GLOBAL EDITION

Engineering Mechanics

Dynamics

FIFTEENTH EDITION IN SI UNITS

R. C. Hibbeler

ENGINEERING MECHANICS

DYNAMICS

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To the Student

With the hope that this work will stimulate
an interest in Engineering Mechanics
and provide an acceptable guide to its understanding.

PREFACE

The main purpose of this book is to provide the student with a clear and thorough presentation of the theory and application of engineering mechanics. To achieve this objective, this work has been shaped by the comments and suggestions of hundreds of reviewers in the teaching profession, as well as many of the author's students.

New to this Edition

Expanded Answer Section. The answer section in the back of the book now includes additional information related to the solution of select Fundamental Problems in order to offer the student some guidance in solving the problems.

Re-writing of Text Material. Some concepts have been clarified further in this edition, and throughout the book the accuracy has been enhanced, and important definitions are now in boldface throughout the text to highlight their importance.

New Photos. The relevance of knowing the subject matter is reflected by the real-world applications depicted in the over 14 new or updated photos placed throughout the book. These photos generally are used to explain how the relevant principles apply to real-world situations and how materials behave under load.

New Problems. There are approximately 30% new problems that have been added to this edition, which involve applications to many different fields of engineering.

New Videos. Three types of videos are available that are designed to enhance the most important material in the book. Lecture Videos serve to test the student's ability to understand the concepts, Example Problem Videos are intended to review these problems, and Fundamental Problem Videos guide the student in solving these problems that are in the book. They are available for selected sections in the chapters and marked with this icon. The videos appear on a companion website available for separate purchase at www.pearsonglobaleditions.com.

Hallmark Features

Besides the new features mentioned, other outstanding features that define the contents of the book include the following:

Organization and Approach. Each chapter is organized into well-defined sections that contain an explanation of specific topics, illustrative example problems, and a set of homework problems. The topics within each section are placed into subgroups defined by boldface titles. The purpose of this is to present a structured method for introducing each new definition or concept and to make the book convenient for later reference and review.

Chapter Contents. Each chapter begins with an illustration demonstrating a broad-range application of the material within the chapter. A bulleted list of the chapter contents is provided to give a general overview of the material that will be covered.

Emphasis on Free-Body Diagrams. Drawing a free-body diagram is particularly important when solving problems, and for this reason this step is strongly emphasized throughout the book. In particular, special sections and examples are devoted to show how to draw free-body diagrams. Specific homework problems have also been added to develop this practice.

Procedures for Analysis. A general procedure for analyzing any mechanics problem is presented at the end of the first chapter. Then this procedure is customized to relate to specific types of problems that are covered throughout the book. This unique feature provides the student with a logical and orderly method to follow when applying the theory. The example problems are solved using this outlined method in order to clarify its numerical application. Realize, however, that once the relevant principles have been mastered and enough confidence and judgment have been obtained, the student can then develop his or her own procedures for solving problems.

Important Points. This feature provides a review or summary of the most important concepts in a section and highlights the most significant points that should be known when applying the theory to solve problems.

Fundamental Problems. These problem sets are selectively located just after most of the example problems. They provide students with simple applications of the concepts, and therefore, the chance to develop their problem-solving skills before attempting to solve any of the standard problems that follow. In addition, they can be used for preparing for exams, and they can be used at a later time when preparing for the Fundamentals in Engineering Exam. The partial solutions are given in the back of the book.

Conceptual Understanding. Through the use of photographs placed throughout the book, the theory is applied in a simplified way in order to illustrate some of its more important conceptual features and instill the physical meaning of many of the terms used in the equations.

Homework Problems. Apart from the Fundamental and Conceptual type problems mentioned previously, other types of problems contained in the book include the following:

- **Free-Body Diagram Problems.** Some sections of the book contain introductory problems that only require drawing the free-body diagram for the specific problems within a problem set. These assignments will impress upon the student the importance of mastering this skill as a requirement for a complete solution of any equilibrium problem.

- **General Analysis and Design Problems.** The majority of problems in the book depict realistic situations encountered in engineering practice. Some of these problems come from actual products used in industry. It is hoped that this realism will both stimulate the student's interest in engineering mechanics and provide a means for developing the skill to reduce any such problem from its physical description to a model or symbolic representation to which the principles of mechanics may be applied.

  Throughout the book, in any set of problems, an attempt has been made to arrange them in order of increasing difficulty except for the end of chapter review problems, which are presented in random order.

- **Computer Problems.** An effort has been made to include a few problems that may be solved using a numerical procedure executed on either a desktop computer or a programmable pocket calculator. The intent here is to broaden the student's capacity for using other forms of mathematical analysis without sacrificing the time needed to focus on the application of the principles of mechanics. Problems of this type, which either can or must be solved using numerical procedures, are identified by a "square" symbol (■) preceding the problem number.

The many homework problems in this edition, have been placed into two different categories. Problems that are simply indicated by a problem number have an answer and in some cases an additional numerical result given in the back of the book. An asterisk (*) before every fourth problem number indicates a problem without an answer.

Accuracy. As with the previous editions, apart from the author, the accuracy of the text and problem solutions has been thoroughly checked by Kai Beng Yap and Jun Hwa Lee, along with a team of specialists at EPAM, including Georgii Kolobov, Ekaterina Radchenko, and Artur Akberov.

Contents

The book is divided into 11 chapters, in which the principles are first applied to simple, then to more complicated situations.

The kinematics of a particle is discussed in Chapter 12, followed by a discussion of particle kinetics in Chapter 13 (Equation of Motion), Chapter 14 (Work and Energy), and Chapter 15 (Impulse and Momentum). The concepts of particle dynamics contained in these four chapters are then summarized in a "review" section, and the student is given the chance to identify and solve a variety of problems. A similar sequence of presentation is given for the planar motion of a rigid body: Chapter 16 (Planar Kinematics), Chapter 17 (Equations of Motion), Chapter 18 (Work and Energy), and Chapter 19 (Impulse and Momentum), followed by a summary and review set of problems for these chapters.

If time permits, some of the material involving three-dimensional rigid-body motion may be included in the course. The kinematics and kinetics of this motion are discussed in Chapters 20 and 21, respectively. Chapter 22 (Vibrations) may be included if the student has the necessary mathematical background. Sections of the book that are considered to be beyond the scope of the basic dynamics course are indicated by a star (★) and may be omitted. Note that this material also provides a suitable reference for basic principles when it is discussed in more advanced courses. Finally, Appendix A provides a list of mathematical formulas needed to solve the problems in the book, Appendix B provides a brief review of vector analysis, and Appendix C reviews application of the chain rule.

Alternative Coverage. At the discretion of the instructor, it is possible to cover Chapters 12 through 19 in the following order with no loss in continuity: Chapters 12 and 16 (Kinematics), Chapters 13 and 17 (Equations of Motion), Chapter 14 and 18 (Work and Energy), and Chapters 15 and 19 (Impulse and Momentum).

Acknowledgments

I have endeavored to write this book so that it will appeal to both the student and instructor. Through the years, many people have helped in its development, and I will always be grateful for their valued suggestions and comments. Specifically, I wish to thank all the individuals who have sent comments to me. These include J. Aurand, J. Ari-Gur, R. Boyd, O. Byer, E. Erisman, C. Heinke, H. Kuhlman, E. Most, S. Moustafa, H. Nazeri, D. Pox, J. Ross, D. Rowlison, R. Scott, K. Steurer.

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During the production process I am thankful for the assistance of Rose Kernan, my production editor, and Marta Samsel, who worked on the cover of the book. And finally, to my wife, Conny, who helped in the proofreading of the manuscript for publication.

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I would greatly appreciate hearing from you if at any time you have any comments, suggestions, or issues related to any matters regarding this edition.

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Mastering Engineering

This online tutorial and assessment program allows you to integrate dynamic homework and practice problems with automated grading of exercises from the textbook. Tutorials and many end-of-section problems provide enhanced student feedback and optional hints. Mastering Engineering™ allows you to easily track the performance of your entire class on an assignment-by-assignment basis, or the detailed work of an individual student. For more information visit www.masteringengineering.com.

Resources for Instructors

Instructor's Solutions Manual This supplement provides complete solutions supported by problem statements and problem figures. The Instructor's Solutions Manual is available in the Instructor Resource Center.

PowerPoint Slides A complete set of all the figures and tables from the textbook are available in PowerPoint format.

Resources for Students

Videos Developed by the author, three different types of videos are now available to reinforce learning the basic theory and applying the principles. The first set provides a lecture review and a self-test of the material related to the theory and concepts presented in the book. The second set provides a self-test of the example problems and the basic procedures used for their solution. The third set provides an engagement for solving the Fundamental Problems throughout the book. They are available for selected sections in the chapters and marked with a video icon. The videos can be accessed in the Pearson eText or from a website available for purchase separately at www.pearsonglobaleditions.com.

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ENGINEERING MECHANICS

DYNAMICS

FIFTEENTH EDITION IN SI UNITS

CHAPTER 12

Although these jet planes are rather large, from a distance their motion can be analyzed as if each were a particle.

Lecture Summary and Quiz, Example, and Problem-solving videos are available where this icon appears.

KINEMATICS OF A PARTICLE

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

- To introduce the concepts of position, displacement, velocity, and acceleration.
- To study particle motion along a straight line and represent this motion graphically.
- To investigate particle motion along a curved path using different coordinate systems.
- To present an analysis of dependent motion of two particles.
- To examine the principles of relative motion of two particles using translating axes.

12.1 INTRODUCTION

Engineering mechanics is the study of the state of rest or motion of bodies subjected to the action of forces. It is divided into two areas, namely, statics and dynamics. ***Statics*** is concerned with the equilibrium of a body that is either at rest or moves with constant velocity. Here we will consider ***dynamics***, which deals with the accelerated motion of a body. This subject will be presented in two parts: *kinematics*, which treats only the geometric aspects of the motion, and *kinetics*, which is the analysis of the forces causing the motion. To develop these principles, the dynamics of a particle will be discussed first, followed by topics in rigid-body dynamics in two and then three dimensions.

Historically, the principles of dynamics developed when it was possible to make an accurate measurement of time. Galileo Galilei (1564–1642) was one of the first major contributors to this field. His work consisted of experiments using pendulums and falling bodies. The most significant contributions to dynamics, however, were made by Isaac Newton (1642–1727), who is noted for his formulation of the three fundamental laws of motion and the law of universal gravitational attraction. Shortly after these laws were postulated, important techniques for their application were developed by Euler, D'Alembert, Lagrange, and others.

There are many problems in engineering whose solutions require application of the principles of dynamics. For example, bridges and frames are subjected to moving loads and natural forces caused by wind and earthquakes. The structural design of any vehicle, such as an automobile or airplane, requires consideration of the motion to which it is subjected. This is also true for many mechanical devices, such as motors, pumps, movable tools, industrial manipulators, and machinery. Furthermore, predictions of the motions of artificial satellites, projectiles, and spacecraft are based on the theory of dynamics. With further advances in technology, there will be an even greater need for knowing how to apply the principles of this subject.

Problem Solving. Dynamics is considered to be more involved than statics since both the forces applied to a body and its motion must be taken into account. Also, many applications require using calculus, rather than just algebra and trigonometry. In any case, the most effective way of learning the principles of dynamics is ***to solve problems***. To be successful at this, it is necessary to present the work in a logical and orderly manner as suggested by the following sequence of steps:

1. Read the problem carefully and try to correlate the actual physical situation with the theory you have studied.
2. Draw any necessary diagrams and tabulate the problem data.
3. Establish a coordinate system and apply the relevant principles, generally in mathematical form.
4. Solve the necessary equations using a consistent set of units, and report the answer with no more than three significant figures, which is generally the accuracy of the given data.
5. Study the answer using technical judgment and common sense to determine whether or not it seems reasonable.

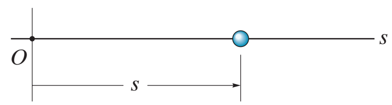
In applying this general procedure, do the work as neatly as possible. Being neat generally stimulates clear and orderly thinking, and vice versa. If you are having trouble developing your problem-solving skills, consider watching the videos available at https://media.pearsoncmg.com/intl/ge/abp/resources/products/product.html#product,isbn=9781292451930.

12.2 RECTILINEAR KINEMATICS: CONTINUOUS MOTION

We will begin our study of dynamics by discussing the kinematics of a particle that moves along a straight path. Recall that a ***particle*** has a mass but negligible size and shape, so we will limit application to those objects that have dimensions that are of no consequence in the analysis of the motion. For example, a rocket, projectile, or a vehicle can be considered as a particle, as long as its motion is characterized by the motion of its mass center, and any rotation of the body is neglected.

Rectilinear Kinematics. The kinematics of a particle is characterized by specifying, at any given instant, the particle's position, velocity, and acceleration.

Position. The rectilinear or straight-line path of a particle will be defined using a single coordinate axis s, Fig. 12–1a. The origin O on the path is a fixed point, and from this point the ***position coordinate*** s is used to specify the location of the particle at any given instant. The magnitude of s is the distance from O to the particle, usually measured in meters (m), and the sense of direction is defined by the algebraic sign of s. Although the choice is arbitrary, here s will be positive when the particle is located to the right of the origin, and it will be negative if the particle is located to the left of O. Position is actually a vector quantity since it has both magnitude and direction; however, it is being represented by the algebraic scalar s, rather than in boldface $\mathbf{s}$, since the direction always remains along the coordinate axis.

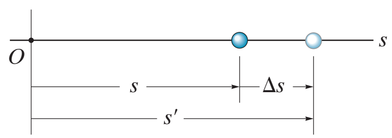


Position

(a)

Displacement. The ***displacement*** of the particle is defined as the *change in its position*. For example, if the particle moves from one point to another, Fig. 12–1b, the displacement is

$$\Delta s = s' - s$$



Displacement

(b)

Fig. 12–1

In this case Δs is *positive* since the particle's final position is to the *right* of its initial position, i.e., $s' > s$. Displacement is also a *vector quantity*, and it should be distinguished from the distance the particle travels. Specifically, the *distance traveled* is a *positive scalar* that represents the total length of path over which the particle travels.

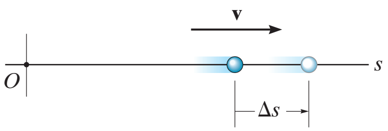
Velocity. If the particle moves through a displacement Δs during the time interval Δt, the ***average velocity*** of the particle is

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

If we take smaller and smaller values of Δt, the magnitude of Δs becomes smaller and smaller. Consequently, the ***instantaneous velocity*** is a vector defined as $v = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} (\Delta s / \Delta t)$, or

$$(\overset{+}{\rightarrow}) \qquad \boxed{v = \frac{ds}{dt}} \qquad (12\text{–}1)$$

Since Δt or dt is always positive, the sign used to define the *sense* of the velocity is the same as that of Δs or ds. For example, if the particle is moving to the *right*, Fig. 12–1*c*, the velocity is *positive*; whereas if it is moving to the *left*, the velocity is *negative*. (This is emphasized here by the arrow written at the left of Eq. 12–1.) The *magnitude* of the velocity is known as the ***speed***, and it is generally expressed in units of m/s.



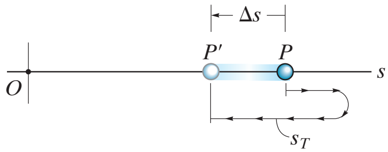
Velocity

(c)

Occasionally, the term "average speed" is used. The ***average speed*** is always a positive scalar and is defined as the total distance traveled by a particle, s_T, divided by the elapsed time Δt; i.e.,

$$(v_{avg})_{sp} = \frac{s_T}{\Delta t}$$

For example, the particle in Fig. 12–1*d* travels along the path of length s_T in time Δt, so its average speed is $(v_{avg})_{sp} = s_T/\Delta t$, but its average velocity is $v_{avg} = -\Delta s/\Delta t$.



Average velocity and
Average speed

(d)

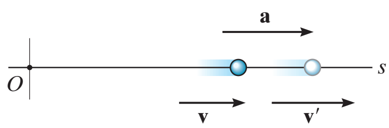
Fig. 12–1 (cont.)

Acceleration. If the velocity of the particle is known at two points, then the ***average acceleration*** of the particle during the time interval Δt is defined as

$$a_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t}$$

Here Δv represents the difference in the velocity during the time interval Δt, i.e., $\Delta v = v' - v$, Fig. 12–1*e*.

The ***instantaneous acceleration*** at time t is a *vector* that is found by taking smaller and smaller values of Δt and corresponding smaller and smaller values of Δv, so that $a = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} (\Delta v/\Delta t)$, or



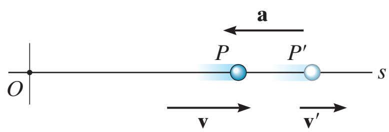
Acceleration

(e)

$$(\overset{+}{\rightarrow}) \qquad \boxed{a = \frac{dv}{dt}} \qquad (12\text{–}2)$$

Substituting Eq. 12–1 into this result, we can also write

$$(\overset{+}{\rightarrow}) \qquad a = \frac{d^2s}{dt^2}$$



Deceleration

(f)

Fig. 12–1 (cont.)

Both the average and instantaneous acceleration can be either positive or negative. In particular, when the particle is *slowing down*, or its speed is decreasing, the particle is said to be ***decelerating***. In this case, v' in Fig. 12–1*f* is *less* than v, and so $\Delta v = v' - v$ will be negative. Consequently, a will also be negative, and therefore it will act to the *left*, in the *opposite sense* to v. Also, notice that if the particle is originally at rest, then it can have an acceleration if a moment later it has a velocity v'. Units commonly used to express the magnitude of acceleration are m/s^2.

Finally, an important differential relation involving the displacement, velocity, and acceleration along the path may be obtained by eliminating the time differential dt between Eqs. 12–1 and 12–2. We have

$$dt = \frac{ds}{v} = \frac{dv}{a}$$

or

$$(\overset{+}{\rightarrow}) \qquad \boxed{a\,ds = v\,dv} \qquad (12\text{–}3)$$

Although we have now produced three important kinematic equations, realize that the above equation is not independent of Eqs. 12–1 and 12–2.

Constant Acceleration, $a = a_c$. When the acceleration is constant, each of the three kinematic equations $a_c = dv/dt$, $v = ds/dt$, and $a_c\, ds = v\, dv$ can be integrated to obtain formulas that relate a_c, v, s, and t.

Velocity as a Function of Time. Integrating $a_c = dv/dt$, assuming that initially $v = v_0$ when $t = 0$, we get

$$\int_{v_0}^{v} dv = \int_0^t a_c\, dt$$

$$(\overset{+}{\rightarrow}) \qquad \boxed{\begin{array}{c} v = v_0 + a_c t \\ \text{Constant Acceleration} \end{array}} \qquad (12\text{–}4)$$

Position as a Function of Time. Integrating $v = ds/dt = v_0 + a_c t$, assuming that initially $s = s_0$ when $t = 0$, yields

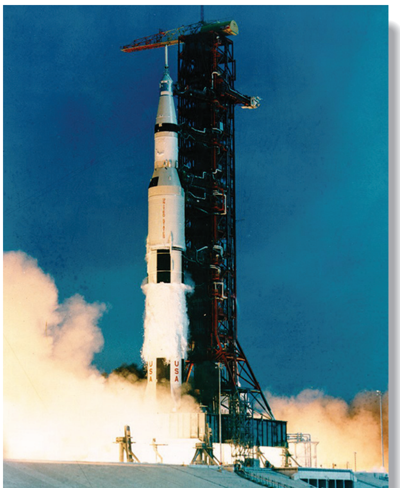
$$\int_{s_0}^{s} ds = \int_0^t (v_0 + a_c t)\, dt$$

$$(\overset{+}{\rightarrow}) \qquad \boxed{\begin{array}{c} s = s_0 + v_0 t + \frac{1}{2} a_c t^2 \\ \text{Constant Acceleration} \end{array}} \qquad (12\text{–}5)$$

Velocity as a Function of Position. If we solve for t in Eq. 12–4 and substitute it into Eq. 12–5, or integrate $v\, dv = a_c\, ds$, assuming that initially $v = v_0$ at $s = s_0$, we get

$$\int_{v_0}^{v} v\, dv = \int_{s_0}^{s} a_c\, ds$$

$$(\overset{+}{\rightarrow}) \qquad \boxed{\begin{array}{c} v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a_c(s - s_0) \\ \text{Constant Acceleration} \end{array}} \qquad (12\text{–}6)$$



During the time this rocket undergoes rectilinear motion, its altitude as a function of time can be measured and expressed as $s = s(t)$. Its velocity can then be found using $v = ds/dt$, and its acceleration can be determined from $a = dv/dt$.

The algebraic signs of s_0, v_0, and a_c, used in these equations, are determined from the positive direction of the s axis as indicated by the arrow written at the left of each equation. It is important to remember that these equations are useful *only when the acceleration is constant and when $t = 0$*, $s = s_0$, $v = v_0$. A typical example of constant accelerated motion occurs when a body falls freely toward the earth. If air resistance is neglected and the distance of fall is short, then the constant *downward* acceleration of the body when it is close to the earth is approximately $9.81\ \text{m/s}^2$.

IMPORTANT POINTS

- Dynamics is the study of bodies that have accelerated motion.
- Kinematics is a study of the geometry of the motion.
- Kinetics is a study of the forces that cause the motion.
- Rectilinear kinematics refers to straight-line motion.
- Speed refers to the magnitude of velocity.
- Average speed is the total distance traveled divided by the total time. This is different from the average velocity, which is the displacement divided by the time.
- A particle that is slowing down is decelerating.
- A particle can have an acceleration and yet have zero velocity.
- The relationship $a\,ds = v\,dv$ is derived from $a = dv/dt$ and $v = ds/dt$, by eliminating dt.

PROCEDURE FOR ANALYSIS

Coordinate System.

- Establish a position coordinate s along the path and specify its *fixed origin* and positive direction.
- Since motion is along a straight line, the vector quantities position, velocity, and acceleration can be represented as algebraic scalars. For analytical work the sense of s, v, and a is then defined by their *algebraic signs*.
- The positive sense for each of these scalars can be indicated by an arrow shown alongside each kinematic equation as it is applied.

Kinematic Equations.

- If a relation is known between any *two* of the four variables a, v, s, and t, then a third variable can be obtained by using one of the kinematic equations, $a = dv/dt$, $v = ds/dt$ or $a\,ds = v\,dv$, since each equation relates all three variables.*
- Whenever integration is performed, it is important that the position and velocity be known at a given instant in order to evaluate either the constant of integration if an indefinite integral is used, or the limits of integration if a definite integral is used.
- Remember that Eqs. 12–4 through 12–6 have limited use. These equations apply *only* when the *acceleration is constant* and the initial conditions are $s = s_0$ and $v = v_0$ when $t = 0$.

* Some standard differentiation and integration formulas are given in Appendix A.

Refer to the companion website for Lecture Summary and Quiz videos.

EXAMPLE 12.1

The car in Fig. 12–2 moves in a straight line such that for a short time its velocity is defined by $v = (0.9t^2 + 0.6t)$ m/s, where t is in seconds. Determine its position and acceleration when $t = 3$ s. When $t = 0, s = 0$.

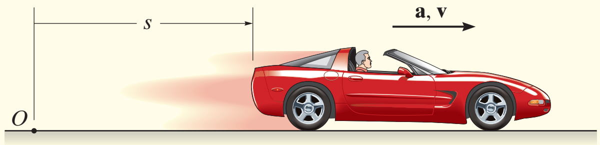


Fig. 12–2

SOLUTION

Coordinate System. The position coordinate extends from the fixed origin O to the car, positive to the right.

Position. Since $v = f(t)$, the car's position can be determined from $v = ds/dt$, since this equation relates v, s, and t. Noting that $s = 0$ when $t = 0$, we have*

$$(\xrightarrow{+}) \qquad v = \frac{ds}{dt} = (0.9t^2 + 0.6t)$$

$$\int_0^s ds = \int_0^t (0.9t^2 + 0.6t)dt$$

$$s\Big|_0^s = 0.3t^3 + 0.3t^2\Big|_0^t$$

$$s = 0.3t^3 + 0.3t^2$$

When $t = 3$ s,

$$s = 0.3(3)^3 + 0.3(3)^2 = 10.8 \text{ m} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

Acceleration. Since $v = f(t)$, the acceleration is determined from $a = dv/dt$, since this equation relates a, v, and t.

$$(\xrightarrow{+}) \qquad a = \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}(0.9t^2 + 0.6t) = 1.8t + 0.6$$

When $t = 3$ s,

$$a = 1.8(3) + 0.6 = 6.00 \text{ m/s}^2 \rightarrow \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

NOTE: The formulas for constant acceleration *cannot* be used to solve this problem, because the acceleration is a function of time.

* The *same result* can be obtained by evaluating a constant of integration C rather than using definite limits on the integral. For example, integrating $ds = (0.9t^2 + 0.6t)dt$ yields $s = 0.3t^3 + 0.3t^2 + C$. Using the condition that at $t = 0$, $s = 0$, then $C = 0$.

EXAMPLE 12.2

A small projectile is fired vertically *downward* into a fluid with an initial velocity of 60 m/s. Due to the drag resistance of the fluid the projectile experiences a deceleration of $a = (-0.4v^3)\ \text{m/s}^2$, where v is in m/s. Determine the projectile's velocity and position 4 s after it is fired.

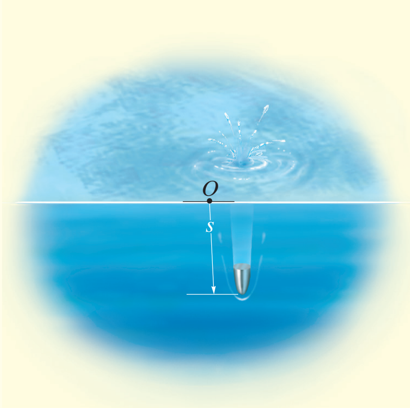


Fig. 12–3

SOLUTION

Coordinate System. Since the motion is downward, the position coordinate is positive downward, with origin located at O, Fig. 12–3.

Velocity. Here $a = f(v)$ and so we must determine the velocity as a function of time using $a = dv/dt$, since this equation relates v, a, and t. (Why not use $v = v_0 + a_c t$?) Separating the variables and integrating, with $v_0 = 60$ m/s when $t = 0$, yields*

$$(+\downarrow) \qquad a = \frac{dv}{dt} = -0.4v^3$$

$$\int_{60\ \text{m/s}}^{v} \frac{dv}{-0.4v^3} = \int_0^t dt$$

$$\frac{1}{-0.4}\left(\frac{1}{-2}\right)\frac{1}{v^2}\bigg|_{60}^{v} = t - 0$$

$$\frac{1}{0.8}\left[\frac{1}{v^2} - \frac{1}{(60)^2}\right] = t$$

$$v = \left\{\left[\frac{1}{(60)^2} + 0.8t\right]^{-1/2}\right\}\ \text{m/s}$$

Here the positive root is taken, since the projectile will continue to move downward. When $t = 4$ s,

$$v = 0.559\ \text{m/s}\downarrow \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

Position. Knowing $v = f(t)$, we can obtain the projectile's position from $v = ds/dt$, since this equation relates s, v, and t. Using the initial condition $s = 0$, when $t = 0$, we have

$$(+\downarrow) \qquad v = \frac{ds}{dt} = \left[\frac{1}{(60)^2} + 0.8t\right]^{-1/2}$$

$$\int_0^s ds = \int_0^t \left[\frac{1}{(60)^2} + 0.8t\right]^{-1/2} dt$$

$$s = \frac{2}{0.8}\left[\frac{1}{(60)^2} + 0.8t\right]^{1/2}\bigg|_0^t$$

$$s = \frac{1}{0.4}\left\{\left[\frac{1}{(60)^2} + 0.8t\right]^{1/2} - \frac{1}{60}\right\}\ \text{m}$$

When $t = 4$ s,

$$s = 4.43\ \text{m} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

* The *same result* can be obtained by evaluating a constant of integration C rather than using definite limits on the integral.

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EXAMPLE 12.3

During a test the rocket in Fig. 12–4 travels upward at 75 m/s, and when it is 40 m from the ground its engine fails. Determine the maximum height s_B reached by the rocket and its speed just before it hits the ground. While in motion the rocket is subjected to a constant downward acceleration of 9.81 m/s^2 due to gravity. Neglect the effect of air resistance.

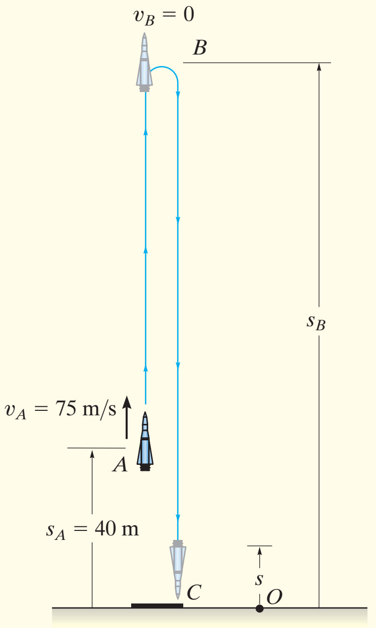

Fig. 12–4

SOLUTION

Coordinate System. The origin O for the position coordinate s is taken at ground level with positive upward, Fig. 12–4.

Maximum Height. Since the rocket is traveling *upward*, $v_A = +75 \text{ m/s}$ when $t = 0$. At the maximum height $s = s_B$ the velocity $v_B = 0$. For the entire motion, the acceleration is $a_c = -9.81 \text{ m/s}^2$ (negative since it acts in the *opposite* sense to positive velocity or positive displacement). Since a_c is *constant* the rocket's position may be related to its velocity at the two points A and B on the path by using Eq. 12–6, namely,

$$(+\uparrow) \qquad v_B^2 = v_A^2 + 2a_c(s_B - s_A)$$

$$0 = (75 \text{ m/s})^2 + 2(-9.81 \text{ m/s}^2)(s_B - 40 \text{ m})$$

$$s_B = 327 \text{ m} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

Velocity. To obtain the velocity of the rocket just before it hits the ground, we can apply Eq. 12–6 between points B and C, Fig. 12–4.

$$(+\uparrow) \qquad v_C^2 = v_B^2 + 2a_c(s_C - s_B)$$

$$= 0 + 2(-9.81 \text{ m/s}^2)(0 - 327 \text{ m})$$

$$v_C = -80.1 \text{ m/s} = 80.1 \text{ m/s} \downarrow \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

The negative root was chosen since the rocket is moving downward.

Similarly, Eq. 12–6 may also be applied between points A and C, i.e.,

$$(+\uparrow) \qquad v_C^2 = v_A^2 + 2a_c(s_C - s_A)$$

$$= (75 \text{ m/s})^2 + 2(-9.81 \text{ m/s}^2)(0 - 40 \text{ m})$$

$$v_C = -80.1 \text{ m/s} = 80.1 \text{ m/s} \downarrow \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

NOTE: It should be realized that the rocket is subjected to a *deceleration* from A to B of 9.81 m/s^2, and then from B to C it is *accelerated* at this rate. Furthermore, even though the rocket momentarily comes to *rest* at B ($v_B = 0$) the acceleration at B is still 9.81 m/s^2 downward!

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EXAMPLE 12.4

A metallic particle is subjected to the influence of a magnetic field as it travels downward from plate A to plate B, Fig. 12–5. If the particle is released from rest at the midpoint C, $s = 100$ mm, and the acceleration is $a = (4s)$ m/s^2, where s is in meters, determine the velocity of the particle when it reaches plate B, $s = 200$ mm, and the time it takes to travel from C to B.

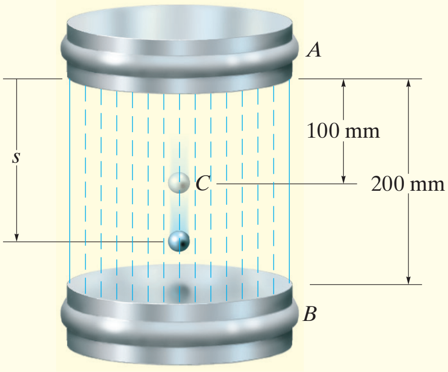


Fig. 12–5

SOLUTION

Coordinate System. As shown in Fig. 12–5, s is positive downward, measured from plate A.

Velocity. Since $a = f(s)$, the velocity as a function of position can be obtained by using $v\,dv = a\,ds$. Realizing that $v = 0$ at $s = 0.1$ m, we have

$(+\downarrow)$
$$v\,dv = a\,ds$$
$$\int_0^v v\,dv = \int_{0.1\text{ m}}^s 4s\,ds$$
$$\frac{1}{2}v^2\Big|_0^v = \frac{4}{2}s^2\Big|_{0.1\text{ m}}^s$$
$$v = 2(s^2 - 0.01)^{1/2}\text{ m/s} \qquad (1)$$

At $s = 200$ mm $= 0.2$ m,

$$v_B = 0.346\text{ m/s} = 346\text{ mm/s}\downarrow \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

Time. The time for the particle to travel from C to B can be obtained using $v = ds/dt$ and Eq. 1, where $s = 0.1$ m when $t = 0$. From Appendix A,

$(+\downarrow)$
$$ds = v\,dt$$
$$= 2(s^2 - 0.01)^{1/2}dt$$
$$\int_{0.1}^s \frac{ds}{(s^2 - 0.01)^{1/2}} = \int_0^t 2\,dt$$
$$\ln\left(\sqrt{s^2 - 0.01} + s\right)\Big|_{0.1}^s = 2t\Big|_0^t$$
$$\ln\left(\sqrt{s^2 - 0.01} + s\right) + 2.303 = 2t$$

At $s = 0.2$ m,

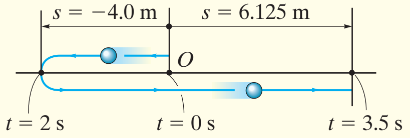
$$t = \frac{\ln\left(\sqrt{(0.2)^2 - 0.01} + 0.2\right) + 2.303}{2} = 0.658\text{ s} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

NOTE: The formulas for constant acceleration cannot be used here because the acceleration changes with position, i.e., $a = 4s$.

EXAMPLE 12.5

A particle moves along a horizontal path with a velocity of $v = (3t^2 - 6t)$ m/s, where t is in seconds. If it is initially located at the origin O, determine the distance traveled in 3.5 s, and the particle's average velocity and average speed during the time interval.

SOLUTION



(a)

Coordinate System. Here positive motion is to the right, measured from the origin O, Fig. 12–6a.

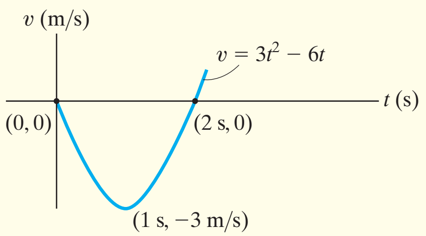
Distance Traveled. Since $v = f(t)$, the position as a function of time may be found by integrating $v = ds/dt$ with $t = 0$, $s = 0$.

$$(\overset{+}{\rightarrow}) \qquad ds = v\,dt$$

$$= (3t^2 - 6t)\,dt$$

$$\int_0^s ds = \int_0^t (3t^2 - 6t)\,dt$$

$$s = (t^3 - 3t^2) \text{ m} \tag{1}$$



(b)

Fig. 12–6

In order to determine the distance traveled in 3.5 s, it is necessary to investigate the path of motion. If we graph the velocity function, Fig. 12–6b, then it shows that for $0 < t < 2$ s the velocity is *negative*, which means the particle is traveling to the *left*, and for $t > 2$ s the velocity is *positive*, and hence the particle is traveling to the *right*. Also, note that $v = 0$ when $t = 2$ s. The particle's position when $t = 0$, $t = 2$ s, and $t = 3.5$ s can be determined from Eq. 1. This yields

$$s\big|_{t=0} = 0 \quad s\big|_{t=2\text{ s}} = -4.0 \text{ m} \quad s\big|_{t=3.5\text{ s}} = 6.125 \text{ m}$$

The path is shown in Fig. 12–6a. Hence, the distance traveled in 3.5 s is

$$s_T = 4.0 + 4.0 + 6.125 = 14.125 \text{ m} = 14.1 \text{ m} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

Velocity. The *displacement* from $t = 0$ to $t = 3.5$ s is

$$\Delta s = s\big|_{t=3.5\text{ s}} - s\big|_{t=0} = 6.125 \text{ m} - 0 = 6.125 \text{ m}$$

and so the average velocity is

$$v_{avg} = \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t} = \frac{6.125 \text{ m}}{3.5 \text{ s} - 0} = 1.75 \text{ m/s} \rightarrow \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

The average speed is defined in terms of the *total distance traveled* s_T. This positive scalar is

$$(v_{avg})_{sp} = \frac{s_T}{\Delta t} = \frac{14.125 \text{ m}}{3.5 \text{ s} - 0} = 4.04 \text{ m/s} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

NOTE: In this problem, the acceleration is $a = dv/dt = (6t - 6)$ m/s^2, which is not constant.

www

Refer to the companion website for a self quiz of these Example problems.

FUNDAMENTAL PROBLEMS

Partial solutions and answers to all Fundamental Problems are given in the back of the book. Video solutions are available for select Fundamental Problems on the companion website.

F12–1. Initially, the car travels along a straight road with a speed of 35 m/s. If the brakes are applied and the speed of the car is reduced to 10 m/s in 15 s, determine the constant deceleration of the car.

Prob. F12–1

F12–2. A ball is thrown vertically upward with a speed of 15 m/s. Determine the time of flight when it returns to its original position.

Prob. F12–2

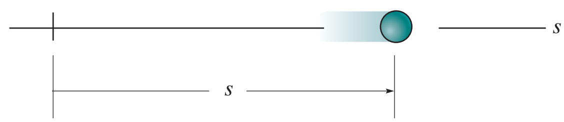
F12–3. A particle travels along a straight line with a velocity of $v = (4t - 3t^2)$ m/s, where t is in seconds. Determine the position of the particle when $t = 4$ s. $s = 0$ when $t = 0$.

F12–4. A particle travels along a straight line with a speed $v = (0.5t^3 - 8t)$ m/s, where t is in seconds. Determine the acceleration of the particle when $t = 2$ s.

F12–5. The position of the particle is $s = (2t^2 - 8t + 6)$ m, where t is in seconds. Determine the time when the velocity of the particle is zero, and the total distance traveled by the particle when $t = 3$ s.

Prob. F12–5

F12–6. A particle travels along a straight line with an acceleration of $a = (10 - 0.2s)$ m/s^2, where s is measured in meters. Determine the velocity of the particle when $s = 10$ m if $v = 5$ m/s at $s = 0$.



Prob. F12–6

F12–7. A particle moves along a straight line such that its acceleration is $a = (4t^2 - 2)$ m/s^2, where t is in seconds. When $t = 0$, the particle is located 2 m to the left of the origin, and when $t = 2$ s, it is 20 m to the left of the origin. Determine the position of the particle when $t = 4$ s.

F12–8. A particle travels along a straight line with a velocity of $v = (20 - 0.05s^2)$ m/s, where s is in meters. Determine the acceleration of the particle at $s = 15$ m.

12

PROBLEMS

12–1. A particle is moving along a straight line such that its position is defined by $s = (10t^2 + 20)$ mm, where t is in seconds. Determine (a) the displacement of the particle during the time interval from $t = 1$ s to $t = 5$ s, (b) the average velocity of the particle during this time interval, and (c) the acceleration when $t = 1$ s.

12–2. Starting from rest, a particle moving in a straight line has an acceleration of $a = (2t - 6)\ \text{m/s}^2$, where t is in seconds. What is the particle's velocity when $t = 6$ s, and what is its position when $t = 11$ s?

12–3. A particle moves along a straight line such that its position is defined by $s = (t^2 - 6t + 5)$ m. Determine the average velocity, the average speed, and the acceleration of the particle when $t = 6$ s.

***12–4.** A particle travels along a straight line with a velocity $v = (12 - 3t^2)$ m/s, where t is in seconds. When $t = 1$ s, the particle is located 10 m to the left of the origin. Determine the acceleration when $t = 4$ s, the displacement from $t = 0$ to $t = 10$ s, and the distance the particle travels during this time period.

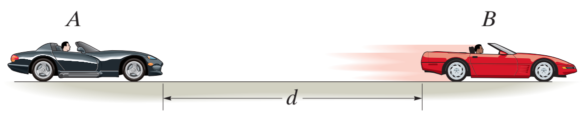
12–5. The acceleration of a particle as it moves along a straight line is given by $a = (2t - 1)\ \text{m/s}^2$, where t is in seconds. If $s = 1$ m and $v = 2$ m/s when $t = 0$, determine the particle's velocity and position when $t = 6$ s. Also, determine the total distance the particle travels during this time period.

12–6. The velocity of a particle traveling in a straight line is given by $v = (6t - 3t^2)$ m/s, where t is in seconds. If $s = 0$ when $t = 0$, determine the particle's deceleration and position when $t = 3$ s. How far has the particle traveled during the 3-s time interval, and what is its average speed?

12–7. A particle moving along a straight line is subjected to a deceleration $a = (-2v^3)\ \text{m/s}^2$, where v is in m/s. If it has a velocity $v = 8$ m/s and a position $s = 10$ m when $t = 0$, determine its velocity and position when $t = 4$ s.

***12–8.** A particle moves along a straight line such that its position is defined by $s = (2t^3 + 3t^2 - 12t - 10)$ m. Determine the velocity, average velocity, and the average speed of the particle when $t = 3$ s.

12–9. When two cars A and B are next to one another, they are traveling in the same direction with speeds v_A and v_B, respectively. If B maintains its constant speed, while A begins to decelerate at a_A, determine the distance d between the cars at the instant A stops.



Prob. 12–9

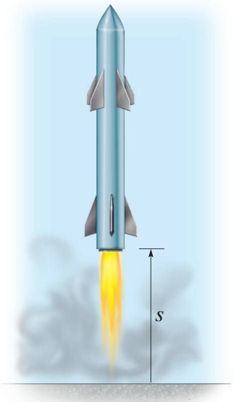
12–10. A particle moves along a straight path with an acceleration of $a = (5/s)\ \text{m/s}^2$, where s is in meters. Determine the particle's velocity when $s = 2$ m, if it is released from rest when $s = 1$ m.

12–11. A particle moves along a straight line with an acceleration of $a = 5/(3s^{1/3} + s^{5/2})\ \text{m/s}^2$, where s is in meters. Determine the particle's velocity when $s = 2$ m, if it starts from rest when $s = 1$ m. Use a numerical method to evaluate the integral.

***12–12.** A particle travels along a straight-line path such that in 4 s it moves from an initial position $s_A = -8$ m to a position $s_B = +3$ m. Then in another 5 s it moves from s_B to $s_C = -6$ m. Determine the particle's average velocity and average speed during the 9-s time interval.

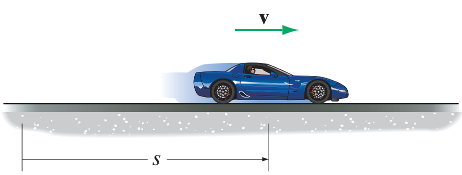
12–13. The speed of a particle traveling along a straight line within a liquid is measured as a function of its position as $v = (100 - s)$ mm/s, where s is in millimeters. Determine (a) the particle's deceleration when it is located at point A, where $s_A = 75$ mm, (b) the distance the particle travels before it stops, and (c) the time needed to stop the particle.

12–14. The acceleration of a rocket traveling upward is given by $a = (6 + 0.02s)$ m/s^2, where s is in meters. Determine the rocket's velocity when $s = 2$ km and the time needed to reach this attitude. Initially, $v = 0$ and $s = 0$ when $t = 0$.



Prob. 12–14

12–15. The sports car travels along the straight road such that $v = 3\sqrt{100 - s}$ m/s, where s is in meters. Determine the time for the car to reach $s = 60$ m. How much time does it take to stop?

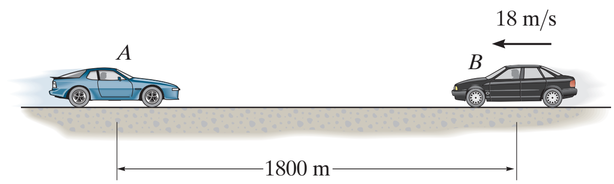


Prob. 12–15

***12–16.** A particle is moving with a velocity of v_0 when $s = 0$ and $t = 0$. If it is subjected to a deceleration of $a = -kv^3$, where k is a constant, determine its velocity and position as functions of time.

12–17. A particle is moving along a straight line with an initial velocity of 6 m/s when it is subjected to a deceleration of $a = (-1.5v^{1/2})$ m/s^2, where v is in m/s. Determine how far it travels before it stops. How much time does this take?

12–18. Car A starts from rest at $t = 0$ and travels along a straight road with a constant acceleration of 1.8 m/s^2 until it reaches a speed of 24 m/s. Afterwards it maintains this speed. Also, when $t = 0$, car B located 1800 m down the road is traveling towards A at a constant speed of 18 m/s. Determine the distance traveled by car A when they pass each other.

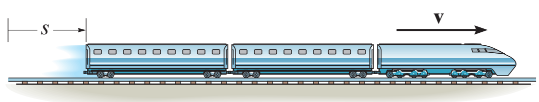


Prob. 12–18

12–19. A train starts from rest at station A and accelerates at 0.5 m/s^2 for 60 s. Afterwards it travels with a constant velocity for 15 min. It then decelerates at 1 m/s^2 until it is brought to rest at station B. Determine the distance between the stations.

***12–20.** A sandbag is dropped from a balloon which is ascending vertically at a constant speed of 6 m/s. If the bag is released with the same upward velocity of 6 m/s when $t = 0$ and hits the ground when $t = 8$ s, determine the speed of the bag as it hits the ground and the altitude of the balloon at this instant.

12–21. When a train is traveling along a straight track at 2 m/s, it begins to accelerate at $a = (60v^{-4})$ m/s^2, where v is in m/s. Determine its velocity v and the position 3 s after the acceleration.

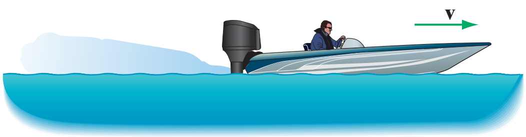


Prob. 12–21

12

12–22. When a particle falls through the air, its initial acceleration $a = g$ diminishes until it is zero, and thereafter it falls at a constant or terminal velocity v_f. If this variation of the acceleration can be expressed as $a = (g/v^2{}_f)(v^2{}_f - v^2)$, determine the time needed for the velocity to become $v = v_f/2$. Initially the particle falls from rest.

12–23. The acceleration of the boat is defined by $a = (1.5\, v^{1/2})$ m/s. Determine its speed when $t = 4$ s if it has a speed of 3 m/s when $t = 0$.



Prob. 12–23

***12–24.** A particle is moving along a straight line such that its acceleration is defined as $a = (-2v)$ m/s^2, where v is in meters per second. If $v = 20$ m/s when $s = 0$ and $t = 0$, determine the particle's position, velocity, and acceleration as functions of time.

12–25. When a particle is projected vertically upward with an initial velocity of v_0, it experiences an acceleration $a = -(g + kv^2)$, where g is the acceleration due to gravity, k is a constant, and v is the velocity of the particle. Determine the maximum height reached by the particle.

12–26. If the effects of atmospheric resistance are accounted for, a freely falling body has an acceleration defined by the equation $a = 9.81[1 - v^2(10^{-4})]$ m/s^2, where v is in m/s and the positive direction is downward. If the body is released from rest at a *very high altitude*, determine (a) the velocity when $t = 5$ s, and (b) the body's terminal or maximum attainable velocity (as $t \rightarrow \infty$).

12–27. A ball is thrown with an upward velocity of 5 m/s from the top of a 10-m-high building. One second later another ball is thrown upward from the ground with a velocity of 10 m/s. Determine the height from the ground where the two balls pass each other.

***12–28.** As a body is projected to a high altitude above the earth's surface, the variation of the acceleration of gravity with respect to altitude y must be taken into account. Neglecting air resistance, this acceleration is determined from the formula $a = -g_0[R^2/(R + y)^2]$, where g_0 is the constant gravitational acceleration at sea level, R is the radius of the earth, and the positive direction is measured upward. If $g_0 = 9.81$ m/s^2 and $R = 6356$ km, determine the minimum initial velocity (escape velocity) at which a projectile should be shot vertically from the earth's surface so that it does not fall back to the earth. *Hint*: This requires that $v = 0$ as $y \rightarrow \infty$.

12–29. Accounting for the variation of gravitational acceleration a with respect to altitude y (see Prob. 12–28), derive an equation that relates the velocity of a freely falling particle to its altitude. Assume that the particle is released from rest at an altitude y_0 from the earth's surface. With what velocity does the particle strike the earth if it is released from rest at an altitude $y_0 = 500$ km? Use the numerical data in Prob. 12–28.

12–30. A train is initially traveling along a straight track at a speed of 90 km/h. For 6 s it is subjected to a constant deceleration of 0.5 m/s^2, and then for the next 5 s it has a constant deceleration a_c. Determine a_c so that the train stops at the end of the 11-s time period.

12–31. Two cars A and B start from rest at a stop line. Car A has a constant acceleration of $a_A = 8$ m/s^2, while Car B has an acceleration of $a_B = (2t^{3/2})$ m/s^2, where t is in seconds. Determine the distance between the cars when A reaches a velocity of $v_A = 120$ km/h.

***12–32.** A sphere is fired downward into a medium with an initial speed of 27 m/s. If it experiences a deceleration of $a = (-6t)$ m/s^2, where t is in seconds, determine the distance traveled before it stops.

12–33. The velocity of a particle traveling along a straight line is $v = v_0 - ks$, where k is constant. If $s = 0$ when $t = 0$, determine the position and acceleration of the particle as a function of time.

12–34. Ball A is thrown vertically upward from the top of a 30-m-high building with an initial velocity of 5 m/s. At the same instant another ball B is thrown upward from the ground with an initial velocity of 20 m/s. Determine the height from the ground and the time at which they pass.

12.3 RECTILINEAR KINEMATICS: ERRATIC MOTION

When a particle has erratic or changing motion, then its position, velocity, and acceleration *cannot* be described by a single continuous mathematical function along the entire path. Instead, a series of functions will be required to specify the motion at different intervals. For this reason, it is convenient to represent the motion as a graph. If this graph relates any two of the variables s, v, a, t, then it can be used to construct subsequent graphs relating two other variables since the variables are related by the differential relationships $v = ds/dt$, $a = dv/dt$, or $a\,ds = v\,dv$. Several situations are possible.

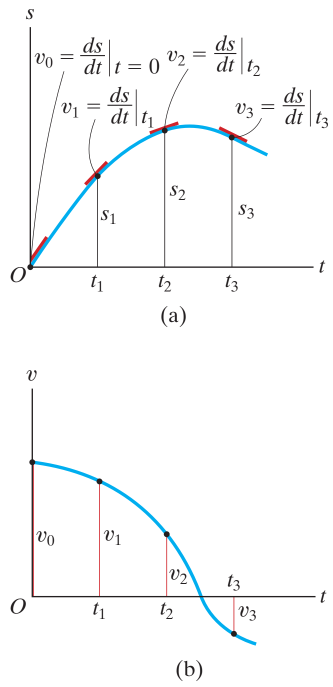


Fig. 12–7

The s–t, v–t, and a–t Graphs. To construct the v–t graph given the s–t graph, Fig. 12–7*a*, the equation $v = ds/dt$ should be used, since it relates the variables s and t to v. This equation states that

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{c} \dfrac{ds}{dt} = v \\ \text{slope of } s\text{–}t \text{ graph} = \text{velocity} \end{array}}$$

For example, by measuring the slope on the s–t graph when $t = t_1$, the velocity is v_1, Fig. 12–7*a*. The v–t graph can be constructed by plotting this and other values at each instant, Fig. 12–7*b*.

The a–t graph can be constructed from the v–t graph in a similar manner, since

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{c} \dfrac{dv}{dt} = a \\ \text{slope of } v\text{–}t \text{ graph} = \text{acceleration} \end{array}}$$

Examples of various measurements are shown in Fig. 12–8*a* and plotted in Fig. 12–8*b*.

If the s–t curve for each interval of motion can be expressed by a mathematical function $s = s(t)$, then the equation of the v–t and a–t graph for the same interval can be obtained from succesive derivatives of this function with respect to time since $v = ds/dt$ and $a = dv/dt$. Since differentiation reduces a polynomial of degree n to that of degree $n - 1$, then if the s–t graph is parabolic (a second-degree curve), the v–t graph will be a sloping line (a first-degree curve), and the a–t graph will be a constant or a horizontal line (a zero-degree curve).

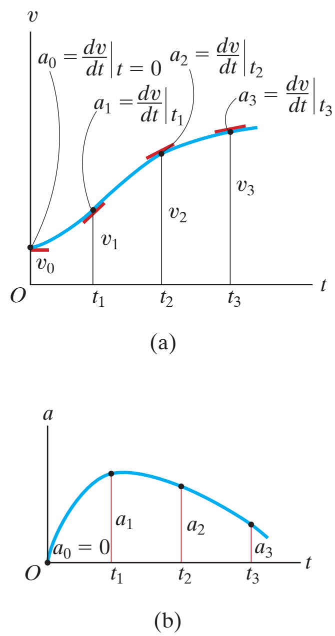


Fig. 12–8

If the a–t graph is given, Fig. 12–9a, the v–t graph may be constructed using $a = dv/dt$, written as

$$\Delta v = \int a\,dt$$

change in velocity = area under a–t graph

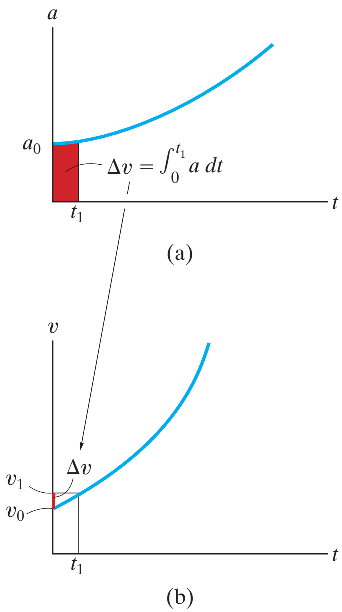


Fig. 12–9

Therefore, to construct the v–t graph, we begin with the particle's initial velocity v_0 and then add to this small increments of area (Δv) determined from the a–t graph. In this manner successive points, $v_1 = v_0 + \Delta v$, etc., are determined, Fig. 12–9b. When doing this, an algebraic addition of the area increments of the a–t graph is necessary, since areas lying above the t axis correspond to an increase in v ("positive" area), whereas those lying below the axis indicate a decrease in v ("negative" area).

Similarly, if the v–t graph is given, Fig. 12–10a, it is possible to determine the s–t graph using $v = ds/dt$, written as

$$\Delta s = \int v\,dt$$

displacement = area under v–t graph

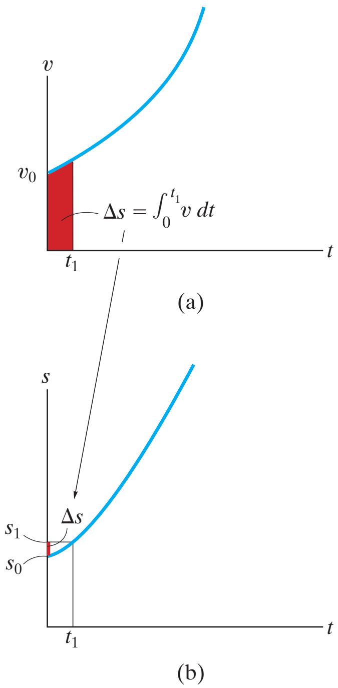


Fig. 12–10

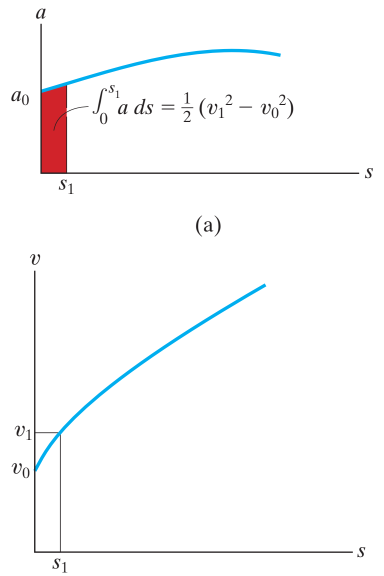
Here we begin with the particle's initial position s_0 and add (algebraically) to this small area increments Δs determined from the v–t graph, Fig. 12–10b.

Due to the integration, if *segments* of the a–t graph can be described by a series of equations, then each of these equations can be successively *integrated* to yield equations describing the corresponding segments of the v–t and s–t graphs. As a result, if the a–t graph is linear (a first-degree curve), integration will yield a v–t graph that is parabolic (a second-degree curve) and an s–t graph that is cubic (third-degree curve).

The v–s and a–s Graphs. If the a–s graph can be constructed, then points on the v–s graph can be determined by using $v\,dv = a\,ds$. Integrating this equation between the limits $v = v_0$ at $s = s_0$ and $v = v_1$ at $s = s_1$, we have,

$$\frac{1}{2}(v_1^2 - v_0^2) = \int_{s_0}^{s_1} a\,ds$$

area under
a–s graph



(a)

(b)

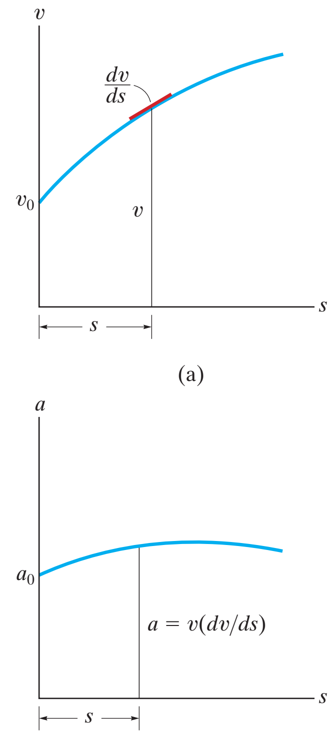
Fig. 12–11

For example, if the red area in Fig. 12–11a is determined, and the initial velocity v_0 at $s_0 = 0$ is known, then $v_1 = \left(2\int_0^{s_1} a\,ds + v_0^2\right)^{1/2}$, Fig. 12–11$b$. Other points on the v–s graph can be determined in this same manner.

If the v–s graph is known, the acceleration a at any position s can be determined using $a\,ds = v\,dv$, written as

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

acceleration = velocity times slope of v–s graph



(a)

(b)

Fig. 12–12

For example, at point (s, v) in Fig. 12–12a, the slope dv/ds of the v–s graph is measured. Then with v and dv/ds known, the value of a can be calculated, Fig. 12–12b.

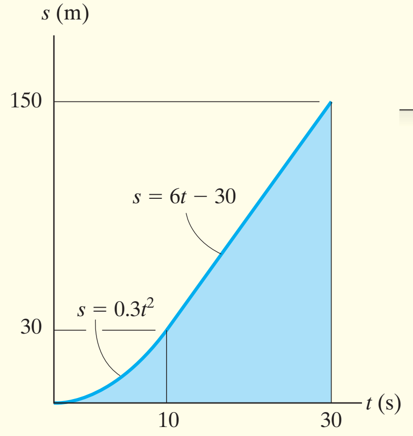
The v–s graph can also be constructed from the a–s graph, or vice versa, by approximating the known graph in various intervals with mathematical functions, $v = f(s)$ or $a = g(s)$, and then using $a\,ds = v\,dv$ to obtain the other graph.

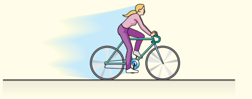
Refer to the companion website for Lecture Summary and Quiz videos.

12

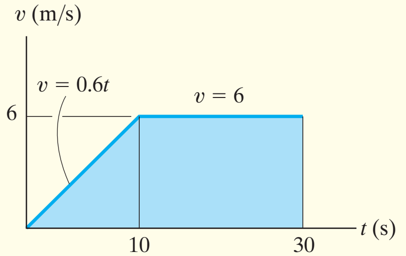
EXAMPLE 12.6

A bicycle moves along a straight road such that its position is described by the graph shown in Fig. 12–13*a*. Construct the v–t and a–t graphs for $0 \leq t \leq 30$ s.

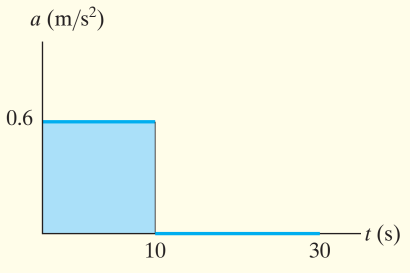




(a)



(b)



(c)

Fig. 12–13

SOLUTION

***v–t* Graph.** Since $v = ds/dt$, the v–t graph can be determined by differentiating the equations defining the s–t graph, Fig. 12–13*a*. We have

$$0 \leq t < 10 \text{ s}; \qquad s = (0.3t^2) \text{ m} \qquad v = \frac{ds}{dt} = (0.6t) \text{ m/s}$$

$$10 \text{ s} < t \leq 30 \text{ s}; \qquad s = (6t - 30) \text{ m} \qquad v = \frac{ds}{dt} = 6 \text{ m/s}$$

These results are plotted in Fig. 12–13*b*. We can also obtain specific values of v by measuring the *slope* of the s–t graph at a given instant. For example, at $t = 20$ s, the slope of the s–t graph is determined from the straight line from 10 s to 30 s, i.e.,

$$t = 20 \text{ s}; \qquad v = \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t} = \frac{150 \text{ m} - 30 \text{ m}}{30 \text{ s} - 10 \text{ s}} = 6 \text{ m/s}$$

***a–t* Graph.** Since $a = dv/dt$, the a–t graph can be determined by differentiating the equations defining the lines of the v–t graph. This yields

$$0 \leq t < 10 \text{ s}; \qquad v = (0.6t) \text{ m/s} \qquad a = \frac{dv}{dt} = 0.6 \text{ m/s}^2$$

$$10 < t \leq 30 \text{ s}; \qquad v = 0.6 \text{ m/s} \qquad a = \frac{dv}{dt} = 0$$

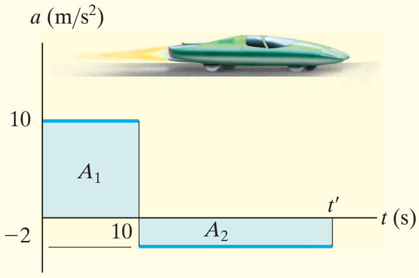
These results are plotted in Fig. 12–13*c*.

NOTE: The sudden change in a at $t = 10$ s represents a discontinuity, but actually this change must occur during a short, but finite time.

EXAMPLE 12.7

The car in Fig. 12–14*a* starts from rest and travels along a straight track such that it accelerates at $10\ \text{m/s}^2$ for 10 s, and then decelerates at $2\ \text{m/s}^2$. Draw the v–t graph and determine the time t' needed to stop the car.

SOLUTION



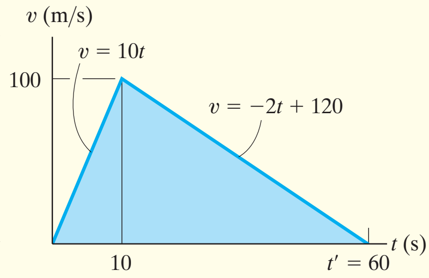
(a)

v–t Graph. Since $dv = a\,dt$, the v–t graph is determined by integrating the straight-line segments of the a–t graph. Using the *initial condition* $v = 0$ when $t = 0$, we have

$$0 \le t < 10\ \text{s}; \qquad a = (10)\ \text{m/s}^2; \qquad \int_0^v dv = \int_0^t 10\,dt, \quad v = 10t$$

When $t = 10$ s, $v = 10(10) = 100$ m/s. Using this as the *initial condition* for the next time period, we have

$$10\ \text{s} < t \le t'; \quad a = (-2)\ \text{m/s}^2; \int_{100\ \text{m/s}}^{v} dv = \int_{10\ \text{s}}^{t} -2\,dt, \quad v = (-2t + 120)\ \text{m/s}$$



(b)

Fig. 12–14

When $t = t'$ we require $v = 0$. This yields, Fig. 12–14*b*,

$$t' = 60\ \text{s} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

A direct solution for t' is also possible by realizing that the area under the a–t graph is equal to the change in the car's velocity. We require $\Delta v = 0 = A_1 + A_2$, Fig. 12–14*a*. Thus

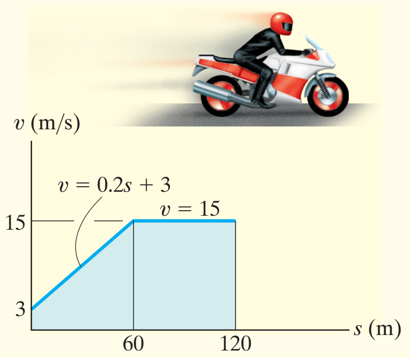
$$0 = 10\ \text{m/s}^2(10\ \text{s}) + (-2\ \text{m/s}^2)\,(t' - 10\ \text{s})$$

$$t' = 60\ \text{s} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

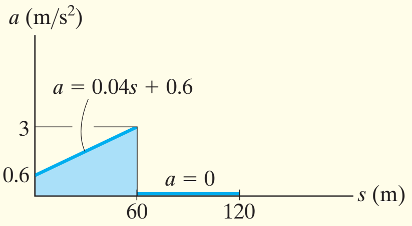
12

EXAMPLE 12.8

The v–s graph describing the motion of a motorcycle is shown in Fig. 12–15a. Construct the a–s graph of the motion and determine the time needed for the motorcycle to reach the position $s = 120$ m.



(a)



(b)

Fig. 12–15

SOLUTION

a–s Graph. Since the equations for segments of the v–s graph are given, the a–s graph can be determined using $a\,ds = v\,dv$.

$0 \le s < 60$ m; $\qquad v = (0.2s + 3)$ m/s

$$a = v\frac{dv}{ds} = (0.2s + 3)\frac{d}{ds}(0.2s + 3) = 0.04s + 0.6$$

$60 \text{ m} < s \le 120$ m; $\qquad v = 15$ m/s

$$a = v\frac{dv}{ds} = (15)\frac{d}{ds}(15) = 0$$

The results are plotted in Fig. 12–15b.

Time. The time can be obtained using the v–s graph and $v = ds/dt$, because this equation relates v, s, and t. For the first segment of motion, $s = 0$ when $t = 0$, so

$0 \le s < 60$ m; $\qquad v = (0.2s + 3)$ m/s; $\qquad dt = \dfrac{ds}{v} = \dfrac{ds}{0.2s + 3}$

$$\int_0^t dt = \int_0^s \frac{ds}{0.2s + 3}$$

$$t = (5\ln(0.2s + 3) - 5\ln 3)\text{ s}$$

At $s = 60$ m, $t = 5\ln[0.2(60) + 3] - 5\ln 3 = 8.05$ s. Therefore, using these initial conditions for the second segment of motion,

$60 \text{ m} < s \le 120$ m; $\qquad v = 15$ m/s; $\qquad dt = \dfrac{ds}{v} = \dfrac{ds}{15}$

$$\int_{8.05\text{ s}}^t dt = \int_{60\text{ m}}^s \frac{ds}{15}$$

$$t - 8.05 = \frac{s}{15} - 4;$$

$$t = \left(\frac{s}{15} + 4.05\right)\text{ s}$$

Therefore, at $s = 120$ m,

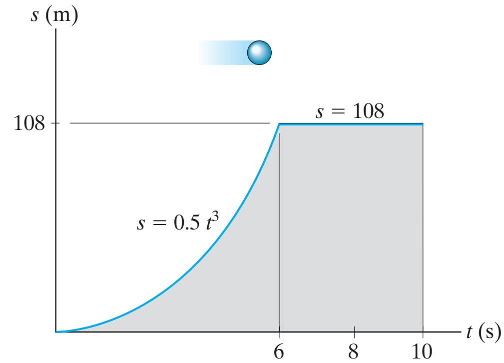
$$t = \frac{120}{15} + 4.05 = 12.0\text{ s} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

NOTE: The graphical results can be checked in part by calculating slopes. For example, at $s = 0$, $a = v(dv/ds) = 3(15 - 3)/60 = 0.6\text{ m/s}^2$. Also, the results can be checked in part by inspection. The v–s graph indicates the initial increase in velocity (acceleration) followed by constant velocity ($a = 0$).

Refer to the companion website for a self quiz of these Example problems.

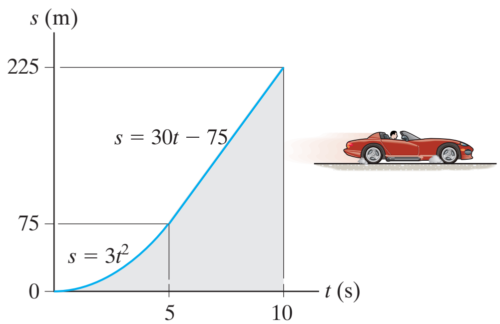
FUNDAMENTAL PROBLEMS

F12–9. Due to an external force, the particle travels along a straight track such that its position is described by the s–t graph. Construct the v–t graph for the same time interval. Take $v = 0$, $a = 0$ when $t = 0$.



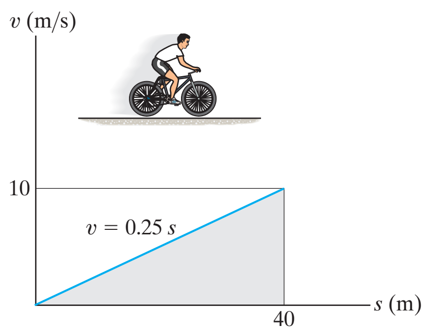
Prob. F12–9

F12–10. The sports car travels along a straight road such that its position is described by the graph. Construct the v–t and a–t graphs for the time interval $0 \leq t \leq 10$ s.



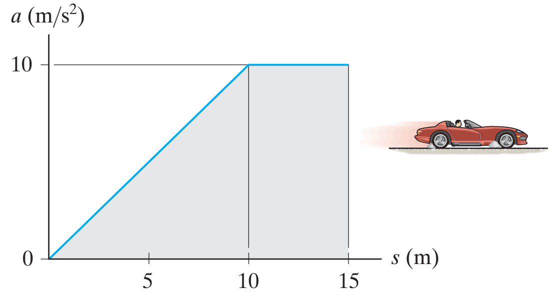
Prob. F12–10

F12–11. The rider begins to apply a force to the rear wheel of his bicycle, thereby initiating an acceleration. If his velocity is described by the v–s graph, construct the a–s graph for the same interval.



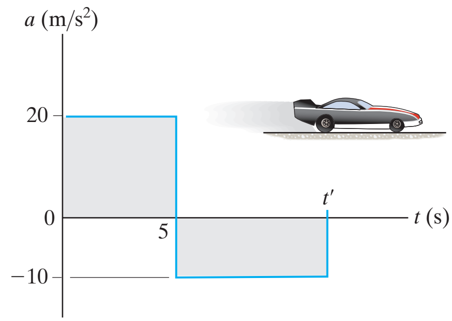
Prob. F12–11

F12–12. The sports car starts from rest and travels along a straight road. Its initial increasing acceleration is caused by the rear wheels of the car as shown on the graph. Construct the v–s graph. What is the velocity of the car when $s = 10$ m and $s = 15$ m?



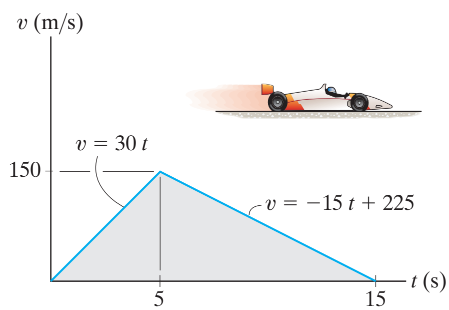
Prob. F12–12

F12–13. The dragster starts from rest and has an acceleration described by the graph. Construct the v–t graph for the time interval $0 \leq t \leq t'$, where t' is the time for the car to come to rest.



Prob. F12–13

F12–14. The dragster starts from rest and has a velocity described by the graph. Construct the s–t graph during the time interval $0 \leq t \leq 15$ s. Also, determine the total distance traveled during this time interval.



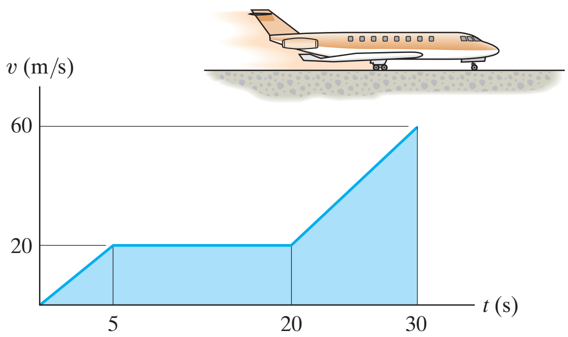
Prob. F12–14

PROBLEMS

12–35. If the position of a particle is defined by $s = [3 \sin(\pi/4)t + 8]$ m, where t is in seconds, construct the s–t, v–t, and a–t graphs for $0 \leq t \leq 10$ s.

***12–36.** A train starts from station A and for the first kilometer, it travels with a uniform acceleration. Then, for the next two kilometers, it travels with a uniform speed. Finally, the train decelerates uniformly for another kilometer before coming to rest at station B. If the time for the whole journey is six minutes, draw the v–t graph and determine the maximum speed of the train.

12–37. From experimental data, the motion of a jet plane while traveling along a runway is defined by the v–t graph. Construct the s–t and a–t graphs for the motion. When $t = 0, s = 0$.



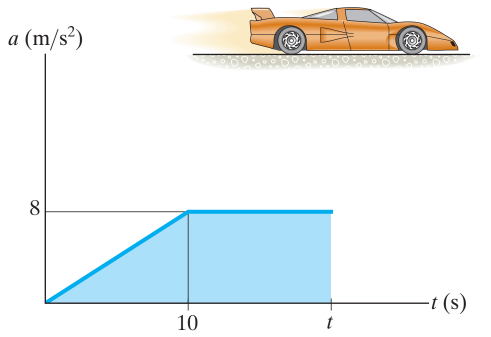
Prob. 12–37

12–38. Two rockets start from rest at the same elevation. Rocket A accelerates vertically at 20 m/s^2 for 12 s and then maintains a constant speed. Rocket B accelerates at 15 m/s^2 until reaching a constant speed of 150 m/s. Construct the a–t, v–t, and s–t graphs for each rocket until $t = 20$ s. What is the distance between the rockets when $t = 20$ s?

12–39. A particle starts from $s = 0$ and travels along a straight line with a velocity $v = (t^2 - 4t + 3)$ m/s, where t is in seconds. Construct the v–t and a–t graphs for the time interval $0 \leq t \leq 4$ s.

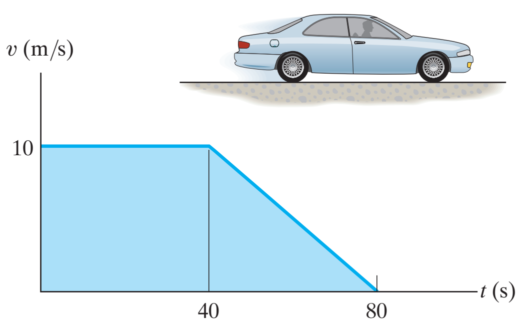
***12–40.** If the position of a particle is defined by $s = [2 \sin(\pi/5)t + 4]$ m, where t is in seconds, construct the s–t, v–t, and a–t graphs for $0 \leq t \leq 10$ s.

12–41. A car starting from rest moves along a straight track with an acceleration as shown. Determine the time t for the car to reach a speed of 50 m/s and construct the v–t graph that describes the motion until the time t.



Prob. 12–41

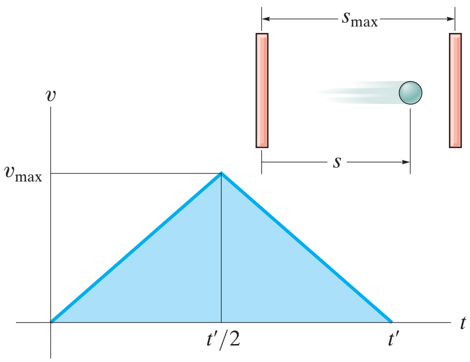
12–42. The velocity of a car is plotted as shown. Determine the total distance the car moves until it stops ($t = 80$ s). Construct the a–t graph.



Prob. 12–42

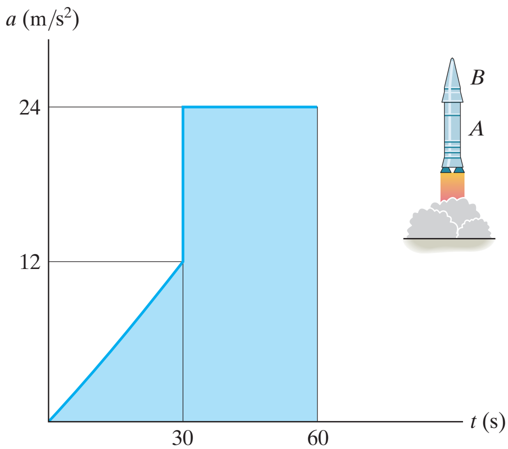
12–43. The v–t graph for a particle moving through an electric field from one plate to another has the shape shown in the figure. The acceleration and deceleration that occur are constant and both have a magnitude of $4\ \text{m/s}^2$. If the plates are spaced 200 mm apart, determine the maximum velocity v_{max} and the time t' for the particle to travel from one plate to the other. Also draw the s–t graph. When $t = t'/2$ the particle is at $s = 100$ mm.

***12–44.** The v–t graph for a particle moving through an electric field from one plate to another has the shape shown in the figure, where $t' = 0.2$ s and $v_{max} = 10$ m/s. Draw the s–t and a–t graphs for the particle. When $t = t'/2$ the particle is at $s = 0.5$ m.



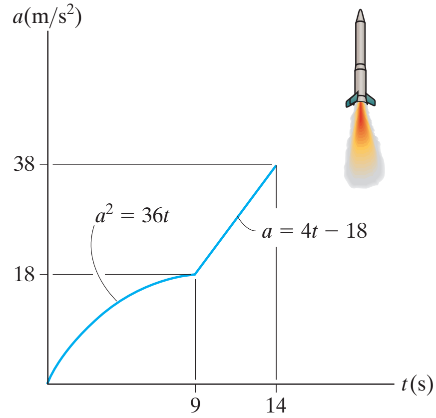
Probs. 12–43/44

12–45. A two-stage rocket is fired vertically from rest at $s = 0$ with the acceleration as shown. After 30 s the first stage, A, burns out and the second stage, B, ignites. Plot the v–t and s–t graphs which describe the motion of the second stage for $0 \leq t \leq 60$ s.



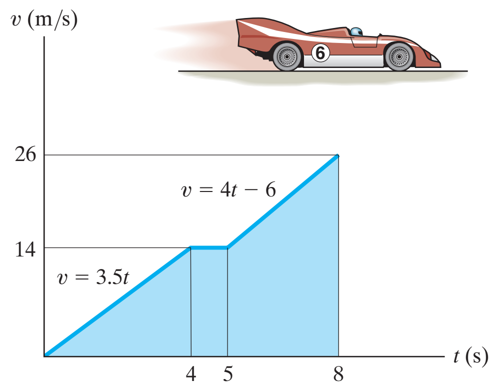
Prob. 12–45

12–46. The rocket has an acceleration described by the graph. If it starts from rest, construct the v–t and s–t graphs for the motion for the time interval $0 \leq t \leq 14$ s.



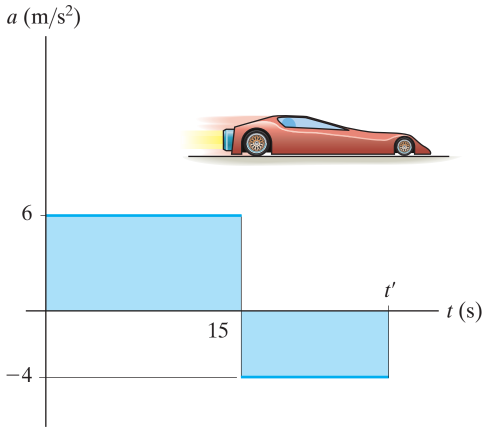
Prob. 12–46

12–47. The race car starts from rest and travels along a straight road until it reaches a speed of 26 m/s in 8 s as shown on the v–t graph. The flat part of the graph is caused by shifting gears. Draw the a–t graph and determine the maximum acceleration of the car.



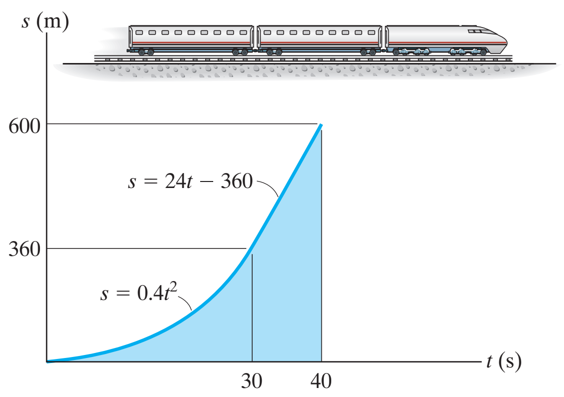
Prob. 12–47

***12–48.** The jet car is originally traveling at a velocity of 10 m/s when it is subjected to the acceleration shown. Determine the car's maximum velocity and the time t' when it stops. When $t = 0$, $s = 0$.



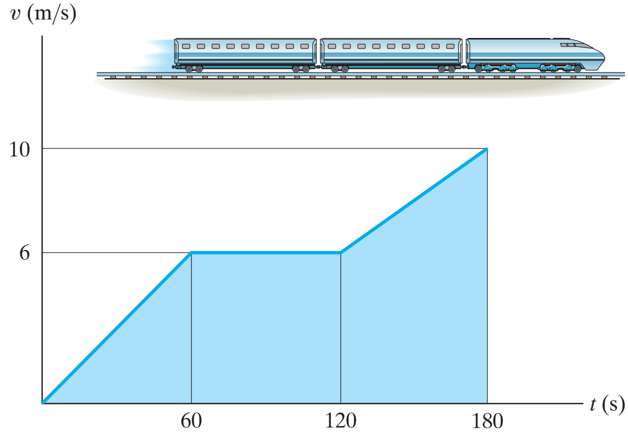
Prob. 12–48

12–49. The s–t graph for a train has been determined experimentally. From the data, construct the v–t and a–t graphs for the motion.



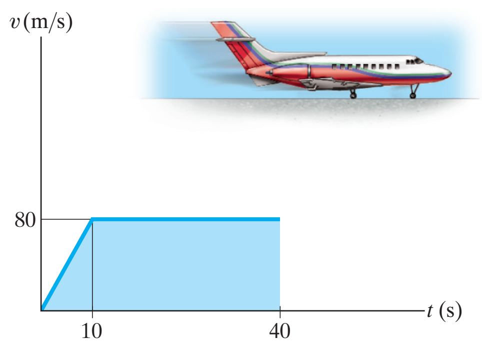
Prob. 12–49

12–50. The v–t graph for a train has been experimentally determined. From the data, construct the s–t and a–t graphs for the motion for $0 \leq t \leq 180$ s. When $t = 0$, $s = 0$.



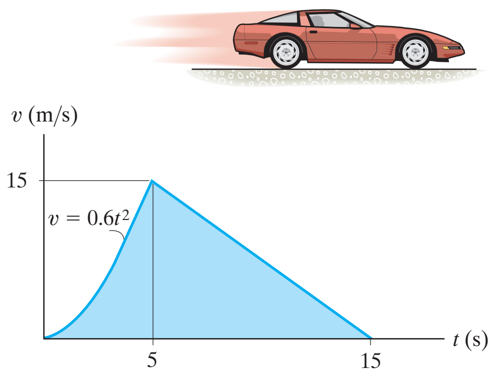
Prob. 12–50

12–51. From experimental data, the motion of a jet plane while traveling along a runway is defined by the v–t graph shown. Construct the s–t and a–t graphs for the motion.



Prob. 12–51

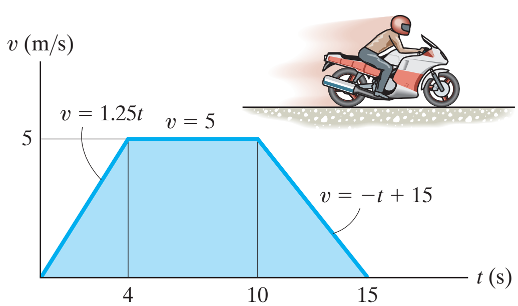
***12–52.** The v–t graph for the motion of a car as it moves along a straight road is shown. Draw the s–t and a–t graphs. Also determine the average speed and the distance traveled for the 15-s time interval. When $t = 0$, $s = 0$.



Prob. 12–52

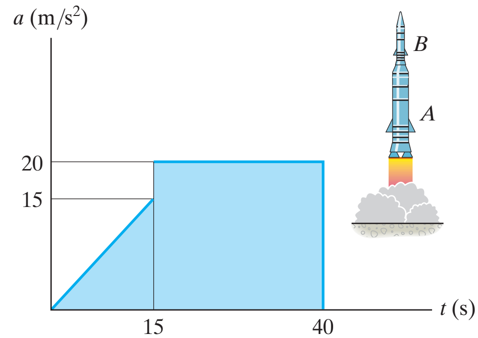
12–53. A motorcycle starts from rest at $s = 0$ and travels along a straight road with the speed shown by the v–t graph. Determine the total distance the motorcycle travels until it stops when $t = 15$ s. Also plot the a–t and s–t graphs.

12–54. A motorcycle starts from rest at $s = 0$ and travels along a straight road with the speed shown by the v–t graph. Determine the motorcycle's acceleration and position when $t = 8$ s and $t = 12$ s.



Probs. 12–53/54

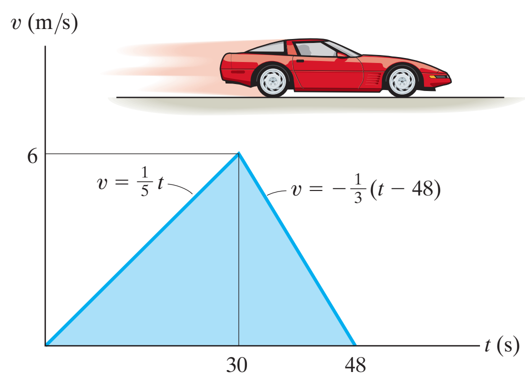
12–55. A two-stage rocket is fired vertically from rest with the acceleration shown. After 15 s the first stage A burns out and the second stage B ignites. Plot the v–t and s–t graphs which describe the motion of the second stage for $0 \leq t \leq 40$ s.



Prob. 12–55

***12–56.** A car travels along a straight road with the speed shown by the v–t graph. Plot the a–t graph.

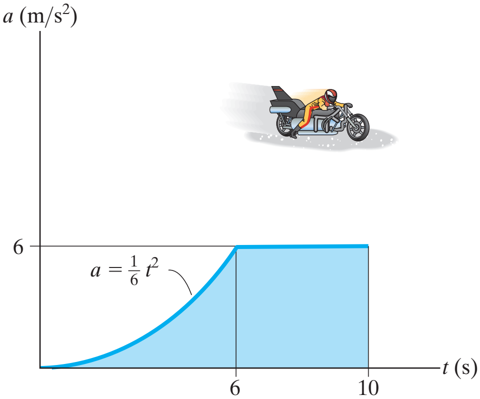
12–57. A car travels along a straight road with the speed shown by the v–t graph. Determine the total distance the car travels until it stops when $t = 48$ s. Also plot the s–t graph.



Probs. 12–56/57

12–58. Two cars start from rest side by side and travel along a straight road. Car A accelerates at $4\ \text{m/s}^2$ for 10 s and then maintains a constant speed. Car B accelerates at $5\ \text{m/s}^2$ until reaching a constant speed of 25 m/s and then maintains this speed. Construct the a–t, v–t, and s–t graphs for each car until $t = 15$ s. What is the distance between the two cars when $t = 15$ s?

12–59. A motorcyclist starting from rest travels along a straight road and for 10 s has an acceleration as shown. Draw the v–t graph that describes the motion and find the distance traveled in 10 s.



Prob. 12–59

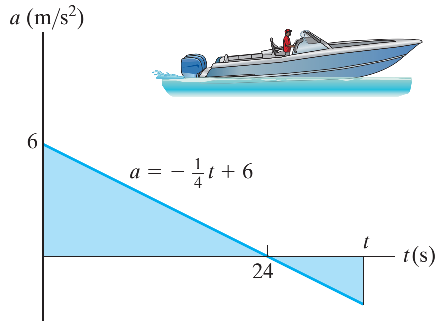
***12–60.** The speed of a train during the first minute has been recorded as follows:

t (s)	0	20	40	60
v (m/s)	0	16	21	24

Plot the v–t graph, approximating the curve as straight-line segments between the given points. Determine the total distance traveled.

12–61. A particle travels along a curve defined by the equation $s = (t^3 - 3t^2 + 2t)$ m, where t is in seconds. Draw the s–t, v–t, and a–t graphs for the particle for $0 \leq t \leq 3$ s.

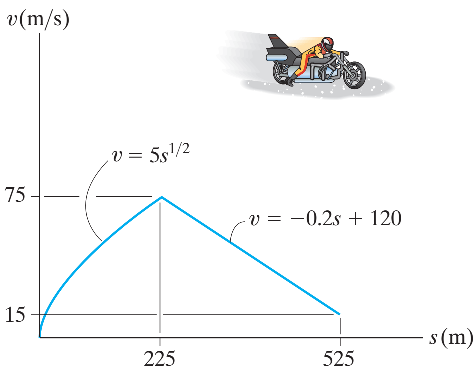
12–62. The boat is originally traveling at a speed of 8 m/s when it is subjected to the acceleration shown in the graph. Determine the boat's maximum speed and the time t when it stops.



Prob. 12–62

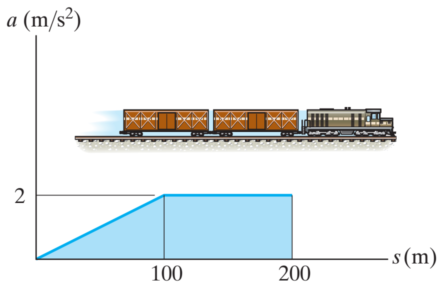
12–63. If the position of a particle is defined as $s = (5t - 3t^2)$ m, where t is in seconds, construct the s–t, v–t, and a–t graphs for $0 \leq t \leq 2.5$ s

***12–64.** The jet bike is moving along a straight road with the speed described by the v–s graph. Construct the a–s graph.



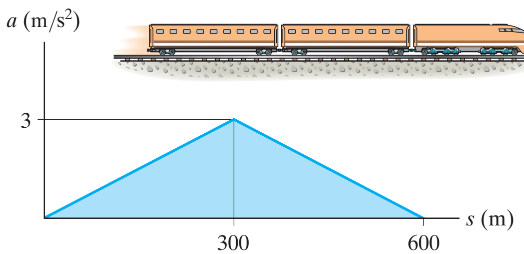
Prob. 12–64

12–65. The a–s graph for a freight train is given for the first 200 m of its motion. Plot the v–s graph. The train starts from rest.



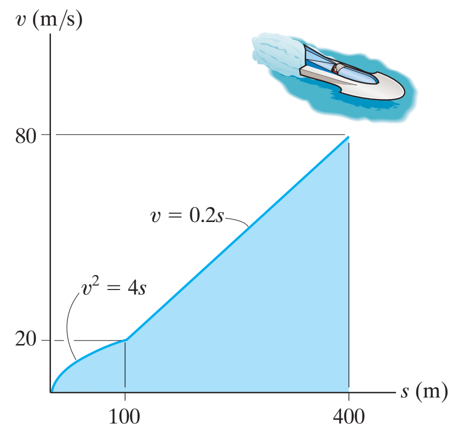
Prob. 12–65

12–66. The motion of a train is described by the a–s graph shown. Draw the v–s graph if $v = 0$ at $s = 0$.



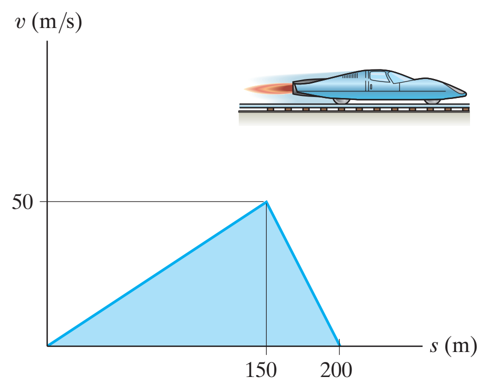
Prob. 12–66

12–67. The boat travels along a straight line with the speed described by the graph. Construct the s–t and a–s graphs. Also, determine the time required for the boat to travel a distance $s = 400$ m if $s = 0$ when $t = 0$.



Prob. 12–67

***12–68.** The v–s graph for a test vehicle is shown. Determine its acceleration when $s = 100$ m and when $s = 175$ m.



Prob. 12–68

12.4 GENERAL CURVILINEAR MOTION

Curvilinear motion occurs when a particle moves along a curved path. Since this path is often described in three dimensions, vector analysis will be used to formulate the particle's position, velocity, and acceleration.* In this section the general aspects of curvilinear motion are discussed, and in subsequent sections we will consider three types of coordinate systems often used to analyze this motion.

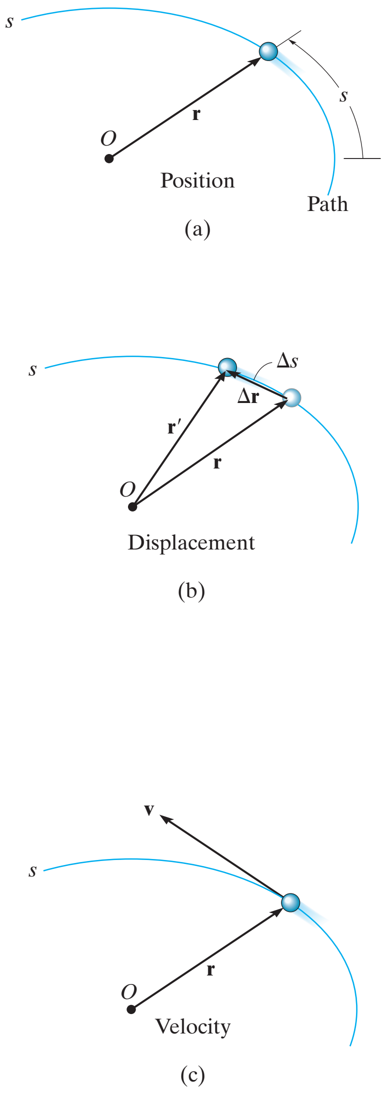


Fig. 12–16

Position. Consider a particle located at a point on a space curve defined by the path function $s(t)$, Fig. 12–16*a*. The position of the particle, measured from a fixed point O, will be designated by the *position vector* $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t)$.

Displacement. If the particle moves a distance Δs along the curve to a new position, defined by $\mathbf{r}' = \mathbf{r} + \Delta\mathbf{r}$, Fig. 12–16*b*, then the *displacement* $\Delta\mathbf{r}$ represents the change in the particle's position and is determined by vector subtraction; i.e., $\Delta\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}' - \mathbf{r}$.

Velocity. If $\Delta\mathbf{r}$ occurs during the time Δt, then the *average velocity* of the particle is

$$\mathbf{v}_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\Delta\mathbf{r}}{\Delta t}$$

The *instantaneous velocity* is determined from this equation by letting $\Delta t \to 0$, and consequently the direction of $\Delta\mathbf{r}$ *approaches* the *tangent* to the curve. Hence, $\mathbf{v} = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} (\Delta\mathbf{r}/\Delta t)$ or

$$\boxed{\mathbf{v} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}} \qquad (12\text{–}7)$$

Since $d\mathbf{r}$ will be tangent to the curve, the *direction* of $\mathbf{v}$ is also *tangent to the curve*, Fig. 12–16*c*. The *magnitude* of $\mathbf{v}$, which is called the *speed*, is obtained by realizing that the length of the straight-line segment $\Delta\mathbf{r}$ in Fig. 12–16*b* approaches the arc length Δs as $\Delta t \to 0$, and so we have $v = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} (\Delta r/\Delta t) = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} (\Delta s/\Delta t)$, or

$$\boxed{v = \frac{ds}{dt}} \qquad (12\text{–}8)$$

Thus, the *speed* can be obtained by differentiating the path function s with respect to time.

* A summary of some of the important concepts of vector analysis is given in Appendix B.

Acceleration. If the particle has a velocity $\mathbf{v}$ at time t and a velocity $\mathbf{v}' = \mathbf{v} + \Delta\mathbf{v}$ at $t + \Delta t$, Fig. 12–16*d*, then the *average acceleration* of the particle during the time interval Δt is

$$\mathbf{a}_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\Delta\mathbf{v}}{\Delta t}$$

where $\Delta\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}' - \mathbf{v}$. To study this time rate of change, the two velocity vectors in Fig. 12–16*d* are plotted in Fig. 12–16*e* such that their tails are located at the fixed point O' and their arrowheads touch points on a curve. This curve is called a ***hodograph***, and when constructed, it describes the locus of points for the arrowhead of the velocity vector in the same manner as the *path* describes the locus of points for the arrowhead of the position vector, Fig. 12–16*a*.

To obtain the *instantaneous acceleration*, let $\Delta t \to 0$, and so $\mathbf{a} = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0}(\Delta\mathbf{v}/\Delta t)$, or

$$\boxed{\mathbf{a} = \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt}} \tag{12–9}$$

Substituting Eq. 12–7 into this result, we can also write

$$\mathbf{a} = \frac{d^2\mathbf{r}}{dt^2}$$

By definition of the derivative, $\mathbf{a}$ acts *tangent to the hodograph*, Fig. 12–16*f*, and, *in general it is not tangent to the path of motion*, Fig. 12–16*g*.

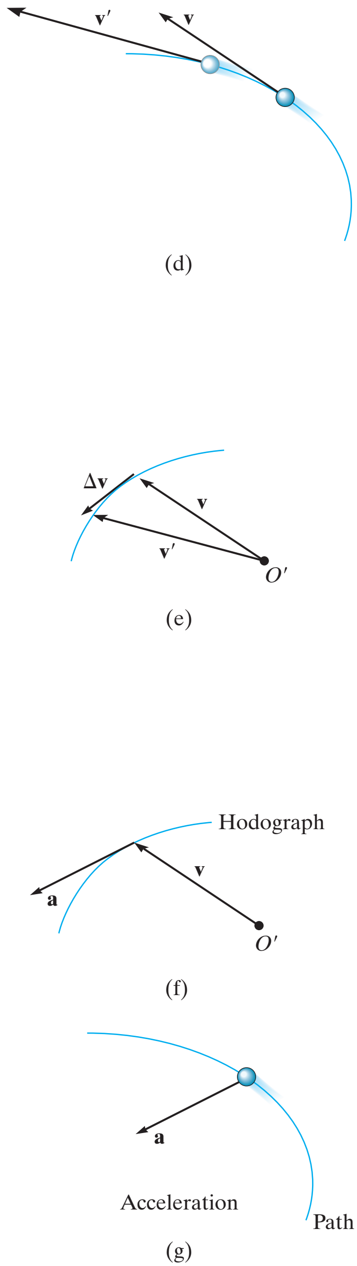


Fig. 12–16

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12.5 CURVILINEAR MOTION: RECTANGULAR COMPONENTS

Occasionally the motion of a particle can best be described along a path that is expressed in terms of its x, y, z coordinates.

Position. If the particle is at point (x, y, z) on the path shown in Fig. 12–17*a*, then its location is defined by the *position vector*

$$\boxed{\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}} \tag{12–10}$$

When the particle moves, the x, y, z components of $\mathbf{r}$ will be functions of time; i.e., $x = x(t)$, $y = y(t)$, $z = z(t)$, so that $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t)$.

At any instant the *magnitude* of $\mathbf{r}$ is determined from Eq. B–3 in Appendix B as

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

And the *direction* of $\mathbf{r}$ is specified by the unit vector $\mathbf{u}_r = \mathbf{r}/r$.

Velocity. The time derivative of $\mathbf{r}$ yields the velocity of the particle. Hence,

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}(x\mathbf{i}) + \frac{d}{dt}(y\mathbf{j}) + \frac{d}{dt}(z\mathbf{k})$$

When taking this derivative, it is necessary to account for changes in *both* the magnitude and direction of each of the vector's components. For example, the derivative of the $\mathbf{i}$ component of $\mathbf{r}$ is

$$\frac{d}{dt}(x\mathbf{i}) = \frac{dx}{dt}\mathbf{i} + x\frac{d\mathbf{i}}{dt}$$

The last term is zero, because the x, y, z reference frame is *fixed*, and therefore the *direction* (and the *magnitude*) of $\mathbf{i}$ does not change with time. Differentiation of the $\mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{k}$ components are carried out in a similar manner, and so the final result is

$$\boxed{\mathbf{v} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = v_x\mathbf{i} + v_y\mathbf{j} + v_z\mathbf{k}} \tag{12–11}$$

where

$$\boxed{v_x = \dot{x} \quad v_y = \dot{y} \quad v_z = \dot{z}} \tag{12–12}$$

The "dot" notation $\dot{x}, \dot{y}, \dot{z}$ represents the first time derivatives of $x = x(t)$, $y = y(t)$, $z = z(t)$, respectively.

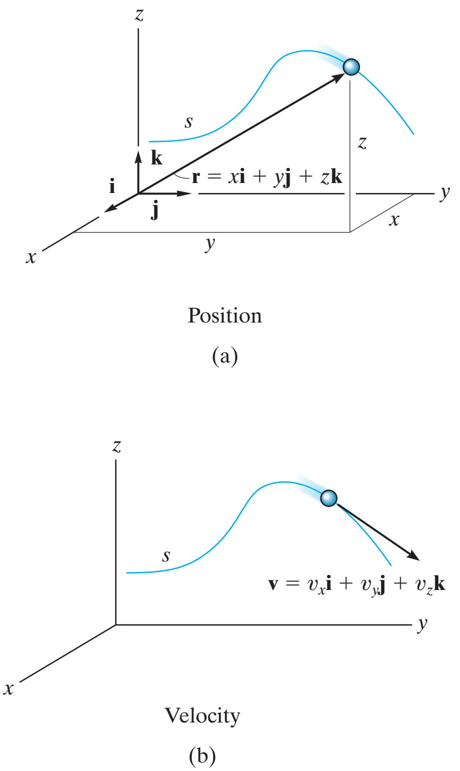


Fig. 12–17

The velocity has a *magnitude* that is found from

$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2}$$

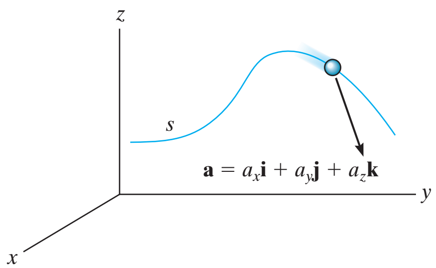
and a *direction* that is specified by the unit vector $\mathbf{u}_v = \mathbf{v}/v$. As discussed in Sec. 12.4, this direction is *always tangent to the path*, as shown in Fig. 12–17*b*.

Acceleration. The acceleration of the particle is obtained by taking the time derivative of Eq. 12–11 (or the second time derivative of Eq. 12–10). We have

$$\boxed{\mathbf{a} = \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = a_x\mathbf{i} + a_y\mathbf{j} + a_z\mathbf{k}} \qquad (12\text{–}13)$$

where

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} a_x &= \dot{v}_x = \ddot{x} \\ a_y &= \dot{v}_y = \ddot{y} \\ a_z &= \dot{v}_z = \ddot{z} \end{aligned}} \qquad (12\text{–}14)$$



Acceleration

(c)

Fig. 12–17

Here a_x, a_y, a_z represent the time derivatives of $v_x = v_x(t)$, $v_y = v_y(t)$, $v_z = v_z(t)$, or the second time derivatives of $x = x(t)$, $y = y(t)$, $z = z(t)$.

The acceleration has a *magnitude*

$$a = \sqrt{a_x^2 + a_y^2 + a_z^2}$$

and a *direction* specified by the unit vector $\mathbf{u}_a = \mathbf{a}/a$. Since $\mathbf{a}$ represents the time rate of *change* in both the magnitude and direction of the velocity, in general $\mathbf{a}$ will *not* be tangent to the path, Fig. 12–17*c*.

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IMPORTANT POINTS

- Curvilinear motion will generally cause changes in *both* the magnitude and direction of the particle's position, velocity, and acceleration.
- The velocity is always directed *tangent* to the path.
- In general, the acceleration is *not* tangent to the path, but rather, it is tangent to the hodograph.
- If the motion is described using rectangular coordinates, then the components along the x, y, z axes do not change direction, only their magnitude and sense (algebraic sign) will change.

PROCEDURE FOR ANALYSIS

Coordinate System.

- A rectangular coordinate system should be used to solve problems in cases where the motion can conveniently be expressed in terms of its x, y, z components.

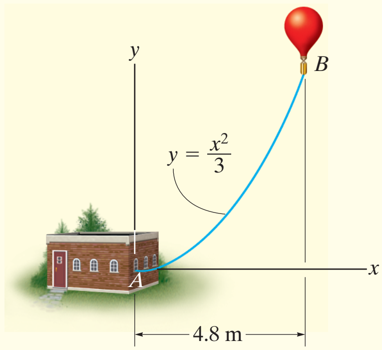
Kinematic Quantities.

- Since *rectilinear or straight-line motion* occurs along *each coordinate axis*, then $v = ds/dt$ and $a = dv/dt$; or in cases where the motion is not expressed as a function of time, the equation $a\,ds = v\,dv$ can be used.
- In two dimensions, the equation of the path $y = f(x)$ can be used to *relate* the x and y components of velocity and acceleration by applying the chain rule of calculus. A review of this concept is given in Appendix C.
- Once the x, y, z components of $\mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{a}$ have been determined, the magnitudes of these vectors are found from the Pythagorean theorem, Eq. B–3, and their coordinate direction angles from the components of their unit vectors, Eqs. B–4 and B–5.

Refer to the companion website for Lecture Summary and Quiz videos.

EXAMPLE 12.9

At any instant the horizontal position of the weather balloon in Fig. 12–18*a* is defined by $x = (2.4t)$ m, where t is in seconds. If the equation of the path is $y = x^2/3$, determine the magnitude and direction of the balloon's velocity and acceleration when $t = 2$ s.



(a)

SOLUTION

Velocity. The velocity component in the x direction is

$$v_x = \dot{x} = \frac{d}{dt}(2.4t) = 2.4 \text{ m/s} \rightarrow$$

To find the relationship between the velocity components we will use the chain rule of calculus. When $t = 2$ s, $x = 2.4(2) = 4.8$ m, Fig. 12–18*a*, and so

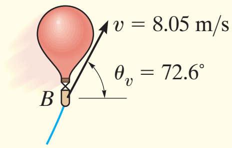
$$v_y = \dot{y} = \frac{d}{dt}(x^2/3) = 2x\dot{x}/3 = 2(4.8)(2.4)/3 = 7.68 \text{ m/s} \uparrow$$

When $t = 2$ s, the magnitude of velocity is therefore

$$v = \sqrt{(2.4 \text{ m/s})^2 + (7.68 \text{ m/s})^2} = 8.05 \text{ m/s} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

The velocity is tangent to the path, Fig. 12–18*b*, where

$$\theta_v = \tan^{-1}\frac{v_y}{v_x} = \tan^{-1}\frac{7.68}{2.4} = 72.6^\circ \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$



(b)

Acceleration. The relationship between the acceleration components is determined using the chain rule. (See Appendix C.) We have

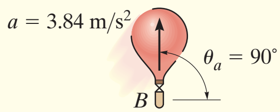
$$a_x = \dot{v}_x = \frac{d}{dt}(2.4) = 0$$

$$a_y = \dot{v}_y = \frac{d}{dt}(2x\dot{x}/3) = 2(\dot{x})\dot{x}/3 + 2x(\ddot{x})/3$$

$$= 2(2.4)^2/3 + 2(4.8)(0)/3 = 3.84 \text{ m/s}^2 \uparrow$$

Thus,

$$a = \sqrt{(0)^2 + (3.84)^2} = 3.84 \text{ m/s}^2 \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$



(c)

Fig. 12–18

The direction of **a**, as shown in Fig. 12–18*c*, is

$$\theta_a = \tan^{-1}\frac{3.84}{0} = 90^\circ \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

NOTE: It is also possible to obtain v_y and a_y by first expressing $y = f(t) = (2.4t)^2/3 = 1.92t^2$ and then taking successive time derivatives.

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EXAMPLE 12.10

For a short time, the path of the plane in Fig. 12–19*a* is described by $y = (0.001x^2)$ m. If the plane is rising with a constant upward velocity of 10 m/s, determine the magnitudes of the velocity and acceleration of the plane when it reaches an altitude of $y = 100$ m.

SOLUTION

When $y = 100$ m, then $100 = 0.001x^2$ or $x = 316.2$ m. Also, due to constant velocity $v_y = 10$ m/s, and so the time is

$$y = v_y t; \qquad 100\text{ m} = (10\text{ m/s})\,t \qquad t = 10\text{ s}$$

Velocity. Using the chain rule (see Appendix C, Eq. C–1) to find the relationship between the velocity components, we have

$$y = 0.001x^2$$

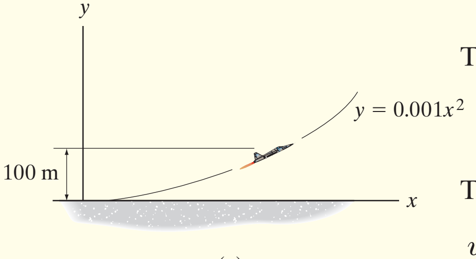
$$v_y = \dot{y} = \frac{dy}{dx}\dot{x} = \frac{d}{dt}(0.001x^2) = (0.002x)\dot{x} = 0.002xv_x \qquad (1)$$

Thus

$$10\text{ m/s} = 0.002(316.2\text{ m})(v_x)$$
$$v_x = 15.81\text{ m/s}$$

The magnitude of the velocity is therefore

$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2} = \sqrt{(15.81\text{ m/s})^2 + (10\text{ m/s})^2} = 18.7\text{ m/s} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$



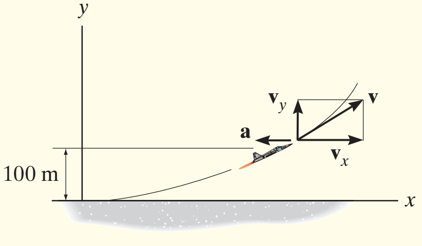
(a)

Acceleration. Using the chain rule, or Eq. C–2, the time derivative of Eq. 1 gives the relation between the acceleration components.

$$a_y = \dot{v}_y = (0.002\dot{x})\dot{x} + 0.002x(\ddot{x}) = 0.002(v_x^2 + xa_x)$$

When $x = 316.2$ m, $v_x = 15.81$ m/s, $\dot{v}_y = a_y = 0$, so that

$$0 = 0.002[(15.81\text{ m/s})^2 + 316.2\text{ m}(a_x)]$$
$$a_x = -0.791\text{ m/s}^2$$



(b)

Fig. 12–19

The magnitude of the plane's acceleration is therefore

$$a = \sqrt{a_x^2 + a_y^2} = \sqrt{(-0.791\text{ m/s}^2)^2 + (0\text{ m/s}^2)^2}$$
$$= 0.791\text{ m/s}^2 \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

Refer to the companion website for a self quiz of these Example problems.

These results are shown in Fig. 12–19*b*.

12.6 MOTION OF A PROJECTILE

Each picture in this sequence is taken after the same time period. In the horizontal direction the distance between the ball is the same because its velocity component is constant. The vertical distance between the ball is different because of the vertical deceleration-acceleration due to gravity.

It is convenient to analyze the free-flight motion of a projectile in terms of its rectangular components. To illustrate, consider a projectile launched at point (x_0, y_0), with an initial velocity of $\mathbf{v}_0$, having components $(\mathbf{v}_0)_x$ and $(\mathbf{v}_0)_y$, Fig. 12–20. When air resistance is neglected, the only force acting on the projectile is its weight, and this causes the projectile to have a *constant downward acceleration* of $a_c = g = 9.81 \text{ m/s}^2$.*

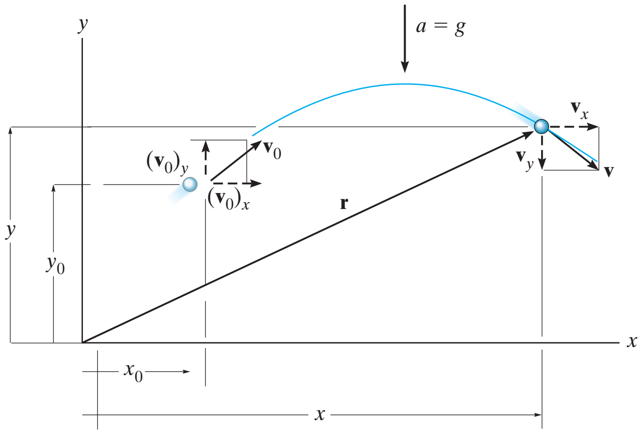


Fig. 12–20

Horizontal Motion.

Since $a_x = 0$, application of the constant acceleration equations, 12–4 to 12–6, yields

$$(\overset{+}{\rightarrow}) \qquad v = v_0 + a_c t; \qquad v_x = (v_0)_x$$

$$(\overset{+}{\rightarrow}) \qquad x = x_0 + v_0 t + \tfrac{1}{2}a_c t^2; \qquad x = x_0 + (v_0)_x t$$

$$(\overset{+}{\rightarrow}) \qquad v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a_c(x - x_0); \qquad v_x = (v_0)_x$$

The first and last equations simply indicate that *the horizontal component of velocity always remains constant during the motion*.

Vertical Motion.

Since $a_y = -g$, then applying Eqs. 12–4 to 12–6, we get

$$(+\uparrow) \qquad v = v_0 + a_c t; \qquad v_y = (v_0)_y - gt$$

$$(+\uparrow) \qquad y = y_0 + v_0 t + \tfrac{1}{2}a_c t^2; \qquad y = y_0 + (v_0)_y t - \tfrac{1}{2}gt^2$$

$$(+\uparrow) \qquad v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a_c(y - y_0); \qquad v_y^2 = (v_0)_y^2 - 2g(y - y_0)$$

Since the last equation can be formulated on the basis of eliminating the time t from the first two equations, then *only two of the above three equations are independent of one another*.

* This assumes that the earth's gravitational field does not vary with altitude.

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Once thrown, the basketball follows a parabolic trajectory.

To summarize, problems involving the motion of a projectile can have at most three unknowns since only three independent equations can be written; that is, *one* equation in the *horizontal direction* and *two* in the *vertical direction*. Once $\mathbf{v}_x$ and $\mathbf{v}_y$ are obtained, the resultant velocity $\mathbf{v}$, which is *always tangent* to the path, can be determined by the *vector sum* of $\mathbf{v}_x$ and $\mathbf{v}_y$, as shown in Fig. 12–20.

PROCEDURE FOR ANALYSIS

Coordinate System.

- Establish the *x, y* coordinate axes and sketch the trajectory of the particle. Between any *two points* on the path specify the given problem data and identify the *three unknowns*. In all cases the acceleration of gravity acts downward and equals 9.81 m/s^2. The particle's initial and final velocities should be represented in terms of their x and y components.
- Positive and negative position, velocity, and acceleration components always act in accordance with their associated coordinate directions.

Kinematic Equations.

- Depending upon the known data and what is to be determined, a choice should be made as to which three of the following four equations should be applied between the two points on the path to obtain the most direct solution to the problem.

Horizontal Motion.

- The *velocity* in the horizontal or x direction is *constant*, i.e., $v_x = (v_0)_x$, and

$$x = x_0 + (v_0)_x t$$

Vertical Motion.

- In the vertical or y direction *only two* of the following three equations can be used for the solution.

$$v_y = (v_0)_y + a_c t$$

$$y = y_0 + (v_0)_y t + \tfrac{1}{2} a_c t^2$$

$$v_y^2 = (v_0)_y^2 + 2a_c(y - y_0)$$

Refer to the companion website for Lecture Summary and Quiz videos.

EXAMPLE 12.11

A sack slides off the ramp, shown in Fig. 12–21, with a horizontal velocity of 12 m/s. If the height of the ramp is 6 m from the floor, determine the time needed for the sack to strike the floor and the range R where the sack strikes the ground.

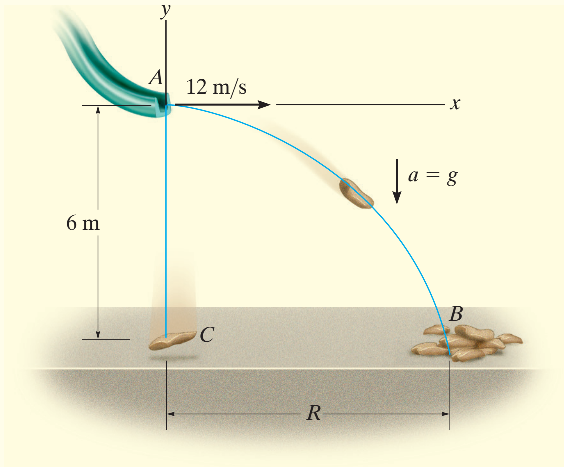

Fig. 12–21

SOLUTION

Coordinate System. The origin of coordinates is established at the beginning of the path, point A, Fig. 12–21. The initial velocity of the sack has components $(v_A)_x = 12\text{ m/s}$ and $(v_A)_y = 0$. Also, between points A and B the acceleration is $a_y = -9.81\text{ m/s}^2$. Since $(v_B)_x = (v_A)_x = 12\text{ m/s}$, the three unknowns are $(v_B)_y$, R, and the time of flight t_{AB}. Here we do not need to determine $(v_B)_y$.

Vertical Motion. The vertical distance from A to B is known, and therefore we can obtain a direct solution for t_{AB} by using the equation

$$(+\uparrow) \qquad y_B = y_A + (v_A)_y t_{AB} + \tfrac{1}{2} a_c t_{AB}^2$$

$$-6\text{ m} = 0 + 0 + \tfrac{1}{2}(-9.81\text{ m/s}^2)t_{AB}^2$$

$$t_{AB} = 1.11\text{ s} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

Horizontal Motion. Since t_{AB} has been calculated, R is determined as follows:

$$(\overset{+}{\rightarrow}) \qquad x_B = x_A + (v_A)_x t_{AB}$$

$$R = 0 + 12\text{ m/s}\,(1.11\text{ s})$$

$$R = 13.3\text{ m} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

NOTE: The calculation for t_{AB} also indicates that if the sack was released *from rest* at A, it would take the same amount of time to strike the floor at C, Fig. 12–21.

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EXAMPLE 12.12

The chipping machine is designed to eject wood chips at $v_O = 7.5 \text{ m/s}$ as shown in Fig. 12–22. If the tube is oriented at 30° from the horizontal, determine how high, h, the chips strike the pile if they land on the pile 6 m from the tube.

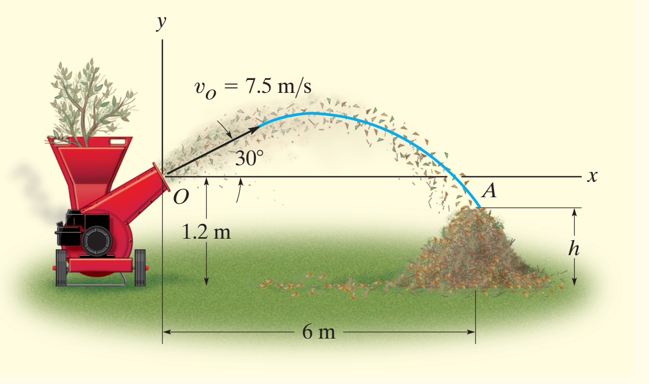


Fig. 12–22

SOLUTION

Coordinate System. The three unknowns are the height h, time of flight t_{OA}, and vertical component of velocity $(v_A)_y$. [Note that $(v_A)_x = (v_O)_x$.] With the origin of coordinates at O, Fig. 12–22, the initial velocity of a chip has components of

$$(v_O)_x = (7.5 \cos 30^\circ) \text{ m/s} = 6.495 \text{ m/s} \rightarrow$$

$$(v_O)_y = (7.5 \sin 30^\circ) \text{ m/s} = 3.75 \text{ m/s} \uparrow$$

Also, $(v_A)_x = (v_O)_x = 6.495 \text{ m/s}$ and $a_y = -9.81 \text{ m/s}^2$. Since we do not need to determine $(v_A)_y$, we have

Horizontal Motion.

$$(\overset{+}{\rightarrow}) \qquad x_A = x_O + (v_O)_x t_{OA}$$

$$6 \text{ m} = 0 + (6.495 \text{ m/s}) t_{OA}$$

$$t_{OA} = 0.9238 \text{ s}$$

Vertical Motion. Relating t_{OA} to the initial and final elevations of a chip, we have

$$(+\uparrow) \qquad y_A = y_O + (v_O)_y t_{OA} + \tfrac{1}{2} a_c t_{OA}^2$$

$$(h - 1.2 \text{ m}) = 0 + (3.75 \text{ m/s})(0.9238 \text{ s}) + \tfrac{1}{2}(-9.81 \text{ m/s}^2)(0.9238 \text{ s})^2$$

$$h = 0.479 \text{ m}$$ *Ans.*

EXAMPLE 12.13

The track for this racing event was designed so that riders jump off the slope at 30°, from a height of 1 m. During a race it was observed that the rider shown in Fig. 12–23*a* remained in mid air for 1.5 s. Determine the speed at which he was traveling off the ramp, the horizontal distance he travels before striking the ground, and the maximum height he attains. Neglect the size of the bike and rider.

(a)

SOLUTION

Coordinate System. As shown in Fig. 12–23*b*, the origin of the coordinates is established at A. Between the end points of the path AB the three unknowns are the initial speed v_A, range R, and the vertical component of velocity $(v_B)_y$.

Vertical Motion. Since the time of flight and the vertical distance between the ends of the path are known, we can determine v_A.

$(+\uparrow)$

$$y_B = y_A + (v_A)_y t_{AB} + \tfrac{1}{2} a_c t_{AB}^2$$

$$-1\text{ m} = 0 + v_A \sin 30°(1.5\text{ s}) + \tfrac{1}{2}(-9.81\text{ m/s}^2)(1.5\text{ s})^2$$

$$v_A = 13.38\text{ m/s} = 13.4\text{ m/s} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

Horizontal Motion. The range R can now be determined.

$(\overset{+}{\rightarrow})$

$$x_B = x_A + (v_A)_x t_{AB}$$

$$R = 0 + 13.38 \cos 30°\text{ m/s}(1.5\text{ s})$$

$$= 17.4\text{ m} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

In order to find the maximum height h we will consider the path AC, Fig. 12–23*b*. Here the three unknowns are the time of flight t_{AC}, the horizontal distance from A to C, and the height h. At the maximum height $(v_C)_y = 0$, and since v_A is known, we can determine h *directly* without considering t_{AC} using the following equation.

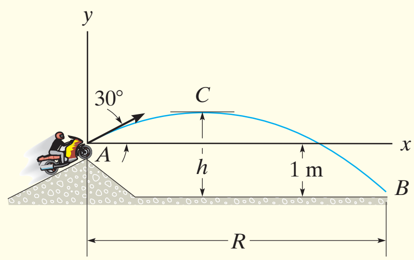
$$(v_C)_y^2 = (v_A)_y^2 + 2a_c[y_C - y_A]$$

$$0^2 = (13.38 \sin 30°\text{ m/s})^2 + 2(-9.81\text{ m/s}^2)[(h - 1\text{ m}) - 0]$$

$$h = 3.28\text{ m} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

NOTE: Show that the bike will strike the ground at B with a velocity having components of

$$(v_B)_x = 11.6\text{ m/s}\rightarrow, \quad (v_B)_y = 8.02\text{ m/s}\downarrow$$



(b)

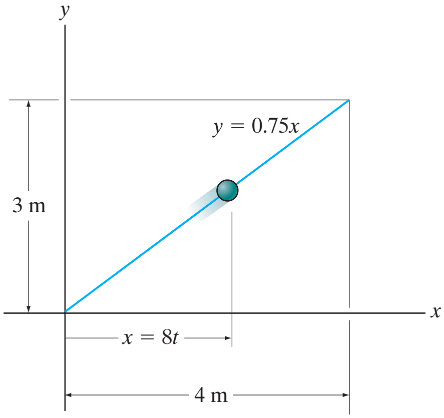
Fig. 12–23

Refer to the companion website for a self quiz of these Example problems.

FUNDAMENTAL PROBLEMS

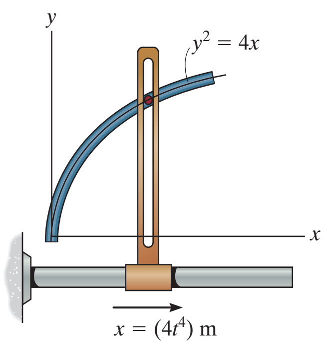
F12–15. If the x and y components of a particle's velocity are $v_x = (32t)$ m/s and $v_y = 8$ m/s, determine the equation of the path $y = f(x)$, if $x = 0$ and $y = 0$ when $t = 0$.

F12–16. A particle is traveling along the straight path. If its position along the x axis is $x = (8t)$ m, where t is in seconds, determine its speed when $t = 2$ s.



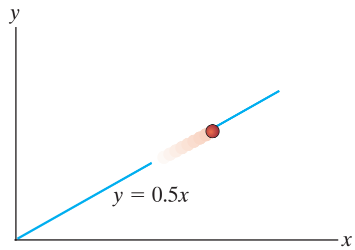
Prob. F12–16

F12–17. A particle is constrained to travel along the path. If $x = (4t^4)$ m, where t is in seconds, determine the magnitudes of the particle's velocity and acceleration when $t = 0.5$ s.



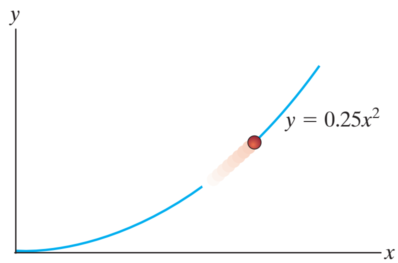
Prob. F12–17

F12–18. A particle travels along a straight-line path $y = 0.5x$. If the x component of the particle's velocity is $v_x = (2t^2)$ m/s, where t is in seconds, determine the magnitudes of the particle's velocity and acceleration when $t = 4$ s.



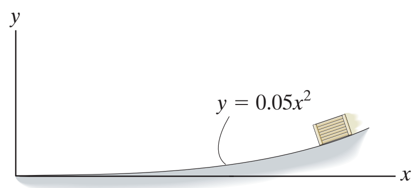
Prob. F12–18

F12–19. A particle is traveling along the parabolic path $y = 0.25x^2$. If $x = 8$ m, $v_x = 8$ m/s, and $a_x = 4$ m/s^2 when $t = 2$ s, determine the magnitudes of the particle's velocity and acceleration at this instant.



Prob. F12–19

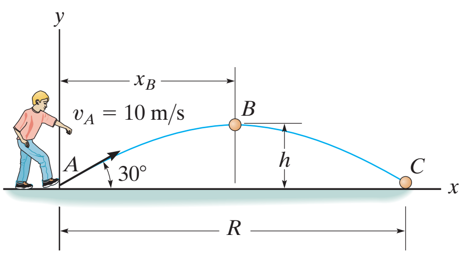
F12–20. The box slides down the path described by the equation $y = (0.05x^2)$ m, where x is in meters. If the box has x components of velocity and acceleration of $v_x = -3$ m/s and $a_x = -1.5$ m/s^2 at $x = 5$ m, determine the y components of the velocity and the acceleration of the box at this instant.



Prob. F12–20

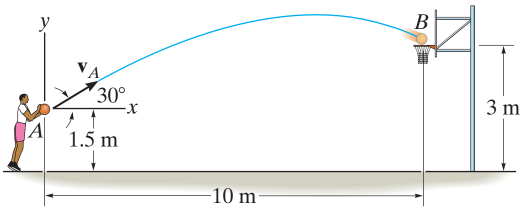
F12–21. The ball is kicked from point A with the initial velocity $v_A = 10\text{ m/s}$. Determine the maximum height h it reaches.

F12–22. The ball is kicked from point A with the initial velocity $v_A = 10\text{ m/s}$. Determine the range R, and the speed when the ball strikes the ground.



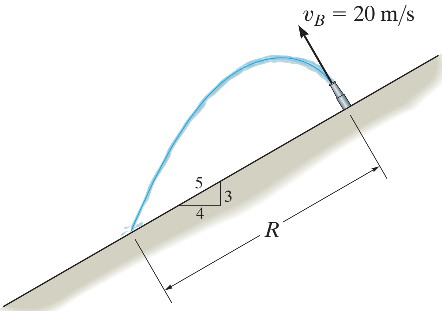
Probs. F12–21/22

F12–23. Determine the speed at which the basketball at A must be thrown at the angle of 30° so that it makes it to the basket at B.



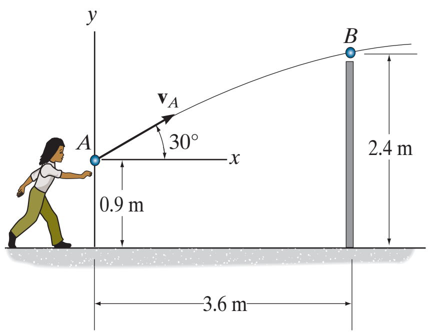
Prob. F12–23

F12–24. Water is sprayed at an angle of 90° from the slope at 20 m/s. Determine the range R.



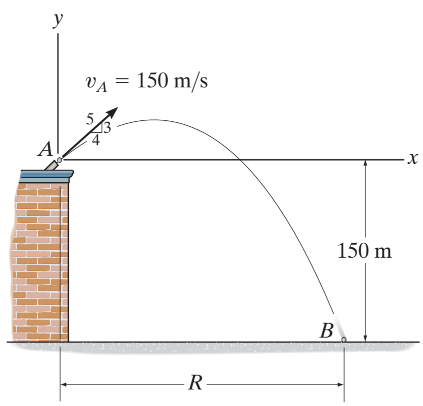
Prob. F12–24

F12–25. A ball is thrown from A. If it is required to clear the wall at B, determine the minimum magnitude of its initial velocity $\mathbf{v}_A$.



Prob. F12–25

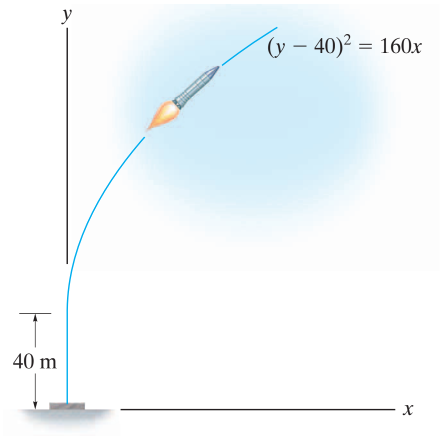
F12–26. A projectile is fired with an initial velocity of $v_A = 150\text{ m/s}$ off the roof of the building. Determine the range R where it strikes the ground at B.



Prob. F12–26

PROBLEMS

12–69. When a rocket reaches an altitude of 40 m it begins to travel along the parabolic path $(y - 40)^2 = 160x$, where the coordinates are measured in meters. If the component of velocity in the vertical direction is constant at $v_y = 180$ m/s, determine the magnitudes of the rocket's velocity and acceleration when it reaches an altitude of 80 m.



Prob. 12–69

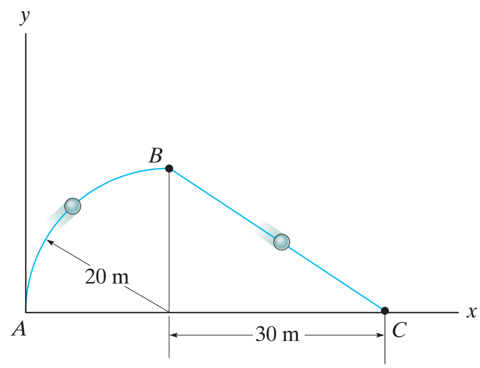
12–70. If the velocity of a particle is defined as $\mathbf{v}(t) = \{0.8t^2\mathbf{i} + 12t^{1/2}\mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}\}$ m/s, determine the magnitude and coordinate direction angles α, β, γ of the particle's acceleration when $t = 2$ s.

12–71. The velocity of a particle is $\mathbf{v} = \{3\mathbf{i} + (6 - 2t)\mathbf{j}\}$ m/s, where t is in seconds. If $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{0}$ when $t = 0$, determine the displacement of the particle during the time interval $t = 1$ s to $t = 3$ s.

***12–72.** A particle travels along the parabolic path $y = bx^2$. If its component of velocity along the y axis is $v_y = ct^2$, determine the x and y components of the particle's acceleration. Here b and c are constants.

12–73. A particle travels along the circular path $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$. If the y component of the particle's velocity is $v_y = 2r \cos 2t$, determine the x and y components of its acceleration at any instant.

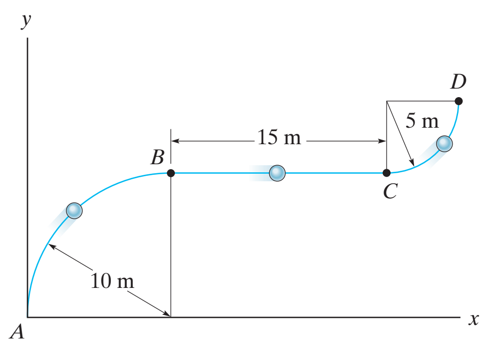
12–74. A particle travels along the curve from A to B in 5 s. It takes 8 s for it to go from B to C and then 10 s to go from C to A. Determine its average speed when it goes around the closed path.



Prob. 12–74

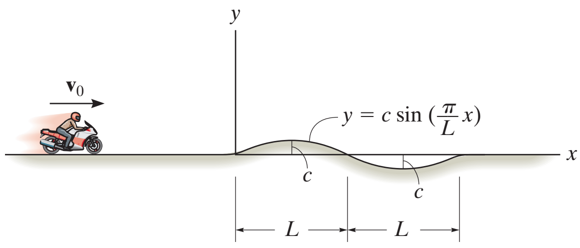
12–75. The velocity of a particle is given by $v = \{16t^2\mathbf{i} + 4t^3\mathbf{j} + (5t + 2)\mathbf{k}\}$ m/s, where t is in seconds. If the particle is at the origin when $t = 0$, determine the magnitude of the particle's acceleration when $t = 2$ s. Also, what is the x, y, z coordinate position of the particle at this instant?

***12–76.** A particle travels along the curve from A to B in 2 s. It takes 4 s for it to go from B to C and then 3 s to go from C to D. Determine its average speed when it goes from A to D.



Prob. 12–76

12–77. The motorcycle travels with constant speed v_0 along the path that, for a short distance, takes the form of a sine curve. Determine the x and y components of its velocity at any instant on the curve.

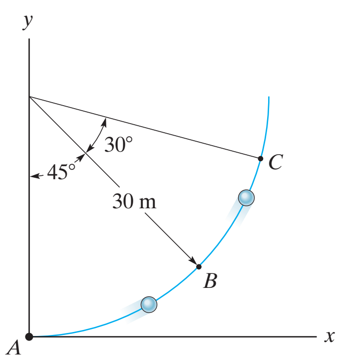


Prob. 12–77

12–78. Show that if a projectile is fired at an angle θ from the horizontal with an initial velocity $\mathbf{v}_0$, the *maximum* range the projectile can travel is given by $R_{max} = v_0^2/g$, where g is the acceleration of gravity. What is the angle θ for this condition?

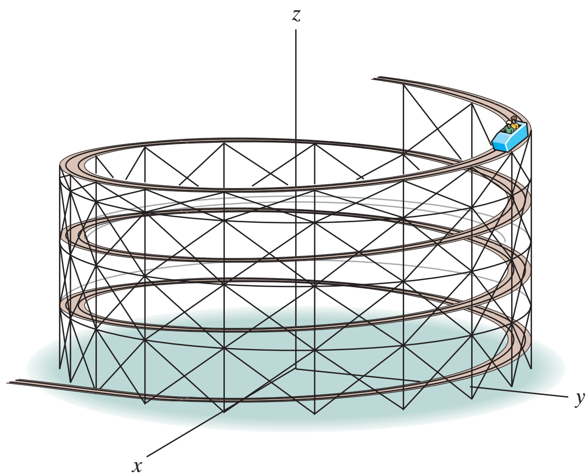
12–79. A rocket is fired from rest at $x = 0$ and travels along a parabolic trajectory described by $y^2 = [120(10^3)x]$ m. If the x component of acceleration is $a_x = (\frac{1}{4}t^2)$ m/s^2, where t is in seconds, determine the magnitudes of the rocket's velocity and acceleration when $t = 10$ s.

***12–80.** A particle travels along the curve from A to B in 1 s. If it takes 3 s for it to go from A to C, determine its *average velocity* when it goes from B to C.



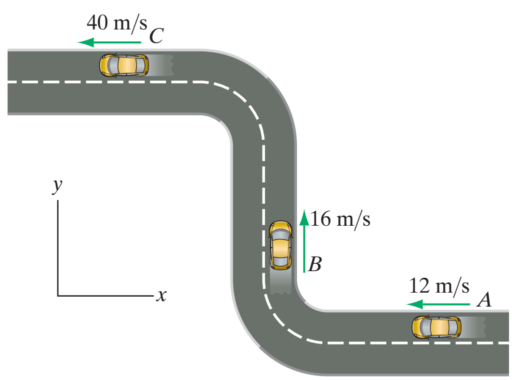
Prob. 12–80

12–81. The roller coaster car travels down the helical path at constant speed such that the parametric equations that define its position are $x = c \sin kt$, $y = c \cos kt$, $z = h - bt$, where c, h, and b are constants. Determine the magnitudes of its velocity and acceleration.



Prob. 12–81

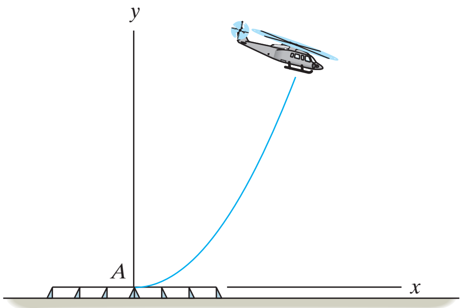
12–82. A car traveling along the road has the velocities indicated in the figure when it arrives at points A, B, and C. If it takes 10 s to go from A to B, and then 15 s to go from B to C, determine the average acceleration between points A and B and between points A and C.



Prob. 12–82

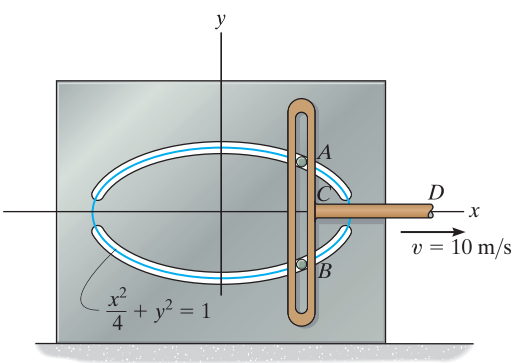
12

12–83. The flight path of the helicopter as it takes off from A is defined by the parametric equations $x = (2t^2)$ m and $y = (0.04t^3)$ m, where t is the time in seconds. Determine the distance the helicopter is from point A and the magnitudes of its velocity and acceleration when $t = 10$ s.



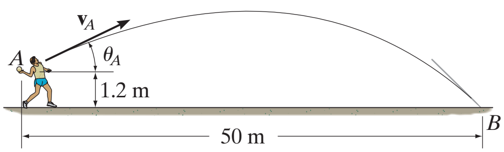
Prob. 12–83

***12–84.** Pegs A and B are restricted to move in the elliptical slots due to the motion of the slotted link. If the link moves with a constant speed of 10 m/s, determine the magnitudes of the velocity and acceleration of peg A when $x = 1$ m.



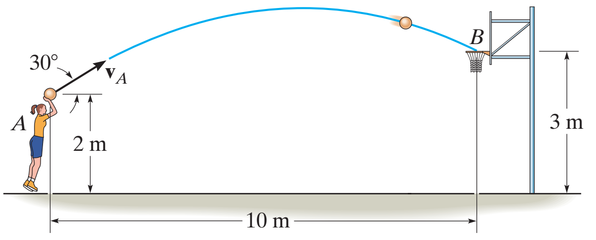
Prob. 12–84

12–85. It is observed that the time for the ball to strike the ground at B is 2.5 s. Determine the speed v_A and angle θ_A at which the ball was thrown.



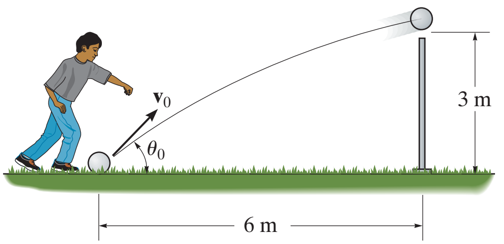
Prob. 12–85

12–86. Neglecting the size of the ball, determine the magnitude v_A of the basketball's initial velocity and its velocity when it passes through the basket.



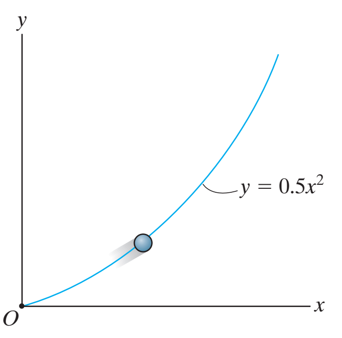
Prob. 12–86

12–87. Determine the minimum initial velocity v_0 and the corresponding angle θ_0 at which the ball must be kicked in order for it to just cross over the 3-m-high fence.



Prob. 12–87

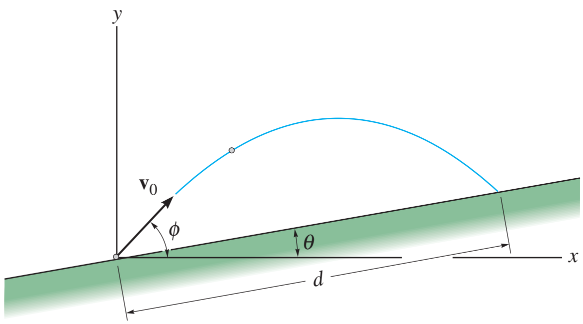
***12–88.** The particle travels along the path defined by the parabola $y = 0.5x^2$. If the component of velocity along the x axis is $v_x = (5t)$ m/s, where t is in seconds, determine the particle's distance from the origin O and the magnitude of its acceleration when $t = 1$ s. When $t = 0$, $x = 0$, $y = 0$.



Prob. 12–88

12–89. A projectile is given a velocity $\mathbf{v}_0$ at an angle ϕ above the horizontal. Determine the distance d to where it strikes the sloped ground. The acceleration due to gravity is g.

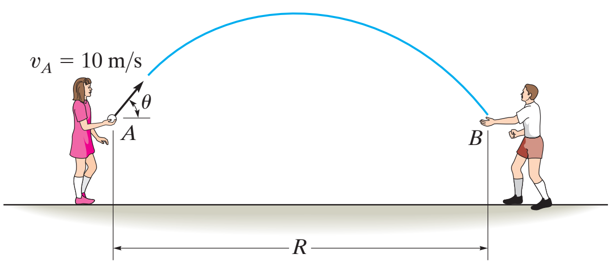
12–90. A projectile is given a velocity $\mathbf{v}_0$. Determine the angle ϕ at which it should be launched so that d is a maximum. The acceleration due to gravity is g.



Probs. 12–89/90

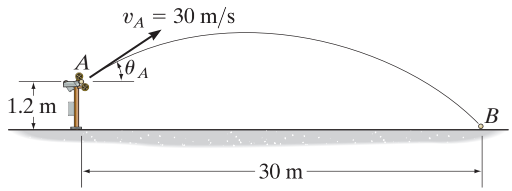
12–91. The girl at A can throw a ball at $v_A = 10$ m/s. Calculate the maximum possible range $R = R_{max}$ and the associated angle θ at which it should be thrown. Assume the ball is caught at B at the same elevation from which it is thrown.

***12–92.** Show that the girl at A can throw the ball to the boy at B by launching it at equal angles measured up or down from a 45° inclination. If $v_A = 10$ m/s, determine the range R if this value is 15°, i.e., $\theta_1 = 45° - 15° = 30°$ and $\theta_2 = 45° + 15° = 60°$. Assume the ball is caught at the same elevation from which it is thrown.



Probs. 12–91/92

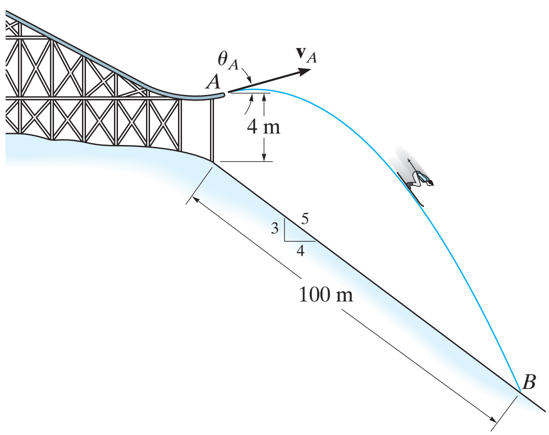
12–93. The pitching machine is adjusted so that the baseball is launched with a speed of $v_A = 30$ m/s. If the ball strikes the ground at B, determine the two possible angles θ_A at which it was launched.



Prob. 12–93

12–94. It is observed that the skier leaves the ramp A at an angle $\theta_A = 25°$ with the horizontal. If he strikes the ground at B, determine his initial speed v_A and the time of flight t_{AB}.

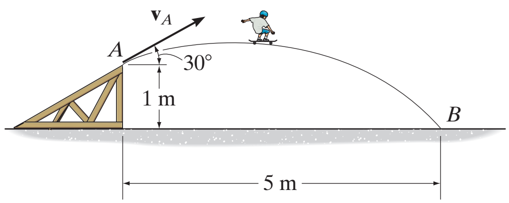
12–95. It is observed that the skier leaves the ramp A at an angle $\theta_A = 25°$ with the horizontal. If he strikes the ground at B, determine his initial speed v_A and the speed at which he strikes the ground.



Probs. 12–94/95

12

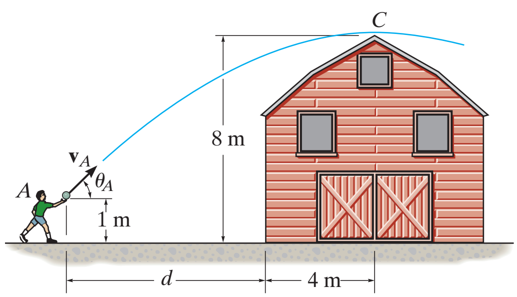
***12–96.** The skateboard rider leaves the ramp at A with an initial velocity v_A at a 30° angle. If he strikes the ground at B, determine v_A and the time of flight.



Prob. 12–96

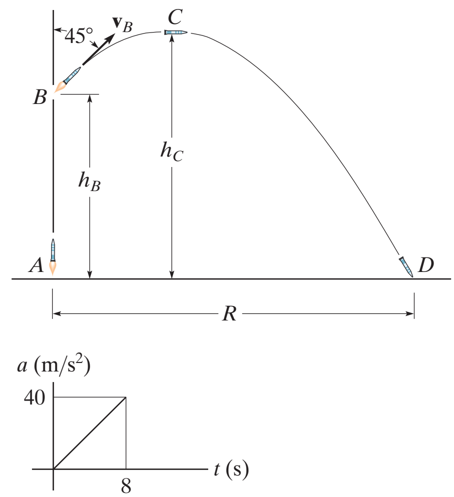
12–97. The boy at A attempts to throw a ball over the roof of a barn with an initial speed of $v_A = 15$ m/s. Determine the angle θ_A at which the ball must be thrown so that it reaches its maximum height at C. Also, find the distance d where the boy should stand to make the throw.

12–98. The boy at A attempts to throw a ball over the roof of a barn such that it is launched at an angle $\theta_A = 40°$. Determine the minimum speed v_A at which he must throw the ball so that it reaches its maximum height at C. Also, find the distance d where the boy must stand so that he can make the throw.



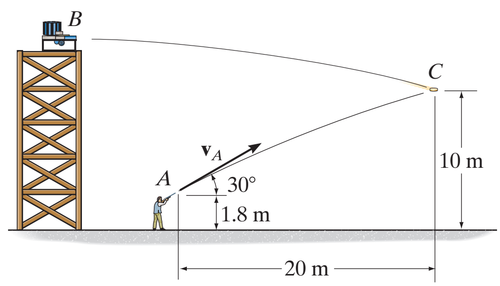
Probs. 12–97/98

12–99. The missile at A takes off from rest and rises vertically to B, where its fuel runs out in 8 s. If the acceleration varies with time as shown, determine the missile's height h_B and speed v_B. If by internal controls the missile is then suddenly pointed 45° as shown, and allowed to travel in free flight, determine the maximum height attained, h_C, and the range R to where it crashes at D.



Prob. 12–99

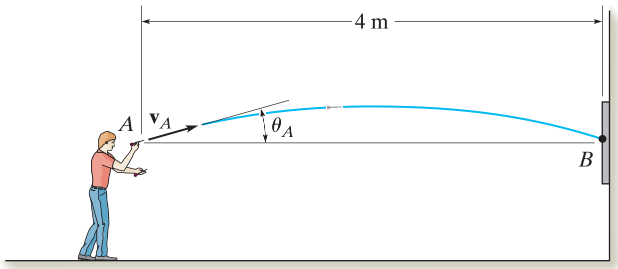
***12–100.** A projectile is fired from the platform at B. The shooter fires his gun from point A at an angle of 30°. Determine the muzzle speed of the bullet if it hits the projectile at C.



Prob. 12–100

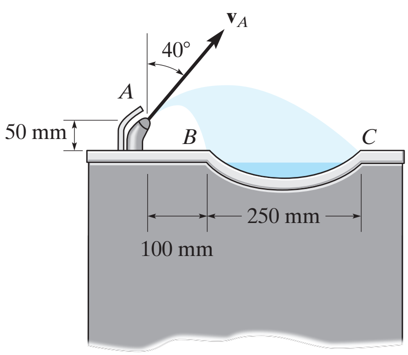
12–101. If the dart is thrown with a speed of 10 m/s, determine the shortest possible time before it strikes the target. Also, what is the corresponding angle θ_A at which it should be thrown, and what is the velocity of the dart when it strikes the target?

12–102. If the dart is thrown with a speed of 10 m/s, determine the longest possible time when it strikes the target. Also, what is the corresponding angle θ_A at which it should be thrown, and what is the velocity of the dart when it strikes the target?



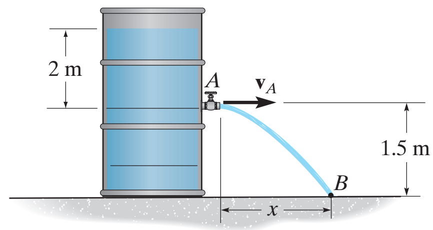
Probs. 12–101/102

12–103. The drinking fountain is designed such that the nozzle is located a distance away from the edge of the basin as shown. Determine the maximum and minimum speed at which water can be ejected from the nozzle so that it does not splash over the sides of the basin at B and C.



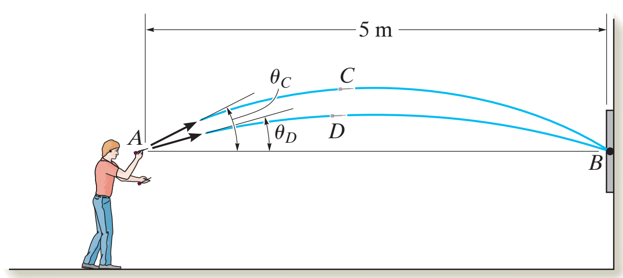
Prob. 12–103

***12–104.** The velocity of a water jet discharging from an orifice can be obtained from $v = \sqrt{2gh}$, where $h = 2$ m is the depth of the orifice from the free water surface. Determine the time for a particle of water leaving the orifice to reach a point B and the horizontal distance x where it hits the surface.



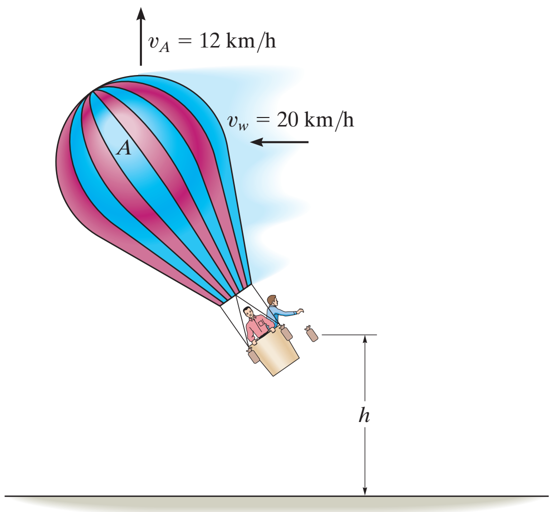
Prob. 12–104

12–105. The man at A wishes to throw two darts at the target at B so that they arrive at the *same time*. If each dart is thrown with a speed of 10 m/s, determine the angles θ_C and θ_D at which they should be thrown and the time between each throw. Note that the first dart must be thrown at θ_C $(>\theta_D)$, then the second dart is thrown at θ_D.



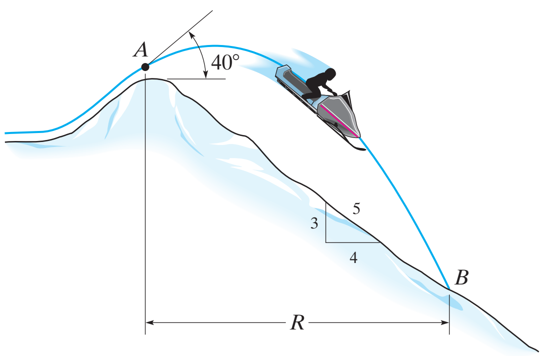
Prob. 12–105

12–106. The balloon A is ascending at the rate $v_A = 12$ km/h and is being carried horizontally by the wind at $v_w = 20$ km/h. If a ballast bag is dropped from the balloon at the instant $h = 50$ m, determine the time needed for it to strike the ground. Assume that the bag was released from the balloon with the same velocity as the balloon. Also, with what speed does the bag strike the ground?



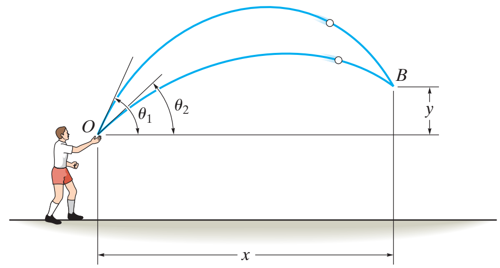
Prob. 12–106

12–107. The snowmobile is traveling at 10 m/s when it leaves the embankment at A. Determine the time of flight from A to B and the range R of the trajectory.



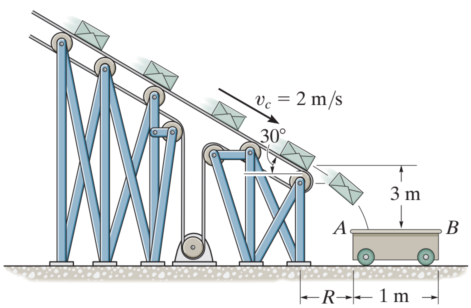
Prob. 12–107

***12–108.** A boy throws a ball at O in the air with a speed v_0 at an angle θ_1. If he then throws another ball with the same speed v_0 at an angle $\theta_2 < \theta_1$, determine the time between the throws so that the balls collide in midair at B.



Prob. 12–108

12–109. Small packages traveling on the conveyor belt fall off into a l-m-long loading car. If the conveyor is running at a constant speed of $v_C = 2$ m/s, determine the smallest and largest distance R at which the end A of the car may be placed from the conveyor so that the packages enter the car.



Prob. 12–109

12.7 CURVILINEAR MOTION: NORMAL AND TANGENTIAL COMPONENTS

When the path along which a particle travels is *known*, then it is often convenient to describe the motion using n and t axes that are normal and tangent to the path, respectively, and at the instant considered have their origin located at the particle.

Planar Motion. To establish these axes, consider the particle in Fig. 12–24*a*, which is at position s, measured from point O. The t axis is *tangent* to the curve at the particle and is positive in the direction of *increasing* s. We will designate this positive direction with the unit vector $\mathbf{u}_t$. A unique choice for the *normal axis* can be made by noting that geometrically the curve is constructed from a series of differential arc segments ds, Fig. 12–24*b*. Each segment ds is formed from the arc of an associated circle having a *radius of curvature* ρ (rho) and *center of curvature* O'. The normal axis n is perpendicular to the t axis and its positive direction is *towards* the center of curvature O', Fig. 12–24*a*. This direction, which is *always* on the concave side of the curve, will be designated by the unit vector $\mathbf{u}_n$. The plane which contains the n and t axes is referred to as the embracing or ***osculating plane***, and in this case it is fixed in the plane of motion.

Velocity. As indicated in Sec. 12.4, the particle's velocity $\mathbf{v}$ has a *direction* that is *always tangent to the path*, Fig. 12–24*c*, and a *magnitude* that is determined by taking the time derivative of the path function $s = s(t)$, i.e., $v = ds/dt$ (Eq. 12–8). Hence,

$$\boxed{\mathbf{v} = v\mathbf{u}_t} \qquad (12\text{–}15)$$

where

$$\boxed{v = \dot{s}} \qquad (12\text{–}16)$$

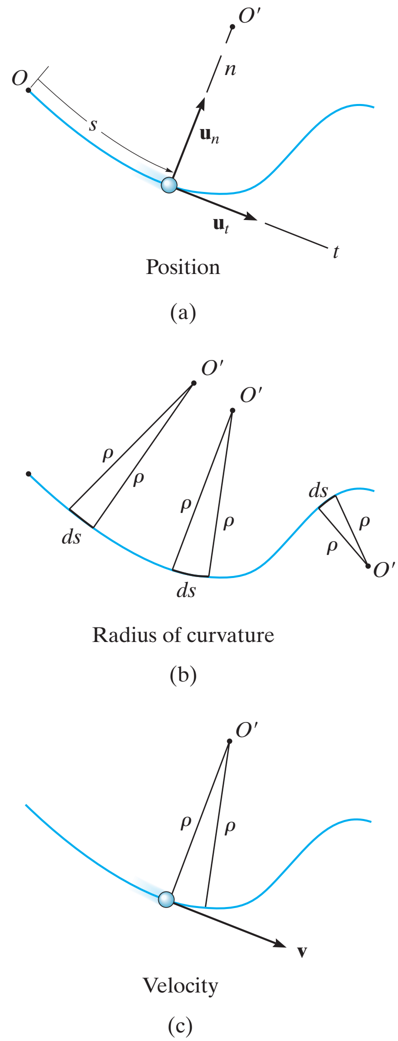
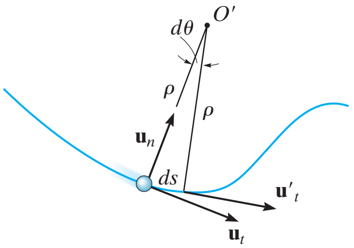


Fig. 12–24



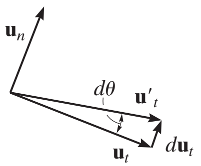
(d)

Acceleration. The acceleration of the particle is the time rate of change of the velocity. Therefore,

$$\mathbf{a} = \dot{\mathbf{v}} = \dot{v}\mathbf{u}_t + v\dot{\mathbf{u}}_t \tag{12–17}$$

To determine the time derivative $\dot{\mathbf{u}}_t$, note that as the particle moves along the arc ds in time dt, $\mathbf{u}_t$ preserves its magnitude of unity; however, its *direction* changes, and becomes $\mathbf{u}'_t$, Fig. 12–24*d*. As shown in Fig. 12–24*e*, we require $\mathbf{u}'_t = \mathbf{u}_t + d\mathbf{u}_t$, where $d\mathbf{u}_t$ acts between the arrowheads of $\mathbf{u}_t$ and $\mathbf{u}'_t$. Since $u_t = u'_t = 1$, then $d\mathbf{u}_t$ has a *magnitude* of $du_t = (1)\, d\theta$, and its *direction* is defined by $\mathbf{u}_n$. Consequently, $d\mathbf{u}_t = d\theta\mathbf{u}_n$, and therefore the time derivative becomes $\dot{\mathbf{u}}_t = \dot{\theta}\mathbf{u}_n$. Since $ds = \rho d\theta$, Fig. 12–24*d*, then $\dot{\theta} = \dot{s}/\rho$, and therefore

$$\dot{\mathbf{u}}_t = \dot{\theta}\mathbf{u}_n = \frac{\dot{s}}{\rho}\mathbf{u}_n = \frac{v}{\rho}\mathbf{u}_n$$



(e)

Substituting this into Eq. 12–17, $\mathbf{a}$ can be written as the sum of its two components,

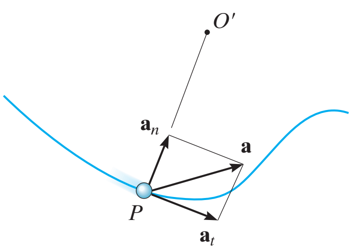
$$\boxed{\mathbf{a} = a_t\mathbf{u}_t + a_n\mathbf{u}_n} \tag{12–18}$$

where

$$\boxed{a_t = \dot{v}} \quad \text{or} \quad \boxed{a_t ds = v\, dv} \tag{12–19}$$

and

$$\boxed{a_n = \frac{v^2}{\rho}} \tag{12–20}$$



Acceleration

(f)

Fig. 12–24 (cont.)

These two mutually perpendicular components are shown in Fig. 12–24*f*. Therefore, the *magnitude* of acceleration is

$$a = \sqrt{a_t^2 + a_n^2} \tag{12–21}$$