Lecture PowerPoints

Chapter 9

Physics for Scientists and Engineers, with Modern Physics, 4th edition

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Chapter 9
Linear Momentum
Units of Chapter 9

• Momentum and Its Relation to Force
• Conservation of Momentum
• Collisions and Impulse
• Conservation of Energy and Momentum in Collisions
• Elastic Collisions in One Dimension
Units of Chapter 9

- Inelastic Collisions
- Collisions in Two or Three Dimensions
- Center of Mass (CM)
- Center of Mass and Translational Motion
- Systems of Variable Mass; Rocket Propulsion
Momentum is a vector symbolized by the symbol $\vec{p}$, and is defined as

$$\vec{p} = m\vec{v}.$$ 

The rate of change of momentum is equal to the net force:

$$\sum \vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}.$$ 

This can be shown using Newton’s second law.
Example 9-1: Force of a tennis serve.

For a top player, a tennis ball may leave the racket on the serve with a speed of 55 m/s (about 120 mi/h). If the ball has a mass of 0.060 kg and is in contact with the racket for about 4 ms (4 x 10^{-3} s), estimate the average force on the ball. Would this force be large enough to lift a 60-kg person?
Example 9-2: Washing a car: momentum change and force.

Water leaves a hose at a rate of 1.5 kg/s with a speed of 20 m/s and is aimed at the side of a car, which stops it. (That is, we ignore any splashing back.) What is the force exerted by the water on the car?
9-2 Conservation of Momentum

During a collision, measurements show that the total momentum does not change:

\[ m_A \vec{v}_A + m_B \vec{v}_B = m_A \vec{v}_A' + m_B \vec{v}_B'. \]
9-2 Conservation of Momentum

Conservation of momentum can also be derived from Newton’s laws. A collision takes a short enough time that we can ignore external forces. Since the internal forces are equal and opposite, the total momentum is constant.
9-2 Conservation of Momentum

For more than two objects,

\[ \frac{d\vec{P}}{dt} = \sum \frac{d\vec{p}_i}{dt} = \Sigma \vec{F}_i. \]

Or, since the internal forces cancel,

\[ \frac{d\vec{P}}{dt} = \Sigma \vec{F}_{\text{ext}}. \]
9-2 Conservation of Momentum

This is the law of conservation of linear momentum:

when the net external force on a system of objects is zero, the total momentum of the system remains constant.

Equivalently,

the total momentum of an isolated system remains constant.
Example 9-3: Railroad cars collide: momentum conserved.

A 10,000-kg railroad car, A, traveling at a speed of 24.0 m/s strikes an identical car, B, at rest. If the cars lock together as a result of the collision, what is their common speed immediately after the collision?
9-2 Conservation of Momentum

Momentum conservation works for a rocket as long as we consider the rocket and its fuel to be one system, and account for the mass loss of the rocket.
Example 9-4: Rifle recoil.

Calculate the recoil velocity of a 5.0-kg rifle that shoots a 0.020-kg bullet at a speed of 620 m/s.
Conceptual Example 9-5: Falling on or off a sled.

(a) An empty sled is sliding on frictionless ice when Susan drops vertically from a tree above onto the sled. When she lands, does the sled speed up, slow down, or keep the same speed? (b) Later: Susan falls sideways off the sled. When she drops off, does the sled speed up, slow down, or keep the same speed?
During a collision, objects are deformed due to the large forces involved.

Since \( \vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} \), we can write \( d\vec{p} = \vec{F} \, dt \).

Integrating,

\[
\int_{t_i}^{t_f} d\vec{p} = \vec{p}_f - \vec{p}_i = \int_{t_i}^{t_f} \vec{F} \, dt.
\]
This quantity is defined as the impulse, $J$:

$$
\vec{J} = \int_{t_i}^{t_f} \vec{F} \, dt.
$$

The impulse is equal to the change in momentum:

$$
\Delta \vec{p} = \vec{p}_f - \vec{p}_i = \int_{t_i}^{t_f} \vec{F} \, dt = \vec{J}.
$$
Since the time of the collision is often very short, we may be able to use the average force, which would produce the same impulse over the same time interval.

\[ \vec{F}_{\text{avg}} \Delta t = \int_{t_i}^{t_f} \vec{F} \, dt. \]
Example 9-6: Karate blow.

Estimate the impulse and the average force delivered by a karate blow that breaks a board a few cm thick. Assume the hand moves at roughly 10 m/s when it hits the board.
Momentum is conserved in all collisions.

Collisions in which kinetic energy is conserved as well are called elastic collisions, and those in which it is not are called inelastic.
Here we have two objects colliding elastically. We know the masses and the initial speeds.

Since both momentum and kinetic energy are conserved, we can write two equations. This allows us to solve for the two unknown final speeds.
9-5 Elastic Collisions in One Dimension

Example 9-7: Equal masses.

Billiard ball A of mass $m$ moving with speed $v_A$ collides head-on with ball B of equal mass. What are the speeds of the two balls after the collision, assuming it is elastic? Assume (a) both balls are moving initially ($v_A$ and $v_B$), (b) ball B is initially at rest ($v_B = 0$).
Example 9-8: Unequal masses, target at rest.

A very common practical situation is for a moving object \( (m_A) \) to strike a second object \( (m_B, \) the “target”) at rest \( (v_B = 0) \). Assume the objects have unequal masses, and that the collision is elastic and occurs along a line (head-on). (a) Derive equations for \( v_B' \) and \( v_A' \) in terms of the initial velocity \( v_A \) of mass \( m_A \) and the masses \( m_A \) and \( m_B \). (b) Determine the final velocities if the moving object is much more massive than the target \( (m_A >> m_B) \). (c) Determine the final velocities if the moving object is much less massive than the target \( (m_A << m_B) \).
Example 9-9: A nuclear collision.

A proton (p) of mass 1.01 u (unified atomic mass units) traveling with a speed of $3.60 \times 10^4$ m/s has an elastic head-on collision with a helium (He) nucleus ($m_{\text{He}} = 4.00$ u) initially at rest. What are the velocities of the proton and helium nucleus after the collision? Assume the collision takes place in nearly empty space.
9-6 Inelastic Collisions

With inelastic collisions, some of the initial kinetic energy is lost to thermal or potential energy. Kinetic energy may also be gained during explosions, as there is the addition of chemical or nuclear energy.

A completely inelastic collision is one in which the objects stick together afterward, so there is only one final velocity.
9-6 Inelastic Collisions

Example 9-10: Railroad cars again.

A 10,000-kg railroad car, A, traveling at a speed of 24.0 m/s strikes an identical car, B, at rest. If the cars lock together as a result of the collision, how much of the initial kinetic energy is transformed to thermal or other forms of energy?
Example 9-11: Ballistic pendulum.

The ballistic pendulum is a device used to measure the speed of a projectile, such as a bullet. The projectile, of mass $m$, is fired into a large block of mass $M$, which is suspended like a pendulum. As a result of the collision, the pendulum and projectile together swing up to a maximum height $h$. Determine the relationship between the initial horizontal speed of the projectile, $v$, and the maximum height $h$. 
Conservation of energy and momentum can also be used to analyze collisions in two or three dimensions, but unless the situation is very simple, the math quickly becomes unwieldy.

Here, a moving object collides with an object initially at rest. Knowing the masses and initial velocities is not enough; we need to know the angles as well in order to find the final velocities.
Example 9-12: Billiard ball collision in 2-D.

Billiard ball A moving with speed \( v_A = 3.0 \text{ m/s} \) in the +x direction strikes an equal-mass ball B initially at rest. The two balls are observed to move off at 45° to the x axis, ball A above the x axis and ball B below. That is, \( \theta_A' = 45° \) and \( \theta_B' = -45° \). What are the speeds of the two balls after the collision?
9-7 Collisions in Two or Three Dimensions

Example 9-13: Proton-proton collision.

A proton traveling with speed $8.2 \times 10^5$ m/s collides elastically with a stationary proton in a hydrogen target. One of the protons is observed to be scattered at a 60° angle. At what angle will the second proton be observed, and what will be the velocities of the two protons after the collision?
9-7 Collisions in Two or Three Dimensions

Problem solving:

1. Choose the system. If it is complex, subsystems may be chosen where one or more conservation laws apply.

2. Is there an external force? If so, is the collision time short enough that you can ignore it?

3. Draw diagrams of the initial and final situations, with momentum vectors labeled.

4. Choose a coordinate system.
9-7 Collisions in Two or Three Dimensions

5. Apply momentum conservation; there will be one equation for each dimension.

6. If the collision is elastic, apply conservation of kinetic energy as well.

7. Solve.

8. Check units and magnitudes of result.
9-8 Center of Mass (CM)

In (a), the diver’s motion is pure translation; in (b) it is translation plus rotation.

There is one point that moves in the same path a particle would take if subjected to the same force as the diver. This point is called the center of mass (CM).
The general motion of an object can be considered as the sum of the translational motion of the CM, plus rotational, vibrational, or other forms of motion about the CM.
9-8 Center of Mass (CM)

For two particles, the center of mass lies closer to the one with the most mass:

\[ x_{CM} = \frac{m_A x_A + m_B x_B}{m_A + m_B} = \frac{m_A x_A + m_B x_B}{M}, \]

where \( M \) is the total mass.
Example 9-14: CM of three guys on a raft.

Three people of roughly equal masses $m$ on a lightweight (air-filled) banana boat sit along the $x$ axis at positions $x_A = 1.0$ m, $x_B = 5.0$ m, and $x_C = 6.0$ m, measured from the left-hand end. Find the position of the CM. Ignore the boat’s mass.
9-8 Center of Mass (CM)

Exercise 9-15: Three particles in 2-D.

Three particles, each of mass 2.50 kg, are located at the corners of a right triangle whose sides are 2.00 m and 1.50 m long, as shown. Locate the center of mass.
9-8 Center of Mass (CM)

For an extended object, we imagine making it up of tiny particles, each of tiny mass, and adding up the product of each particle’s mass with its position and dividing by the total mass. In the limit that the particles become infinitely small, this gives:

\[
\vec{r}_{CM} = \frac{1}{M} \int \vec{r} \, dm.
\]
Example 9-16: CM of a thin rod.

(a) Show that the CM of a uniform thin rod of length $l$ and mass $M$ is at its center. (b) Determine the CM of the rod assuming its linear mass density $\lambda$ (its mass per unit length) varies linearly from $\lambda = \lambda_0$ at the left end to double that value, $\lambda = 2\lambda_0$, at the right end.
Example 9-17: CM of L-shaped flat object.

Determine the CM of the uniform thin L-shaped construction brace shown.
The center of gravity is the point at which the gravitational force can be considered to act. It is the same as the center of mass as long as the gravitational force does not vary among different parts of the object.
The center of gravity can be found experimentally by suspending an object from different points. The CM need not be within the actual object—a doughnut’s CM is in the center of the hole.
9-9 Center of Mass and Translational Motion

The total momentum of a system of particles is equal to the product of the total mass and the velocity of the center of mass.

The sum of all the forces acting on a system is equal to the total mass of the system multiplied by the acceleration of the center of mass:

\[ M \vec{a}_{CM} = \sum \vec{F}_{ext}. \]

Therefore, the center of mass of a system of particles (or objects) with total mass \( M \) moves like a single particle of mass \( M \) acted upon by the same net external force.
Conceptual Example 9-18: A two-stage rocket.

A rocket is shot into the air as shown. At the moment it reaches its highest point, a horizontal distance $d$ from its starting point, a prearranged explosion separates it into two parts of equal mass. Part I is stopped in midair by the explosion and falls vertically to Earth. Where does part II land? Assume $g = \text{constant}$. 
Applying Newton’s second law to the system shown gives:

\[
\frac{d\vec{P}}{dt} = \Sigma \vec{F}_{\text{ext}}. 
\]

Therefore,

\[
\Sigma \vec{F}_{\text{ext}} = M \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} - (\vec{u} - \vec{v}) \frac{dM}{dt}, 
\]

or

\[
M \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = \Sigma \vec{F}_{\text{ext}} + \vec{v}_{\text{rel}} \frac{dM}{dt}. 
\]
Example 9-19: Conveyor belt.

You are designing a conveyor system for a gravel yard. A hopper drops gravel at a rate of 75.0 kg/s onto a conveyor belt that moves at a constant speed $v = 2.20 \text{ m/s}$. (a) Determine the additional force (over and above internal friction) needed to keep the conveyor belt moving as gravel falls on it. (b) What power output would be needed from the motor that drives the conveyor belt?
Example 9-20: Rocket propulsion.

A fully fueled rocket has a mass of 21,000 kg, of which 15,000 kg is fuel. The burned fuel is spewed out the rear at a rate of 190 kg/s with a speed of 2800 m/s relative to the rocket. If the rocket is fired vertically upward calculate: (a) the thrust of the rocket; (b) the net force on the rocket at blastoff, and just before burnout (when all the fuel has been used up); (c) the rocket’s velocity as a function of time, and (d) its final velocity at burnout. Ignore air resistance and assume the acceleration due to gravity is constant at $g = 9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$. 
Summary of Chapter 9

• Momentum of an object: \( \vec{p} = m\vec{v} \).

• Newton’s second law: \( \Sigma \vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} \).

• Total momentum of an isolated system of objects is conserved.

• During a collision, the colliding objects can be considered to be an isolated system even if external forces exist, as long as they are not too large.

• Momentum will therefore be conserved during collisions.
Summary of Chapter 9, cont.

- Impulse: $\vec{J} = \int \vec{F} \, dt$.

- In an elastic collision, total kinetic energy is also conserved.

- In an inelastic collision, some kinetic energy is lost.

- In a completely inelastic collision, the two objects stick together after the collision.

- The center of mass of a system is the point at which external forces can be considered to act.