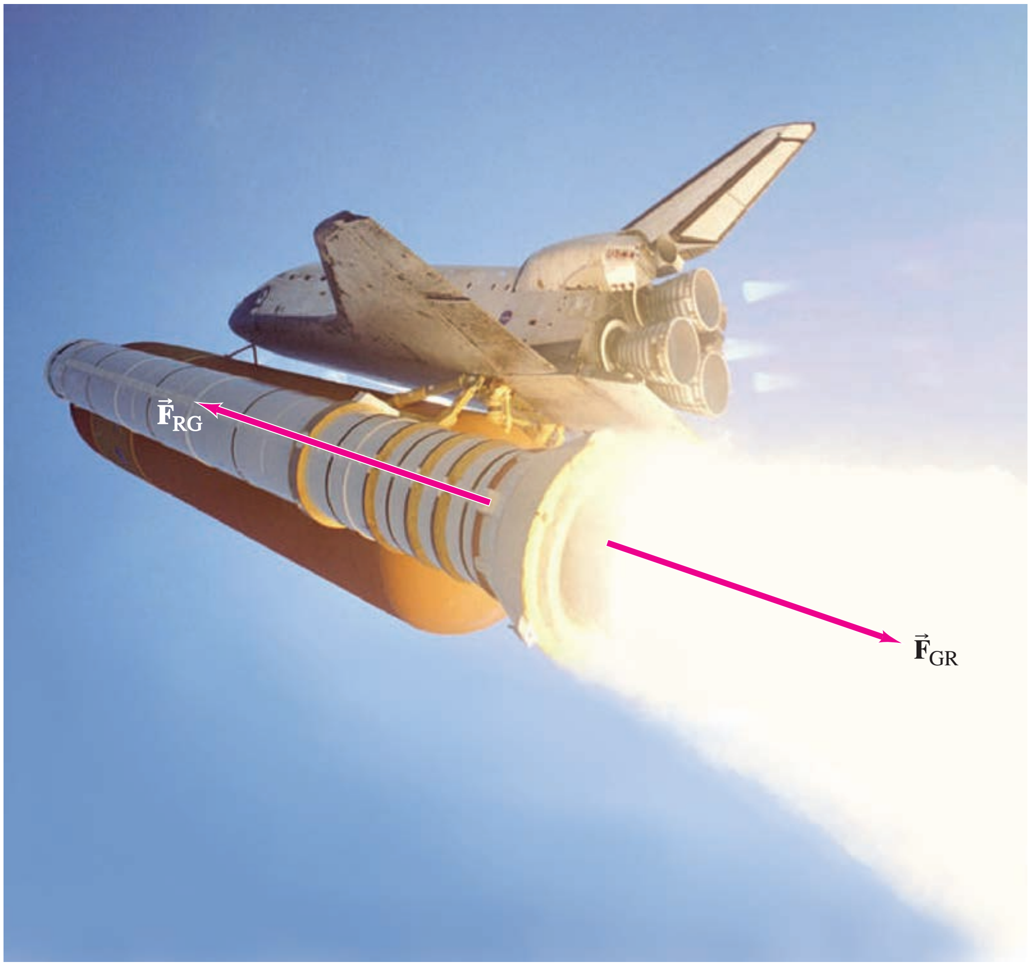


A space shuttle is carried out into space by powerful rockets. They are accelerating, increasing in speed rapidly. To do so, a force must be exerted on them according to Newton's second law, $\Sigma\vec{\mathbf{F}} = m\vec{\mathbf{a}}$. What exerts this force? The **r**ocket engines exert a force on the **g**ases they push out (expel) from the rear of the rockets (labeled $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_{GR}$). According to Newton's third law, these ejected gases exert an equal and opposite force on the rockets in the forward direction. It is this "reaction" force exerted *on* the **r**ockets *by* the **g**ases, labeled $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_{RG}$, that accelerates the rockets forward.

CHAPTER 4

Dynamics: Newton's Laws of Motion

CHAPTER-OPENING QUESTIONS—Guess now!

1. A 150-kg football player collides head-on with a 75-kg running back. During the collision, the heavier player exerts a force of magnitude F_A on the smaller player. If the smaller player exerts a force F_B back on the heavier player, which response is most accurate?

(a) $F_B = F_A$.
(b) $F_B < F_A$.
(c) $F_B > F_A$.
(d) $F_B = 0$.
(e) We need more information.

2. A line by the poet T. S. Eliot (from *Murder in the Cathedral*) has the women of Canterbury say "the earth presses up against our feet." What force is this?

(a) Gravity.
(b) The normal force.
(c) A friction force.
(d) Centrifugal force.
(e) No force—they are being poetic.

CONTENTS

We have discussed how motion is described in terms of velocity and acceleration. Now we deal with the question of *why* objects move as they do: What makes an object at rest begin to move? What causes an object to accelerate or decelerate? What is involved when an object moves in a curved path? We can answer in each case that a force is required. In this Chapter†, we will investigate the connection between force and motion, which is the subject called **dynamics**.

4–1 Force

FIGURE 4–1 A force exerted on a grocery cart—in this case exerted by a person.

Intuitively, we experience **force** as any kind of a push or a pull on an object. When you push a stalled car or a grocery cart (Fig. 4–1), you are exerting a force on it. When a motor lifts an elevator, or a hammer hits a nail, or the wind blows the leaves of a tree, a force is being exerted. We often call these *contact forces* because the force is exerted when one object comes in contact with another object. On the other hand, we say that an object falls because of the *force of gravity* (which is not a contact force).

If an object is at rest, to start it moving requires force—that is, a force is needed to accelerate an object from zero velocity to a nonzero velocity. For an object already moving, if you want to change its velocity—either in direction or in magnitude—a force is required. In other words, to accelerate an object, a force is always required. In Section 4–4 we discuss the precise relation between acceleration and net force, which is Newton's second law.

One way to measure the magnitude (or strength) of a force is to use a spring scale (Fig. 4–2). Normally, such a spring scale is used to find the weight of an object; by weight we mean the force of gravity acting on the object (Section 4–6). The spring scale, once calibrated, can be used to measure other kinds of forces as well, such as the pulling force shown in Fig. 4–2.

A force exerted in a different direction has a different effect. Force has direction as well as magnitude, and is indeed a vector that follows the rules of vector addition discussed in Chapter 3. We can represent any force on a diagram by an arrow, just as we did with velocity. The direction of the arrow is the direction of the push or pull, and its length is drawn proportional to the magnitude of the force.

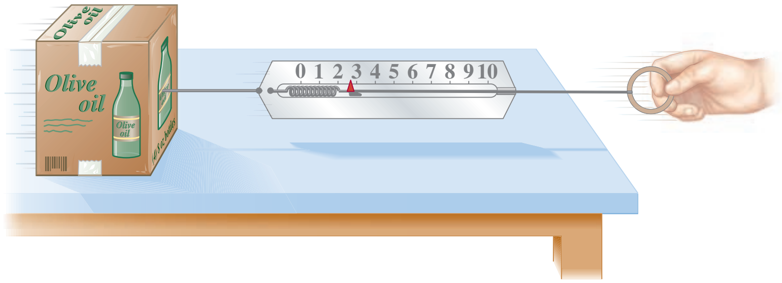


FIGURE 4–2 A spring scale used to measure a force.

4–2 Newton's First Law of Motion

What is the relationship between force and motion? Aristotle (384–322 B.C.) believed that a force was required to keep an object moving along a horizontal plane. To Aristotle, the natural state of an object was at rest, and a force was believed necessary to keep an object in motion. Furthermore, Aristotle argued, the greater the force on the object, the greater its speed.

Some 2000 years later, Galileo disagreed: he maintained that it is just as natural for an object to be in motion with a constant velocity as it is for it to be at rest.

†We treat everyday objects in motion here. When velocities are extremely high, close to the speed of light $(3.0 \times 10^8\,\text{m/s})$, we use the theory of relativity (Chapter 26), and in the submicroscopic world of atoms and molecules we use quantum theory (Chapter 27 *ff*).

To understand Galileo's idea, consider the following observations involving motion along a horizontal plane. To push an object with a rough surface along a tabletop at constant speed requires a certain amount of force. To push an equally heavy object with a very smooth surface across the table at the same speed will require less force. If a layer of oil or other lubricant is placed between the surface of the object and the table, then almost no force is required to keep the object moving. Notice that in each successive step, less force is required. As the next step, we imagine there is no friction at all, that the object does not rub against the table—or there is a perfect lubricant between the object and the table—and theorize that once started, the object would move across the table at constant speed with *no* force applied. A steel ball bearing rolling on a hard horizontal surface approaches this situation. So does a puck on an air table, in which a thin layer of air reduces friction almost to zero.

It was Galileo's genius to imagine such an idealized world—in this case, one where there is no friction—and to see that it could lead to a more accurate and richer understanding of the real world. This idealization led him to his remarkable conclusion that if no force is applied to a moving object, it will continue to move with constant speed in a straight line. An object slows down only if a force is exerted on it. Galileo thus interpreted friction as a force akin to ordinary pushes and pulls.

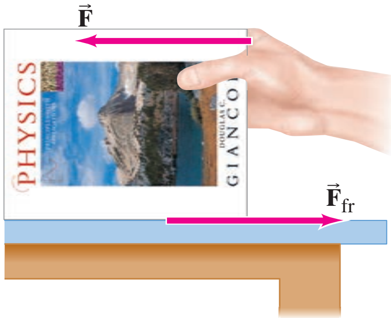


FIGURE 4–3 $\vec{\mathbf{F}}$ represents the force applied by the person and $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_{\mathrm{fr}}$ represents the force of friction.

To push an object across a table at constant speed requires a force from your hand that can balance the force of friction (Fig. 4–3). When the object moves at constant speed, your pushing force is equal in magnitude to the friction force; but these two forces are in opposite directions, so the *net* force on the object (the vector sum of the two forces) is zero. This is consistent with Galileo's viewpoint, for the object moves with constant velocity when no *net* force is exerted on it.

Upon this foundation laid by Galileo, Isaac Newton (Fig. 4–4) built his great theory of motion. Newton's analysis of motion is summarized in his famous "three laws of motion." In his great work, the *Principia* (published in 1687), Newton readily acknowledged his debt to Galileo. In fact, **Newton's first law of motion** is close to Galileo's conclusions. It states that

NEWTON'S FIRST LAW OF MOTION

Every object continues in its state of rest, or of uniform velocity in a straight line, as long as no net force acts on it.

The tendency of an object to maintain its state of rest or of uniform velocity in a straight line is called **inertia**. As a result, Newton's first law is often called the **law of inertia**.

CONCEPTUAL EXAMPLE 4–1 **Newton's first law.** A school bus comes to a sudden stop, and all of the backpacks on the floor start to slide forward. What force causes them to do that?

RESPONSE It isn't "force" that does it. By Newton's first law, the backpacks continue their state of motion, maintaining their velocity. The backpacks slow down if a force is applied, such as friction with the floor.

FIGURE 4–4 Isaac Newton (1642–1727). Besides developing mechanics, including his three great laws of motion and the law of universal gravitation, he also tried to understand the nature of light.

Inertial Reference Frames

Newton's first law does not hold in every reference frame. For example, if your reference frame is an accelerating car, an object such as a cup resting on the dashboard may begin to move toward you (it stayed at rest as long as the car's velocity remained constant). The cup accelerated toward you, but neither you nor anything else exerted a force on it in that direction. Similarly, in the reference frame of the decelerating bus in Example 4–1, there was no force pushing the backpacks forward. In accelerating reference frames, Newton's first law does not hold. Physics is easier in reference frames in which Newton's first law *does* hold, and they are called **inertial reference frames** (the law of inertia is valid in them). For most purposes, we usually make the approximation that a reference frame fixed on the Earth is an inertial frame. This is not precisely true, due to the Earth's rotation, but usually it is close enough.

Any reference frame that moves with constant velocity (say, a car or an airplane) relative to an inertial frame is also an inertial reference frame. Reference frames where the law of inertia does *not* hold, such as the accelerating reference frames discussed above, are called **noninertial** reference frames. How can we be sure a reference frame is inertial or not? By checking to see if Newton's first law holds. Thus Newton's first law serves as the definition of inertial reference frames.

4–3 Mass

Newton's second law, which we come to in the next Section, makes use of the concept of mass. Newton used the term *mass* as a synonym for "quantity of matter." This intuitive notion of the mass of an object is not very precise because the concept "quantity of matter" is not very well defined. More precisely, we can say that **mass** is a *measure of the inertia* of an object. The more mass an object has, the greater the force needed to give it a particular acceleration. It is harder to start it moving from rest, or to stop it when it is moving, or to change its velocity sideways out of a straight-line path. A truck has much more inertia than a baseball moving at the same speed, and a much greater force is needed to change the truck's velocity at the same rate as the ball's. The truck therefore has much more mass.

To quantify the concept of mass, we must define a standard. In SI units, the unit of mass is the **kilogram** (kg) as we discussed in Chapter 1, Section 1–5.

CAUTION
Distinguish mass from weight

The terms *mass* and *weight* are often confused with one another, but it is important to distinguish between them. Mass is a property of an object itself (a measure of an object's inertia, or its "quantity of matter"). Weight, on the other hand, is a force, the pull of gravity acting on an object. To see the difference, suppose we take an object to the Moon. The object will weigh only about one-sixth as much as it did on Earth, since the force of gravity is weaker. But its mass will be the same. It will have the same amount of matter as on Earth, and will have just as much inertia—in the absence of friction, it will be just as hard to start it moving on the Moon as on Earth, or to stop it once it is moving. (More on weight in Section 4–6.)

4–4 Newton's Second Law of Motion

Newton's first law states that if no net force is acting on an object at rest, the object remains at rest; or if the object is moving, it continues moving with constant speed in a straight line. But what happens if a net force *is* exerted on an object? Newton perceived that the object's velocity will change (Fig. 4–5). A net force exerted on an object may make its velocity increase. Or, if the net force is in a direction opposite to the motion, that force will reduce the object's velocity. If the net force acts sideways on a moving object, the *direction* of the object's velocity changes. That change in the *direction* of the velocity is also an acceleration. So a sideways net force on an object also causes acceleration. In general, we can say that *a net force causes acceleration*.

FIGURE 4–5 The bobsled accelerates because the team exerts a force.

What precisely is the relationship between acceleration and force? Everyday experience can suggest an answer. Consider the force required to push a cart when friction is small enough to ignore. (If there is friction, consider the *net* force, which is the force you exert minus the force of friction.) If you push the cart horizontally with a gentle but constant force for a certain period of time, you will make the cart accelerate from rest up to some speed, say 3 km/h. If you push with twice the force, the cart will reach 3 km/h in half the time. The acceleration will be twice as great. If you triple the force, the acceleration is tripled, and so on. Thus, the acceleration of an object is directly proportional† to the net applied force. But the acceleration depends on the mass of the object as well. If you push an empty grocery cart with the same force as you push one that is filled with groceries, you will find that the full cart accelerates more slowly.

†A review of proportionality is given in Appendix A.

The greater the mass, the less the acceleration for the same net force. The mathematical relation, as Newton argued, is that the acceleration of an object is inversely proportional to its mass. These relationships are found to hold in general and can be summarized as follows:

The acceleration of an object is directly proportional to the net force acting on it, and is inversely proportional to the object's mass. The direction of the acceleration is in the direction of the net force acting on the object.

NEWTON'S SECOND LAW OF MOTION

This is **Newton's second law of motion**.

Newton's second law can be written as an equation:

$$\vec{\mathbf{a}} = \frac{\Sigma \vec{\mathbf{F}}}{m},$$

where $\vec{\mathbf{a}}$ stands for acceleration, m for the mass, and $\Sigma \vec{\mathbf{F}}$ for the *net force* on the object. The symbol Σ (Greek "sigma") stands for "sum of"; $\vec{\mathbf{F}}$ stands for force, so $\Sigma \vec{\mathbf{F}}$ means the *vector sum of all forces* acting on the object, which we define as the **net force**.

We rearrange this equation to obtain the familiar statement of Newton's second law:

$$\Sigma \vec{\mathbf{F}} = m\vec{\mathbf{a}}. \tag{4–1}$$

NEWTON'S SECOND LAW OF MOTION

Newton's second law relates the description of motion to the cause of motion, force. It is one of the most fundamental relationships in physics. From Newton's second law we can make a more precise definition of **force** as *an action capable of accelerating an object*.

Every force $\vec{\mathbf{F}}$ is a vector, with magnitude and direction. Equation 4–1 is a vector equation valid in any inertial reference frame. It can be written in component form in rectangular coordinates as

$$\Sigma F_x = ma_x, \qquad \Sigma F_y = ma_y, \qquad \Sigma F_z = ma_z.$$

If the motion is all along a line (one-dimensional), we can leave out the subscripts and simply write $\Sigma F = ma$. Again, a is the acceleration of an object of mass m, and ΣF includes all the forces acting on that object, and *only* forces acting on that object. (Sometimes the net force ΣF is written as F_{net}, so $F_{\text{net}} = ma$.)

In SI units, with the mass in kilograms, the unit of force is called the **newton** (N). One newton is the force required to impart an acceleration of $1\,\text{m/s}^2$ to a mass of 1 kg. Thus $1\,\text{N} = 1\,\text{kg}\cdot\text{m/s}^2$.

In cgs units, the unit of mass is the gram[†] (g). The unit of force is the *dyne*, which is defined as the net force needed to impart an acceleration of $1\,\text{cm/s}^2$ to a mass of 1 g. Thus $1\,\text{dyne} = 1\,\text{g}\cdot\text{cm/s}^2$. Because $1\,\text{g} = 10^{-3}\,\text{kg}$ and $1\,\text{cm} = 10^{-2}\,\text{m}$, then $1\,\text{dyne} = 10^{-5}\,\text{N}$.

In the British system, which we rarely use, the unit of force is the *pound* (abbreviated lb), where $1\,\text{lb} = 4.44822\,\text{N} \approx 4.45\,\text{N}$. The unit of mass is the *slug*, which is defined as that mass which will undergo an acceleration of $1\,\text{ft/s}^2$ when a force of 1 lb is applied to it. Thus $1\,\text{lb} = 1\,\text{slug}\cdot\text{ft/s}^2$. Table 4–1 summarizes the units in the different systems.

TABLE 4–1
Units for Mass and Force

System	Mass	Force
SI	kilogram (kg)	newton (N) $(= \text{kg}\cdot\text{m/s}^2)$
cgs	gram (g)	dyne $(= \text{g}\cdot\text{cm/s}^2)$
British	slug	pound (lb)

Conversion factors: $1\,\text{dyne} = 10^{-5}\,\text{N}$; $1\,\text{lb} \approx 4.45\,\text{N}$; $1\,\text{slug} \approx 14.6\,\text{kg}$.

PROBLEM SOLVING
Use a consistent set of units

It is very important that only one set of units be used in a given calculation or Problem, with the SI being what we almost always use. If the force is given in, say, newtons, and the mass in grams, then before attempting to solve for the acceleration in SI units, we must change the mass to kilograms. For example, if the force is given as 2.0 N along the x axis and the mass is 500 g, we change the latter to 0.50 kg, and the acceleration will then automatically come out in m/s^2 when Newton's second law is used:

$$a_x = \frac{\Sigma F_x}{m} = \frac{2.0\,\text{N}}{0.50\,\text{kg}} = \frac{2.0\,\text{kg}\cdot\text{m/s}^2}{0.50\,\text{kg}} = 4.0\,\text{m/s}^2,$$

where we set $1\,\text{N} = 1\,\text{kg}\cdot\text{m/s}^2$.

[†]Be careful not to confuse g for gram with g for the acceleration due to gravity. The latter is always italicized (or boldface when shown as a vector).

EXAMPLE 4–2 ESTIMATE **Force to accelerate a fast car.** Estimate the net force needed to accelerate (*a*) a 1000-kg car at $\frac{1}{2}g$; (*b*) a 200-gram apple at the same rate.

APPROACH We use Newton's second law to find the net force needed for each object; we are given the mass and the acceleration. This is an estimate (the $\frac{1}{2}$ is not said to be precise) so we round off to one significant figure.

SOLUTION (*a*) The car's acceleration is $a = \frac{1}{2}g = \frac{1}{2}(9.8\,\mathrm{m/s^2}) \approx 5\,\mathrm{m/s^2}$. We use Newton's second law to get the net force needed to achieve this acceleration:

$$\Sigma F = ma \approx (1000\,\mathrm{kg})(5\,\mathrm{m/s^2}) = 5000\,\mathrm{N}.$$

(If you are used to British units, to get an idea of what a 5000-N force is, you can divide by 4.45 N/lb and get a force of about 1000 lb.)

(*b*) For the apple, $m = 200\,\mathrm{g} = 0.2\,\mathrm{kg}$, so

$$\Sigma F = ma \approx (0.2\,\mathrm{kg})(5\,\mathrm{m/s^2}) = 1\,\mathrm{N}.$$

EXAMPLE 4–3 **Force to stop a car.** What average net force is required to bring a 1500-kg car to rest from a speed of 100 km/h within a distance of 55 m?

APPROACH We use Newton's second law, $\Sigma F = ma$, to determine the force, but first we need to calculate the acceleration a. We assume the acceleration is constant so that we can use the kinematic equations, Eqs. 2–11, to calculate it.

FIGURE 4–6 Example 4–3.

SOLUTION We assume the motion is along the $+x$ axis (Fig. 4–6). We are given the initial velocity $v_0 = 100\,\mathrm{km/h} = 27.8\,\mathrm{m/s}$ (Section 1–6), the final velocity $v = 0$, and the distance traveled $x - x_0 = 55\,\mathrm{m}$. From Eq. 2–11c, we have

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

so

$$a = \frac{v^2 - v_0^2}{2(x - x_0)} = \frac{0 - (27.8\,\mathrm{m/s})^2}{2(55\,\mathrm{m})} = -7.0\,\mathrm{m/s^2}.$$

The net force required is then

$$\Sigma F = ma = (1500\,\mathrm{kg})(-7.0\,\mathrm{m/s^2}) = -1.1 \times 10^4\,\mathrm{N},$$

or 11,000 N. The force must be exerted in the direction *opposite* to the initial velocity, which is what the negative sign means.

NOTE If the acceleration is not precisely constant, then we are determining an "average" acceleration and we obtain an "average" net force.

Newton's second law, like the first law, is valid only in inertial reference frames (Section 4–2). In the noninertial reference frame of a car that begins accelerating, a cup on the dashboard starts sliding—it accelerates—even though the net force on it is zero. Thus $\Sigma\vec{\mathbf{F}} = m\vec{\mathbf{a}}$ does not work in such an accelerating reference frame ($\Sigma\vec{\mathbf{F}} = 0$, but $\vec{\mathbf{a}} \neq 0$ in this noninertial frame).

EXERCISE A Suppose you watch a cup slide on the (smooth) dashboard of an accelerating car as we just discussed, but this time from an inertial reference frame outside the car, on the street. From your inertial frame, Newton's laws are valid. What force pushes the cup off the dashboard?

4–5 Newton's Third Law of Motion

Newton's second law of motion describes quantitatively how forces affect motion. But where, we may ask, do forces come from? Observations suggest that a force exerted on any object is always exerted *by another object*. A horse pulls a wagon, a person pushes a grocery cart, a hammer pushes on a nail, a magnet attracts a paper clip. In each of these examples, a force is exerted *on* one object, and that force is exerted *by* another object. For example, the force exerted *on* the nail is exerted *by* the hammer.

But Newton realized that things are not so one-sided. True, the hammer exerts a force on the nail (Fig. 4–7). But the nail evidently exerts a force back on the hammer as well, for the hammer's speed is rapidly reduced to zero upon contact. Only a strong force could cause such a rapid deceleration of the hammer. Thus, said Newton, the two objects must be treated on an equal basis. The hammer exerts a force on the nail, and the nail exerts a force back on the hammer. This is the essence of **Newton's third law of motion**:

FIGURE 4–7 A hammer striking a nail. The hammer exerts a force on the nail and the nail exerts a force back on the hammer. The latter force decelerates the hammer and brings it to rest.

> **Whenever one object exerts a force on a second object, the second object exerts an equal force in the opposite direction on the first.**

NEWTON'S THIRD LAW OF MOTION

This law is sometimes paraphrased as "to every action there is an equal and opposite reaction." This is perfectly valid. But to avoid confusion, it is very important to remember that the "action" force and the "reaction" force are acting on *different* objects.

CAUTION
Action and reaction forces act on different objects

As evidence for the validity of Newton's third law, look at your hand when you push against the edge of a desk, Fig. 4–8. Your hand's shape is distorted, clear evidence that a force is being exerted on it. You can *see* the edge of the desk pressing into your hand. You can even *feel* the desk exerting a force on your hand; it hurts! The harder you push against the desk, the harder the desk pushes back on your hand. (You only feel forces exerted *on* you; when you exert a force on another object, what you feel is that object pushing back on you.)

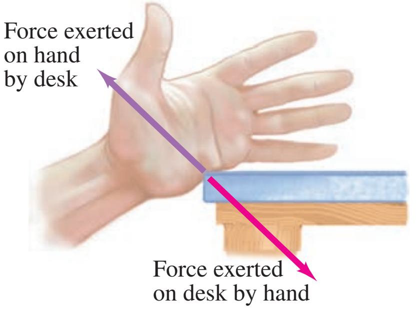


FIGURE 4–8 If your hand pushes against the edge of a desk (the force vector is shown in red), the desk pushes back against your hand (this force vector is shown in a different color, violet, to remind us that this force acts on a different object).

The force the desk exerts on your hand has the same magnitude as the force your hand exerts on the desk. This is true not only if the desk is at rest but is true even if the desk is accelerating due to the force your hand exerts.

As another demonstration of Newton's third law, consider the ice skater in Fig. 4–9. There is very little friction between her skates and the ice, so she will move freely if a force is exerted on her. She pushes against the wall; and then *she* starts moving backward. The force she exerts on the wall cannot make *her* start moving, because that force acts on the wall. Something had to exert a force *on her* to start her moving, and that force could only have been exerted by the wall. The force with which the wall pushes on her is, by Newton's third law, equal and opposite to the force she exerts on the wall.

FIGURE 4–9 An example of Newton's third law: when an ice skater pushes against the wall, the wall pushes back and this force causes her to accelerate away.

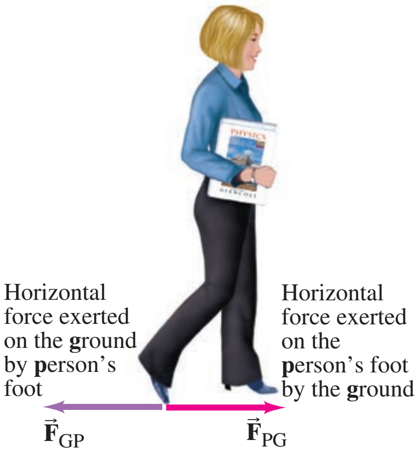
When a person throws a package out of a small boat (initially at rest), the boat starts moving in the opposite direction. The person exerts a force on the package. The package exerts an equal and opposite force back on the person, and this force propels the person (and the boat) backward slightly.

FIGURE 4–10 Another example of Newton's third law: the launch of a rocket. The rocket engine pushes the gases downward, and the gases exert an equal and opposite force upward on the rocket, accelerating it upward. (A rocket does *not* accelerate as a result of its expelled gases pushing against the ground.)

Rocket propulsion also is explained using Newton's third law (Fig. 4–10). A common misconception is that rockets accelerate because the gases rushing out the back of the engine push against the ground or the atmosphere. Not true. What happens, instead, is that a rocket exerts a strong force on the gases, expelling them; and the gases exert an equal and opposite force *on the rocket*. It is this latter force that propels the rocket forward—the force exerted *on* the rocket *by* the gases (see Chapter-Opening Photo, page 75). Thus, a space vehicle is maneuvered in empty space by firing its rockets in the direction opposite to that in which it needs to accelerate. When the rocket pushes on the gases in one direction, the gases push back on the rocket in the opposite direction. Jet aircraft too accelerate because the gases they thrust out backwards exert a forward force on the engines (Newton's third law).

Consider how we walk. A person begins walking by pushing with the foot backward against the ground. The ground then exerts an equal and opposite force forward on the person (Fig. 4–11), and it is this force, *on* the person, that moves the person forward. (If you doubt this, try walking normally where there is no friction, such as on very smooth slippery ice.) In a similar way, a bird flies forward by exerting a backward force on the air, but it is the air pushing forward (Newton's third law) on the bird's wings that propels the bird forward.

FIGURE 4–11 We can walk forward because, when one foot pushes backward against the ground, the ground pushes forward on that foot (Newton's third law). The two forces shown *act on different objects.*



CONCEPTUAL EXAMPLE 4–4 **What exerts the force to move a car?** What makes a car go forward?

RESPONSE A common answer is that the engine makes the car move forward. But it is not so simple. The engine makes the wheels go around. But if the tires are on slick ice or wet mud, they just spin. Friction is needed. On firm ground, the tires push backward against the ground because of friction. By Newton's third law, the ground pushes on the tires in the opposite direction, accelerating the car forward.

We tend to associate forces with active objects such as humans, animals, engines, or a moving object like a hammer. It is often difficult to see how an inanimate object at rest, such as a wall or a desk, or the wall of an ice rink (Fig. 4–9), can exert a force. The explanation is that every material, no matter how hard, is elastic (springy) at least to some degree. A stretched rubber band can exert a force on a wad of paper and accelerate it to fly across the room. Other materials may not stretch as readily as rubber, but they do stretch or compress when a force is applied to them. And just as a stretched rubber band exerts a force, so does a stretched (or compressed) wall, desk, or car fender.

From the examples discussed above, we can see how important it is to remember *on* what object a given force is exerted and *by* what object that force is exerted. A force influences the motion of an object only when it is applied *on* that object. A force exerted *by* an object does not influence that same object; it only influences the other object *on* which it is exerted. Thus, to avoid confusion, the two prepositions *on* and *by* must always be used—and used with care.

One way to keep clear which force acts on which object is to use double subscripts. For example, the force exerted *on* the **P**erson *by* the **G**round as the person walks in Fig. 4–11 can be labeled $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_{PG}$. And the force exerted on the ground by the person is $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_{GP}$. By Newton's third law

NEWTON'S THIRD LAW OF MOTION

$$\vec{\mathbf{F}}_{GP} = -\vec{\mathbf{F}}_{PG}. \tag{4–2}$$

$\vec{\mathbf{F}}_{GP}$ and $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_{PG}$ have the same magnitude (Newton's third law), and the minus sign reminds us that these two forces are in opposite directions.

Note carefully that the two forces shown in Fig. 4–11 act on different objects—to emphasize this we used slightly different colors for the vector arrows representing these forces. These two forces would never appear together in a sum of forces in Newton's second law, $\Sigma\vec{\mathbf{F}} = m\vec{\mathbf{a}}$. Why not? Because they act on different objects: $\vec{\mathbf{a}}$ is the acceleration of one particular object, and $\Sigma\vec{\mathbf{F}}$ must include *only* the forces on that *one* object.

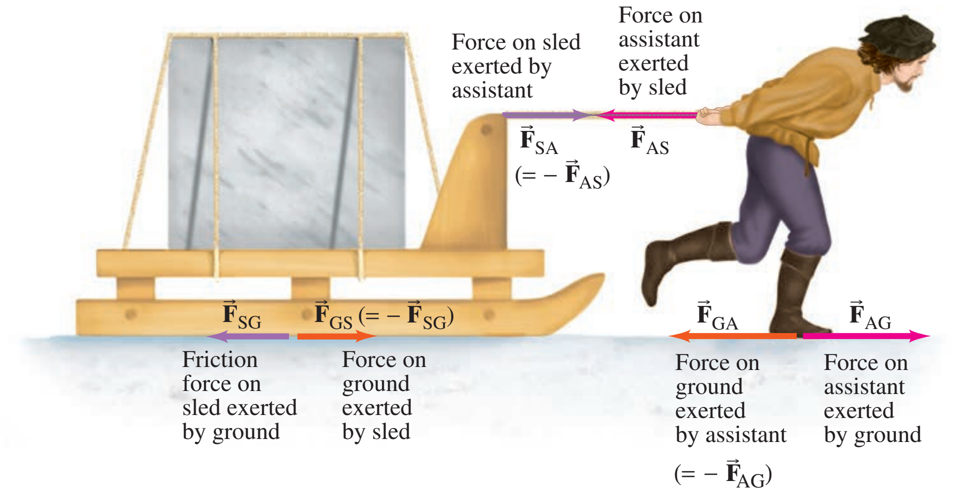


FIGURE 4–12 Example 4–5, showing only horizontal forces. Michelangelo has selected a fine block of marble for his next sculpture. Shown here is his assistant pulling it on a sled away from the quarry. Forces on the assistant are shown as red (magenta) arrows. Forces on the sled are purple arrows. Forces acting on the ground are orange arrows. Action–reaction forces that are equal and opposite are labeled by the same subscripts but reversed (such as $\vec{F}_{GA}$ and $\vec{F}_{AG}$) and are of different colors because they act on different objects.

CONCEPTUAL EXAMPLE 4–5 **Third law clarification.** Michelangelo's assistant has been assigned the task of moving a block of marble using a sled (Fig. 4–12). He says to his boss, "When I exert a forward force on the sled, the sled exerts an equal and opposite force backward. So how can I ever start it moving? No matter how hard I pull, the backward reaction force always equals my forward force, so the net force must be zero. I'll never be able to move this load." Is he correct?

RESPONSE No. Although it is true that the action and reaction forces are equal in magnitude, the assistant has forgotten that they are exerted on different objects. The forward ("action") force is exerted by the assistant on the sled (Fig. 4–12), whereas the backward "reaction" force is exerted by the sled on the assistant. To determine if the *assistant* moves or not, we must consider only the forces *on the assistant* and then apply $\Sigma\vec{F} = m\vec{a}$, where $\Sigma\vec{F}$ is the net force *on the assistant*, $\vec{a}$ is the acceleration of the assistant, and m is the assistant's mass. There are two forces on the assistant that affect his forward motion; they are shown as bright red (magenta) arrows in Figs. 4–12 and 4–13: they are (1) the horizontal force $\vec{F}_{AG}$ exerted on the assistant by the ground (the harder he pushes backward against the ground, the harder the ground pushes forward on him—Newton's third law), and (2) the force $\vec{F}_{AS}$ exerted on the assistant by the sled, pulling backward on him; see Fig. 4–13. If he pushes hard enough on the ground, the force on him exerted by the ground, $\vec{F}_{AG}$, will be larger than the sled pulling back, $\vec{F}_{AS}$, and the assistant accelerates forward (Newton's second law). The sled, on the other hand, accelerates forward when the force on *it* exerted by the assistant is greater than the frictional force exerted backward on it by the ground (that is, when $\vec{F}_{SA}$ has greater magnitude than $\vec{F}_{SG}$ in Fig. 4–12).

PROBLEM SOLVING
A study of Newton's second and third laws

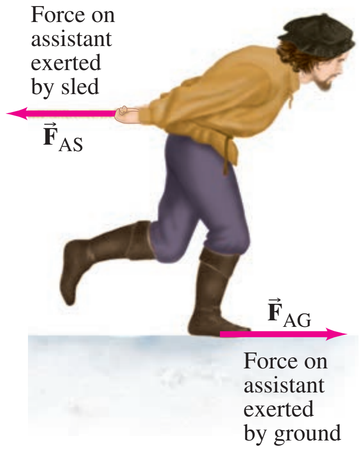


FIGURE 4–13 Example 4–5. The horizontal forces on the assistant.

Using double subscripts to clarify Newton's third law can become cumbersome, and we won't usually use them in this way. We will usually use a single subscript referring to what exerts the force on the object being discussed. Nevertheless, if there is any confusion in your mind about a given force, go ahead and use two subscripts to identify *on* what object and *by* what object the force is exerted.

EXERCISE B Return to the first Chapter-Opening Question, page 75, and answer it again now. Try to explain why you may have answered differently the first time.

EXERCISE C A tennis ball collides head-on with a more massive baseball. (i) Which ball experiences the greater force of impact? (ii) Which experiences the greater acceleration during the impact? (iii) Which of Newton's laws are useful to obtain the correct answers?

EXERCISE D If you push on a heavy desk, does it always push back on you? (*a*) No. (*b*) Yes. (*c*) Not unless someone else also pushes on it. (*d*) Yes, if it is out in space. (*e*) A desk never pushes to start with.

4–6 Weight—the Force of Gravity; and the Normal Force

As we saw in Chapter 2, Galileo claimed that all objects dropped near the surface of the Earth would fall with the same acceleration, $\vec{\mathbf{g}}$, if air resistance was negligible. The force that causes this acceleration is called the *force of gravity* or *gravitational force*. What exerts the gravitational force on an object? It is the Earth, as we will discuss in Chapter 5, and the force acts vertically[†] downward, toward the center of the Earth. Let us apply Newton's second law to an object of mass m falling freely due to gravity. For the acceleration, $\vec{\mathbf{a}}$, we use the downward acceleration due to gravity, $\vec{\mathbf{g}}$. Thus, the **gravitational force** on an object, $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_G$, can be written as

$$\vec{\mathbf{F}}_G = m\vec{\mathbf{g}}. \tag{4–3}$$

The direction of this force is down toward the center of the Earth. The magnitude of the force of gravity on an object, mg, is commonly called the object's **weight**.

In SI units, $g = 9.80\,\mathrm{m/s^2} = 9.80\,\mathrm{N/kg}$,[‡] so the weight of a 1.00-kg mass on Earth is $1.00\,\mathrm{kg} \times 9.80\,\mathrm{m/s^2} = 9.80\,\mathrm{N}$. We will mainly be concerned with the weight of objects on Earth, but we note that on the Moon, on other planets, or in space, the weight of a given mass will be different than it is on Earth. For example, on the Moon the acceleration due to gravity is about one-sixth what it is on Earth, and a 1.0-kg mass weighs only 1.6 N. Although we will not use British units, we note that for practical purposes on the Earth, a mass of 1.0 kg weighs about 2.2 lb. (On the Moon, 1 kg weighs only about 0.4 lb.)

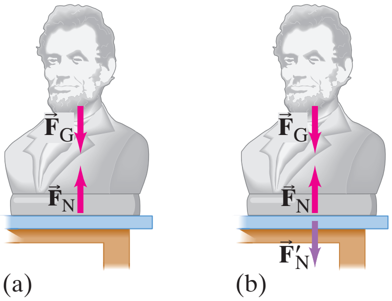


FIGURE 4–14 (a) The net force on an object at rest is zero according to Newton's second law. Therefore the downward force of gravity ($\vec{\mathbf{F}}_G$) on an object at rest must be balanced by an upward force (the normal force $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_N$) exerted by the table in this case. (b) $\vec{\mathbf{F}}'_N$ is the force exerted on the table by the statue and is the reaction force to $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_N$ by Newton's third law. ($\vec{\mathbf{F}}'_N$ is shown in a different color to remind us it acts on a different object.) The reaction force to $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_G$ is not shown.

CAUTION

Weight and normal force are ***not*** *action–reaction pairs*

The force of gravity acts on an object when it is falling. When an object is at rest on the Earth, the gravitational force on it does not disappear, as we know if we weigh it on a spring scale. The same force, given by Eq. 4–3, continues to act. Why, then, doesn't the object move? From Newton's second law, the net force on an object that remains at rest is zero. There must be another force on the object to balance the gravitational force. For an object resting on a table, the table exerts this upward force; see Fig. 4–14a. The table is compressed slightly beneath the object, and due to its elasticity, it pushes up on the object as shown. The force exerted by the table is often called a **contact force**, since it occurs when two objects are in contact. (The force of your hand pushing on a cart is also a contact force.) When a contact force acts *perpendicular* to the common surface of contact, it is referred to as the **normal force** ("normal" means perpendicular); hence it is labeled $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_N$ in Fig. 4–14a.

The two forces shown in Fig. 4–14a are both acting on the statue, which remains at rest, so the vector sum of these two forces must be zero (Newton's second law). Hence $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_G$ and $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_N$ must be of equal magnitude and in opposite directions. But they are *not* the equal and opposite forces spoken of in Newton's third law. The action and reaction forces of Newton's third law act on *different objects*, whereas the two forces shown in Fig. 4–14a act on the *same* object. For each of the forces shown in Fig. 4–14a, we can ask, "What is the reaction force?" The upward force $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_N$ on the statue is exerted by the table. The reaction to this force is a force exerted by the statue downward on the table. It is shown in Fig. 4–14b, where it is labeled $\vec{\mathbf{F}}'_N$. This force, $\vec{\mathbf{F}}'_N$, exerted on the table by the statue, is the reaction force to $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_N$ in accord with Newton's third law. What about the other force on the statue, the force of gravity $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_G$ exerted by the Earth? Can you guess what the reaction is to this force? We will see in Chapter 5 that the reaction force is also a gravitational force, exerted on the Earth by the statue.

EXERCISE E Return to the second Chapter-Opening Question, page 75, and answer it again now. Try to explain why you may have answered differently the first time.

[†]The concept of "vertical" is tied to gravity. The best definition of *vertical* is that it is the direction in which objects fall. A surface that is "horizontal," on the other hand, is a surface on which a round object won't start rolling: gravity has no effect. Horizontal is perpendicular to vertical.

[‡]Since $1\,\mathrm{N} = 1\,\mathrm{kg \cdot m/s^2}$ (Section 4–4), then $1\,\mathrm{m/s^2} = 1\,\mathrm{N/kg}$.

EXAMPLE 4–6 **Weight, normal force, and a box.** A friend has given you a special gift, a box of mass 10.0 kg with a mystery surprise inside. The box is resting on the smooth (frictionless) horizontal surface of a table (Fig. 4–15a). (a) Determine the weight of the box and the normal force exerted on it by the table. (b) Now your friend pushes down on the box with a force of 40.0 N, as in Fig. 4–15b. Again determine the normal force exerted on the box by the table. (c) If your friend pulls upward on the box with a force of 40.0 N (Fig. 4–15c), what now is the normal force exerted on the box by the table?

APPROACH The box is at rest on the table, so the net force on the box in each case is zero (Newton's first or second law). The weight of the box has magnitude mg in all three cases.

SOLUTION (a) The weight of the box is $mg = (10.0\,\text{kg})(9.80\,\text{m/s}^2) = 98.0\,\text{N}$, and this force acts downward. The only other force on the box is the normal force exerted upward on it by the table, as shown in Fig. 4–15a. We chose the upward direction as the positive y direction; then the net force ΣF_y on the box is $\Sigma F_y = F_N - mg$; the minus sign means mg acts in the negative y direction (m and g are magnitudes). The box is at rest, so the net force on it must be zero (Newton's second law, $\Sigma F_y = ma_y$, and $a_y = 0$). Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma F_y &= ma_y \\ F_N - mg &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

so we have

$$F_N = mg.$$

The normal force on the box, exerted by the table, is 98.0 N upward, and has magnitude equal to the box's weight.

(b) Your friend is pushing down on the box with a force of 40.0 N. So instead of only two forces acting on the box, now there are three forces acting on the box, as shown in Fig. 4–15b. The weight of the box is still $mg = 98.0\,\text{N}$. The net force is $\Sigma F_y = F_N - mg - 40.0\,\text{N}$, and is equal to zero because the box remains at rest ($a = 0$). Newton's second law gives

$$\Sigma F_y = F_N - mg - 40.0\,\text{N} = 0.$$

We solve this equation for the normal force:

$$F_N = mg + 40.0\,\text{N} = 98.0\,\text{N} + 40.0\,\text{N} = 138.0\,\text{N},$$

which is greater than in (a). The table pushes back with more force when a person pushes down on the box. The normal force is not always equal to the weight!

(c) The box's weight is still 98.0 N and acts downward. The force exerted by your friend and the normal force both act upward (positive direction), as shown in Fig. 4–15c. The box doesn't move since your friend's upward force is less than the weight. The net force, again set to zero in Newton's second law because $a = 0$, is

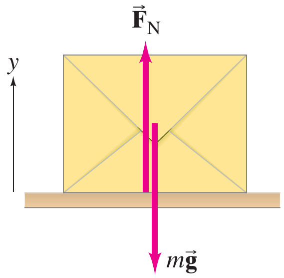
$$\Sigma F_y = F_N - mg + 40.0\,\text{N} = 0,$$

so

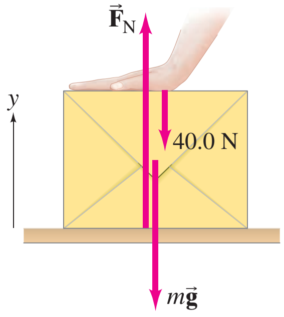
$$F_N = mg - 40.0\,\text{N} = 98.0\,\text{N} - 40.0\,\text{N} = 58.0\,\text{N}.$$

The table does not push against the full weight of the box because of the upward force exerted by your friend.

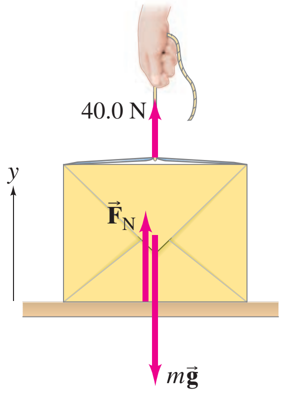
NOTE The weight of the box ($= mg$) does not change as a result of your friend's push or pull. Only the normal force is affected.



(a) $\Sigma F_y = F_N - mg = 0$



(b) $\Sigma F_y = F_N - mg - 40.0\,\text{N} = 0$



(c) $\Sigma F_y = F_N - mg + 40.0\,\text{N} = 0$

FIGURE 4–15 Example 4–6. (a) A 10-kg gift box is at rest on a table. (b) A person pushes down on the box with a force of 40.0 N. (c) A person pulls upward on the box with a force of 40.0 N. The forces are all assumed to act along a line; they are shown slightly displaced in order to be distinguishable. Only forces acting on the box are shown.

CAUTION
The normal force is not always equal to the weight

Recall that the normal force is elastic in origin (the table in Fig. 4–15 sags slightly under the weight of the box). The normal force in Example 4–6 is vertical, perpendicular to the horizontal table. The normal force is not always vertical, however. When you push against a wall, for example, the normal force with which the wall pushes back on you is horizontal (Fig. 4–9). For an object on a plane inclined at an angle to the horizontal, such as a skier or car on a hill, the normal force acts perpendicular to the plane and so is not vertical.

CAUTION
The normal force, $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_N$, is not necessarily vertical

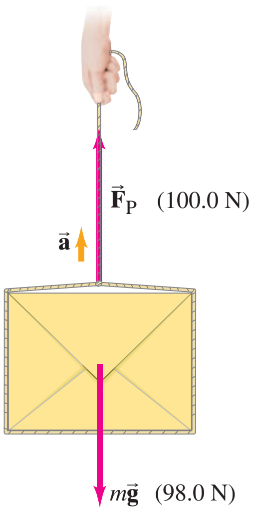


FIGURE 4–16 Example 4–7. The box accelerates upward because $F_P > mg$.

EXAMPLE 4–7 **Accelerating the box.** What happens when a person pulls upward on the box in Example 4–6*c* with a force equal to, or greater than, the box's weight? For example, let $F_P = 100.0\,\mathrm{N}$ (Fig. 4–16) rather than the 40.0 N shown in Fig. 4–15c.

APPROACH We can start just as in Example 4–6, but be ready for a surprise.

SOLUTION The net force on the box is

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma F_y &= F_N - mg + F_P \\ &= F_N - 98.0\,\mathrm{N} + 100.0\,\mathrm{N},\end{aligned}$$

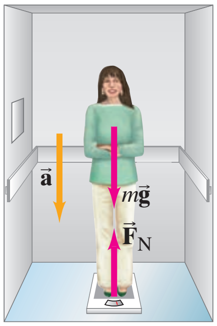
and if we set this equal to zero (thinking the acceleration might be zero), we would get $F_N = -2.0\,\mathrm{N}$. This is nonsense, since the negative sign implies F_N points downward, and the table surely cannot *pull* down on the box (unless there's glue on the table). The least F_N can be is zero, which it will be in this case. What really happens here is that the box accelerates upward $(a \neq 0)$ because the net force is not zero. The net force (setting the normal force $F_N = 0$) is

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma F_y = F_P - mg &= 100.0\,\mathrm{N} - 98.0\,\mathrm{N} \\ &= 2.0\,\mathrm{N}\end{aligned}$$

upward. See Fig. 4–16. We apply Newton's second law and see that the box moves upward with an acceleration

$$\begin{aligned}a_y = \frac{\Sigma F_y}{m} &= \frac{2.0\,\mathrm{N}}{10.0\,\mathrm{kg}} \\ &= 0.20\,\mathrm{m/s^2}.\end{aligned}$$

FIGURE 4–17 Example 4–8. The acceleration vector is shown in gold to distinguish it from the red force vectors.



EXAMPLE 4–8 **Apparent weight loss.** A 65-kg woman descends in an elevator that briefly accelerates at 0.20*g* downward. She stands on a scale that reads in kg. (*a*) During this acceleration, what is her weight and what does the scale read? (*b*) What does the scale read when the elevator descends at a constant speed of 2.0 m/s?

APPROACH Figure 4–17 shows all the forces that act on the woman (and *only* those that act on her). The direction of the acceleration is downward, so we choose the positive direction as down (this is the opposite choice from Examples 4–6 and 4–7).

SOLUTION (*a*) From Newton's second law,

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma F &= ma \\ mg - F_N &= m(0.20g).\end{aligned}$$

We solve for F_N:

$$\begin{aligned}F_N &= mg - 0.20mg \\ &= 0.80mg,\end{aligned}$$

and it acts upward. The normal force $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_N$ is the force the scale exerts on the person, and is equal and opposite to the force she exerts on the scale: $F'_N = 0.80mg$ downward. Her weight (force of gravity on her) is still $mg = (65\,\mathrm{kg})(9.8\,\mathrm{m/s^2}) = 640\,\mathrm{N}$. But the scale, needing to exert a force of only $0.80mg$, will give a reading of $0.80m = 52\,\mathrm{kg}$.

(*b*) Now there is no acceleration, $a = 0$, so by Newton's second law, $mg - F_N = 0$ and $F_N = mg$. The scale reads her true mass of 65 kg.

NOTE The scale in (*a*) gives a reading of 52 kg (as an "apparent mass"), but her mass doesn't change as a result of the acceleration: it stays at 65 kg.