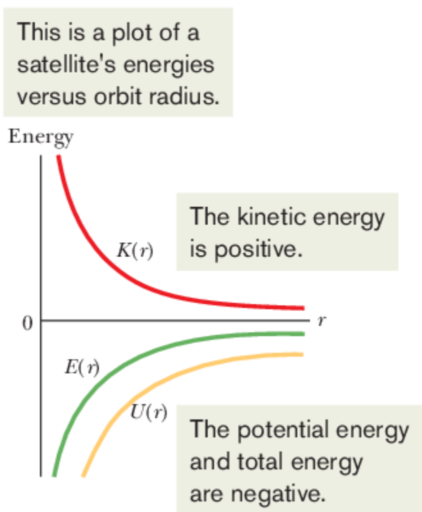
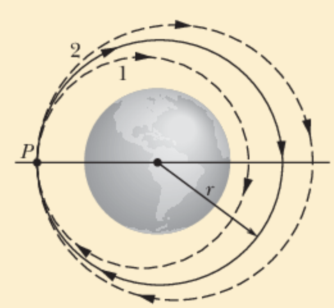


Figure 13-16 The variation of kinetic energy K, potential energy U, and total energy E with radius r for a satellite in a circular orbit. For any value of r, the values of U and E are negative, the value of K is positive, and $E = -K$. As $r \to \infty$, all three energy curves approach a value of zero.

Checkpoint 5

In the figure here, a space shuttle is initially in a circular orbit of radius r about Earth. At point P, the pilot briefly fires a forward-pointing thruster to decrease the shuttle's kinetic energy K and mechanical energy E. (a) Which of the dashed elliptical orbits shown in the figure will the shuttle then take? (b) Is the orbital period T of the shuttle (the time to return to P) then greater than, less than, or the same as in the circular orbit?



Sample Problem 13.05 Mechanical energy of orbiting bowling ball

A playful astronaut releases a bowling ball, of mass m = 7.20 kg, into circular orbit about Earth at an altitude h of 350 km.

(a) What is the mechanical energy E of the ball in its orbit?

KEY IDEA

We can get E from the orbital energy, given by Eq. 13-40 ($E = -GMm/2r$), if we first find the orbital radius r. (It is *not* simply the given altitude.)

Calculations: The orbital radius must be

$$r = R + h = 6370\text{ km} + 350\text{ km} = 6.72 \times 10^6\text{ m},$$

in which R is the radius of Earth. Then, from Eq. 13-40 with Earth mass $M = 5.98 \times 10^{24}$ kg, the mechanical energy is

$$\begin{aligned} E &= -\frac{GMm}{2r} \\ &= -\frac{(6.67 \times 10^{-11}\text{ N}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{kg}^2)(5.98 \times 10^{24}\text{ kg})(7.20\text{ kg})}{(2)(6.72 \times 10^6\text{ m})} \\ &= -2.14 \times 10^8\text{ J} = -214\text{ MJ}. \qquad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

(b) What is the mechanical energy E_0 of the ball on the launchpad at the Kennedy Space Center (before launch)? From there to the orbit, what is the change ΔE in the ball's mechanical energy?

KEY IDEA

On the launchpad, the ball is *not* in orbit and thus Eq. 13-40 does *not* apply. Instead, we must find $E_0 = K_0 + U_0$, where K_0 is the ball's kinetic energy and U_0 is the gravitational potential energy of the ball–Earth system.

Calculations: To find U_0, we use Eq. 13-21 to write

$$\begin{aligned} U_0 &= -\frac{GMm}{R} \\ &= -\frac{(6.67 \times 10^{-11}\text{ N}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{kg}^2)(5.98 \times 10^{24}\text{ kg})(7.20\text{ kg})}{6.37 \times 10^6\text{ m}} \\ &= -4.51 \times 10^8\text{ J} = -451\text{ MJ}. \end{aligned}$$

The kinetic energy K_0 of the ball is due to the ball's motion with Earth's rotation. You can show that K_0 is less than 1 MJ, which is negligible relative to U_0. Thus, the mechanical energy of the ball on the launchpad is

$$E_0 = K_0 + U_0 \approx 0 - 451\text{ MJ} = -451\text{ MJ}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

The *increase* in the mechanical energy of the ball from launchpad to orbit is

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta E = E - E_0 &= (-214\text{ MJ}) - (-451\text{ MJ}) \\ &= 237\text{ MJ}. \qquad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

This is worth a few dollars at your utility company. Obviously the high cost of placing objects into orbit is not due to their required mechanical energy.

Sample Problem 13.06 Transforming a circular orbit into an elliptical orbit

A spaceship of mass $m = 4.50 \times 10^3$ kg is in a circular Earth orbit of radius $r = 8.00 \times 10^6$ m and period $T_0 = 118.6$ min $= 7.119 \times 10^3$ s when a thruster is fired in the forward direction to decrease the speed to 96.0% of the original speed. What is the period T of the resulting elliptical orbit (Fig. 13-17)?

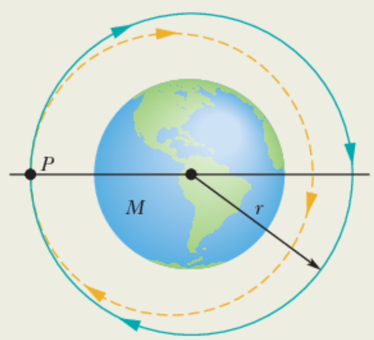


Figure 13-17 At point P a thruster is fired, changing a ship's orbit from circular to elliptical.

KEY IDEAS

(1) The orbit of an elliptical orbit is related to the semimajor axis a by Kepler's third law, written as Eq. 13-34 ($T^2 = 4\pi^2 r^3/GM$) but with a replacing r. (2) The semimajor axis a is related to the total mechanical energy E of the ship by Eq. 13-42 ($E = -GMm/2a$), in which Earth's mass is $M = 5.98 \times 10^{24}$ kg. (3) The potential energy of the ship at radius r from Earth's center is given by Eq. 13-21 ($U = -GMm/r$).

Calculations: Looking over the Key Ideas, we see that we need to calculate the total energy E to find the semimajor axis a, so that we can then determine the period of the elliptical orbit. Let's start with the kinetic energy, calculating it just after the thruster is fired. The speed v just then is 96% of the initial speed v_0, which was equal to the ratio of the circumference of the initial circular orbit to the initial period of the orbit. Thus, just after the thruster is fired, the kinetic energy is

$$\begin{aligned} K &= \tfrac{1}{2}mv^2 = \tfrac{1}{2}m(0.96v_0)^2 = \tfrac{1}{2}m(0.96)^2\left(\frac{2\pi r}{T_0}\right)^2 \\ &= \tfrac{1}{2}(4.50 \times 10^3\text{ kg})(0.96)^2\left(\frac{2\pi(8.00 \times 10^6\text{ m})}{7.119 \times 10^3\text{ s}}\right)^2 \\ &= 1.0338 \times 10^{11}\text{ J}. \end{aligned}$$

Just after the thruster is fired, the ship is still at orbital radius r, and thus its gravitational potential energy is

$$U = -\frac{GMm}{r}$$
$$= -\frac{(6.67 \times 10^{-11}\,\mathrm{N\cdot m^2/kg^2})(5.98 \times 10^{24}\,\mathrm{kg})(4.50 \times 10^3\,\mathrm{kg})}{8.00 \times 10^6\,\mathrm{m}}$$
$$= -2.2436 \times 10^{11}\ \mathrm{J}.$$

We can now find the semimajor axis by rearranging Eq. 13-42, substituting a for r, and then substituting in our energy results:

$$a = -\frac{GMm}{2E} = -\frac{GMm}{2(K+U)}$$
$$= -\frac{(6.67 \times 10^{-11}\,\mathrm{N\cdot m^2/kg^2})(5.98 \times 10^{24}\,\mathrm{kg})(4.50 \times 10^3\,\mathrm{kg})}{2(1.0338 \times 10^{11}\,\mathrm{J} - 2.2436 \times 10^{11}\,\mathrm{J})}$$
$$= 7.418 \times 10^6\,\mathrm{m}.$$

OK, one more step to go. We substitute a for r in Eq. 13-34 and then solve for the period T, substituting our result for a:

$$T = \left(\frac{4\pi^2 a^3}{GM}\right)^{1/2}$$
$$= \left(\frac{4\pi^2(7.418 \times 10^6\,\mathrm{m})^3}{(6.67 \times 10^{-11}\,\mathrm{N\cdot m^2/kg^2})(5.98 \times 10^{24}\,\mathrm{kg})}\right)^{1/2}$$
$$= 6.356 \times 10^3\,\mathrm{s} = 106\ \mathrm{min}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

This is the period of the elliptical orbit that the ship takes after the thruster is fired. It is less than the period T_0 for the circular orbit for two reasons. (1) The orbital path length is now less. (2) The elliptical path takes the ship closer to Earth everywhere except at the point of firing (Fig. 13-17). The resulting decrease in gravitational potential energy increases the kinetic energy and thus also the speed of the ship.

Additional examples, video, and practice available at *WileyPLUS*

13-8 EINSTEIN AND GRAVITATION

Learning Objectives

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

13.24 Explain Einstein's principle of equivalence.

13.25 Identify Einstein's model for gravitation as being due to the curvature of spacetime.

Key Idea

- Einstein pointed out that gravitation and acceleration are equivalent. This principle of equivalence led him to a theory of gravitation (the general theory of relativity) that explains gravitational effects in terms of a curvature of space.

Einstein and Gravitation

Principle of Equivalence

Albert Einstein once said: "I was . . . in the patent office at Bern when all of a sudden a thought occurred to me: 'If a person falls freely, he will not feel his own weight.' I was startled. This simple thought made a deep impression on me. It impelled me toward a theory of gravitation."

Thus Einstein tells us how he began to form his **general theory of relativity.** The fundamental postulate of this theory about gravitation (the gravitating of objects toward each other) is called the **principle of equivalence,** which says that gravitation and acceleration are equivalent. If a physicist were locked up in a small box as in Fig. 13-18, he would not be able to tell whether the box was at

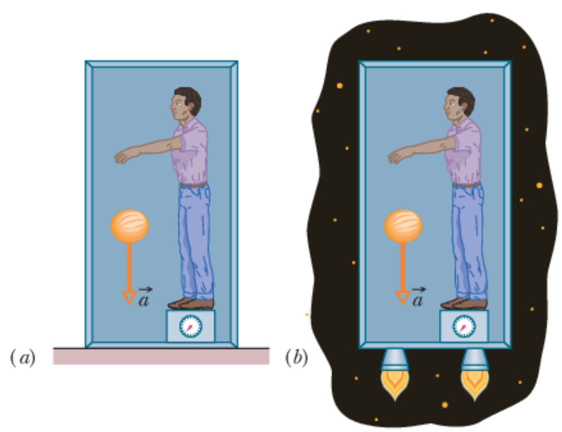


Figure 13-18 (*a*) A physicist in a box resting on Earth sees a cantaloupe falling with acceleration $a = 9.8\ \mathrm{m/s^2}$. (*b*) If he and the box accelerate in deep space at $9.8\ \mathrm{m/s^2}$, the cantaloupe has the same acceleration relative to him. It is not possible, by doing experiments within the box, for the physicist to tell which situation he is in. For example, the platform scale on which he stands reads the same weight in both situations.