

Getting every student prepared for every class



@eric_mazur

Zürcher Hochschule für Angewandte Wissenschaften
Winterthur, Switzerland, 18 January 2017



Getting every student prepared for every class

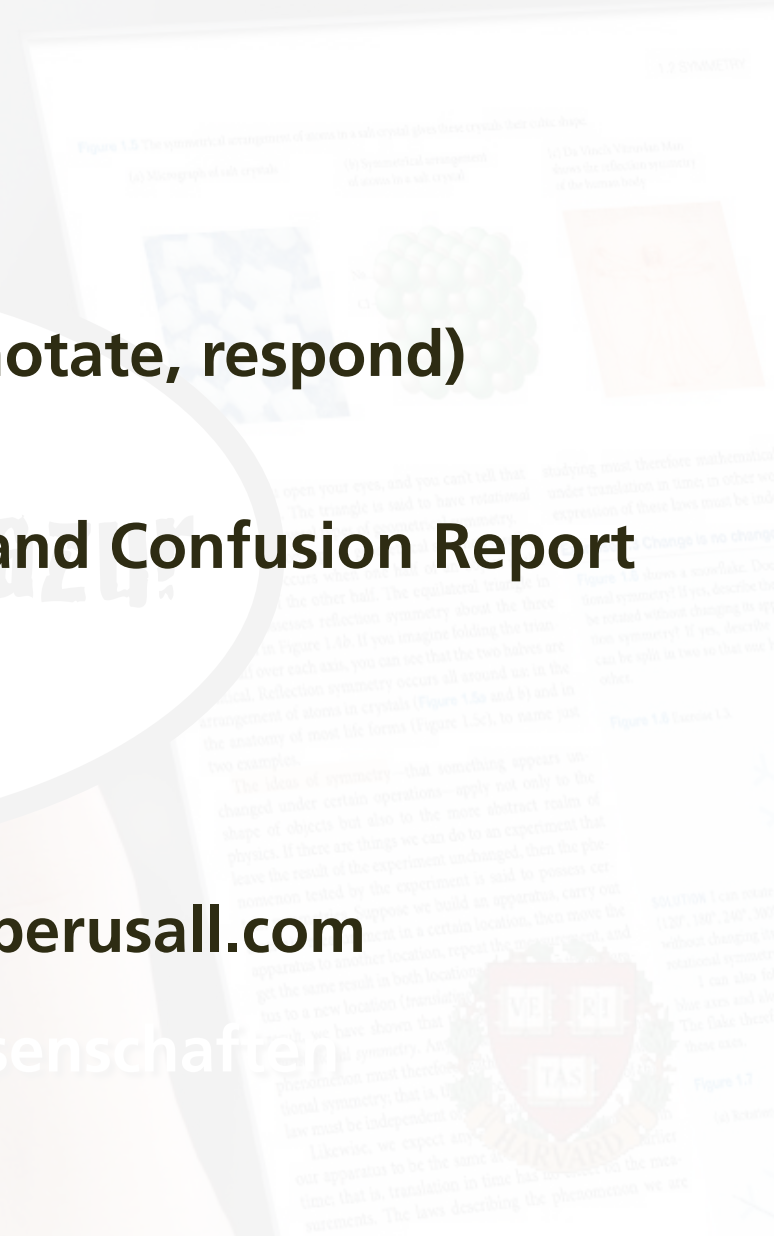


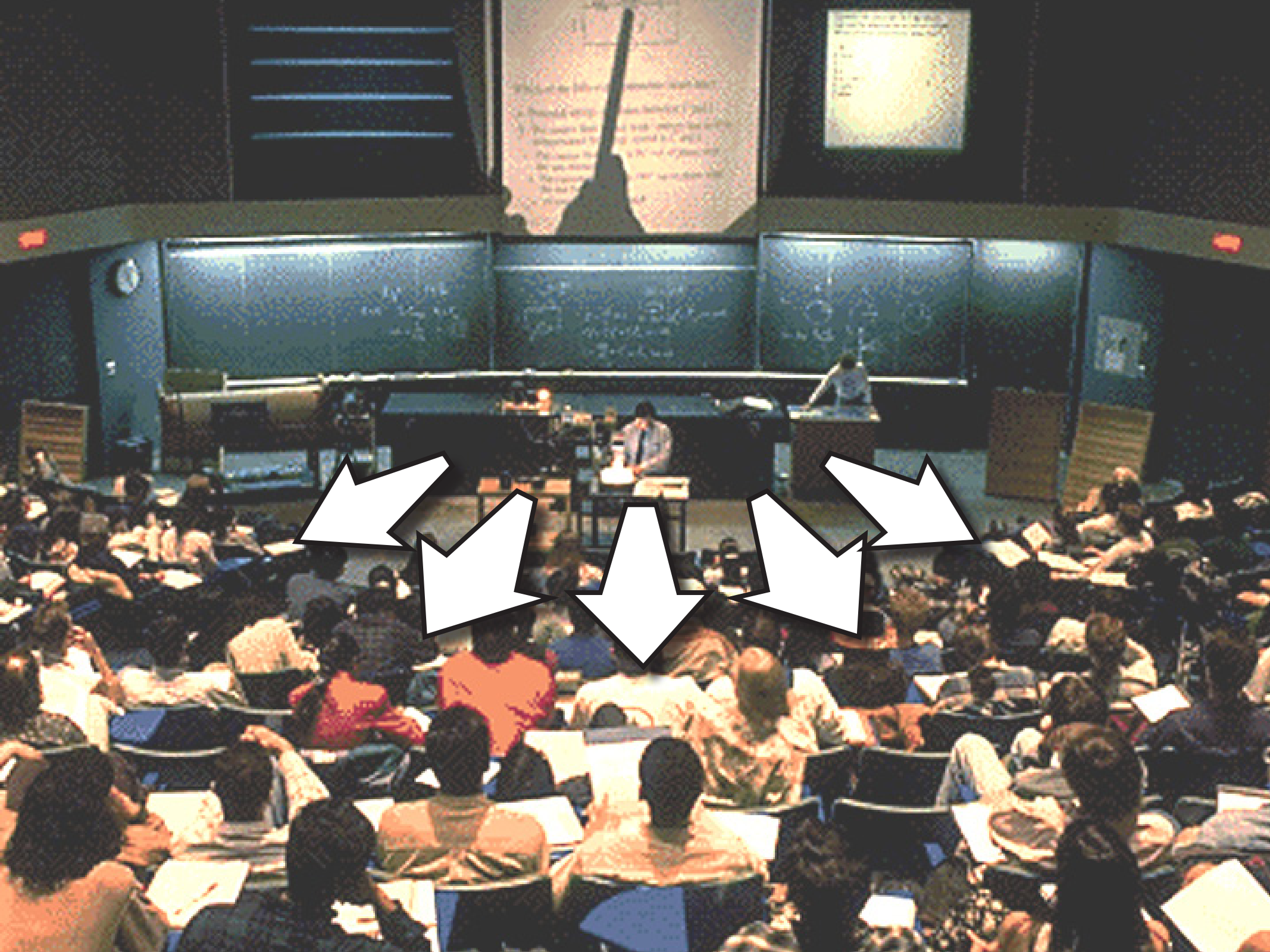
Program

- 9:30 Introduction to Perusall**
- 10:15 Reading assignment (read, annotate, respond)**
- 10:45 Coffee**
- 11:00 Demonstration of Gradebook and Confusion Report**
- 11:20 Discussion**
- 12:00 Adjourn**

Please make an account at <http://app.perusall.com>

Zürcher Hochschule für Angewandte Wissenschaften
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CLASS

1st exposure



ROOM

deeper understanding



1st exposure



deeper understanding



1st exposure



deeper understanding



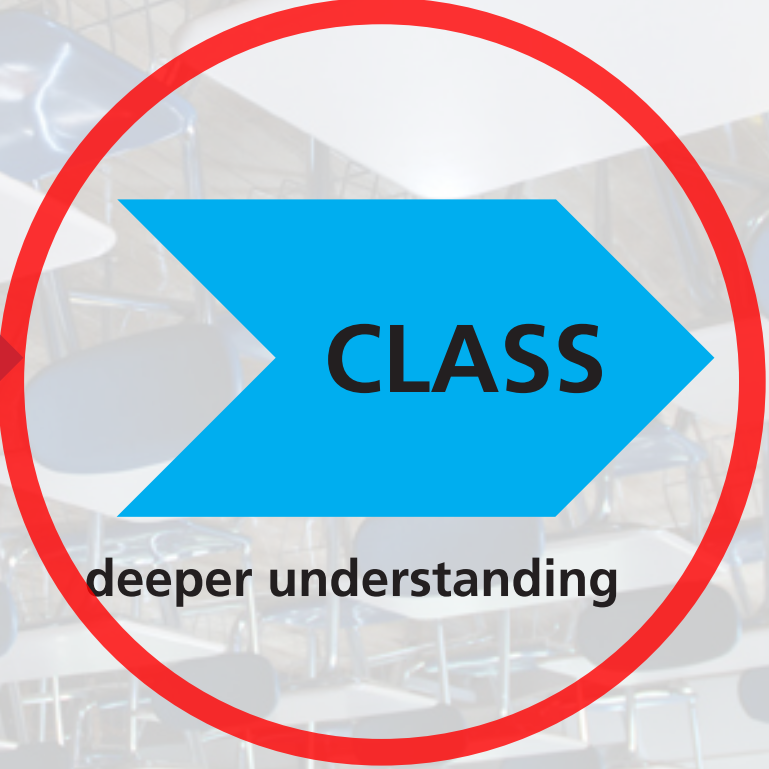
1st exposure



deeper understanding



1st exposure



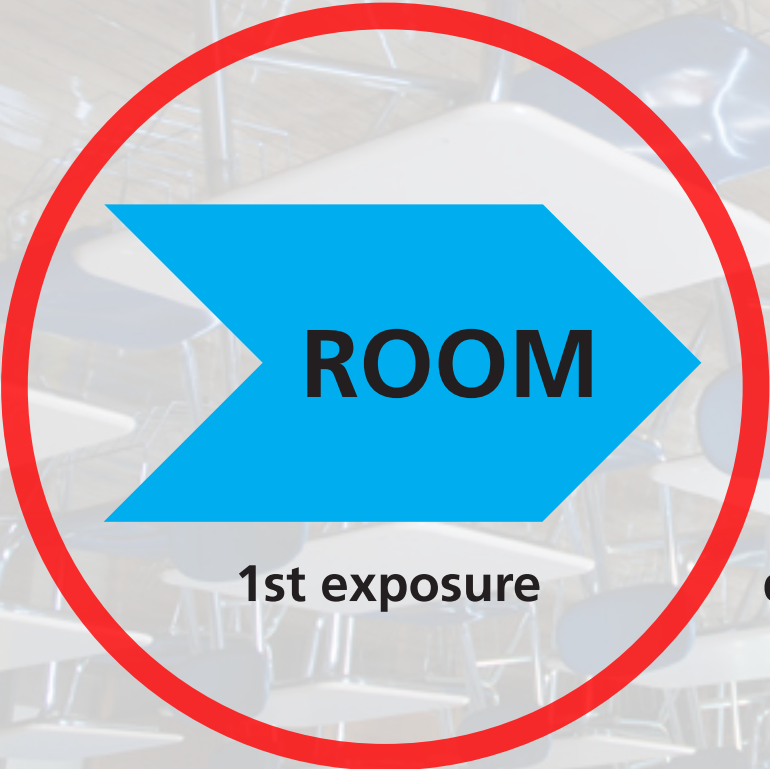
deeper understanding



1st exposure



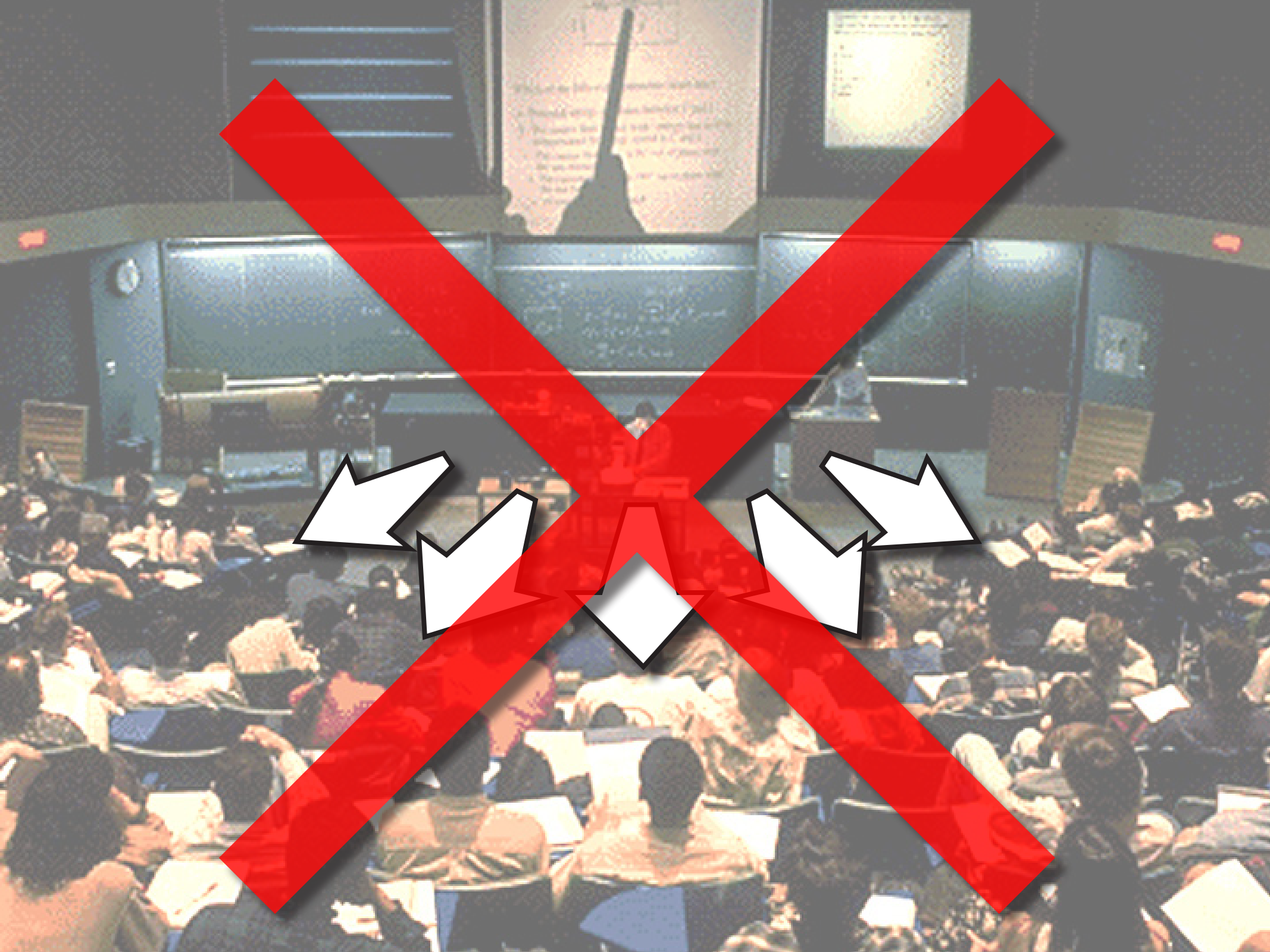
deeper understanding



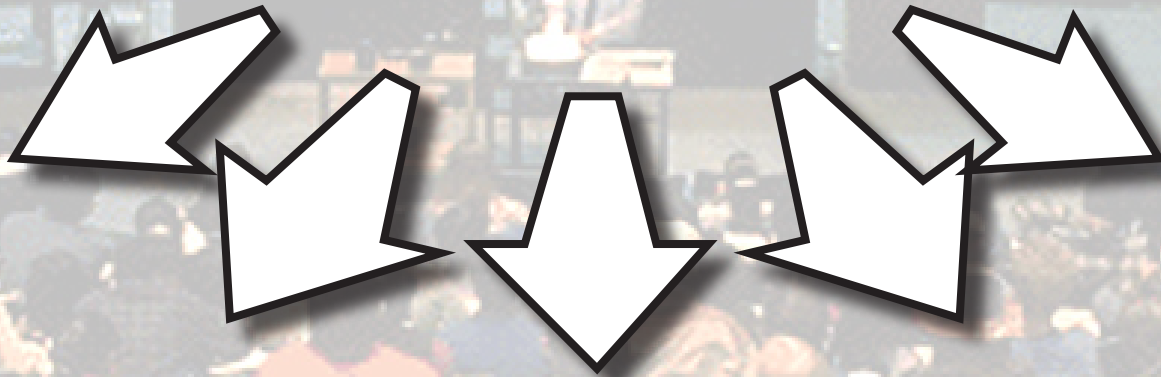
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deeper understanding



how to effectively transfer information outside classroom?

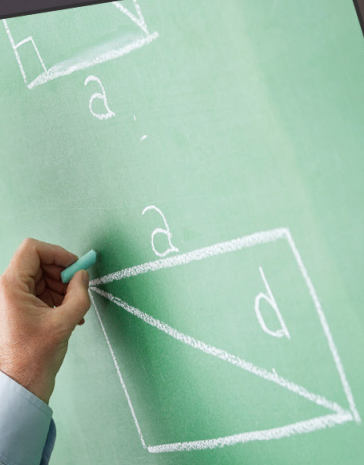




$$S = 2^2$$

$$P = 4 \cdot a$$

$$d = a^2$$



but...



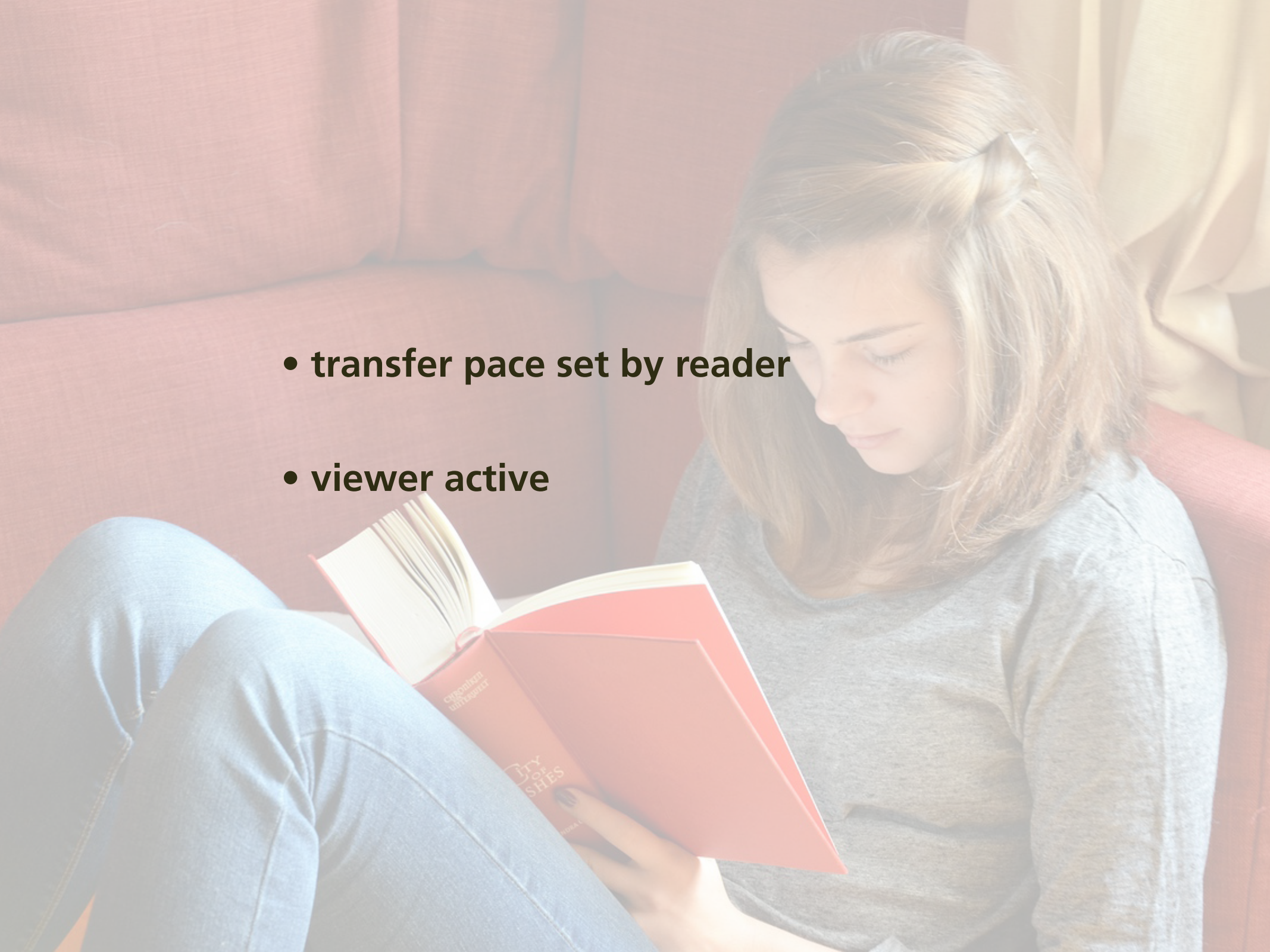
- **transfer pace set by video**
- **viewer passive**
- **viewing/attention tanks as time passes**
- **isolated/individual experience**






we're simply moving this outside classroom!



- 
- **transfer pace set by reader**
 - **viewer active**

but...





**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!**

Perusal11

every student prepared for every class



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

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. This is a familiar 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.



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 hovercraft, which is a small, low-profile object that floats on a cushion of air. 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?

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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 the velocity decreases as the block slides. The block slides easily over ice. Friction between the two surfaces is so small that it can be neglected. To bring two objects to rest with respect to each other, this case the wooden block and the surface. 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 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 an air hockey table. The air that flows through the table's holes 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 physics lab. Although there is still some friction between the wheels and the tracks and for the track itself, the friction is so small that it can be neglected. For example, if the track is horizontal, the carts move along its length with a constant velocity. In other words:

In the absence of friction, objects on a horizontal track keep moving without stopping.

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.

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log in through social network



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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.



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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:

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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 wood, this distance can vary. If the surface is particularly 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 decreases as the block slides over ice; this decrease 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.



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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:

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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.



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Figure 4.1 shows how the velocity of a wooden block decreases on three different surfaces. The slowing down is due to friction. The rougher the surface, the more quickly the velocity decreases. 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 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 a low-friction track and carts. In your experiment, you will use a low-friction track and carts. 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.

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highlighting text...

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Figure 4.1 shows how the velocity of a wooden block decreases on three different surfaces. The rougher the surface, the more quickly the velocity decreases 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 on 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 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 minimized. The wheels on the labeled carts in Figure 4.2 also minimize friction. 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:

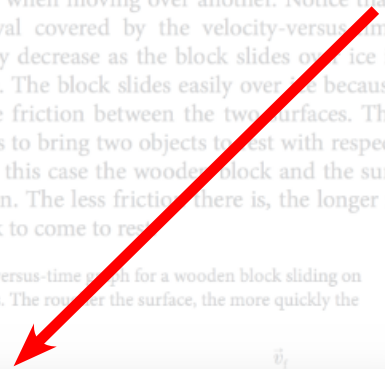
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...opens chat window



Enter your comment or question and press Enter

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

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



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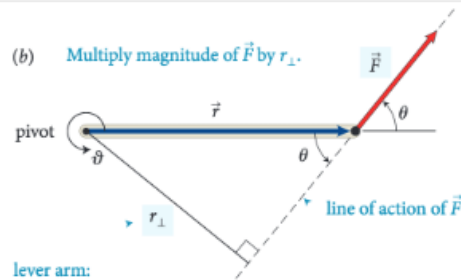
Nov 1 4:41 pm



Enter your comment or question and press Enter



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



lever arm:
perpendicular distance
from line of action of force to rotation axis (pivot)

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_1 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 to rotate—for example, a plank or bridge supported at either end. To determine what reference point to use in such cases, complete the following exercise.

Exercise 12.1 Reference point

Consider again the rod in Figure 12.4. Calculate the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod.

SOLUTION I begin by making a sketch of the rod and the three forces exerted on it, showing their points of application on the rod (Figure 12.6).

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. ✓

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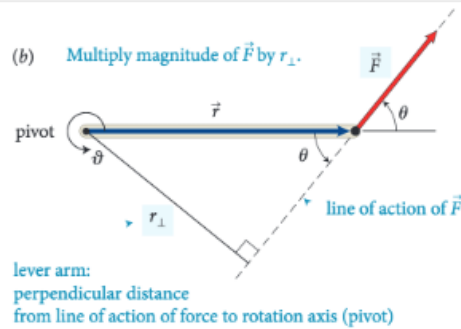


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question flag





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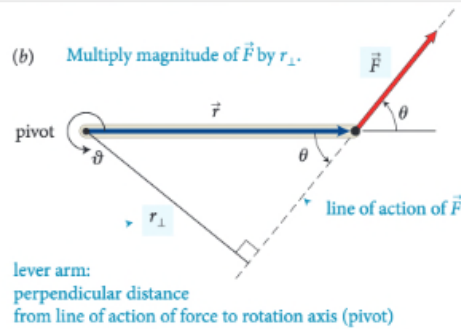
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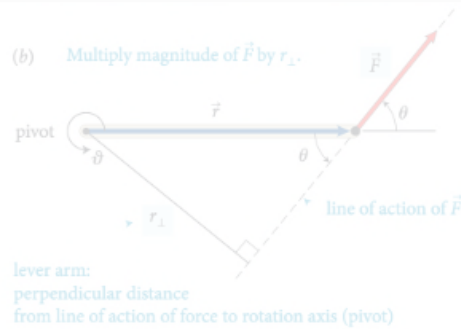
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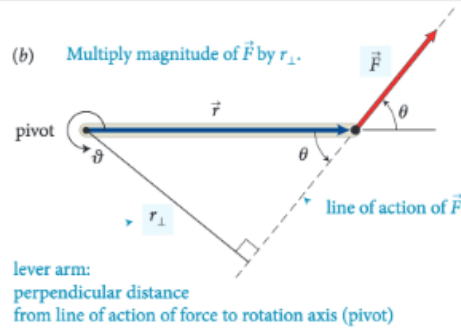
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email notifications

Brian Lukoff responded to a question in Mazur Chapter 4 Sample that you wanted to know the answer to

21 minutes ago, you asked this question on Perusall:

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Right - I think there will always be some friction due to the second law of thermodynamics.

If this helps your understanding, click the button below. If you want to respond, simply reply to this email to post to Perusall.

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\vec{r}_{\perp}

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email notifications

Brian Lukoff responded to a question in Mazur Chapter 4 Sample that you wanted to know the answer to

21 minutes ago, you asked this question on Perusall:

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Brian Lukoff just responded to the question by saying:

Right - I think there will always be some friction due to the second law of thermodynamics.

If this helps your understanding, click the button below. If you want to respond,

option 2: view chat

View conversation

This comment helps my understanding

I don't understand how the lever arm distance is determined. Can you know some sort of

I think you mean the direction separation distance, you can use the parameters of the system to explain how to choose

This is a great question. You can think of this in terms of torque is $\tau = r \times F$, force. We know that in regards to "r" it means is that this is the distance to the point where the force is applied in the general convention direction which has a direction and to the force

Enter your comment

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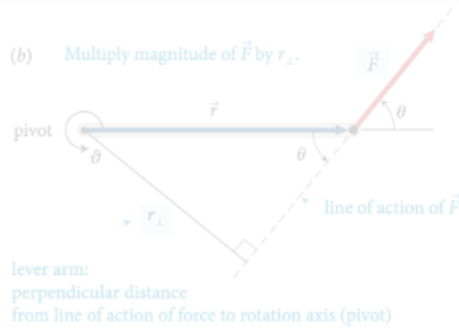
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how to get students to participate?

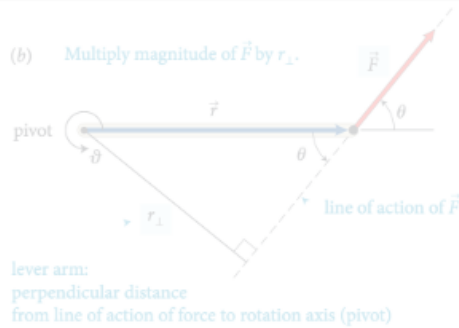
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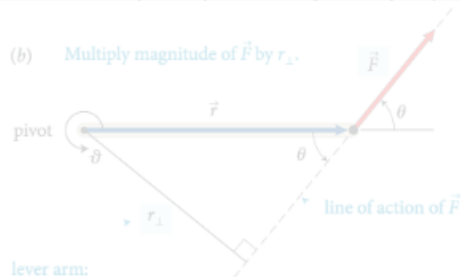
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rubric-based assessment

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



lever arm:
perpendicular distance
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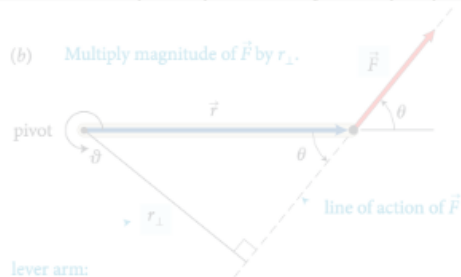
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rubric-based assessment

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- Objects executing motion ar...
- Generally, for rotating bod... 2
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rubric-based assessment

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



lever arm:
perpendicular distance
from line of action of force to rotation axis (pivot)

- quality (thoughtful reading & interpretation)

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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 about the left end of the rod is zero, and so the torque caused by this force about the left end of the rod is zero. If I choose the pivot at the left end of the rod, the force \vec{F}_1 causes a negative torque about the left end of the rod; the force \vec{F}_2 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_2 , and the lever arm distance of \vec{F}_3 about the left end of the rod is r_3 . The sum of the torques about the left end of the rod is at rest, the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod must be zero. We obtain the same result if we choose the pivot at the right end of the rod. The sum of the torques about the right end of the rod is zero, just like the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod. You can repeat the calculation for the torques about the right end of the rod for any other pivot, 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 choose any point as the pivot. For a rotating object we choose the pivot at the center of mass. We like to calculate torque about the center of mass because we do not know anything about the forces acting at the reference point. Choosing the pivot at the point of contact with the ground is useful because we can eliminate that force from the calculation.

Example 12.2 Torques on lever

Three forces are exerted on the lever of Figure 12.7. Forces \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_2 are equal in magnitude, and the magnitude of \vec{F}_3 is half as great. Force \vec{F}_1 is horizontal, \vec{F}_2 and \vec{F}_3 are vertical, and the lever makes an angle of 45° with the horizontal. Do these forces cause the lever to rotate about the pivot? If so, in which direction?

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over 20,000 annotations!

quality (minimum 10)

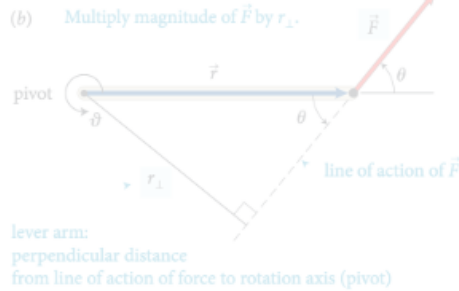
timeliness (before class)

direction (right or left)

Enter your comment or question and press Enter

- Only left, we see th...
- It's just the white ...
- Is it for frame i...
- How does force effect ...
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rubric-based assessment



- quality (thoughtful reading & interpretation)

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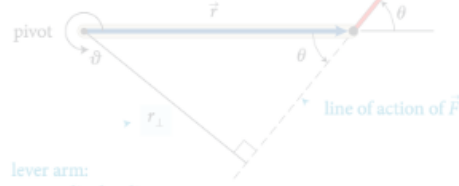
how do you process all of that??

- quantity (minimum 10)
- timeliness (before class)
- distribution (not clustered)

- On the very left, we see th...
- It's interesting that the white ...
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rubric-based assessment

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



lever arm:
perpendicular distance
from line of action of force to rotation axis (pivot)

• quality (though future research on interpretation)

fully automated
how do you process all of that??
assessment

• timeliness (before class)

• distribution (not clustered)

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 about the left end of the rod is zero, and so the torque caused by that force about the left end of the rod is zero. If I choose counter-clockwise as the positive direction of rotation, \vec{F}_2 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_2 . The torque caused by \vec{F}_2 about the left end of the rod is $\tau_2 = r_2 F_2$. This is the same result obtained for the torques about the pivot, and so the sum of the torques about the left end is zero.

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 right end of the rod and you will find that the sum of the torques about the right end is also zero. The reason is that the sum of the torques about any point, and so the sum of the torques about the pivot and the left end. In general, the sum of the torques about any point is zero.

For a static equilibrium problem, you can choose a reference point to calculate the torques. To choose a reference point, you should choose a point where the net force is zero. So, by putting the reference point at the point where the net force is zero, we can eliminate that force from the calculation.

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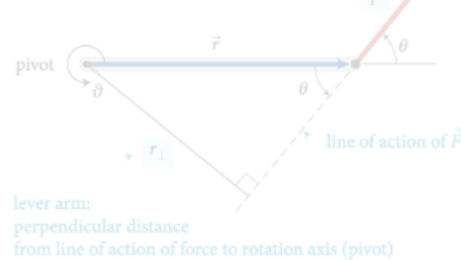
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fully automated assessment

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



lever arm:
perpendicular distance
from line of action of force to rotation axis (pivot)

- specialized machine learning algorithm

- assesses intellectual content

- exceeds intercoder reliability

I don't understand how this combination of factors tells you anything about direction? Aren't magnitude and lever arm distance both scalar quantities? It seems like you would just know some sort of direction from the force vector.

I think you may be able to think about the 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. For example, in the diagram, you can explain how to choose the sign of the torque.

This is a great question. To further elaborate on this, we can think of this in terms of the Torque equation. The equation for torque is $\tau = r \times F$, 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.

Enter your comment or question and press Enter

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 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 any point is zero.

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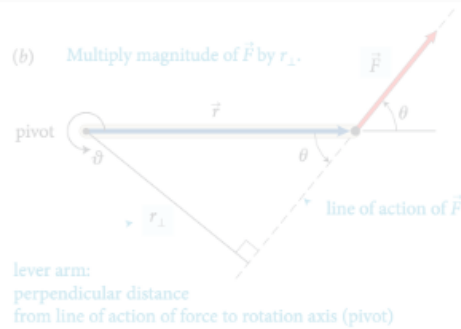
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Total number of annotations	16
Total number of annotations submitted on time	11
Average quality of top 10 annotations submitted on time	1.80
2 = demonstrates thorough and thoughtful reading and insightful interpretation of the reading, 1 = demonstrates reading, but no (or only superficial) interpretation of the reading, 0 = does not demonstrate any thoughtful reading or interpretation	
Distribution of annotations	3.8
0 = clustered, 5 = evenly distributed throughout assignment	
Assignment score	1
scores range from 0 to 3	

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



lever arm:
perpendicular distance
from line of action of force to rotation axis (pivot)

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connect pre-class and in-class activities

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I think you may be able to think about the 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.

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Confusion report for Chapter 24

right hand rule (11 questions)

- JB Can someone in simpler terms explain the right- hand rule? +1
- WJ Is there another way, besides the right hand rule, to find the direction of the magnetic field with a current? 2
- SB Using the right hand rule, I believe the answer is D. Is that correct? 3
Show more...

direction magnetic field (8 questions)

- CP Why is it that the magnet field points away from the north pole and towards the south pole? When on the previous page it stated that the direction of the magnetic field is the direction that the north pole of a compass needle points. +2
- AB How can you determine which direction the magnetic field will point towards? +1
- KH So whichever way the north pole faces is the direction of the magnetic field but that doesn't always mean its pointing true north? +1
Show more...

earth magnetic field (6 questions)

- CP Does that mean that the compass will be distracted from the Earth's magnetic field and use the magnetic field that the current of the wire gives off? 2
- AK Can someone explain why this type of bacteria knows what direction the earth's magnetic fields are facing? 3
- J Does the circular loop of current have any similarities with the look of the earths magnetic field? They kind of look similar to me. 3
Show more...

motivating factors

Intrinsic:

- social interaction

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



lever arm: perpendicular distance from line of action of force to rotation axis (pivot)

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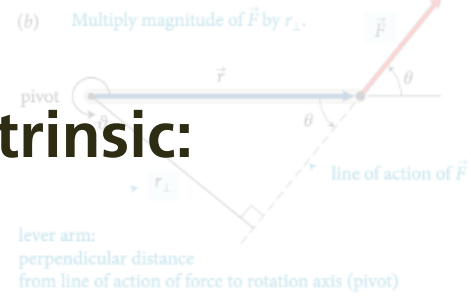
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Enter your comment or question and press Enter

motivating factors

Intrinsic:

- social interaction
- tie-in to in-class activity



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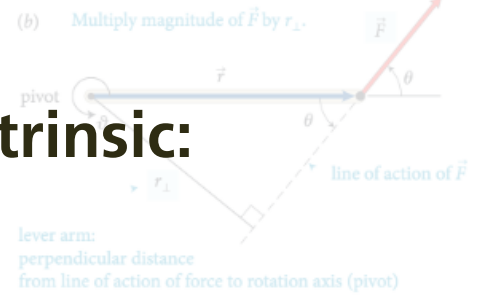
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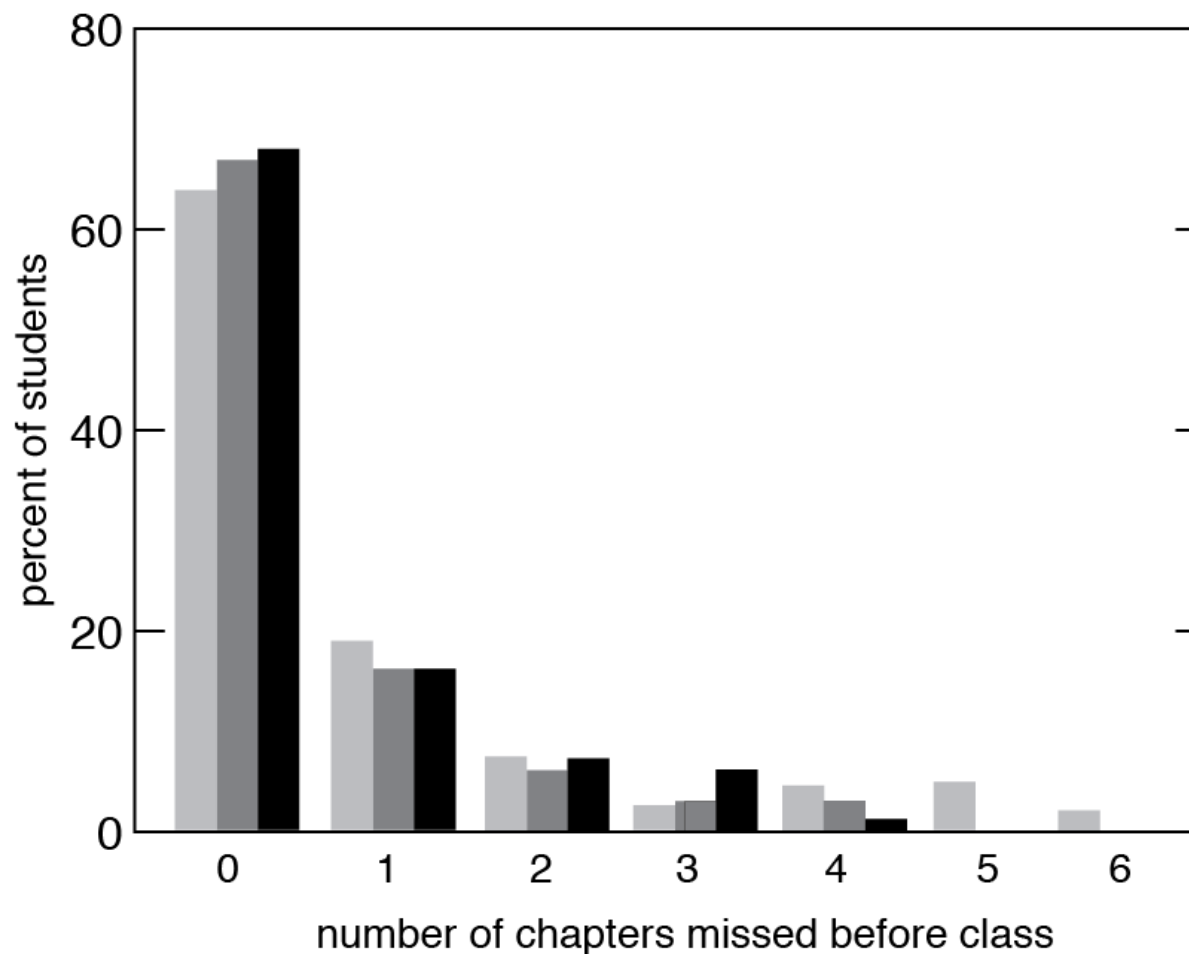
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research data

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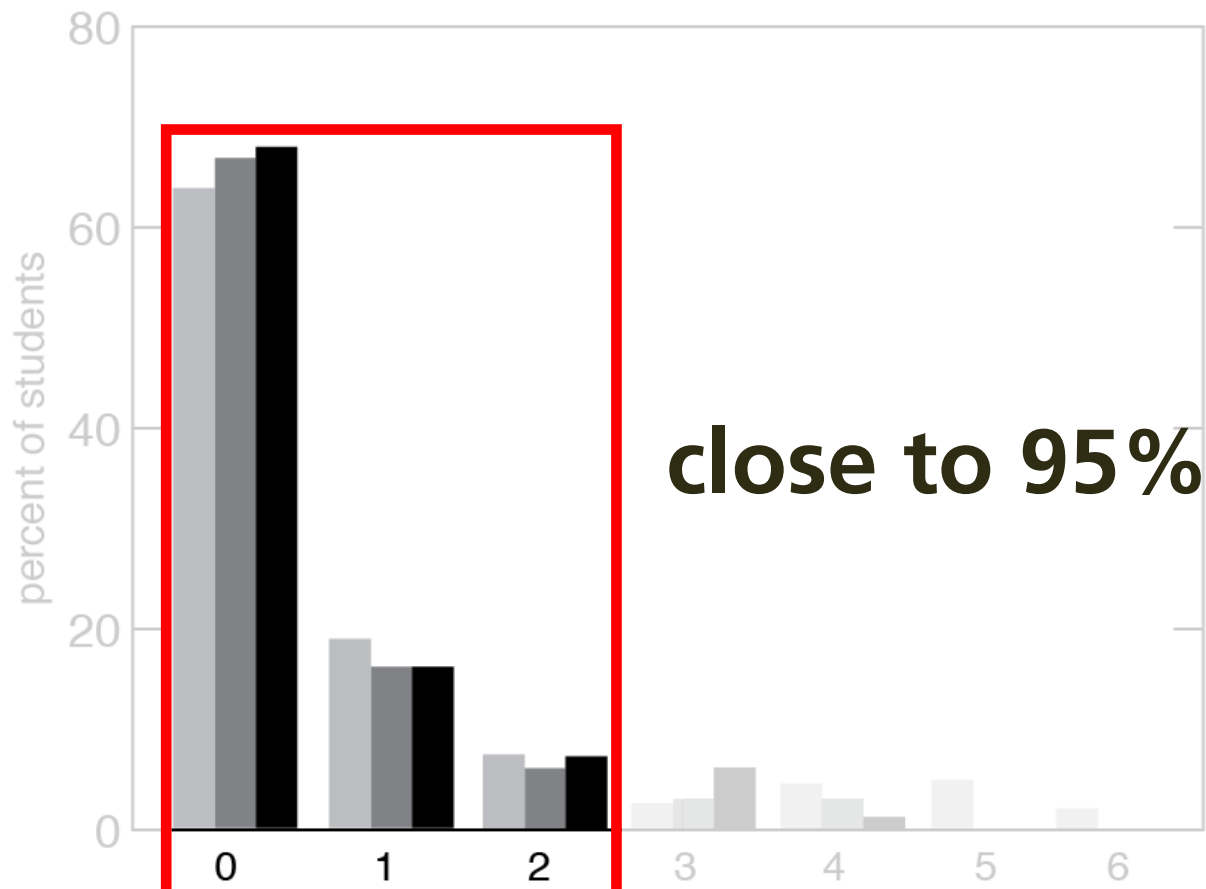
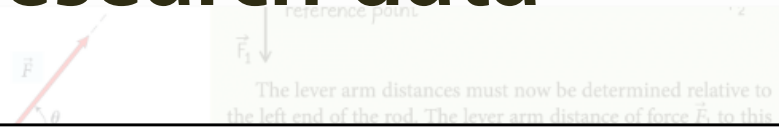
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research data

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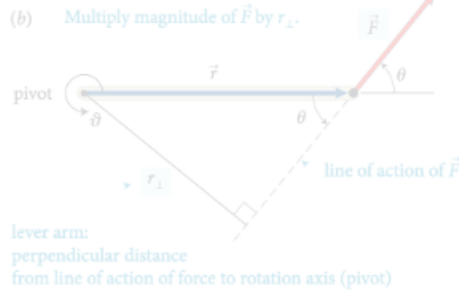
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every student prepared for every class

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- enter access code **MAZUR-3898**

- click on “Reading Assignment on Weight”

- read (and pose or answer questions)

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 the effects of forces on objects and how they affect their motion. The experiments we carry out 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 push the block, it starts moving. If you stop pushing, the block eventually comes to rest. 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 asphalt. Figure 4.1 shows a block sliding 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 the friction is so small. The velocity decrease is more noticeable on the rougher surfaces. The velocity decrease is most noticeable on the roughest surface, where the friction is the largest. The velocity decrease is most noticeable on the roughest surface, where the friction is the largest. The velocity decrease is most noticeable on the roughest surface, where the friction is the largest.

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 are frictionless. In fact, there are no perfectly frictionless surfaces. However, 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 slide. 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, the acceleration of the cart is zero. The velocity is constant. 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 measure the position of the cart 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?

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.

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



Try this:

1. post a question
2. answer someone else's question
3. check email and try out email interface

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 surface is very smooth and the block is very smooth, the interval than for the block to stop is longer than if the surface is 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 most noticeable on the roughest surface. In the velocity-versus-time graph, the velocity decreases 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 slow two objects to rest with respect to each other. 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.



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 a low-friction track and carts used in the experiments described in this chapter. 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.

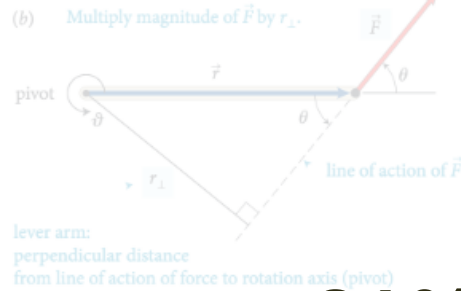
Another advantage of using such carts is that the track constrains the motion to being along a straight line. We can then use a high-speed camera to record the cart's position at various instants, and from that information determine its speed and acceleration.



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?

4.2 Inertia

additional research data



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

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 F_1 and F_2 . To account for the signs of the torques due to the forces, we write $r_1(F_1 + F_2) - (r_1 + r_2)F_2 = r_1F_1 - r_2F_2$. 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. ✓

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12.2 In the situation depicted in Figure 12.2a, you must continue to exert a force on the seesaw to keep the child off the ground. The force you exert causes a torque on the seesaw, and yet the seesaw's rotational acceleration is zero. How can this be if torques cause objects to accelerate rotationally?

Example 12.2 Torques on lever

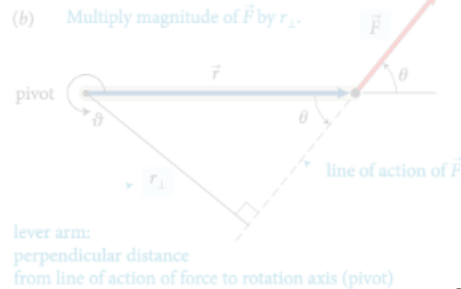
Three forces are exerted on the lever of Figure 12.7. Forces \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_2 are equal in magnitude, and the magnitude of \vec{F}_3 is half as great. Force \vec{F}_1 is horizontal, \vec{F}_2 and \vec{F}_3 are vertical, and the lever makes an angle of 45° with the horizontal. Do these forces cause the lever to rotate about the pivot? If so, in which direction?

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- Enter your comment or question and press Enter

additional research data



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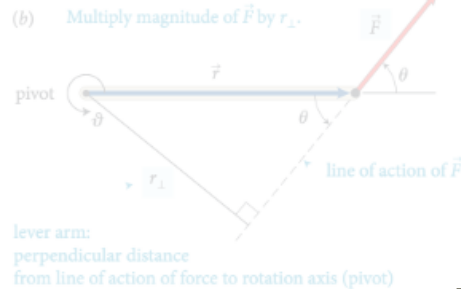
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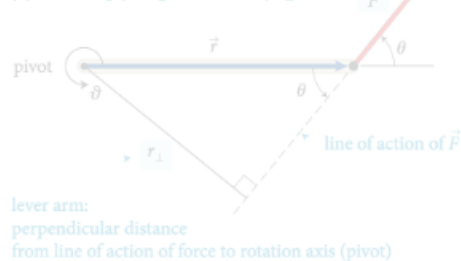
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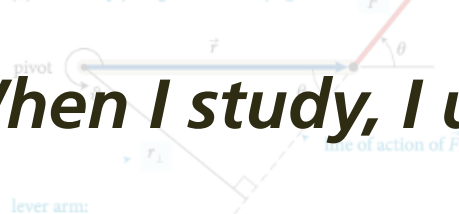
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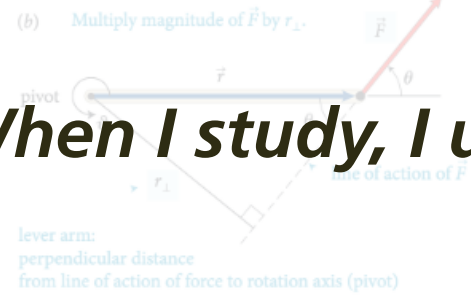
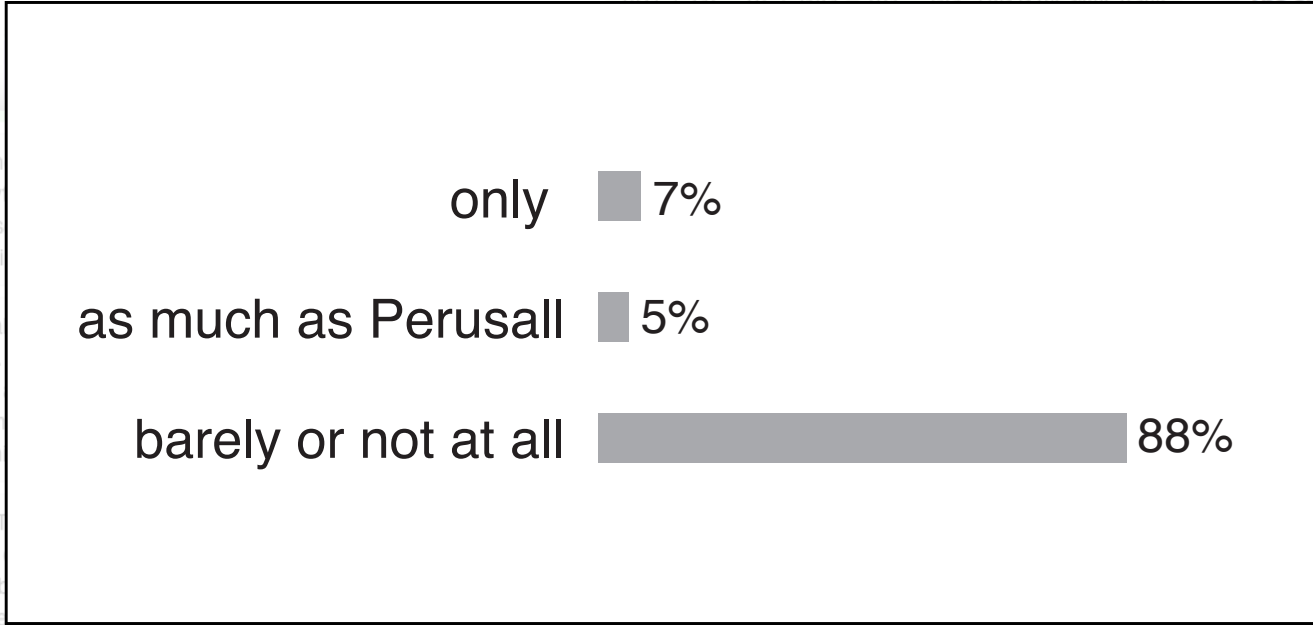
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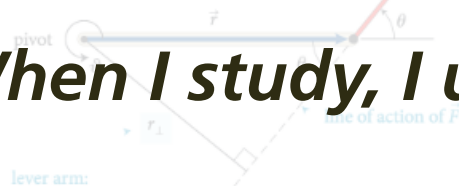
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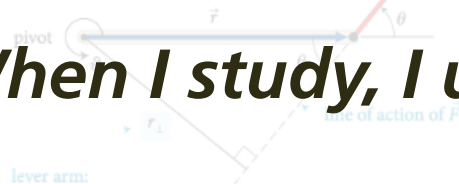
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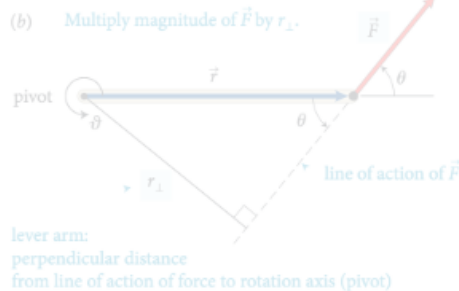
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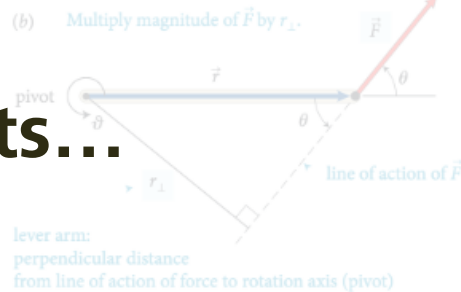
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action of the force and the axis of rotation. So, the torque caused by a force exerted on an object is the product of the magnitude of the force and its lever arm distance. It can be written equivalently as rF_{\perp} and as $r_{\perp}F$.

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 to rotate—for example, a plank or bridge supported at either end. To determine what reference point to use in such cases, complete the following exercise.

Exercise 12.1 Reference point

Consider again the rod in Figure 12.4. Calculate the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod.

SOLUTION I begin by making a sketch of the rod and the three forces exerted on it, showing their points of application on the rod (Figure 12.6).

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 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. ✓

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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.



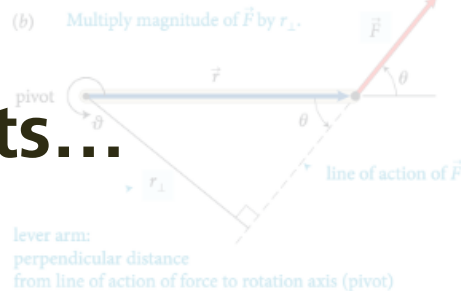
12.2 In the situation depicted in Figure 12.2a, you must continue to exert a force on the seesaw to keep the child off the ground. The force you exert causes a torque on the seesaw, and yet the seesaw's rotational acceleration is zero. How can this be if torques cause objects to accelerate rotationally?

Example 12.2 Torques on lever

Three forces are exerted on the lever of Figure 12.7. Forces \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_2 are equal in magnitude, and the magnitude of \vec{F}_3 is half as great. Force \vec{F}_1 is horizontal, \vec{F}_2 and \vec{F}_3 are vertical, and the lever makes an angle of 45° with the horizontal. Do these forces cause the lever to rotate about the pivot? If so, in which direction?

Students...

- read the textbook



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_1 and as $r_1 F$.

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 $r_1 F_1 + (-r_2 F_2)$. 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 to rotate—for example, a plank or bridge supported at either end. To determine what reference point to use in such cases, complete the following exercise.

Exercise 12.1 Reference point

Consider again the rod in Figure 12.4. Calculate the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod.

SOLUTION I begin by making a sketch of the rod and the three forces exerted on it, showing their points of application on the rod (Figure 12.6).

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 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 $r_1(F_1 + F_2) - (r_1 + r_2)F_2 = r_1 F_1 - r_2 F_2$. 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. ✓

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Example 12.2 Torques on lever

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Students...

- read the textbook
- learn how to read

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



lever arm:
perpendicular distance
from line of action of force to rotation axis (pivot)

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 $r_{\perp}F$.

Lever arm distance also 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.

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Students...

- read the textbook
- learn how to read
- learn how to read critically

CONCEPTS

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

lever arm:
perpendicular distance
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Three forces are exerted on the lever of Figure 12.7. Forces \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_2 are equal in magnitude, and the magnitude of \vec{F}_3 is half as great. Force \vec{F}_1 is horizontal, \vec{F}_2 and \vec{F}_3 are vertical, and the lever makes an angle of 45° with the horizontal. Do these forces cause the lever to rotate about the pivot? If so, in which direction?

Students...

- read the textbook
- learn how to read
- learn how to read critically
- participate in a collaborative experience

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

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In the situations depicted in Figures 12.4 and 12.5 we used the pivot to calculate the lever arm distances. This is a useful choice because the pivot is the point about which the rod rotates. For stationary objects that are supported at several different points and that are not free to rotate—for example, a plank or bridge supported at either end. To determine what reference point to use in such cases, complete the following exercise.

Exercise 12.1 Reference point

Consider again the rod in Figure 12.4. Calculate the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod.

SOLUTION I begin by making a sketch of the rod and the three forces exerted on it, showing their points of application on the rod (Figure 12.6).

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 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. ✓

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12.2 In the situation depicted in Figure 12.2a, you must continue to exert a force on the seesaw to keep the child off the ground. The force you exert causes a torque on the seesaw, and yet the seesaw's rotational acceleration is zero. How can this be if torques cause objects to accelerate rotationally?

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Three forces are exerted on the lever of Figure 12.7. Forces \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_2 are equal in magnitude, and the magnitude of \vec{F}_3 is half as great. Force \vec{F}_1 is horizontal, \vec{F}_2 and \vec{F}_3 are vertical, and the lever makes an angle of 45° with the horizontal. Do these forces cause the lever to rotate about the pivot? If so, in which direction?

Students...

- read the textbook
- learn how to read
- learn how to read critically
- participate in a collaborative experience
- get more out of their classes

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

lever arm:
perpendicular distance
from line of action of force to rotation axis (pivot)

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 $r_{\perp}F$.

Lever arm distance also 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, 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 useful choice because the pivot is the point about which the rod rotates. It also plays a role for stationary objects that are suspended or supported at several different points and that are not free to rotate—for example, a plank or bridge supported at either end. To determine what reference point to use in such cases, complete the following exercise.

Exercise 12.1 Reference point

Consider again the rod in Figure 12.4. Calculate the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod.

SOLUTION I begin by making a sketch of the rod and the three forces exerted on it, showing their points of application on the rod (Figure 12.6).

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 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. ✓

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Students...

- read the textbook
- learn how to read
- learn how to read critically
- learn how to study and work collaboratively
- get more out of their classes

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



lever arm:
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action of the force and the axis of rotation, the torque caused by a force exerted on an object is the product of the magnitude of the force and the lever arm. It is written as $\tau = r_{\perp}F$. As a result, the torque depends on the magnitude of the force and the angle θ . Figure 12.1 shows the torque caused by \vec{F}_1 about the pivot. The torque is in the direction of increasing θ , and so it is positive. The torque caused by \vec{F}_2 is negative, and so the sum of the two torques about the pivot is then $\tau = r_1F_1 - r_2F_2$. As we've seen, the two torques are equal in magnitude, so the sum of the two 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.

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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 about 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}_3 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_2 , and the lever arm distance of \vec{F}_3 about the left end of the rod is r_3 . Because the forces \vec{F}_2 and \vec{F}_3 are equal in magnitude, the torque caused by \vec{F}_2 is $-r_2F_2$ and the torque caused by \vec{F}_3 is r_3F_3 . Because $r_3 = r_2$, the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod is zero.

Example 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. We can summarize this result as follows:

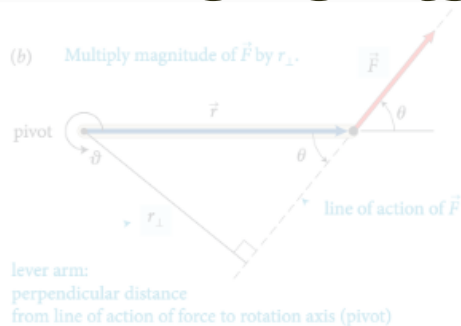
Principle of Torques: If an object is not rotating about any reference point, the sum of the torques about that reference point is zero. It pays to choose a reference point that simplifies the calculation. As you have seen, we do not need to consider a force exerted at the reference point, because the lever arm distance from that point to the reference point is zero.

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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.

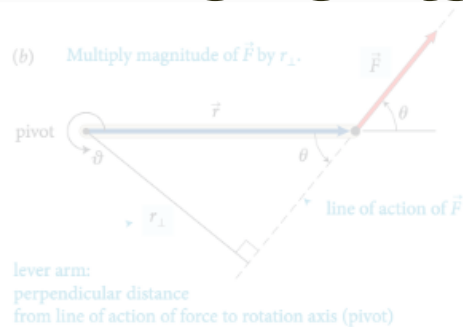


12.2 In the situation depicted in Figure 12.2a, you must continue to exert a force on the seesaw to keep the child off the ground. The force you exert causes a torque on the seesaw, and yet the seesaw's rotational acceleration is zero. How can this be if torques cause objects to accelerate rotationally?

Example 12.2 Torques on lever

Three forces are exerted on the lever of Figure 12.7. Forces \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_2 are equal in magnitude, and the magnitude of \vec{F}_3 is half as great. Force \vec{F}_1 is horizontal, \vec{F}_2 and \vec{F}_3 are vertical, and the lever makes an angle of 45° with the horizontal. Do these forces cause the lever to rotate about the pivot? If so, in which direction?

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



• time recovery

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 to rotate—for example, a plank or bridge supported at either end. To determine what reference point to use in such cases, complete the following exercise.

Exercise 12.1 Reference point

Consider again the rod in Figure 12.4. Calculate the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod.

SOLUTION I begin by making a sketch of the rod and the three forces exerted on it, showing their points of application on the rod (Figure 12.6).

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. ✓

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:

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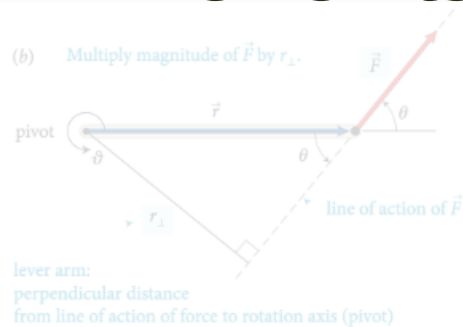


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(b) Multiply magnitude of \vec{F} by r_{\perp} .



lever arm:
perpendicular distance
from line of action of force to rotation axis (pivot)

- time recovery

- improved use of class time

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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 to rotate—for example, a plank or bridge supported at either end. To determine what reference point to use in such cases, complete the following exercise.

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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 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. ✓

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12.2 In the situation depicted in Figure 12.2a, you must continue to exert a force on the seesaw to keep the child off the ground. The force you exert causes a torque on the seesaw, and yet the seesaw's rotational acceleration is zero. How can this be if torques cause objects to accelerate rotationally?

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Three forces are exerted on the lever of Figure 12.7. Forces \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_3 are equal in magnitude, and the magnitude of \vec{F}_2 is half as great. Force \vec{F}_1 is horizontal, \vec{F}_2 and \vec{F}_3 are vertical, and the lever makes an angle of 45° with the horizontal. Do these forces cause the lever to rotate about the pivot? If so, in which direction?

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



lever arm:
perpendicular distance
from line of action of force to rotation axis (pivot)

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 , and as $r_{\perp}F$.

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 $r_1F_1 + (-r_2F_2)$. We've seen that the two torques are equal in magnitude, 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 to rotate—for example, a plank or bridge supported at either end. To determine what reference point to use in such cases, complete the following exercise.

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12.2 In the situation depicted in Figure 12.2a, you must continue to exert a force on the seesaw to keep the child off the ground. The force you exert causes a torque on the seesaw, and yet the seesaw's rotational acceleration is zero. How can this be if torques cause objects to accelerate rotationally?

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Three forces are exerted on the lever of Figure 12.7. Forces \vec{F}_1 and \vec{F}_2 are equal in magnitude, and the magnitude of \vec{F}_3 is half as great. Force \vec{F}_1 is horizontal, \vec{F}_2 and \vec{F}_3 are vertical, and the lever makes an angle of 45° with the horizontal. Do these forces cause the lever to rotate about the pivot? If so, in which direction?

- time recovery
- improved use of class time
- enhanced respect and understanding for students

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



lever arm:
perpendicular distance
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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 $r_1F_1 + (-r_2F_2)$. We've seen that the two torques are equal in magnitude, so the sum of the two 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 to rotate. For example, a crane can be supported at one end, and a seesaw can be supported at the other end. To determine what reference point to use in such cases, complete the following exercise.

Exercise 12.1 Reference point

Consider again the rod in Figure 12.4. Calculate the sum of the torques about the left end of the rod.

SOLUTION I begin by making a sketch of the rod and the three forces exerted on it, showing their points of application on the rod (Figure 12.6).

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 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. ✓

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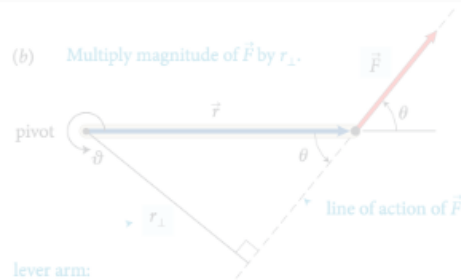
Example 12.2 Torques on lever

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- time recovery
- improved use of class time
- enhanced respect and understanding for students

all at no cost & no additional effort!

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



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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 to rotate—for example, a plank or bridge supported at either end. To determine what reference point to use in such cases, complete the following exercise.

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The sum of the torques about any point is zero. It is often useful 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.



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follow up questions?
support@perusall.com