

Chapter 2 Motion in One Dimension

~~199~~
2-1

§ 0

Kinematics is the study
of motion without
reference to causes
(i.e., forces).

it's descriptive of motion
position, velocity,
acceleration.

— in this chapter we deal
only with translation
along a line $\rightarrow$ 1-D
motion — real exciting stuff.

$\rightarrow$ usually the x -axis

conventional
for horizontal

x

but sometimes
along
the y
axis.

convention
for
vertical.

y

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2-2

And we only
consider "particle"

(we'll only consider "particle"
for some time,

→ in the sense we mean
here → a body ~~whose~~
without internal structure
or whose internal structure
can be ignored.

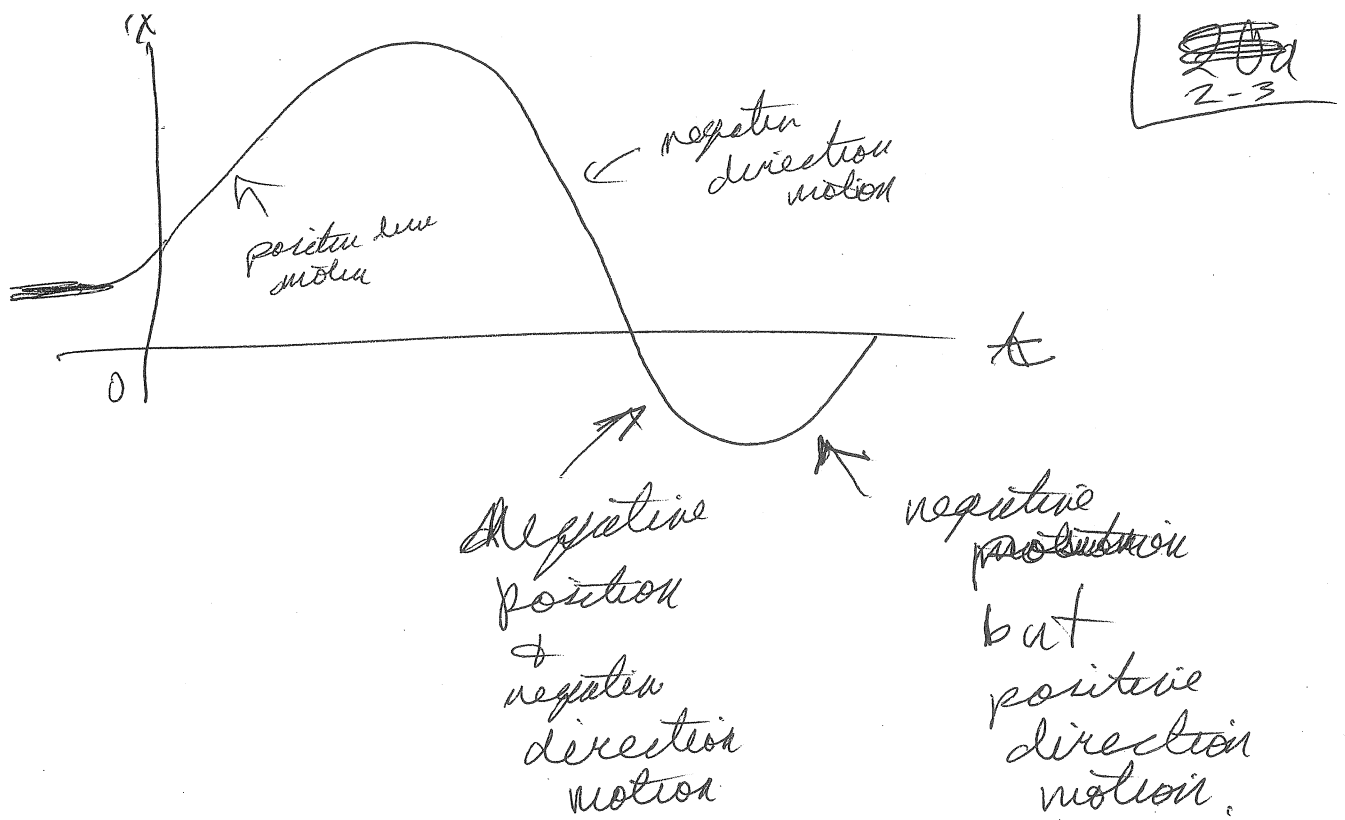
but
eventually
we
get
to
~~extended~~
objects
with
parts

— Doesn't have to be small.

— a car ^{can be} a particle in this sense.

§ 2.1 Position, Velocity speed
displacement, distance

We are dealing with 1-d motion,
but we can plot it on
a ~~graph~~ 2-d graph
x vs t



displacement of a "particle"
is change in position

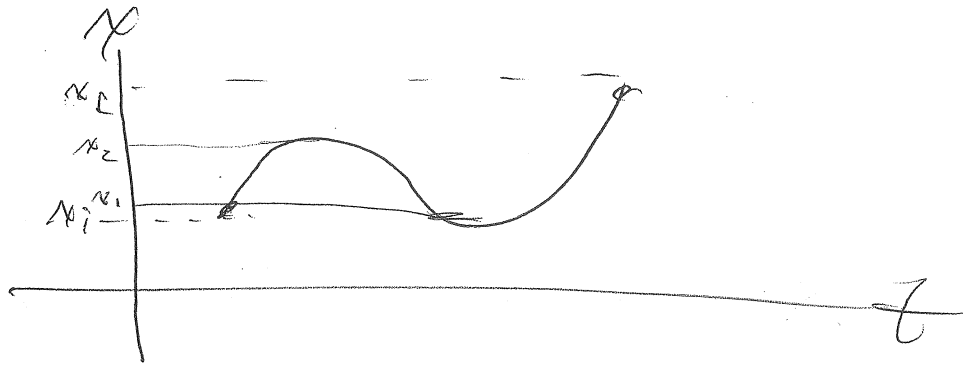
$$X_{\text{initial}} = X_i$$

$$X_{\text{final}} = X_f$$

∴ displacement from initial to
final is $\Delta X = X_f - X_i$

Δ is Greek capital delta
— used to mean "change in"

distance is the length of the path a particle follows.



I use s for path length
there's $-ST$ do too sometimes

$$\Delta x = x_f - x_i = \text{displacement}$$

$$\text{but distance} = (x_2 - x_1)$$

$$+ (x_2 - x_1)$$

$$+ (x_f - x_i) = \Delta s$$

Displacement is a vector

— it has both a magnitude

and a direction

→ in 1-d (but not usually in higher dimensions)

the direction can be

expressed by sign

Only 2 direction — and so sign suffices for all cases.



$$\Delta x = x_f - x_i > 0$$

a positive
direction
displacement



$$\Delta x = x_f - x_i < 0$$

a negative
direction
displacement

distance is
always positive
in a formal sense.

Velocity → displacement
per unit time.

- so also a vector.
- sign again tells
direction in 1-d

Average velocity for time Δt

is $v_{avg} = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}$ { displacement
in Δt

maybe
depend
on
view
point

A definition not traceable back to some more basic ideas
of velocity I think

It's a
retro of
two
presentations
we usually
consider
more
basic

~~2.2c~~
~~2-6~~

speed is distance per unit time

$$v_{avg} = \frac{\Delta \cancel{s}}{\Delta t}$$

v is used for both velocity & speed (by me)

- in context must decide.

Of course, one has to have some definition of time to measure time.

- We won't go into the whole saga. But we have oscillatory system that we believe measure equal time period

Actually I and many other ^{clocks} say velocity when we mean speed. Usually context ~~corrects~~ tells what ~~mean~~ we / I / you / they mean.

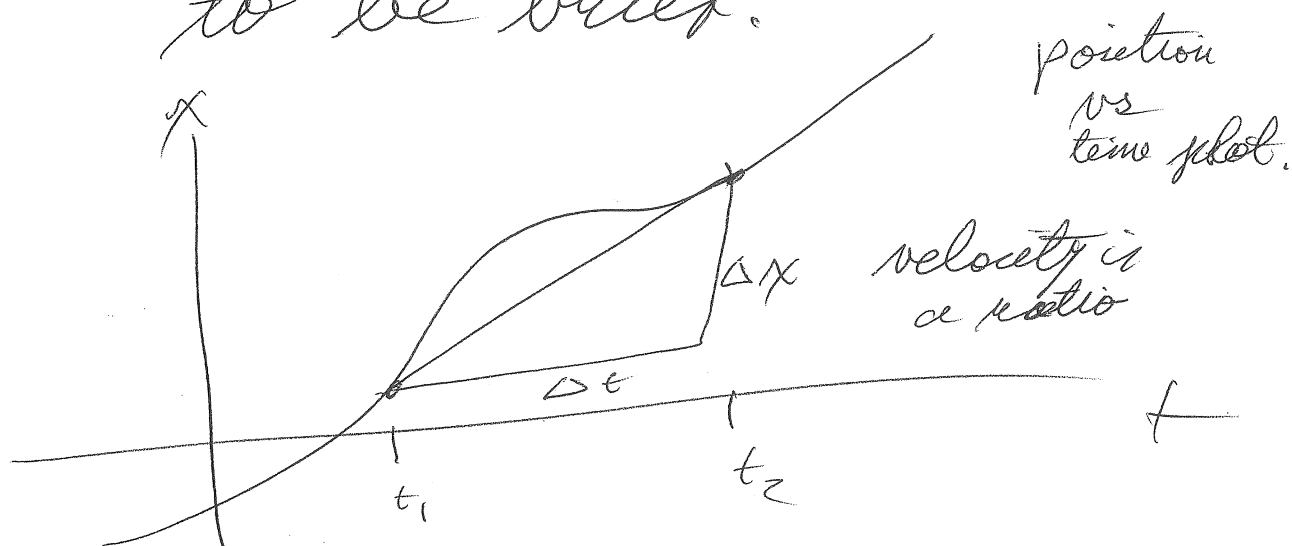
8 2.2 / 2.3 ~~Constant Velocity Case~~
~~Shift from~~ to Instant
+ a pretty easy special case
to constant
 $x = x_0 + vt$

§ 2.2 Instantaneous

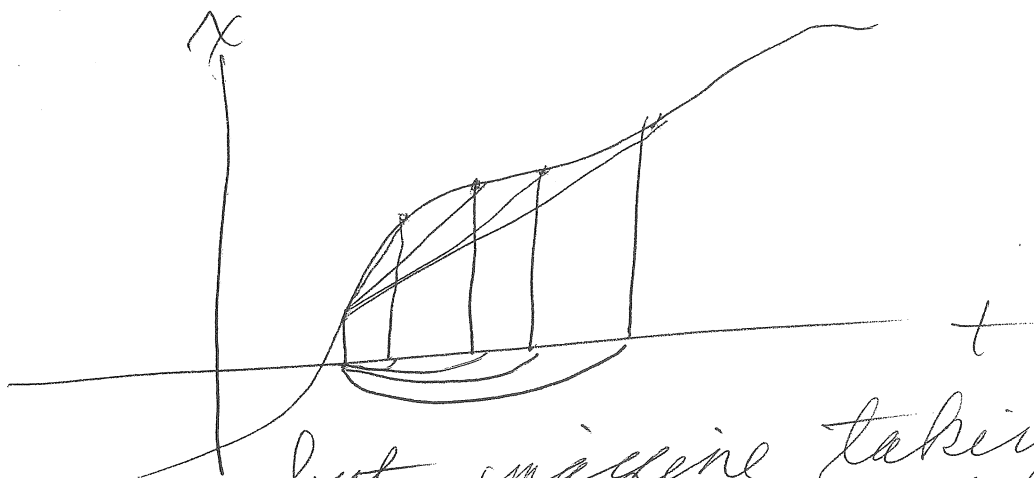
2-7

velocity & speed

— which we usually first call velocity and speed to be brief.



$$V_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \text{ for } t_1 \text{ to } t_2$$



but imagine taking shorter and shorter time intervals.

2-8

Δt would get smaller, but so would Δx

In the limit as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$,

~~so would Δx~~

$\Delta x \rightarrow 0$.

But their ratio which is velocity would not go to zero or be undefined in general in the limit $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$

That ratio is the instantaneous velocity

$$v \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \equiv \frac{dx}{dt}$$

→ the derivative of x with respect to time is what this is.

— for those well advanced 2-9
in calculus, this is an
old story — for the others
you'll see it calculus soon.

$$\text{So } v = \frac{dx}{dt}$$

The dx
and dt
are standard
calculus
symbols.

— the "d" prefix
means
differential

So dx is the
differential of x ,
 dt the differential of t .

Differentials are kind
of funny animals

Δx means
change in
 x

dx means
infinitesimally
small change
in x .

but infinitesimal only has meaning
in certain limit operations
— differentiation & integration.

How does one take
a ~~step~~ derivative of x ?

2-10

If no analytic
function $x(t)$
is given,
one can only make
an approximate evaluation

$$v = \frac{dx}{dt} \approx \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}$$

for small
measured Δt
and Δx .

If $x(t)$ is given as an analytic
function, then differentiation
formulae exist.

Let's do one that is of
immediate use in this
class.

Say $x = A t^n$, $\frac{dx}{dt} = A n t^{n-1}$
 A is a constant
 n is an exponent or power.

units

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$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}$$

$$= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{x(t + \Delta t) - x(t)}{\Delta t}$$

definition of
a derivative

$$x(t + \Delta t) = A(t + \Delta t)^n$$

$$= A(t^n + n t^{n-1} \Delta t + O(\Delta t^{l \geq 2}))$$

first
two terms
of the binomial
theorem

all the
others
have
 Δt^l

where $l \geq 2$

$$= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} A \left[\frac{t^n + n t^{n-1} \Delta t + O(\Delta t^{l \geq 2}) - t^n}{\Delta t} \right]$$

$$= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} A [n t^{n-1} + O(\Delta t^{l \geq 1})]$$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = A n t^{n-1}$$

goes to 0
as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$

2-12)

So in fact a ~~for~~ general
formula for power law
differentiation for $P = \text{integer}$

$$x = A t^P$$

then $\frac{dx}{dt} = A P t^{P-1}$

But we've only proven the integer case.

Actually P can be
~~any~~
real number,
but $P=0$
is a special
case
result 0
is still right

Special cases

$n = 0$, $x = A$ constant

$$v = \frac{dx}{dt} = 0$$

if position is constant,
the velocity is zero

$n = 1$, $x = A t$ a linear function

$$v = \frac{dx}{dt} = A$$

velocity is a constant

$n = 2$, $x = A t^2$

$$v = \frac{dx}{dt} = 2A t$$

velocity is a linear function

which is a very
important result for
this chapter and physics.

2-13

Derivatives for speed can
be found the same way

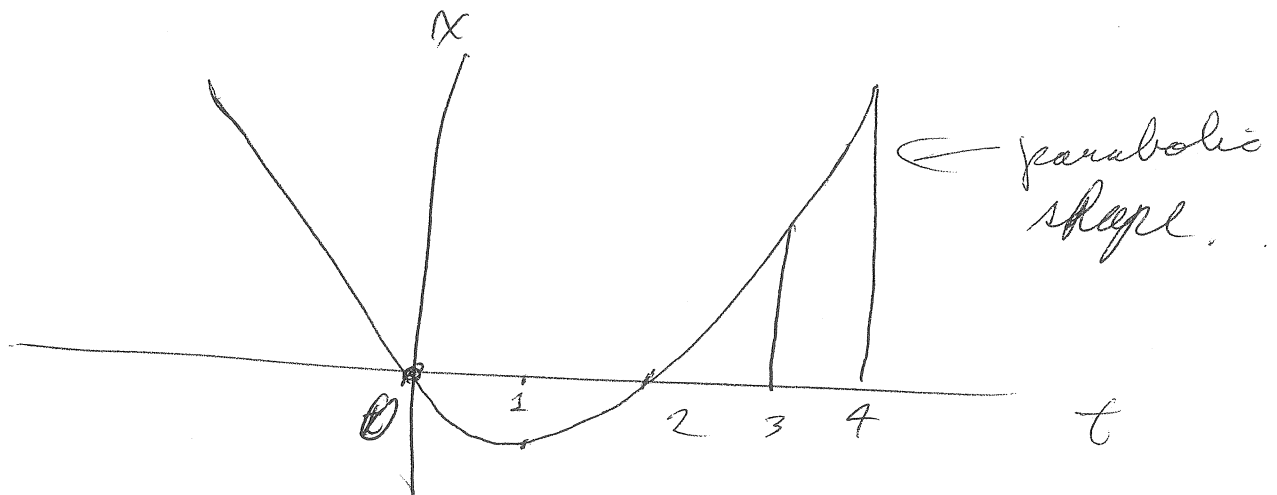
$$V_{\text{speed}} = \frac{ds}{dt} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t}$$

Ex. 2.3

A particle's position

varies as $x = 2t^2 - 4t$

x in meters
 t in seconds



Let's find the average velocities
from $t=0$ to some t_{final}

2-14)

$$t_f = 4, \quad v_{avg} = \frac{2 \cdot 4^2 - 4 \cdot 4 - 0}{4} \\ = \frac{16}{4} = 4 \frac{m}{s}$$

$$t_f = 3, \quad v_{avg} = \frac{2 \cdot 9 - 12 - 0}{3} \\ = \frac{6}{3} \\ = 2 \frac{m}{s}$$

$$t = 2, \quad v_{avg} = \frac{2 \cdot 2^2 - 4 \cdot 2 - 0}{2} \\ = \frac{0}{2} = 0$$

You have just
moved back
to where you
started and
the displacement
is zero.

$$t = 1, \quad v_{ave} = \frac{2 \cdot 1^2 - 4 \cdot 1 - 0}{1} \\ = \frac{-2}{1} = -2 \frac{m}{s}$$

$$t = \frac{1}{2}, \quad v_{ave} = \frac{2 \cdot (\frac{1}{2})^2 - 4 \cdot \frac{1}{2} - 0}{\frac{1}{2}} \\ = \frac{\frac{1}{2} - 2}{\frac{1}{2}} = -\frac{3}{2} \frac{m}{s}$$

What is v at $t = 0$?

— The instantaneous velocity?

$$v = \frac{dx}{dt} = 2 \cdot 2t - 4$$

$$= 4t - 4$$

which is general
and applies for
all time

$$v(t=0) = -4$$

And at $t = 2.5$

$$v(t = 2.5s) = 4 \cdot \left(\frac{5}{2}\right) - 4$$

$$= 10 - 4$$

$$= 6 \text{ m/s as in text.}$$

§ 2.3 Constant Velocity

I and others often
use subscript 0
to mean
time zero
value.

Say v is a constant

Rather clearly

$$\left\{ \frac{dx}{dt} = v \right.$$

$x = x_0 + vt$ is the
position at any time where

x_0 is the position at time zero.

Also $\Delta x = v \Delta t$

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Now

$$v_{avg} = \frac{x_f - x_i}{\Delta t}$$

In this case

$$x_f = x_0 + vt_f$$

$$x_i = x_0 + vt_i$$

$$v_{avg} = \frac{v(t_f - t_i)}{\Delta t}$$

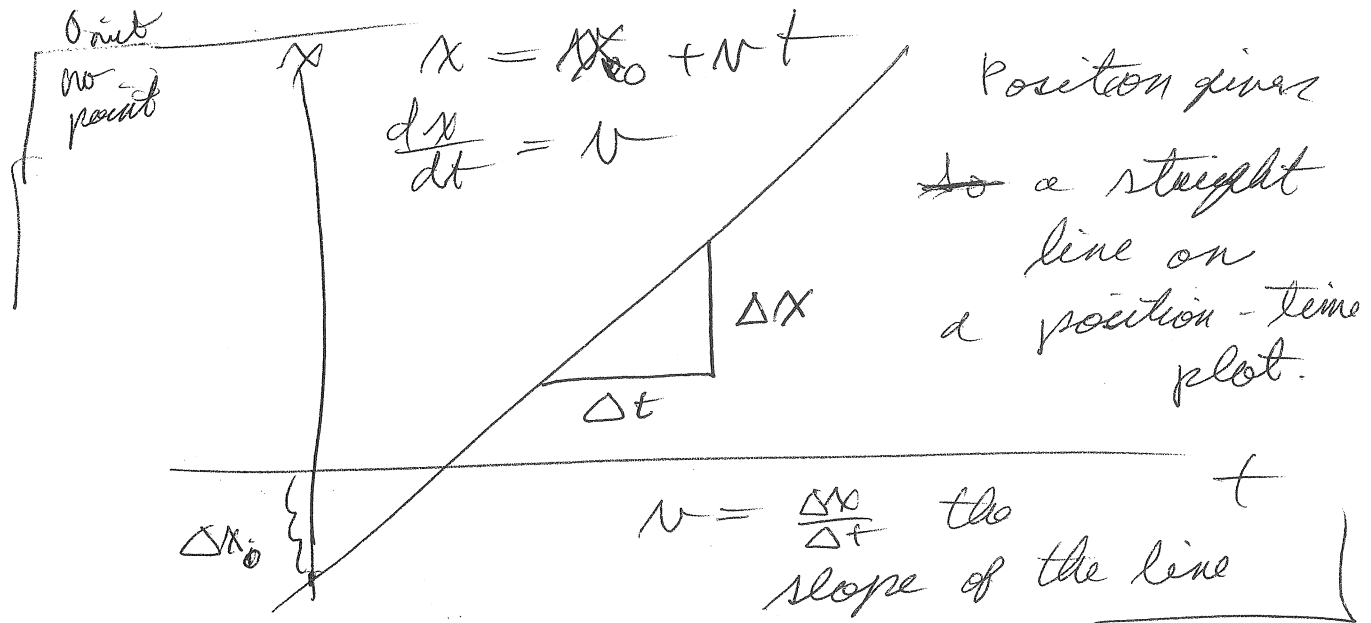
$$= v$$

So ~~the avg~~ if the velocity is constant the average velocity for any interval is the average velocity.

(A not very surprising result.)

where x_0 is the initial position and t is the time since the start.

$$\Delta x = v \Delta t$$



Ex. 2.4 a runner runs $\Delta x = 20\text{m}$ in $\Delta t = 4\text{s}$

$$\therefore v = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{20}{4} = 5\text{ m/s}$$

which is not real fast.

Olympic sprinters can do 100m in 10s or $\sim 10\text{m/s}$.

The text calls the constant velocity an analysis model — a model that helps understand common situations.

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Analysis model
is not a real common
term.

I just call the constant
velocity case a special of
interest because it is
important. It does occur
in nature and in many human
systems.

2.4 Acceleration

velocity is the rate
of change of displacement

- acceleration is the rate
of change of velocity

It is a vector also 12-19
 — which means in 1-d it
 can be negative.

→ slowing down
 when moving
 in the +ve direction

— or speeding up moving
 in the negative direction

vector
 displacement $x(t)$

scalar analog
 $s(t)$ path length

velocity $v(t) = \frac{dx}{dt}$

$v = \frac{ds}{dt}$ speed

↖ nearly
 no
 special
 symbol

acceleration $a(t) = \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}$

$a = \frac{d^2s}{dt^2}$

↑
 no special
 symbol
 and often
 called acceleration
 too.

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Graphical illustration

2.6 Constant acceleration

an important special case
(an analysis model
in Serway jargon)

— why important?

- 1) well it's easy to understand
and calculate with and
so allows one an ~~easy~~ ~~way~~ way
to understand acceleration
— the prototype acceleration case.
- 2) Constant acceleration are
not so common in nature,
but humans can arrange them
for special purposes.
- 3) There is one important special

(except for the
trivial
zero
acceleration
case.)

case in nature

— freefall near the Earth's surface when air resistance can be neglected.

Fundamental theorem of calculus: the differentiation is reversed by integration and vice versa. (WIK)

Say a is constant
the antiderivative or integral is

~~$$x = \frac{1}{2}at^2 + v_0 t + x_0$$~~

$$v = at + v_0$$

$$\left(\frac{dv}{dt} = a \right)$$

v_0 is a initial constant velocity at time zero

The antiderivative of v is

$$x = \frac{1}{2}at^2 + v_0 t + x_0$$

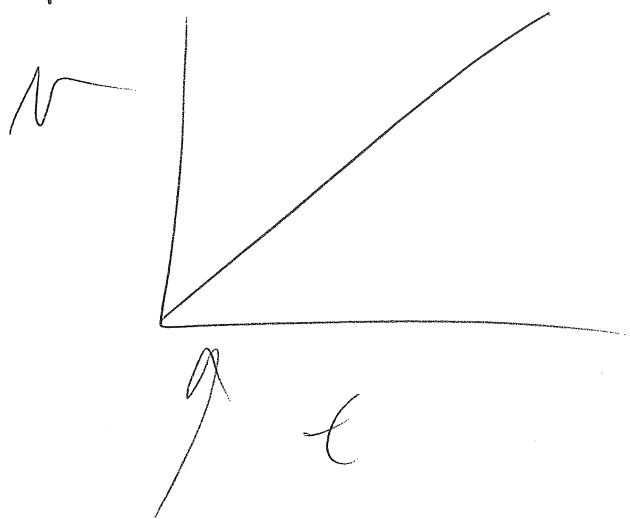
x_0 is initial position at time zero.

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = at + v_0 = v$$

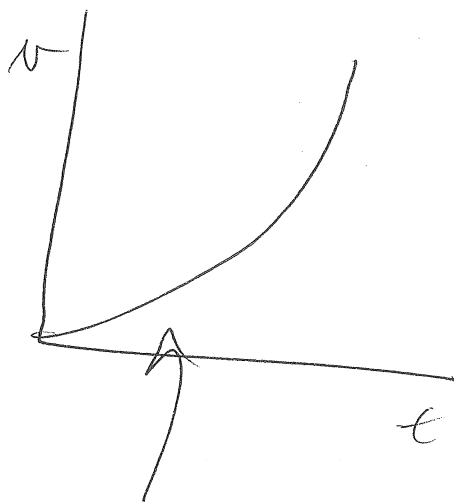
as it should.

1-22 | Omit?

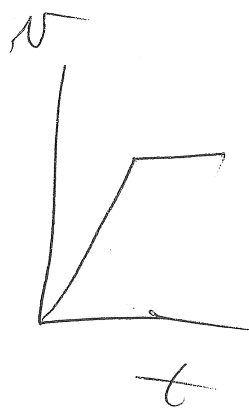
Graphical illustration



constant
acceleration
- slope a constant



increasing
acceleration
since
slope increases
Not a constant
acceleration case.



constant
acceleration
phase
followed
by
a zero
acceleration
phase.

This is a 2-phase
situation.

- some

~~Many~~ of Mr. Homework #2
problems are multiphase
problems. Each phase has
constant acceleration

all

- the final condition } 2-23

of one phase are the
initial conditions of the next.

4 or 5 Kinematic equations for constant acceleration a

1 $v = at + v_0$

2 $x = \frac{1}{2}at^2 + v_0t + x_0$
 ~~$\Delta x = \frac{1}{2}at^2$~~

There are really
all you need to
solve a constant
acceleration problem.

~~Unknown~~ They are
~~Algebraic~~
~~Unknowns~~

Variables v, a, t, v_0

and Δx ~~and Δx~~ (which could be ~~for x & x_0 separate~~)
 $= x - x_0$

So 5 variables.

in most
problems
this can
be set to
zero
or arranged
to be zero.

or ~~Δx~~ $x = x - x_0$

Need some
extra piece
of information
to solve

~~x_0 can be solved~~
~~for without some~~
~~point in space given as a reference~~

2-24)

The two equations
are related by calculus,
but are algebraically
independent — you
can't make one out of
the other by algebraic means.

— So how many unknowns
can you solve for?

2 in general out of 5
variables

~~(in special cases of sets of
equations you~~

General rule.

If you have N ~~eqs~~
independent equations, you can
solve for N unknowns

— in special cases, you
may not be able to solve

for N unknowns,
but that's another
story

2-25

- We can actually construct
by algebraic means 2 (or 3)
more kinematic equations.
→ They will not be independent
of the first 2. and so
they can't help you solve
for more unknowns.

you can still only solve
for 2 out of 5 variables.

But these 2 (or 3) extra
equations can speed up the
solution and are ^{also} convenient
to use.

2-2b

$$v = at + v_0$$

4) eliminate a from (2)

$$\text{so } a = \frac{v - v_0}{t}$$

eliminate a from (2)

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \Delta x &= \frac{1}{2}at^2 + v_0t \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(v - v_0)t + v_0t \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(v + v_0)t \end{aligned}$$

recognized as v_{avg} for over time t

$$v_{avg} = \frac{1}{2}(v + v_0) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{One can see it is consistent with} \end{array} \right.$$

3) eliminate t from (2)

~~$v - v_0 = at$~~
 ~~$v^2 + v_0^2 - 2vv_0 = a^2t^2$~~

$$t = \frac{v - v_0}{a}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\Delta x - x_0}{t} &= \frac{\frac{1}{2}at^2 + v_0t}{t} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}at + v_0 \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(v - v_0) + v_0 \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(v + v_0) \end{aligned}$$

over intended after

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \Delta x &= \frac{1}{2}a \left(\frac{v - v_0}{a} \right)^2 + v_0 \left(\frac{v - v_0}{a} \right) \\ &= \cancel{\frac{1}{2}a} \left[\cancel{v^2 + v_0^2 - 2vv_0} \right] + v_0v - v_0^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{a} \left[\frac{1}{2}(v^2 + v_0^2 - 2vv_0) + v_0v - v_0^2 \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{a} \left[\frac{1}{2}v^2 - \frac{1}{2}v_0^2 \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a\Delta x$$

2-27

→ the kinematic equation.

5) eliminate v_0 from (2)

→ this one is not in text but logically it should be,

$$v_0 = v - at$$

$$\Delta x = \frac{1}{2}at^2 + (v - at)t$$

assuming
 $v_0 = 0$
by arrangement

$$= -\frac{1}{2}at^2 + vt$$

Summarize 5 kinematic eqns for constant acceleration

Missing variables

1) $v = at + v_0$

Δx

2) $\Delta x = \frac{1}{2}at^2 + v_0t$

v

3) $v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a\Delta x$

t

4) $\Delta x = \frac{1}{2}(v + v_0)t$

a

5) $\Delta x = -\frac{1}{2}at^2 + vt$

v_0

Kinematic
equation

2-28)

~~In most~~

In problems you must have 3 known variables to solve for ~~the~~ 2 unknowns.

— but ^{after} ~~usually~~ the problem asks for only 1 of the 2 unknowns.

One is most wanted }
the other is least wanted } one might say.

The easier way to solve ~~it~~ for the most wanted is to choose the kinematic equation where the least wanted is ~~at~~ missing.

Then it's a one unknown in one equation problem and easy to solve.

One can always solve 2-29
for the least wanted unknown
from the equation missing the
most wanted.

— You ~~don't~~ really only
need the first 2 kinematic
equation. All solutions can
be obtained from them, but
at the expense of extra
algebra — and the extra mental
effort in rethying up the algebra.

In practice
equation 1, 2, 3 get
most of the work.

— no physical reason for
this.

— it's just the way problems
are usually set.

2-30

Ex 2.7

a) A jet lands ~~on~~ a carrier
from $v_0 = 63 \text{ m/s}$

at ~~touch down~~ cable
— it stops in $t = 2$
from an arresting
cable.

— assume constant acceleration.

What is the acceleration?

known

$$v_0 = 63 \text{ m/s}$$

$$t = 2 \text{ s}$$

$$v = 0$$

unknowns

$$x = ?$$

$$a = ?$$

implicit when the
jet has stopped
this is true

x_0 can be set to zero
— point of ~~touch~~ cable catch

~~x~~ is least wanted
for the moment

a is most wanted

So we choose the equation involving x.
(eq. ①)

$$a = \frac{v - v_0}{t} = \frac{0 - 63}{2}$$

$$= -31.5 \text{ m/s}^2$$

all the units
of input are
MKS, so the
result is MKS.

b) Now what is x?

Now we have 4 knowns
— so any equation with x in it
can be used to solve for x.

→ let's use ④

$$x = \frac{1}{2}(v + v_0)t$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}(0 + 63) \cdot 2$$

$$= 63 \text{ m}$$

by coincidence same
numeral as for time.

2-32

2.7 Free-Fall

— in the absence air resistance
(or when it can be
neglected such as in
most our problems
which say neglect it)
and near the Earth's
surface.

the acceleration due
to gravity (acting alone)
is a constant.

[actually it's not quite
constant but varies
a bit with latitude
and altitude and local
geological structures

— these variations are quite measurable and are used in geology.

But they are below human perception

The magnitude of this acceleration is ~~is~~ given the symbol g

$$g = 9.8 \text{ m/s}^2 \approx 10 \text{ m/s}^2$$

is the official or reference value for this country

$$\left. \begin{aligned} g_{eq} &= 9.780 \text{ m/s}^2 \\ g_{pole} &= 9.832 \text{ m/s}^2 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{at sea level}$$

standard gravity $g_0 = 9.80665 \text{ m/s}^2$ is a ~~reference~~ conventionally defined mean (with) value for Earth

There is a decrease with altitude.

2-34)

We'll go into the

dynamical reasons for g

later

force
of gravity

If you take

~~positive~~

positive downward

$$a_y = g$$

g (if problem
is all down.)

if you take
positive upward

$$a_y = -g$$
 (if prob
is up
& down.)

y is the conventional symbol for
the vertical coordinate just
as x is for the horizontal
coordinate.

It's a well known story that
Galileo (1564-1642) drop
balls from the Leaning Tower

of Pisa to demonstrate

12-35

~~that~~ ~~constant~~ that gravitational
acceleration was constant
(neglecting air resistance
effects)

He probably really did this.

— his first biographer Viviani
(who knew Galileo) says

he did.

— why doubt it.

— but we only have the bare
story, no details.

It was probably more of a physics
demonstration than an experiment.

Demo

with pen
& paper

- air resistance
- in vacuum they'd
fall the same
- denser objects
can affect it
- open & runway.

$$x = \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

same x
for same t
and
same
start position,
no matter
what object.

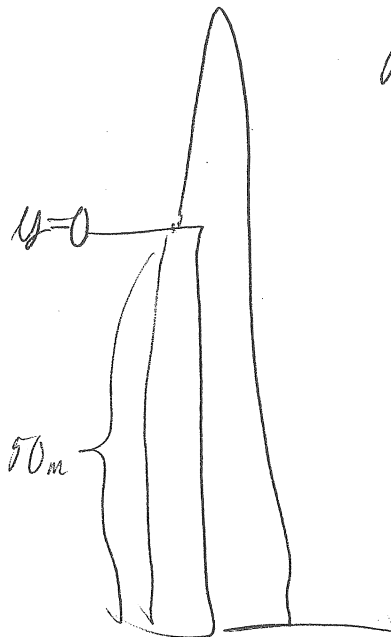
Ex 2.10

Neglect
air
resistance

Ball thrown
up from
top of building

$$v_0 = 20 \text{ m/s}$$

Initial is set
to 0.



take upward
as +ve direction

— My rule is that
if all motion
is downward,
take down as positive.

— Otherwise take
up as positive.

~~thing is~~ the
choice is conventional

2-36

and doesn't affect
what happens
just the description.

a) find the maximum height
of ball.

$$a = -g \quad \text{implicit given}$$

$$N_0 = 20 \text{ m/s}^2$$

$$y = ?$$

$$N = ?$$

$$t = ?$$

find

3 unknown.

Can we solve?

→ Yes $v = 0$ is an ~~implicit~~ ^{implicit} known.

- at y maximum the ball
is at rest for an instant.

We don't know time and don't
want to know it.

So the timelen equation
is the one to use

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$$v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a \Delta y$$

$$\Delta y = \frac{v^2 - v_0^2}{2a}$$

Δy in this
case

$$\approx \frac{0 - 400}{2(-10)}$$

$$= 20 \text{ m}$$

b) Determine time to maximum height.

— well any kinematic equation
would work now

but eq (1) might be quickest

~~$$v = at + v_0$$~~

$$v = at + v_0$$

$$t = \frac{v - v_0}{a} = \frac{0 - 20}{-10}$$

~~$$10 \text{ s}$$~~ $\approx 2 \text{ s}$

units must work to
MKS if all inputs
were MKS.

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c) Determine when ball returns to height from which it was launched
 eqn (2) looks best now

frequently multiple solution
 - usually only one matches the condition of problem.

$t = 0$
 solution in the initial time solution

$$y = \frac{1}{2}at^2 + v_0t$$

$\downarrow$ $\uparrow$ $\uparrow$
 0 $a = -g = -9.8$ 20

$$0 = \frac{1}{2}at + v_0$$

$$t = -\frac{v_0}{\frac{1}{2}a} = -\frac{2v_0}{a}$$

$$\approx -\frac{2 \cdot 20}{-10} = 4s$$

d) Determine velocity when it has returned to the same height

- the velocity equation looks best now.

$$v^2 = v_0^2 + \underbrace{2a \Delta y}_0$$

2-39

$$v = \pm v_0 = \pm 20 \text{ m/s}$$

two solutions

the condition of the problem tells us which applies.

The ball was at the initial height twice — on launch and on return.



$v = 20 \text{ m/s}$
is its velocity
on launch

$v = -20 \text{ m/s}$ is its height
on return.

2.3 Kinematic Eq. Derived from Calculus

— well we already did

this on p. 2-21.

— it reviews some calculus.

2-40]

Finish with a link problem
or two if needed.