Creating the Ultimate Flipped Classroom



Leadership program for the Brazil STHEM Consortium Harvard University Cambridge, 22 April 2016

Creating the Ultimate Flipped Classroom



eric_mazur

Leadership program for the Brazil STHEM Consortium Harvard University Cambridge, 22 April 2016



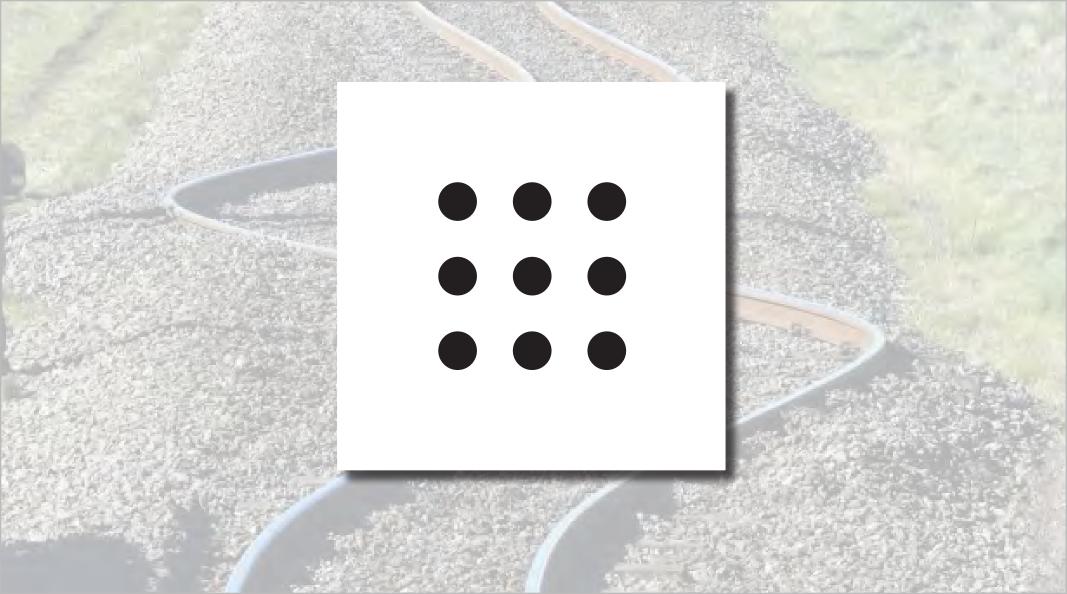


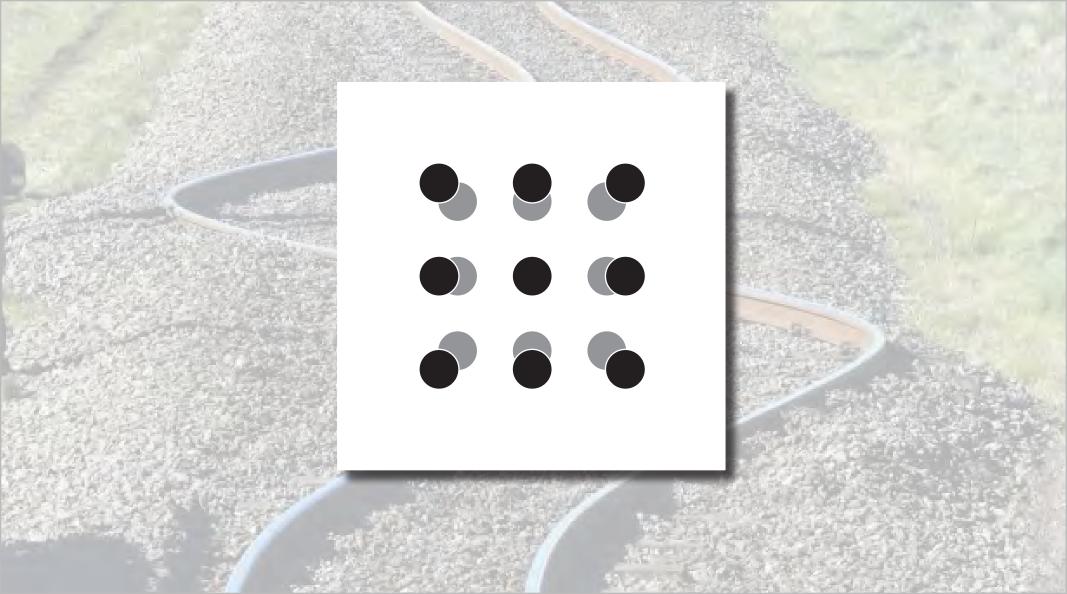






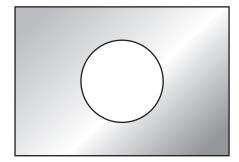
thermal expansion







Consider a rectangular metal plate with a circular hole in it.

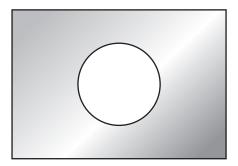


Consider a rectangular metal plate with a circular hole in it.

When the plate is uniformly heated, the diameter of the hole

1. increases.

- 2. stays the same.
- 3. decreases.



Consider a rectangular metal plate with a circular hole in it.

When the plate is uniformly hed, the diameter of the late at-

2. stays the same.

3. decreases.



You...

You...

1. made a commitment

You...

made a commitment
externalized your answer

You...

- 1. made a commitment
- 2. externalized your answer
- 3. moved from the answer/fact to reasoning

You...

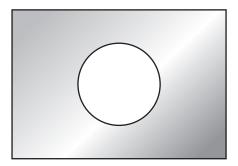
- 1. made a commitment
- 2. externalized your answer
- 3. moved from the answer/fact to reasoning
- 4. became emotionally invested in the learning process

Consider a rectangular metal plate with a circular hole in it.

When the plate is uniformly heated, the diameter of the hole

1. increases.

- 2. stays the same.
- 3. decreases.



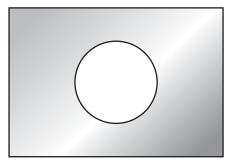
Consider a rectangular metal plate with a circular hole in it.

When the plate is uniformly heated, the diameter of the hole

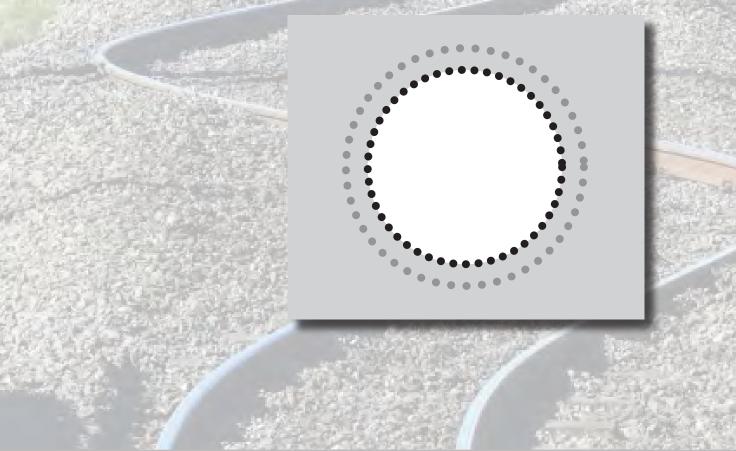
1. increases. V

2. stays the same.

3. decreases.









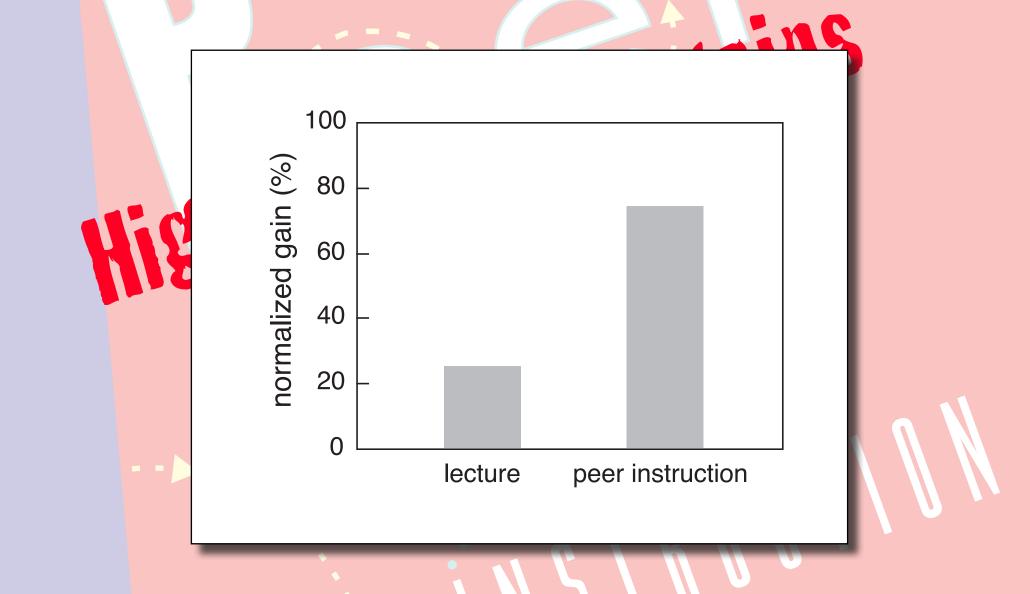


ttis









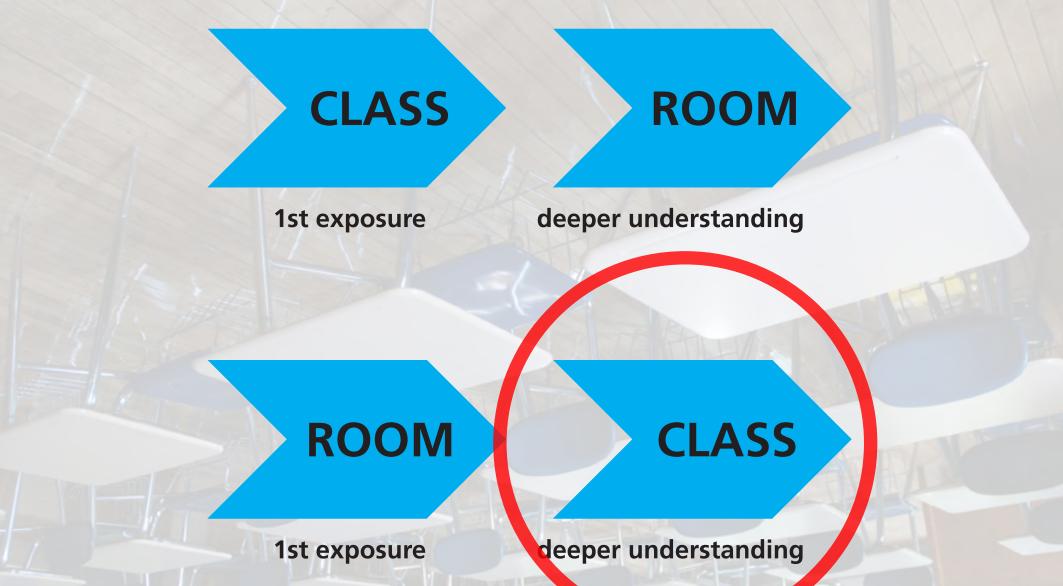


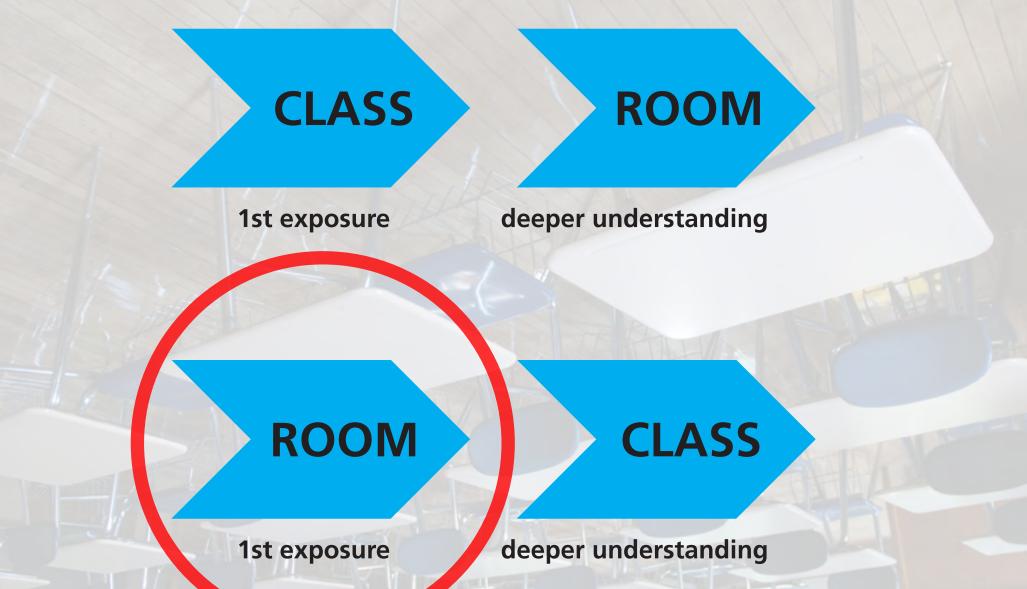




1st exposure

deeper understanding





how to effectively transfer information outside classroom?





transfer pace set by video

• viewer passive

viewing/attention tanks as time passes

• isolated/individual experience

we're simply moving this outside classroom!



transfer pace set by reader

• viewer active



isolated/individual experience & no real accountability

want:

every student prepared for every class

want:

every student prepared for every class

(without additional instructor effort)

Solution

turn out-of-class component also into a social interaction!

yield the same result.

our apparatus to be the same at a later time as at an earlier surements. The laws describing the phenomenon we are

every student prepared to the first the second of the first term of the second of the

Peri

shape of objects but also to the more a physics. If there are things we can do to an experiment that

SOLUTION I can rotate the snowflake by 60° or a multiple of 60° (125°, 180°, 240°, 300°, and 360°) in the plane of the planingraph. without changing its appearance (Figure 1.7a). It therefore has

the same when you open your eyes, and you can't tell that studying must therefore mathematically exhibit t it has been rotated. The triangle is said to have rotational under translation in time; in other words, the ma

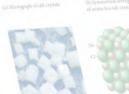


Figure 1.5 The symmetrical scrangement of atoma in a vals crystal gives these crystals their cubic shape.

1.2 SYMMETRY 5

••• • < > 🗉 🛛 🗶 🛪 🛈 💿 🗚 🖉 🔿 🔿

app.perusall.com

A

1.6

Perusall

binar demo » Mazur Chapter 4 Sample

76 CHAPTER 4 MOMENTUM

In the preceding two chapters, we developed a mathematical framework for describing motion along a straight line. In this chapter, we continue our study of motion by investigating inertia, a property of objects that affects their motion. The experiments we carry out in studying inertia lead us to discover one of the most fundamental laws in physics—conservation of momentum.

5

44

Figure 4.2 Low-friction track and carts used in the experiments described in this chapter.



4.1 Friction

Picture a block of the block as the product of the wooden surface, this stopping may happen sooner or it may happen later. If the two surfaces in contact are very smooth and slippery, the block slides for a longer time interval than if the surfaces are rough or sticky. This you know from every day experience: A hockey puck slides easily on ice but not on a rough road.

Figure 4.1 shows how the velocity of a wooden block decreases on three different surfaces. The slowing down is due to *friction*—the resistance to motion that one surface or object encounters when moving over another. Notice that, during the interval covered by the velocity-versus-time graph, the velocity decrease as the block slides over ice is hardly observable. The block slides easily over ice because there is very little friction between the two surfaces. The effect of friction is to bring two objects to rest with respect to each other—in this case the wooden block and the surface it is sliding on. The less friction there is, the longer it takes for the block to come to rest.

tionless surface over which objects slide forever, but there are ways to minimize friction. You can, for instance, float an object on a cushion of air. This is most easily accomplished with a low-friction track-a track whose surface is dotted with little holes through which pressurized air blows. The air serves as a cushion on which a conveniently shaped object can float, with friction between the object and the track all but eliminated. Alternatively, one can use wheeled carts with low-friction bearings on an ordinary track. Figure 4.2 shows low-friction carts you may have encountered in your lab or class. Although there is still some friction both for low-friction tracks and for the track shown in Figure 4.2, this friction is so small that it can be ignored during an experiment. For example, if the track in Figure 4.2 is horizontal, carts move along its length without slowing down appreciably. In other words:

••••<> 🗉 🔀 🛪 🛈 💷 🕰 🔍 🔘

app.perusall.com

Perusall

binar demo » Mazur Chapter 4 Sample

A

Page 2

Eric Mazur 👻

76 CHAPTER 4 MOMENT

In the preceding two chapters, we developed a mathematical framework for describing motion along a straight line. In this chapter, we continue our study of motion by investigating inertia, a property of objects that affects their motion. The experiments we carry out in studying inertia lead us to discover one of the most fundamental laws in physics—conservation of momentum.

Figure 4.2 Low-friction track and carts used in the experiments described in this chapter.



4.1 Friction logice in through social in through social in the twork distance is eventually comes to rest. Depending the a shore, continues to glide forever. There is no totally fric-

44

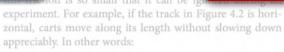
distance was eventually comes to rest. Depending comme smoothness of the block and the smoothness of the wooden surface, this stopping may happen sooner or it may happen later. If the two surfaces in contact are very smooth and slippery, the block slides for a longer time interval than if

ough or sticky. This you know fi hockey puck slides easily on

ws how the velocity of a wo e different surfaces. The slowi he resistance to motion that on when moving over another, val covered by the velocityty decrease as the block slides

hardly observable. The block slides easily over ice because there is very little friction between the two surfaces. The effect of friction is to bring two objects to rest with respect to each other—in this case the wooden block and the surface it is sliding on. The less friction there is, the longer it takes for the block to come to rest a shove, continues to glide forever. There is no totally frictionless surface over which objects slide forever, but there are ways to minimize friction. You can, for instance, float an object on a cushion of air. This is most easily accomplished with a low-friction track—a track whose surface is dotted

holes through which pressuriz s a cushion on which a conve at, with friction between the o inated. Alternatively, one can iction bearings on an ordinal friction carts you may have en s. Although there is still some n tracks and for the track sho uon is so small that it can be ig



••• < > 🗉 > K 🔅 🛈 💷 🗳 🖉 🔿

app.perusall.com

A

All comments +

14

Eric Mazur -

0

C

Page 2

Perusall

8

Webinar demo » Mazur Chapter 4 Sample

76 CHAPTER 4 MOMENTUM

In the preceding two chapters, we developed a mathematical framework for describing motion along a straight line. In this chapter, we continue our study of motion by investigating inertia, a property of objects that affects their motion. The experiments we carry out in studying inertia lead us to discover one of the most fundamental laws in physics—conservation of momentum.

5

4.1 Friction

Picture a block of wood sitting motionless on a smooth wooden surface. If you give the block a shove, it slides some distance but eventually comes to rest. Depending on the smoothness of the block and the smoothness of the wooden surface, this stopping may happen sooner or it may happen later. If the two surfaces in contact are very smooth and slippery, the block slides for a longer time interval than if the surfaces are rough or sticky. This you know from everyday experience: A hockey puck slides easily on ice but not on a rough road.

Figure 4.1 shows how the velocity of a wooden block decreases on three different surfaces. The slowing down is due to *friction*—the resistance to motion that one surface or object encounters when moving over another. Notice that, during the interval covered by the velocity-versus-time graph, the velocity decrease as the block slides over ice is hardly observable. The block slides easily over ice because there is very little friction between the two surfaces. The effect of friction is to bring two objects to rest with respect to each other—in this case the wooden block and the surface it is sliding on. The less friction there is, the longer it takes for the block to come to rest.

Figure 4.2 Low-friction track and carts used in the experiments described in this chapter.



You may wonder whether it is possible to make surfaces that have no friction at all, such that an object, once given a shove, continues to glide forever. There is no totally frictionless surface over which objects slide forever, but there are ways to minimize friction. You can, for instance, float an object on a cushion of air. This is most easily accomplished with a low-friction track-a track whose surface is dotted with little holes through which pressurized air blows. The air serves as a cushion on which a conveniently shaped object can float, with friction between the object and the track all but eliminated. Alternatively, one can use wheeled carts with low-friction bearings on an ordinary track. Figure 4.2 shows low-friction carts you may have encountered in your lab or class. Although there is still some friction both for low-friction tracks and for the track shown in Figure 4.2, this friction is so small that it can be ignored during an experiment. For example, if the track in Figure 4.2 is horizontal, carts move along its length without slowing down appreciably. In other words:

••• < > 🗉 🛛 🗶 🛪 🛈 💿 🗚 🔍 🔘

Perusall

app.perusall.com

<u> </u>

76 CHAPTER 4 MOMENTUM

In the preceding two chapters, we developed a mathematical framework for describing motion along a straight line. In this chapter, we continue our study of motion by investigating inertia, a property of objects that affects their motion. The experiments we carry out in studying inertia lead us to discover one of the most fundamental laws in physics—conservation of momentum.

4.1 Friction

Foture a block of wood sitting motionless on a smooth wooden surface. If you give the block a shove, it slides some distance but eventually comes to rest. Depending on the smoothness of the block and the smoothness of the wooden

see who is onl

the surfaces are rough or sticky. This you know from every day experience: A hockey puck slides easily on ice but no on a rough road.

Figure 4.1 shows how the velocity of a wooden block decreases on three different surfaces. The slowing down is due to *friction*—the resistance to motion that one surface or object encounters when moving over another. Notice that, during the interval covered by the velocity-versus-time graph, the velocity decrease as the block slides over ice is hardly observable. The block slides easily over ice because there is very little friction between the two surfaces. The effect of friction is to bring two objects to rest with respect to each other—in this case the wooden block and the surface it is sliding on. The less friction there is, the longer it takes for the block to come to rest.

Figure 4.2 Low-friction track and carts used in the experiments described in this chapter.



You may wonder whether it is possible to make surfaces that have no friction at all, such that an object, once given a shove, continues to glide forever. There is no totally frictionless surface over which objects slide forever, but there and the provide the surface over which objects slide forever, but there are provided to the surface over which objects slide forever, but there are provided to the surface over which objects slide forever, but there are provided to the surface over which objects and the surface is dotted with a low-friction track—a track whose surface is dotted with little holes through which pressurized air blows. The air serves as a cushion on which a conveniently shaped object can float, with friction between the object and the track all but eliminated. Alternatively, one can use wheeled carts with low-friction bearings on an ordinary track. Figure 4.2 shows low-friction carts you may have encountered in your lab or class. Although there is still some friction both for low-friction tracks and for the track shown in Figure 4.2, this friction is so small that it can be ignored during an experiment. For example, if the track in Figure 4.2 is horizontal, carts move along its length without slowing down appreciably. In other words:

In the preceding two chapters, we developed a mathematical framework for describing motion along a straight line. In this chapter, we continue our study of motion by investigating inertia, a property of objects that affects their motion. The experiments we carry out in studying inertia lead us to discover one of the most fundamental laws in physics—conservation of momentum.

4.1 Friction

Picture a block of wood sitting motionless on a smooth wooden surface. If you give the block a shove, it slides some distance but eventually comes to rest. Depending on the smoothness of the block and the smoothness of the wooden surface, this stopping may happen sooner or it may happen later. If the two surfaces in contact are very smooth and slippery, the block slides for a longer time interval than if the surfaces are rough or sticky. This you know from everyday experience: A hockey puck slides easily on ice but not on a rough road.

Figure 4.1 shows how the velocity of a wooden block decreases on three different surfaces. The slowing down is due to *friction*—the resistance to motion that one surface or object encounters when moving over another. Notice that, during the interval covered by the velocity-versus-time graph, the velocity decrease as the block slides over ice is hardly observable. The block slides easily over ice because there is very little friction between the two surfaces. The effect of friction is to bring two objects to rest with respect to each other—in this case the wooden block and the surface it is sliding on. The less friction there is, the longer it takes for the block to come to rest.

Figure 4.1 Velocity-versus-time graph for a wooden block sliding on three different surfaces. The rougher the surface, the more quickly the velocity decreases.



Figure 4.2 Low-friction track and carts used in the experiments described in this chapter. 0



You may wonder whether it is possible to make surfaces that have no friction at all, such that an object, once given a shove, continues to glide forever. There is no totally frictionless surface over which objects slide forever, but there are ways to minimize friction. You can, for instance, float an object on a cushion of air. This is most easily accomplished with a low-friction track-a track whose surface is dotted with little holes through which pressurized air blows. The air serves as a cushion on which a conveniently shaped object can float, with friction between the object and the track all but eliminated. Alternatively, one can use wheeled carts with low-friction bearings on an ordinary track. Figure 4.2 shows low-friction carts you may have encountered in your lab or class. Although there is still some friction both for low-friction tracks and for the track shown in Figure 4.2, this friction is so small that it can be ignored during an experiment. For example, if the track in Figure 4.2 is horizontal, carts move along its length without slowing down appreciably. In other words:

In the absence of friction, objects moving along a horizontal track keep moving without slowing down.

Another advantage of using such carts is that the track constrains the motion to being along a straight line. We can then use a high-speed camera to record the cart's position at various instants, and from that information determine its speed and acceleration.

4.1 (a) Are the accelerations of the motions shown in Figure 4.1 constant? (b) For which surface is the acceleration largest in magnitude?

In the preceding two chapters, we developed a mathematical framework for describing motion along a straight line. In this chapter, we continue our study of motion by investigating inertia, a property of objects that affects their motion. The experiments we carry out in studying inertia lead us to discover one of the most fundamental laws in physics-conservation of momentum.

4.1 Friction

Picture a block of wood sitting motionless on a smooth wooden surface. If you give the block a shove, it slides some distance but eventually comes to rest. Depending on the smoothness of the block and the smoothness of the wooden surface, this stopping may happen sooner or it may happen later. If the two surfaces in contact are very smooth and slippery, the block slides for a longer time interval than if the surfaces are rough or sticky. This you know from everyday experience: A hockey puck slides easily on ice but not on a rough road.

Figure 4.1 shows how the velocity of a wooden block decreases on due to frictio object encou during the

graph, the velocity decrease as the block slides over ice is hardly observable. The block slides easily over ice because there is very little friction between the two surfaces. The effect of friction is to bring two objects to rest with respect to each other-in this case the wooden block and the surface it is sliding on. The less friction there is, the longer it takes for the block to come to rest.

Figure 4.1 Velocity-versus-time graph for a wooden block sliding on three different surfaces. The rougher the surface, the more quickly the velocity decreases.



Figure 4.2 Low-friction track and carts used in the experiments described in this chapter.



You may wonder whether it is possible to make surfaces that have no friction at all, such that an object, once given a shove, continues to glide forever. There is no totally frictionless surfa & over which objects slide forever, but there are ways to minimize friction. You can, for instance, float an object on cushion of air. This is most easily accomplished with a lew-friction track-a track whose surface is dotted with li de holes through which pressurized air blows. The air serves as a cushion on which a conveniently shaped object can float, with friction between the object and the track all but eliminated. Alternatively, one can use wheeled carts highlighting text.

re 4.2 your th for 0

menon marks and for the mark shown in righte 4.2, this friction is so small that it can be ignored during an experiment. For example, if the track in Figure 4.2 is horizontal, carts move along its length without slowing down appreciably. In other words:

In the absence of friction, objects moving along a horizontal track keep moving without slowing down.

Another advantage of using such carts is that the track constrains the motion to being along a straight line. We can then use a high-speed camera to record the cart's position at various instants, and from that information determine its speed and acceleration.

4.1 (a) Are the accelerations of the motions shown in Figure 4.1 constant? (b) For which surface is the acceleration Sabuting magnitude?



...opens chat window

In the absence of friction, objects moving along a

4.1 (a) Are the accelerations of the motions shown in

4.1 Friction

due to friction-the resistance to motion that one surface or object encounters when moving over another. Notice hat, during the interval covered by the velocity-verse-time graph, the velocity decrease as the block slides over ice is hardly observable. The block slides easily over ice because there is very little friction between the type surfaces. The effect of friction is to bring two objects to rest with respect to each other-in this case the wood in block and the surface it is sliding on. The less friction there is, the longer it

raph for a wooden block sliding on gher the surface, the more quickly the





In the preceding two chapters, we developed a mathematical framework for describing motion along a straight line. In this chapter, we continue our study of motion by investigating inertia, a property of objects that affects their motion. The experiments we carry out in studying inertia lead us to discover one of the most fundamental laws in physics—conservation of momentum.

4.1 Friction

Picture a block of wood sitting motionless on a smooth wooden surface. If you give the block a shove, it slides some distance but eventually comes to rest. Depending on the smoothness of the block and the smoothness of the wooden surface, this stopping may happen sooner or it may happen later. If the two surfaces in contact are very smooth and slippery, the block slides for a longer time interval than if the surfaces are rough or sticky. This you know from everyday experience: A hockey puck slides easily on ice but not on a rough road.

Figure 4.1 shows how the velocity of a wooden block decreases on three different surfaces. The slowing down is due to *friction*—the resistance to motion that one surface or object encounters when moving over another. Notice that, during the interval covered by the velocity-versus-time graph, the velocity decrease as the block slides over ice is hardly observable. The block slides easily over ice because there is very little friction between the two surfaces. The effect of friction is to bring two objects to rest with respect to each other—in this case the wooden block and the surface it is sliding on. The less friction there is, the longer it takes for the block to come to rest.

Figure 4.1 Velocity-versus-time graph for a wooden block sliding on three different surfaces. The rougher the surface, the more quickly the velocity decreases.

Enter your comment or question and press Enter

Figure 4.2 Low-friction track and carts used in the experiments described in this chapter.

0



You may wonder whether it is possible to make surfaces that have no friction at all, such that an object, once given a shove, continues to glide forever. There is no totally frictionless surface over which objects slide forever, but there are ways to minimize friction. You can, for instance, float an object on a cushion of air. This is most easily accomplished with a low-friction track-a track whose surface is dotted with little holes through which pressurized air blows. The air serves as a cushion on which a conveniently shaped object can float, with friction between the object and the track all but eliminated. Alternatively, one can use wheeled carts with low-friction bearings on an ordinary track. Figure 4.2 shows low-friction carts you may have encountered in your lab or class. Although there is still some friction both for low-friction tracks and for the track shown in Figure 4.2, this friction is so small that it can be ignored during an experiment. For example, if the track in Figure 4.2 is horizontal, carts move along its length without slowing down appreciably. In other words:

In the absence of friction, objects moving along a horizontal track keep moving without slowing down.

Another advantage of using such carts is that the track constrains the motion to being along a straight line. We can then use a high-speed camera to record the cart's position at various instants, and from that information determine its speed and acceleration.

4.1 (a) Are the accelerations of the motions shown in Figure 4.1 constant? (b) For which surface is the acceleration largest in magnitude?

In the preceding two chapters, we developed a mathematical framework for describing motion along a straight line. In this chapter, we continue our study of motion by investigating inertia, a property of objects that affects their motion. The experiments we carry out in studying inertia lead us to discover one of the most fundamental laws in physics—conservation of momentum.

4.1 Friction

Picture a block of wood sitting motionless on a smooth wooden surface. If you give the block a shove, it slides some distance but eventually comes to rest. Depending on the smoothness of the block and the smoothness of the wooden surface, this stopping may happen sooner or it may happen later. If the two surfaces in contact are very smooth and slippery, the block slides for a longer time interval than if the surfaces are rough or sticky. This you know from everyday experience: A hockey puck slides easily on ice but not on a rough road.

Figure 4.1 shows how the velocity of a wooden block decreases on three different surfaces. The slowing down is due to *friction*—the resistance to motion that one surface or object encounters when moving over another. Notice that, during the interval covered by the velocity-versus-time graph, the velocity decrease as the block slides over ice is hardly observable. The block slides easily over ice because there is very little friction between the two surfaces. The effect of friction is to bring two objects to rest with respect to each other—in this case the wooden block and the surface it is sliding on. The less friction there is, the longer it takes for the block to come to rest.

Figure 4.1 Velocity-versus-time graph for a wooden block sliding on three different surfaces. The rougher the surface, the more quickly the velocity decreases.

No friction at all seems impossible. Isn't there always some friction in any real case.

Figure 4.2 Low-friction track and carts used in the experiments described in this chapter.

0



You may wonder whether it is possible to make surfaces that have no friction at all, such that an object, once given a shove, continues to glide forever. There is no totally frictionless surface over which objects slide forever, but there are ways to minimize friction. You can, for instance, float an object on a cushion of air. This is most easily accomplished with a low-friction track-a track whose surface is dotted with little holes through which pressurized air blows. The air serves as a cushion on which a conveniently shaped object can float, with friction between the object and the track all but eliminated. Alternatively, one can use wheeled carts with low-friction bearings on an ordinary track. Figure 4.2 shows low-friction carts you may have encountered in your lab or class. Although there is still some friction both for low-friction tracks and for the track shown in Figure 4.2, this friction is so small that it can be ignored during an experiment. For example, if the track in Figure 4.2 is horizontal, carts move along its length without slowing down appreciably. In other words:

In the absence of friction, objects moving along a horizontal track keep moving without slowing down.

Another advantage of using such carts is that the track constrains the motion to being along a straight line. We can then use a high-speed camera to record the cart's position at various instants, and from that information determine its speed and acceleration.

4.1 (a) Are the accelerations of the motions shown in Figure 4.1 constant? (b) For which surface is the acceleration largest in magnitude?

🔸 🖉 🐨 🕺 🐨 🗶 🗶 🐨 🖉 🔍 🔿

app.perusall.com

1

C

Page 284 \$

Å Ø +

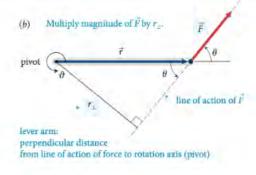
Eric Mazur +

0

-

Perusall

AP50 Fall 2015 » Chapter 12 🌖 Q 🕂 Group 1's comments -



action of the force and the axis of rotation. So, the torque caused by a force exerted on an object is the product of the magnitude of the force and its lever arm distance. It can be written equivalently as rF_{\perp} and as $r_{\perp}F$.

Like other rotational quantities, torque carries a sign that depends on the choice of direction for increasing ϑ . In Figure 12.4, for example, the torque caused by \vec{F}_1 about the pivot tends to rotate the rod in the direction of increasing ϑ and so is positive; the torque caused by \vec{F}_2 is negative. The sum of the two torques about the pivot is then $r_1F_1 + (-r_2F_2)$. As we've seen, the two torques are equal in magnitude when the rod is balanced, and so the sum of the torques is zero. When the sum of the torques is not zero, the rod's rotational acceleration is nonzero, and so its rotational velocity and angular momentum change.

In the situations depicted in Figures 12.4 and 12.5 we used the pivot to calculate the lever arm distances. This is a natural choice because that is the point about which the object under consideration is free to rotate. However, torques also play a role for stationary objects that are suspended or supported at several different points and that are not free reference point

Ē, ↓

The lever arm distances must now be determined relative to the left end of the rod. The lever arm distance of force \vec{F}_1 to this point is zero, and so the torque caused by that force about the left end of the rod is zero. If I choose counterclockwise as the positive direction of rotation, \vec{F}_2 causes a negative torque about the left end of the rod; the force \vec{F}_{pr}^c exerted by the pivot causes a positive torque about the left end of the rod. The lever arm distance of \vec{F}_2 about the left end of the rod is $r_1 + r_2$; that of \vec{F}_{pr}^c is r_1 . Because the rod is at rest, the magnitude of the force exerted by the pivot is equal to the sum of the forces \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_2 . Taking into account the signs of the torques, we find that the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod is $r_1(F_1 + F_2) - (r_1 + r_2)F_2 = r_1F_1 - r_2F_2$. This is the same result we obtained for the torques about the pivot, and so the sum of the torques about the left end is zero. \mathbf{w}'

Exercise 12.1 shows that the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod is zero, just like the sum of the torques about the pivot. You can repeat the calculation for the torques about the right end of the rod or any other point, and each time you will find that the sum of the torques is zero. The reason is that the rod is not rotating about any point, and so the sum of the torques must be zero about any point. In general we can say:

For a stationary object, the sum of the torques is zero.

For a stationary object we can choose any reference point we like to calculate torques. It pays to choose a reference point that simplifies the calculation. As you have seen, we do not need to consider any force that is exerted at the reference point. So, by putting the reference point at the point of application of a force, we can eliminate that force from the calculation.

0 122

10.0 In the situation desisted in Eleven 10.1a unit must

•• < > 🗆 🗙 🛪 🛈 🐵 📲 🛡 🔿

app.perusall.com

C

Page 284 \$

ů ů +

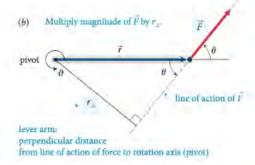
Eric Mazur +

Q

-

Perusall

AP50 Fall 2015 - Chapter 12 🍏 Q 🕂 Group 1's comments -



action of the force and the axis of rotation. So, the torque caused by a force exerted on an object is the product of the magnitude of the force and its lever arm distance. It can be

I don't understand how this combination of Oct 20 12:09 am % factors tells you anything about direction? Aren't magnitude and lever arm distance both scalar quantities? It seems like we would need to know some sort of direction to calculate torque.

I think you may be able to think about the Oct 20 12:38 am direction separately. So, after multiplying this magnitude and distance, you can attach a sign to the torque based on the defined parameters of the system. In the following paragraph, they start to explain how to choose this direction.

This is a great question. To further elaborate on Oct 22 8/48 pm this, we can think of this in terms of the Torque equation. The equation for torque is $\tau = r X F$, with r being the level arm distance and F being force. We know that force is a vector vector from previous reterence point

Ē

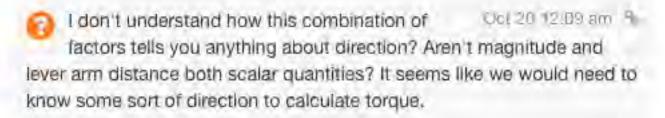
The lever arm distances must now be determined relative to the left end of the rod. The lever arm distance of force \vec{F}_1 to this point is zero, and so the torque caused by that force about the left end of the rod is zero. If I choose counterclockwise as the positive direction of rotation, \vec{F}_2 causes a negative torque about the left end of the rod; the force \vec{F}_{pr}^{e} exerted by the pivot causes a positive torque about the left end of the rod. The lever arm distance of \vec{F}_2 about the left end of the rod is $r_1 + r_2$; that of \vec{F}_{pr}^{e} is r_1 . Because the rod is at rest, the magnitude of the force exerted by the pivot is equal to the sum of the forces \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_2 . Taking into account the signs of the torques, we find that the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod is $r_1(F_1 + F_2) - (r_1 + r_2)F_2 = r_1F_1 - r_2F_2$. This is the same result we obtained for the torques about the pivot, and so the sum of the torques about the left end is zero. \mathscr{A}

Exercise 12.1 shows that the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod is zero, just like the sum of the torques about the pivot. You can repeat the calculation for the torques about the right end of the rod or any other point, and each time you will find that the sum of the torques is zero. The reason is that the rod is not rotating about any point, and so the sum of the torques must be zero about any point. In general we can say:

For a stationary object, the sum of the torques is zero.

For a stationary object we can choose any reference point we like to calculate torques. It pays to choose a reference point that simplifies the calculation. As you have seen, we do not need to consider any force that is exerted at the reference point. So, by putting the reference point at the point of application of a force, we can eliminate that force from the calculation.

12.2 In the situation desisted in Figure 12.2s upp much



I think you may be able to think about the Oct 20 12:38 am direction separately. So, after multiplying this magnitude and distance, you can attach a sign to the torque based on the defined parameters of the system. In the following paragraph, they start to explain how to choose this direction.

I don't factors ver arm d now some

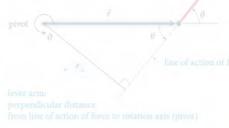
Perusal

directic distance, yo parameters explain how

This is this, w equation fo This is a great question. To further elaborate on Qct 22.8:48 pm this, we can think of this in terms of the Torque equation. The equation for torque is $\tau = r X F$, with r being the level arm distance and F being force. We know that force is a vector vector from previous chapters, and in regards to "r" it can also be thought of as the radial vector. What this means is that this distance from the pivot points from the axis of rotation to the point where the force acts. In as previously mentioned, there is a general convention (the right-hand rule) that is used to determine the direction which happens to be perpendicular to both the radius from the axis and to the force.

••• «> 🗆 🔀 🛪 🛈 🐵 🗳 🔍 🔿

Perusal



how to get students to participate?

Perusal use combination of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation drivers

I don't understand how this combination of Oct 20 12:09 am factors tells you anything about direction? Aren't magnitude and lever arm distance both scalar quantities? It seems like we would need to know some sort of direction to calculate torque.

I think you may be able to think about the Oct 20 direction separately. So, after multiplying this magnitude an distance, you can attach a sign to the torque based on the definparameters of the system. In the following paragraph, they start explain how to choose this direction.

This is a great question. To further elaborate on Oct 22.84this, we can think of this in terms of the Torque equation. The equation for torque is $\tau = r X F$, with r being the level arm distance and E being force. We know that force is a vector vector from previou left end of the rod is zero, just like the sum of the torques about the pivot. You can repeat the calculation for the torques about the right end of the rod or any other point, and each time you will find that the sum of the torques is zero. The reason is that the rod is not rotating about any point, and so the sum of the torques must be zero about any point. In general we can say:

For a stationary object, the sum of the torques is zero.

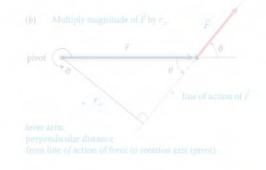
For a stationary object we can choose any reference point we like to calculate torques. It pays to choose a reference point that simplifies the calculation. As you have seen, we do not need to consider any force that is exerted at the reference point. So, by putting the reference point at the point of application of a force, we can eliminate that force from the calculation.

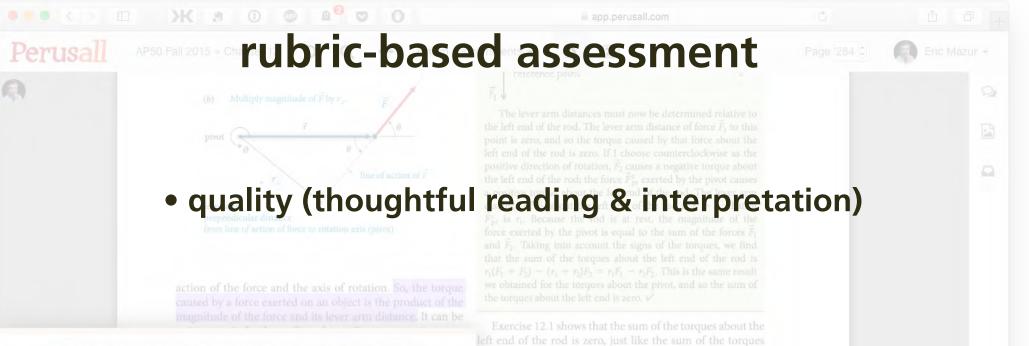
[2] 10.2 Is the situation denisted in Viewas 12.2a year must

X 3 0 0 4 V



rubric-based assessment





I don't understand how this combination of Oct 20 12:09 am % factors tells you anything about direction? Aren't magnitude and lever arm distance both scalar quantities? It seems like we would need to know some sort of direction to calculate torque.

I think you may be able to think about the Oct 20 direction separately. So, after multiplying this magnitude an distance, you can attach a sign to the torque based on the definparameters of the system. In the following paragraph, they start explain how to choose this direction.

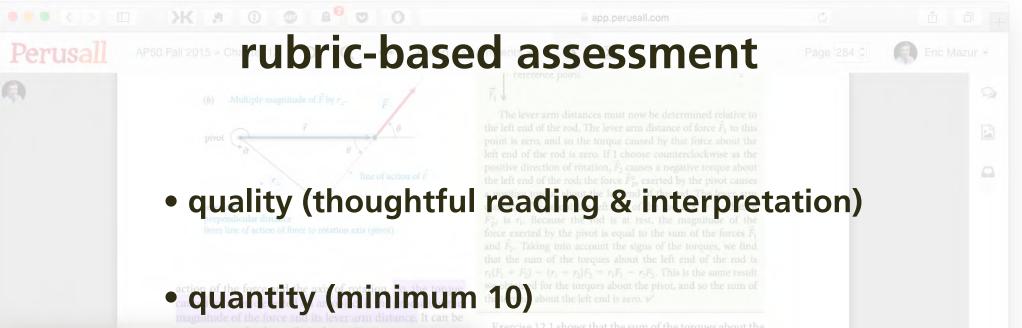
This is a great question. To further elaborate on Oct 22.8% this, we can think of this in terms of the Torque equation. The equation for torque is $\tau = r X F$, with r being the level arm distance and F being force. We know that force is a vector vector from previou

Exercise 12.1 shows that the sum of the torques about the eff end of the rod is zero, just like the sum of the torques bout the pivot. You can repeat the calculation for the orques about the right end of the rod or any other point, nd each time you will find that the sum of the torques is ero. The reason is that the rod is not rotating about any onit, and so the sum of the torques must be zero about any point. In general we can say:

For a stationary object, the sum of the torques is zero.

For a stationary object we can choose any reference point we like to calculate torques. It pays to choose a reference point that simplifies the calculation. As you have seen, we do not need to consider any force that is exerted at the reference point. So, by putting the reference point at the point of application of a force, we can eliminate that force from the calculation.

(2) 12.2 In the situation desisted in Discuss 12.2 a new must



I don't understand how this combination of Oct 20 12:09 am % factors tells you anything about direction? Aren't magnitude and ever arm distance both scalar quantities? It seems like we would need to mow some sort of direction to calculate torque.

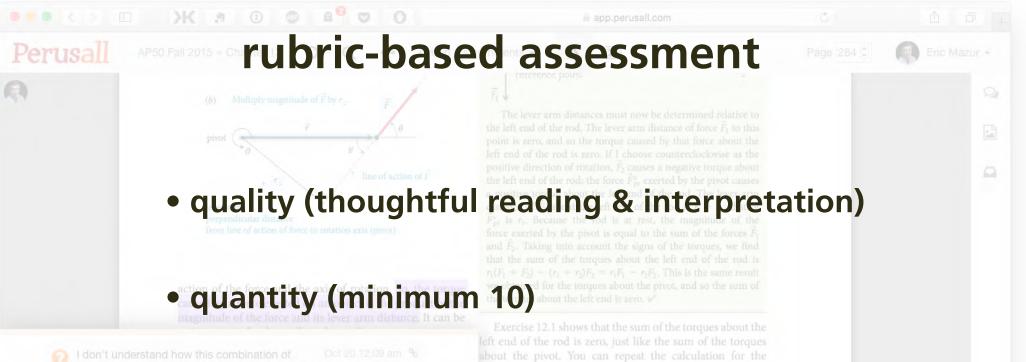
I think you may be able to think about the Oct 20 direction separately. So, after multiplying this magnitude ar istance, you can attach a sign to the torque based on the defin arameters of the system. In the following paragraph, they start xplain how to choose this direction.

This is a great question. To further elaborate on Cct 22.83this, we can think of this in terms of the Torque equation. The equation for torque is $\tau = r X F$, with r being the level arm distance and F being force. We know that force is a vector vector from previou Exercise 12.1 shows that the sum of the torques about the eff end of the rod is zero, just like the sum of the torques about the pivot. You can repeat the calculation for the orques about the right end of the rod or any other point, and each time you will find that the sum of the torques is zero. The reason is that the rod is not rotating about any point, and so the sum of the torques must be zero about any point. In general we can say:

For a stationary object, the sum of the torques is zero.

For a stationary object we can choose any reference point we like to calculate torques. It pays to choose a reference point that simplifies the calculation. As you have seen, we do not need to consider any force that is exerted at the reference point. So, by putting the reference point at the point of application of a force, we can eliminate that force from the calculation.

(2) 10.2 to the situation desisted in Figure 12.2 a new much



factors tells you anything about direction? Aren't magnitude and lever arm distance both caltimeliness (before class) on is that the rod is not rotating about any

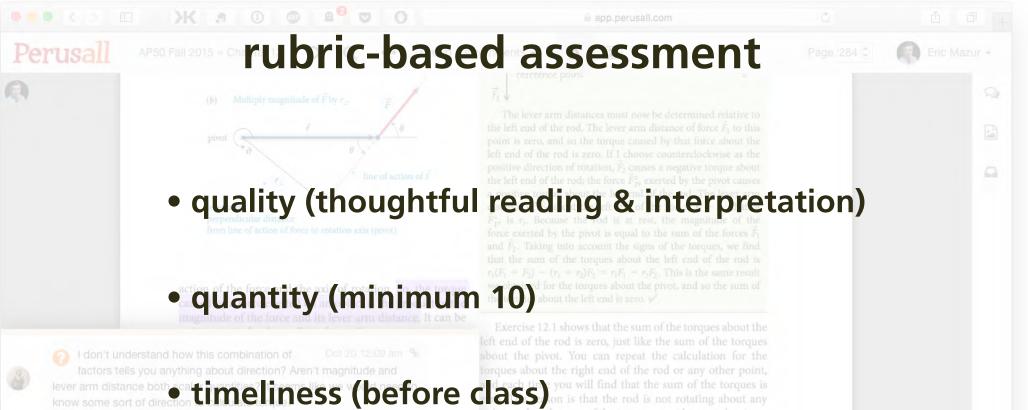
I think you may be able to think about the Oct 20 direction separately. So, after multiplying this magnitude ar distance, you can attach a sign to the torque based on the defin parameters of the system. In the following paragraph, they start explain how to choose this direction.

This is a great question. To further elaborate on Oct 22.84 this, we can think of this in terms of the Torque equation. The quation for torque is $\tau = r X F$, with r being the level arm distance of F being force. We know that force is a vector vector from previou eft end of the rod is zero, just like the sum of the torques about the bout the pivot. You can repeat the calculation for the orques about the right end of the rod or any other point, deach tip you will find that the sum of the torques is for the torques on is that the rod is not rotating about any point, and so the sum of the torques must be zero about any point. In general we can say:

For a stationary object, the sum of the torques is zero.

For a stationary object we can choose any reference point we like to calculate torques. It pays to choose a reference point that simplifies the calculation. As you have seen, we do not need to consider any force that is exerted at the reference point. So, by putting the reference point at the point of application of a force, we can eliminate that force from the calculation.

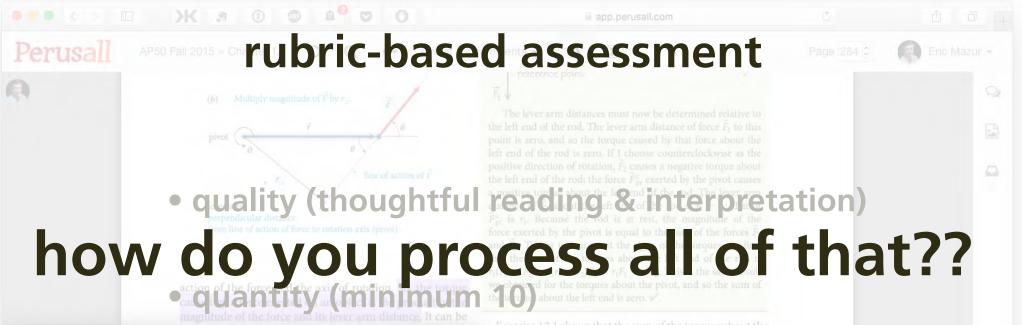
2 40.0 In the situation desisted in Figure 12.2 a new



parameters of the syste distribution (not clustered) ques. It pays to choose a reference explain how to choose this distribution. As you have seen, we

point, and so the sum of the torques must be zero about any

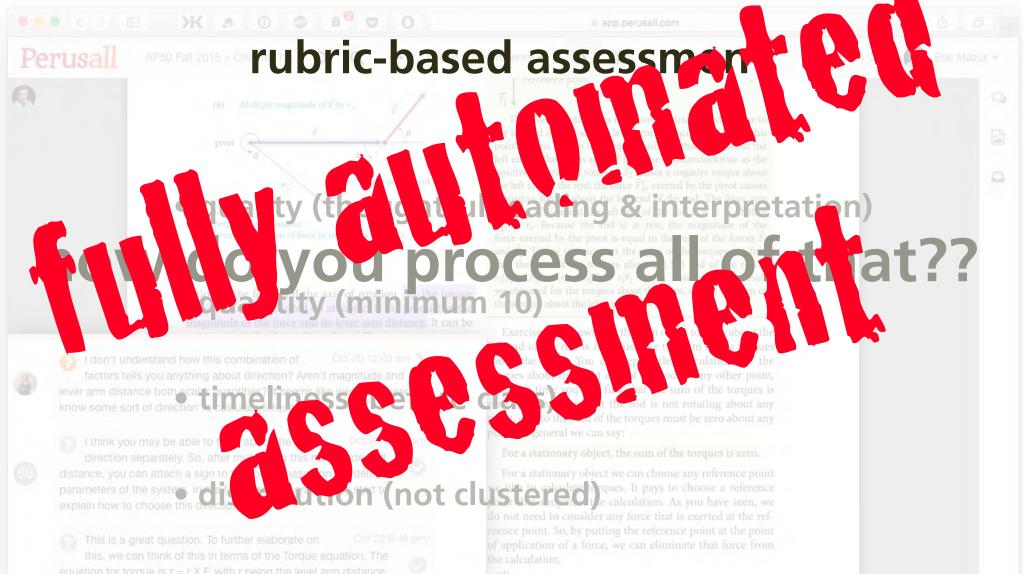




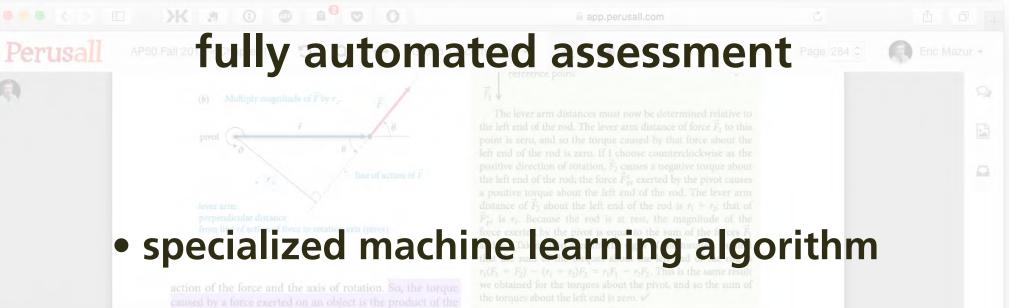
lever arm distance both scale inaptities? I spame like we would need to refore know some sort of direction to allow the up of the state of the state

parameters of the system in disctiniburation transformer (not cluster explain how to choose this oriented by the system of the s

deach time you will find that the sum of the torques is **Classify** show is that the rod is not rotating about any point, and so the sum of the torques must be zero about any



2 10 0 In the situation denisted in Times I



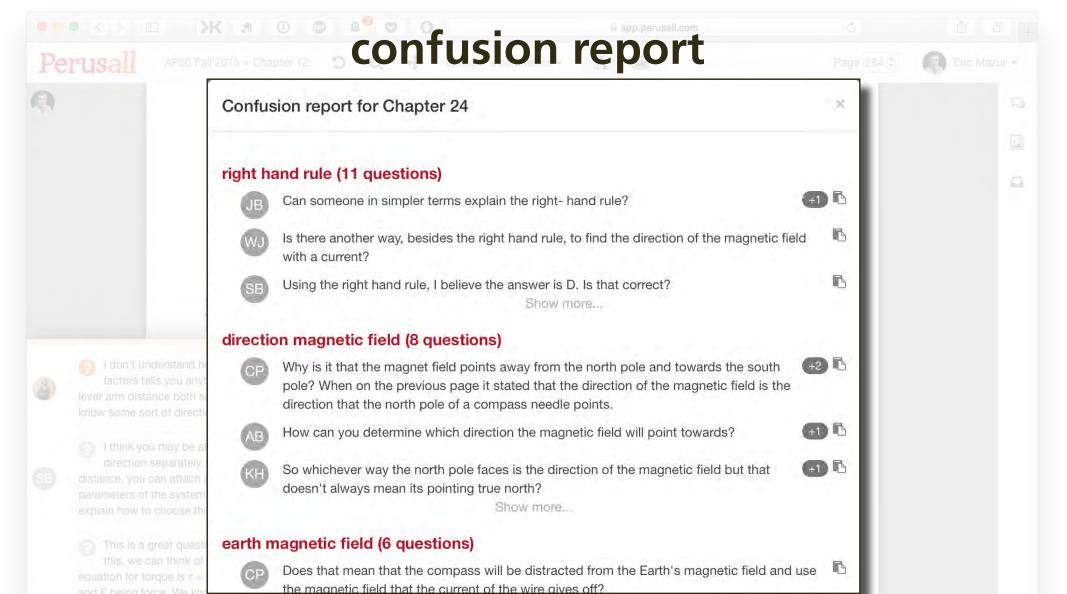
assesses intellectual content

exceeds intercoder reliability

••• «> 🗆 🔀 🛪 🛈 🐵 🗳 🔍 🔿

Perusal

connect pre-class and in-class activities



Perusall AP50 Fall 2015 - Chapter 12 Motivating factors

(b) Multiply magnitude of P by r.

social interaction

action of the force and the axis of rotation. So, the torque caused by a force exerted on an object is the product of the magnitude of the force and its lever arm distance. It can be

I don't understand how this combination of Oct 20 12:09 am % factors tells you anything about direction? Aren't magnitude and ever arm distance both scalar quantities? It seems like we would need to know some sort of direction to calculate torque.

I think you may be able to think about the Oct 20 direction separately. So, after multiplying this magnitude ar distance, you can attach a sign to the torque based on the defin parameters of the system. In the following paragraph, they start explain how to choose this direction.

This is a great question. To further elaborate on Oct 22.83this, we can think of this in terms of the Torque equation. The equation for torque is $\tau = r X F$, with r being the level arm distance and E being force. We know that force is a vector vector from previo

reference point

Ē₁ ↓

The lever arm distances must now be determined relative to the left end of the rod. The lever arm distance of force \vec{F}_1 to this point is zero, and so the torque caused by that force about the left end of the rod is zero. If I choose counterclockwise as the positive direction of rotation, \vec{F}_2 causes a negative torque about the left end of the rod; the force \vec{F}_{pr}^* exerted by the pivot causes a positive torque about the left end of the rod. The lever arm distance of \vec{F}_2 about the left end of the rod is $r_1 + r_2$; that of \vec{F}_{pr}^* is τ_1 . Because the rod is at rest, the magnitude of the pirce exerted by the pivot is equal to the sum of the forces \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_2 . Taking into account the signs of the torques, we find that the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod is $r_1(F_1 + F_2) - (r_1 + r_2)F_2 = r_1F_1 - r_2F_2$. This is the same result we obtained for the torques about the pivot, and so the sum of the torques about the left end is zero. \mathbf{w}^*

Exercise 12.1 shows that the sum of the torques about the eff end of the rod is zero, just like the sum of the torques bout the pivot. You can repeat the calculation for the orques about the right end of the rod or any other point, nd each time you will find that the sum of the torques is ero. The reason is that the rod is not rotating about any oint, and so the sum of the torques must be zero about any oint. In general we can say:

For a stationary object, the sum of the torques is zero.

For a stationary object we can choose any reference point we like to calculate torques. It pays to choose a reference point that simplifies the calculation. As you have seen, we do not need to consider any force that is exerted at the reference point. So, by putting the reference point at the point of application of a force, we can eliminate that force from the calculation.

(2) 10.0 In the situation denisted in Timum 12.2a new mus

Perusall AP50 Fall 2015 - Chapter 12 Motivating factors

(b) Multiply magnitude of P by r.

social interaction

• tie-in to in-class activity

I don't understand how this combination of Oct 20 12:09 am 9 factors tells you anything about direction? Aren't magnitude and lever arm distance both scalar quantities? It seems like we would need to know some sort of direction to calculate torque.

I think you may be able to think about the Oct 20 direction separately. So, after multiplying this magnitude and distance, you can attach a sign to the torque based on the define barameters of the system. In the following paragraph, they start t explain how to choose this direction.

This is a great question. To further elaborate on Oct 22.84 this, we can think of this in terms of the Torque equation. The equation for torque is $\tau = r X F$, with r being the level arm distance and E being force. We know that force is a vector vector from previou reterence point

Ē, V

The lever arm distances must now be determined relative to the left end of the rod. The lever arm distance of force \vec{F}_1 to this point is zero, and so the torque caused by that force about the left end of the rod is zero. If I choose counterclockwise as the positive direction of rotation, \vec{F}_2 causes a negative torque about the left end of the rod; the force \vec{F}_{pr}^e exerted by the pivot causes a positive torque about the left end of the rod. The lever arm distance of \vec{F}_2 about the left end of the rod is $r_1 + r_2$; that of \vec{F}_{pr}^e is r_1 . Because the rod is at rest, the magnitude of the proce exerted by the pivot is equal to the sum of the forces \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_2 . Taking into account the signs of the torques, we find that the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod is $r_1(F_1 + F_2) - (r_1 + r_2)F_2 = r_1F_1 - r_2F_2$. This is the same result we obtained for the torques about the pivot, and so the sum of the torques about the left end is zero. \mathbf{w}^e

activity the sum of the torques about the leavest divities about the sum of the torques about the pivot. You can repeat the calculation for the torques about the right end of the rod or any other point, and each time you will find that the sum of the torques is zero. The reason is that the rod is not rotating about any point, and so the sum of the torques must be zero about any point. In general we can say:

For a stationary object, the sum of the torques is zero.

For a stationary object we can choose any reference point we like to calculate torques. It pays to choose a reference point that simplifies the calculation. As you have seen, we do not need to consider any force that is exerted at the reference point. So, by putting the reference point at the point of application of a force, we can eliminate that force from the calculation.

(2) 10.0 In the situation denisted in Timum 12.2a new mus

Ж 3 0 0 1 0 motivating factors Perusall

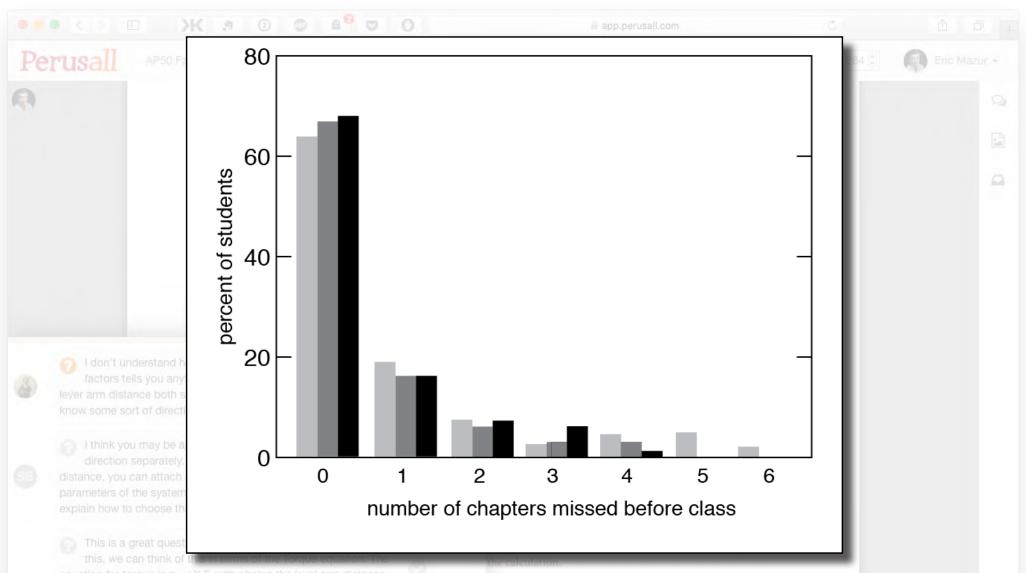
Intrinsic:

social interaction

tie-in to in-class activity

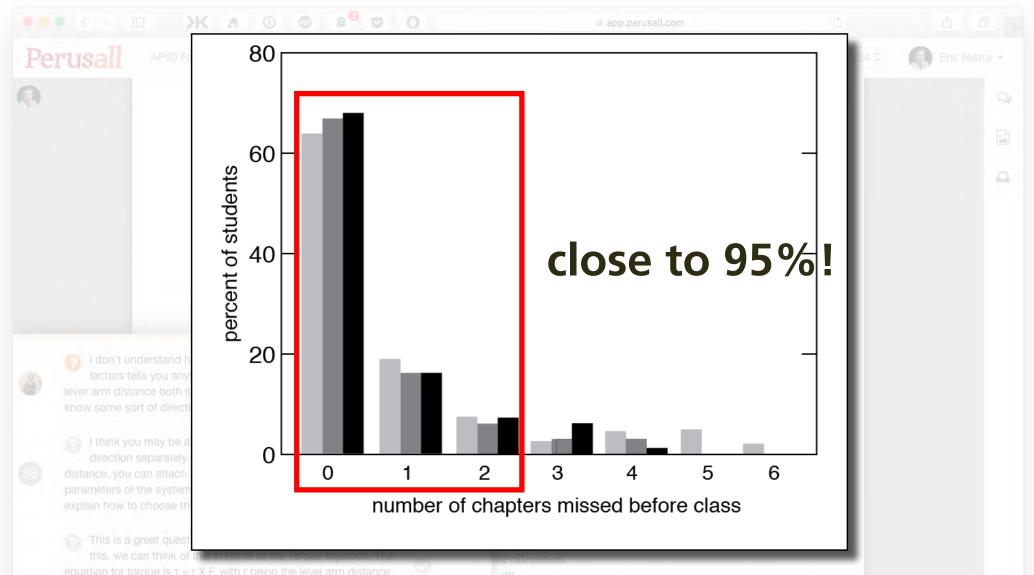
Extrinsic:

 assessment (fully automated) force, we can eliminate that force from



equation for torque is $\tau = r X F$, with r being the level arm distance and E being force. We know that force is a vector vector from previous

and the direction desided in Firms 12.2.



and E being force. We know that force is a vector vector from providuo

a 10.0 to the situation denisted in Times 12.2 a new must

app.perusall.com

Č,

ů 0 +

Perusall

50 Fall 2015 - Chapter 12 🌖 Q 🕂 Gro

comments - A

(b) Multiply magnitude of \vec{F} by r_x .



(cluiche

The lever arm distances must now be determined relative to the left end of the rod. The lever arm distance of force \vec{F}_1 to this ount is zero, and so the torque caused by that force about the eff end of the rod is zero. If I choose counterclockwise as the ositive direction of rotation, \vec{F}_2 causes a negative torque about the left end of the rod; the force \vec{F}_{pr}^e exerted by the pivot causes positive torque about the left end of the rod. The lever arm distance of \vec{F}_2 about the left end of the rod is $r_1 + r_2$; that of \vec{r}_{pr}^e is τ_1 . Because the rod is at rest, the magnitude of the proce exerted by the pivot is equal to the sum of the forces \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_2 . Taking into account the signs of the torques, we find that the sum of the torques at part the left end of the rod is

every student prepared for every class

magnitude of the force and its lever arm distance. It can b

I don't understand how this combination of Oct 20 12:09 am % factors tells you anything about direction? Aren't magnitude and ever arm distance both scalar quantities? It seems like we would need to mow some sort of direction to calculate torque.

I think you may be able to think about the Oct 20 direction separately. So, after multiplying this magnitude ar listance, you can attach a sign to the torque based on the defin parameters of the system. In the following paragraph, they start explain how to choose this direction.

This is a great question. To further elaborate on Oct 22.83this, we can think of this in terms of the Torque equation. The equation for torque is $\tau = r X F$, with r being the level arm distance and E being force. We know that force is a vector vector from previo Exercise 12.1 shows that the sum of the torques about the eff end of the rod is zero, just like the sum of the torques bout the pivot. You can repeat the calculation for the orques about the right end of the rod or any other point, nd each time you will find that the sum of the torques is ero. The reason is that the rod is not rotating about any oint, and so the sum of the torques must be zero about any oint. In general we can say:

For a stationary object, the sum of the torques is zero.

For a stationary object we can choose any reference point we like to calculate torques. It pays to choose a reference point that simplifies the calculation. As you have seen, we do not need to consider any force that is exerted at the reference point. So, by putting the reference point at the point of application of a force, we can eliminate that force from the calculation.

0 12 2 to the st

10.0 to the alteration desisted in Viewen 12.2s over much

Perusall AP50 Fail 2015 • Chapter 12 • • Benefits () Multiply mignificate of Byr, public field of the rol attention of fills • virtually, 1000% completion of attention of the force is on the rol attention of the rol

improved use of class time

I don't understand how this combination of Oct 20 12:09 am factors tells you anything about direction? Aren't magnitude and aver arm distance both scalar quantities? It seems like we would need to now some sort of direction to calculate torque.

I think you may be able to think about the Oct 20 direction separately. So, after multiplying this magnitude an istance, you can attach a sign to the torque based on the define arameters of the system. In the following paragraph, they start is xplain how to choose this direction.

This is a great question. To further elaborate on Oct 22.834 this, we can think of this in terms of the Torque equation. The equation for torque is $\tau = r X F$, with r being the level arm distance and E being force. We know that force is a vector vector from previou Exercise 12.1 shows that the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod is zero, just like the sum of the torques about the pivot. You can repeat the calculation for the torques about the right end of the rod or any other point, and each time you will find that the sum of the torques is zero. The reason is that the rod is not rotating about any point, and so the sum of the torques must be zero about any point. In general we can say:

For a stationary object, the sum of the torques is zero.

For a stationary object we can choose any reference point we like to calculate torques. It pays to choose a reference point that simplifies the calculation. As you have seen, we do not need to consider any force that is exerted at the reference point. So, by putting the reference point at the point of application of a force, we can eliminate that force from the calculation.

C 12.2 In the situation desisted in Views 12.2

Perusal **Benefits** virtually 100% completion of assignments improved use of class time

all at no cost & without additional instructor effort!

Education is not just about:

transferring information

getting students to do what we do

Education is not just about:

transferring information

getting students to do what we do

active participation/social interaction a must!

for a copy of this presentation

ericmazur.com

