

sears
zemansky
university
physics fourth
edition
complete

UNIVERSITY PHYSICS

Fourth Edition

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Preface

University Physics is available in one complete volume or as two separate parts: Part I covers the subjects of mechanics, heat, and sound; Part II includes electricity and magnetism, light, and atomic physics. The total number of topics is small enough so that the complete text may be taught in two semesters.

The text is intended for students of science and engineering who are taking a course in calculus concurrently and to whom calculus is still a new tool. The emphasis is on physical principles; historical background and practical applications have been given a place of secondary importance.

Three systems of units are used: the British gravitational system because it is the one used in engineering work throughout the country; the cgs system because some familiarity with it is essential for any intelligent reading of the literature of physics; and the mks system because of its increasing use in electricity and magnetism, as well as because it seems destined to eventually supplant the cgs system. The symbols and terminology, with few exceptions, are those recommended by the Committee on Letter Symbols and Abbreviations of the American Association of Physics Teachers as listed in the American Standard, ASA-Z10, published in 1947.

In this fourth edition, many of the features of the third edition are retained. Numerous illustrative problems are worked out in the body of the text; in each of them, all physical quantities are expressed by numerics along with the appropriate units. The problems at the end of each chapter deal with physical topics in the same order as in the body of the text; they are graded in difficulty and are designed to provide opportunities for routine drill as well as for independent thinking.

The level of mathematical and physical sophistication has been slightly reduced. The concept of the vector product has been removed from the treatment of elementary statics and postponed until the subject of angular momentum is encountered in Chapter 9. The relativistic treatment of relative velocity and the detailed diagrammatic analysis of length contraction and time dilation have been removed from elementary kinematics. Only the variation of mass with velocity has been retained in order to illuminate the Einstein relation between mass and energy. The concept of a magnetic field is introduced in the same manner as that of the second edition, without using relativistic principles.

Some of the more advanced topics that the students will meet in their later intermediate courses have been removed. Chief among these are the concept of circulation in a velocity field, details concerned with radiative heat transfer, and treatments of Maxwellian velocity distribution, mean free path, and viscosity, in the kinetic theory of gases. The mathematical treatment of the propagation of electromagnetic waves has been simplified and shortened.

In the early 1960's the level of difficulty of first-year physics for colleges and universities underwent a notable rise. Sparked by activities of the Commission on College Physics, by increased use of the materials prepared by the Physical Science Study Committee, and by wishful thinking, new courses were developed which went beyond the mathematical and physical limits imposed by the previous preparation of the average entering freshman. Unfortunately this preparation on the part of many students has not increased to the level demanded by the more difficult texts. As a result, some

readjustment is necessary, and this fourth edition of *University Physics* may be regarded as a slight move in an attempt to reach the most realistic level.

It is with a feeling of sincere gratitude that we acknowledge the help we have received from the following teachers of physics: J. G. Anderson, J. D. Barnett, H. H. Barschall, A. C. Braden, P. Catranides, D. S. Duncan, D.

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Contents

1 Composition and Resolution of Vectors			
1-1 The fundamental indefinables of mechanics	1	5-1 Introduction	57
1-2 Standards and units	1	5-2 Newton's second law. Mass	57
1-3 Symbols for physical quantities	3	5-3 Systems of units	59
1-4 Force	4	5-4 Newton's law of universal gravitation	59
1-5 Graphical representation of forces. Vectors	4	5-5 Mass and weight	61
1-6 Vector addition. Resultant of a set of forces	5	5-6 Applications of Newton's second law	63
1-7 Components of a vector	8		
1-8 Resultant by rectangular resolution	9	6 Motion in a Plane	
1-9 Vector difference	10	6-1 Motion in a plane	73
		6-2 Average and instantaneous velocity	73
2 Equilibrium of a Particle		6-3 Average and instantaneous acceleration	74
2-1 Introduction	13	6-4 Components of acceleration	75
2-2 Equilibrium. Newton's first law	13	6-5 Motion of a projectile	77
2-3 Discussion of Newton's first law of motion	15	6-6 Circular motion	81
2-4 Stable, unstable, and neutral equilibrium	16	6-7 Centripetal force	82
2-5 Newton's third law of motion	16	6-8 Motion in a vertical circle	84
2-6 Equilibrium of a particle	17	6-9 Motion of a satellite	86
2-7 Friction	23	6-10 Effect of the earth's rotation on g	88
3 Equilibrium. Moment of a Force		7 Work and Energy	
3-1 Moment of a force	30	7-1 Introduction	94
3-2 The second condition of equilibrium	31	7-2 Work	95
3-3 Resultant of parallel forces	33	7-3 Kinetic energy	97
3-4 Center of gravity	34	7-4 Gravitational potential energy	98
3-5 Couples	35	7-5 Elastic potential energy	102
		7-6 Conservative and dissipative forces	103
4 Rectilinear Motion		7-7 Internal work	104
4-1 Motion	41	7-8 Internal potential energy	105
4-2 Average velocity	41	7-9 Power	106
4-3 Instantaneous velocity	42	7-10 Power and velocity	107
4-4 Average and instantaneous acceleration	43	7-11 Mass and energy	107
4-5 Rectilinear motion with constant acceleration	44		
4-6 Velocity and coordinate by integration	46	8 Impulse and Momentum	
4-7 Freely falling bodies	48	8-1 Impulse and momentum	115
4-8 Rectilinear motion with variable acceleration	50	8-2 Conservation of linear momentum	117
4-9 Velocity components. Relative velocity	51	8-3 Elastic and inelastic collisions	118

8-4	Inelastic collisions	119	13-3	Pressure difference across a surface film	190
8-5	Elastic collisions	120	13-4	Minimal surfaces	192
8-6	Recoil	121	13-5	Contact angle	193
8-7	Principles of rocket propulsion	123	13-6	Capillarity	195
9	Rotation		14	Hydrodynamics and Viscosity	
9-1	Introduction	128	14-1	Introduction	197
9-2	Angular velocity	128	14-2	The equation of continuity	198
9-3	Angular acceleration	129	14-3	Bernoulli's equation	198
9-4	Rotation with constant angular acceleration	130	14-4	Applications of Bernoulli's equation	200
9-5	Relation between angular and linear velocity and acceleration	130	14-5	Viscosity	204
9-6	Torque and angular acceleration. Moment of inertia	131	14-6	Poiseuille's law	206
9-7	Calculation of moments of inertia	134	14-7	Stokes' law	208
9-8	Kinetic energy, work, and power	137	14-8	Reynolds number	208
9-9	Angular momentum	138	 		
9-10	Rotation about a moving axis. The top and the gyroscope	141	15	Temperature-Expansion	
10	Elasticity		15-1	Concept of temperature	213
10-1	Stress	151	15-2	Thermometers	215
10-2	Strain	153	15-3	The establishment of a temperature scale	217
10-3	Elasticity and plasticity	154	15-4	The Celsius, Rankine, and Fahrenheit scales	219
10-4	Elastic modulus	155	15-5	Expansion of solids and liquids	220
10-5	The force constant	157	15-6	Thermal stresses	222
11	Harmonic Motion		16	Heat and Heat Measurements	
11-1	Introduction	160	16-1	Heat transfer	225
11-2	Elastic restoring forces	160	16-2	Quantity of heat	225
11-3	Definitions	160	16-3	Heat capacity	228
11-4	Equations of simple harmonic motion	161	16-4	The measurement of heat capacity	228
11-5	Motion of a body suspended from a coil spring	166	16-5	Experimental values of heat capacities	230
11-6	The simple pendulum	167	16-6	Change of phase	231
11-7	Lissajous figures	168	 		
11-8	Angular harmonic motion	170	17	Transfer of Heat	
11-9	The physical pendulum	170	17-1	Conduction	237
11-10	Center of oscillation	171	17-2	Radial heat flow in a sphere or cylinder	239
12	Hydrostatics		17-3	Convection	239
12-1	Introduction	176	17-4	Radiation	241
12-2	Pressure in a fluid	176	17-5	Stefan's law	242
12-3	The hydrostatic paradox	178	17-6	The ideal radiator	243
12-4	Pressure gauges	178	 		
12-5	Vacuum pumps	179	18	Thermal Properties of Matter	
12-6	Archimedes' principle	181	18-1	Equations of state	246
12-7	Forces against a dam	183	18-2	The ideal gas	246
13	Surface Tension		18-3	pVT -surface for an ideal gas	249
13-1	Surface tension	188	18-4	pVT -surface for a real substance	249
13-2	Surface tension and surface energy	190	18-5	Critical point and triple point	252
			18-6	Effect of dissolved substances on freezing and boiling points	256
			18-7	Humidity	256
			18-8	The Wilson cloud chamber and the bubble chamber	257

19 The Laws of Thermodynamics	
19-1 Work in thermodynamics	261
19-2 Work in changing the volume	261
19-3 Heat depends on the path	262
19-4 The first law of thermodynamics	263
19-5 Adiabatic process	264
19-6 Isochoric process	264
19-7 Isothermal process	265
19-8 Isobaric process	265
19-9 Throttling process	265
19-10 Differential form of the first law	266
19-11 Internal energy of a gas	266
19-12 Heat capacities of an ideal gas	267
19-13 Adiabatic process of an ideal gas	269
19-14 The conversion of heat into work	270
19-15 The gasoline engine	272
19-16 The Diesel engine	273
19-17 The steam engine	273
19-18 The second law of thermodynamics	274
19-19 The refrigerator	275
19-20 The Carnot cycle	276
19-21 The Kelvin temperature scale	277
19-22 Absolute zero	278
19-23 Entropy	278
20 Molecular Properties of Matter	
20-1 Molecular theory of matter	284
20-2 Avogadro's number	286
20-3 Equation of state of an ideal gas	287
20-4 Molar heat capacity of a gas	290
20-5 Experimental measurement of molecular speeds	291
20-6 Crystals	292
20-7 Heat capacity of a crystal	294
21 Traveling Waves	
21-1 Introduction	297
21-2 Mathematical representation of a traveling wave	298
21-3 Calculation of the speed of a transverse pulse	300
21-4 Calculation of the speed of a longitudinal pulse	302
21-5 Adiabatic character of a longitudinal wave	302
21-6 Waves in a canal	304
22 Vibrating Bodies	
22-1 Boundary conditions for a string	308
22-2 Stationary waves in a string	310
22-3 Vibration of a string fixed at both ends	311
22-4 Demonstration of the harmonic series in a vibrating string	312
22-5 Resonance	313
22-6 Interference of longitudinal waves	313
22-7 Stationary longitudinal waves	314
22-8 Vibrations of organ pipes	315
22-9 Vibrations of rods and plates	316
23 Acoustical Phenomena	
23-1 Pressure variations in a sound wave	319
23-2 Intensity	319
23-3 Intensity level and loudness	320
23-4 Quality and pitch	321
23-5 Spherical waves	322
23-6 Radiation from a piston. Diffraction	323
23-7 Radiating efficiency of a sound source	325
23-8 Beats	326
23-9 The Doppler effect	327
24 Coulomb's Law	
24-1 Electric charges	331
24-2 Atomic structure	332
24-3 The leaf electroscope and the electrometer	333
24-4 Conductors and insulators	334
24-5 Charging by induction	334
24-6 Coulomb's law	336
25 The Electric Field. Gauss's Law	
25-1 The electric field	339
25-2 Calculation of electric intensity	341
25-3 Lines of force	345
25-4 Gauss's law	346
25-5 Applications of Gauss's law	349
26 Potential	
26-1 Line integral of electric intensity	358
26-2 Electrical potential energy	359
26-3 Potential	360
26-4 Calculation of potential differences	360
26-5 Potential in terms of charge distribution	363
26-6 Potential gradient	364
26-7 The Millikan oil drop experiment	365
26-8 The electron volt. Relativistic variation of mass with velocity	367
26-9 The cathode-ray oscilloscope	368
26-10 Sharing of charge by conductors	370
26-11 The Van de Graaff generator	371
27 Capacitance. Properties of Dielectrics	
27-1 Capacitors	375
27-2 The parallel-plate capacitor	375
27-3 Capacitors in series and parallel	376
27-4 Energy of a charged capacitor	378
27-5 Effect of a dielectric	379

27-6	Molecular theory of induced charges on a dielectric	380	32 Magnetic Field of a Current	
27-7	Polarization and displacement	382	32-1	Magnetic field of a moving point charge 449
27-8	Susceptibility, dielectric coefficient, and permittivity	383	32-2	Magnetic field of a current element. The Biot law 450
28 Current, Resistance, and Electromotive Force			32-3	Magnetic field of a long straight conductor 451
28-1	Current	388	32-4	Force between parallel conductors. The ampere and the coulomb 452
28-2	Resistivity	390	32-5	Magnetic field of a circular turn 453
28-3	Theory of metallic conduction	391	32-6	Ampère's law 455
28-4	Resistance	392	32-7	Applications of Ampère's law 456
28-5	Electromotive force	393	32-8	Magnetic fields and displacement currents 458
28-6	Current voltage diagrams	399	33 Induced Electromotive Force	
28-7	Work and power in electrical circuits	400	33-1	Motional electromotive force 463
28-8	Thermoelectricity	403	33-2	The search coil 466
28-9	Applications of the fundamental thermocouple equation	404	33-3	Galvanometer damping 467
28-10	The electric field of the earth	406	33-4	Induced electric fields 468
29 Direct-Current Circuits and Instruments			33-5	Lenz's law 471
29-1	Resistors in series and in parallel	410	33-6	The betatron 471
29-2	Kirchhoff's rules	412	33-7	Eddy currents 473
29-3	Ammeters and voltmeters	413	33-8	Mutual inductance 474
29-4	The Wheatstone bridge	415	33-9	Self-inductance 475
29-5	The ohmmeter.	416	33-10	Energy associated with an inductor 476
29-6	The potentiometer	416	33-11	The <i>R-L</i> circuit 477
29-7	The <i>R-C</i> series circuit	417	33-12	The <i>L-C</i> circuit 478
29-8	Displacement current	419	33-13	The <i>R-L-C</i> circuit 479
30 The Magnetic Field			34 Magnetic Properties of Matter	
30-1	Magnetism	425	34-1	Equivalent surface currents 486
30-2	The magnetic field induction	426	34-2	Molecular theory of dia- and paramagnetism 487
30-3	Lines of induction, Magnetic flux	427	34-3	Magnetization and magnetic intensity 488
30-4	Orbits of charged particles in magnetic fields	428	34-4	Magnetic susceptibility, permeability, and magnetic coefficient 489
30-5	Thomson's measurement of <i>e/m</i>	430	34-5	Ferromagnetism 490
30-6	Positive rays	431	34-6	Magnetization of iron, Magnetic domains 492
30-7	Isotopes	433	34-7	Hysteresis 493
30-8	Mass spectroscopy	434	34-8	Magnetic poles 495
30-9	Atomic weights, The atomic mass unit	435	34-9	Demagnetizing fields 497
30-10	The cyclotron	435	34-10	The magnetic field of the earth 498
31 Magnetic Forces on Current-Carrying Conductors			34-11	The magnetic circuit 499
31-1	Force on a current-carrying conductor	439	35 Alternating Currents	
31-2	The Hall effect	439	35-1	Introduction 503
31-3	Force and torque on a complete circuit, Magnetic moment	440	35-2	Circuits containing resistance, inductance, or capacitance 503
31-4	The spinning electron	442	35-3	The <i>R-L-C</i> series circuit 506
31-5	The galvanometer	443	35-4	Average and root-mean-square values, AC instruments 508
31-6	The pivoted-coil galvanometer	444	35-5	Power in AC circuits 510
31-7	The ballistic galvanometer	444	35-6	Series resonance 511
31-8	The direct-current motor	445	35-7	Circuits in parallel 513
31-9	The electromagnetic pump	445	35-8	The transformer 513

36 Electromagnetic Waves		
36-1 Introduction	518	
36-2 Speed of an electromagnetic wave	518	
36-3 The Poynting vector	521	
36-4 Electromagnetic waves in matter	522	
36-5 Traveling waves on a transmission line	523	
36-6 Stationary waves	524	
36-7 Radiation of electromagnetic waves from an antenna	526	
36-8 Electromagnetic waves in free space	527	
36-9 Maxwell's equations	529	
37 The Nature and Propagation of Light		
37-1 The nature of light	533	
37-2 Sources of light	534	
37-3 Waves, wavefronts, and rays	536	
37-4 The speed of light	538	
37-5 The laws of reflection and refraction	539	
37-6 Index of refraction	541	
38 Reflection and Refraction at Plane Surfaces		
38-1 Huygens' principle	544	
38-2 Derivation of the law of reflection from Huygens' principle	545	
38-3 Derivation of Snell's law from Huygens' principle	546	
38-4 Total internal reflection	548	
38-5 Refraction by a prism	549	
38-6 Dispersion	550	
38-7 The rainbow	551	
39 Images Formed by a Single Reflection or Refraction		
39-1 Introduction	555	
39-2 Reflection at a plane mirror	555	
39-3 Reflection at a spherical mirror	558	
39-4 Focal point and focal length	562	
39-5 Graphical methods	563	
39-6 Refraction at a plane surface	564	
39-7 Refraction at a spherical surface	566	
39-8 Summary	568	
40 Lenses and Optical Instruments		
40-1 Images as objects	572	
40-2 The thin lens	573	
40-3 Diverging lenses	576	
40-4 Graphical methods	577	
40-5 Images as objects for lenses	578	
40-6 The newtonian form of the lens equation	578	
40-7 Thick lenses	580	
40-8 Lens aberrations	581	
40-9 The eye	581	
40-10 The magnifier	583	
40-11 The camera	584	
40-12 The projection lantern	585	
40-13 The microscope	586	
40-14 The telescope	587	
41 Interference and Diffraction		
41-1 Principles of interference. Mutually coherent sources	592	
41-2 Young's double slit and Pohl's mica sheet	594	
41-3 Intensity distribution in interference fringes	598	
41-4 Phase change in reflection. Lloyd's mirror	599	
41-5 Interference in thin films. Newton's rings	600	
41-6 Thin coatings on glass	602	
41-7 Energy conservation in interference	603	
41-8 The Michelson interferometer	604	
41-9 The Michelson-Morley experiment	606	
41-10 Fresnel diffraction	608	
41-11 Fraunhofer diffraction by a single slit	611	
41-12 The plane diffraction grating	614	
41-13 Diffraction of x-rays by a crystal	616	
41-14 The resolving power of optical instruments	617	
42 Polarization		
42-1 Polarization	622	
42-2 Polarization by reflection	623	
42-3 Double refraction	624	
42-4 Polarization by double refraction	626	
42-5 Percentage polarization. Malus' law	627	
42-6 The scattering of light	629	
42-7 Circular and elliptic polarization	630	
42-8 Production of colors by polarized light	631	
42-9 Optical stress analysis	632	
42-10 Study of crystals by convergent polarized light	632	
42-11 Optical activity	634	
43 Atoms, Electrons, and Photons		
43-1 Conduction in gases	636	
43-2 Thermionic emission	637	
43-3 The triode	638	
43-4 The photoelectric effect	639	
43-5 Line spectra	641	
43-6 The Bohr atom	642	
43-7 Deuterium	645	
43-8 Wave mechanics	646	
43-9 The electron microscope	647	
43-10 Absorption spectra	648	
43-11 The laser	650	
43-12 Band spectra	651	
43-13 The x-ray tube	652	
43-14 X-ray spectra	653	

44 Radioactivity and Nuclear Physics	
44-1 Natural radioactivity	657
44-2 Alpha particles	658
44-3 Rutherford's scattering experiment	659
44-4 Beta particles	660
44-5 Gamma rays	661
44-6 Radioactive transformations	661
44-7 Artificial nuclear disintegration	664
44-8 Cosmic rays. The positron	665
44-9 Neutrons and mesons	666
44-10 Nuclear stability	667
44-11 Nuclear fission	668
44-12 Thermonuclear reactions	670

Answers to Odd-Numbered Problems	A-1
Natural trigonometric functions	T-1
Common logarithms	T-2
Periodic table of the elements	T-3
Fundamental constants	T-4
Conversion factors	T-5
Index	Index-1

Composition and Resolution of Vectors

1-1 THE FUNDAMENTAL INDEFINABLES OF MECHANICS

Physics has been called the science of measurement. To quote from Lord Kelvin (1824–1907), "I often say that when you can measure what you are speaking about, and express it in numbers, you know something about it; but when you cannot express it in numbers, your knowledge is of a meagre and unsatisfactory kind; it may be the beginning of knowledge, but you have scarcely, in your thoughts, advanced to the stage of *Science*, whatever the matter may be."

A definition of a quantity in physics must provide a set of rules for calculating it in terms of other quantities that can be measured. Thus, when momentum is defined as the product of "mass" and "velocity," the rule for calculating momentum is contained within the definition, and all that is necessary is to know how to measure mass and velocity. The definition of velocity is given in terms of length and time, but there are no simpler or more fundamental quantities in terms of which length and time may be expressed. *Length and time are two of the indefinables of mechanics.* It has been found possible to express all the quantities of mechanics in terms of only three indefinables. The third may be taken to be "mass" or "force" with equal justification. *We shall choose mass as the third indefinable of mechanics.*

In geometry, the fundamental indefinable is the "point." The geometer asks his disciple to build any picture of a point in his mind, provided the picture is consistent with what the geometer says about the point. In physics, the situation is not so subtle. Physicists from all over the world have international committees at whose meetings the rules of measurement of the indefinables

are adopted. The rule for measuring an indefinable takes the place of a definition.

1-2 STANDARDS AND UNITS

The set of rules for measuring the indefinables of mechanics is determined by an international committee called the *General Conference on Weights and Measures*, to which all the major countries send delegates. One of the chief functions of the Conference is to decide on a standard for each indefinable. A standard may be an actual object, in which case its main characteristic must be *durability*. Thus in 1889 when the meter bar of platinum-iridium alloy was chosen as the standard of length, it was felt that this alloy was particularly stable in its chemical structure. If, instead of platinum-iridium, a glass bar had been chosen, its length would have changed throughout the years because of the unavoidable crystallization that glass undergoes as it ages. Although platinum-iridium is an unusually stable alloy, the preservation of a bar of this material as a world standard entails a number of cumbersome provisions, such as making a large number of replicas for all the major countries and comparing these replicas with the world standard at periodic intervals. On October 14, 1960, the General Conference changed the standard of length to an *atomic constant*, namely, the *wavelength of the orange-red light emitted by the individual atoms of krypton-86* in a tube filled with krypton gas in which an electrical discharge is maintained.

The standard of mass is the mass of a *cylinder of platinum-iridium*, designated as *one kilogram*, and kept

TABLE 1-1 STANDARDS AND UNITS AS OF 1969

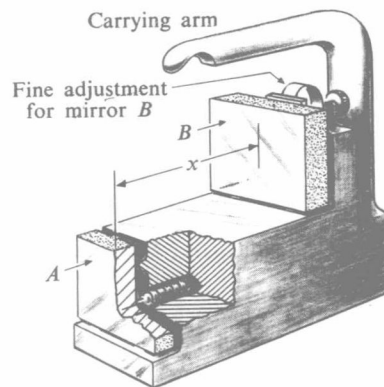
	Standard	Measuring device	Unit
Length	Wavelength of orange-red light from krypton-86	Optical interferometer	1 meter = 1,650,763.73 wavelengths
Mass	Platinum-iridium cylinder, 1 kilogram	Equal-arm balance	1 kilogram
Time	Periodic time associated with a transition between two energy levels of cesium-133 atom	Atomic clock	1 second = 9,192,631,770 cesium periods

at the International Bureau of Weights and Measures at Sèvres, near Paris.

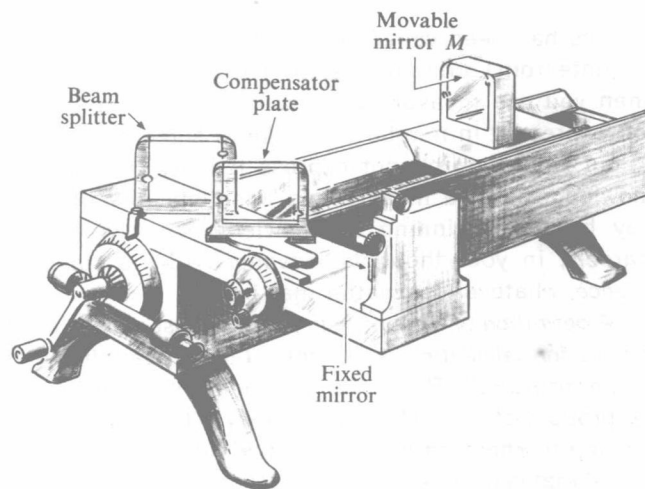
Before 1960, the standard of time was the interval of time between successive appearances of the sun overhead, averaged over a year, and called the *mean solar day*. Between 1960 and 1967 it was changed to the *tropical year 1900*, that is, the time it took the sun to move from a certain point in the heavens, known as the *vernal equinox*, back to the same point in 1900. In October 1967, the standard was changed again to the *periodic time of the radiation corresponding to the transition between the two hyperfine levels of the fundamental state of the atom of cesium-133*.

The three standards are listed in Table 1-1.

After the choice of a standard, the next step is to decide upon an instrument and a technique for comparing the standard with an unknown. Consider, for example, the distance x between two mirrors, A and B , of the device called an *etalon*, shown in Fig. 1-1(a). To find the number of wavelengths of orange-red light of krypton-86 in the distance x requires the use of an *optical interferometer*, one type of which, due to Michelson, is shown in Fig. 1-1(b). A movable mirror M on the Michelson interferometer is first made to coincide in position with A on the etalon. Then the mirror is moved slowly to coincide with B , during which time gradations of orange and black, known as *interference fringes*, move past the cross hair in the field of view of a telescope and are



(a)



(b)

1-1 (a) Etalon and (b) Michelson interferometer for use in measuring the distance x in terms of the wavelength of light.

counted. The motion of one complete fringe corresponds to a motion of mirror M of exactly one-half a wavelength. A length known as *one meter* is defined in this way as

$$1 \text{ meter} = 1,650,763.73 \text{ wavelengths of orange-red light of krypton-86.}$$

Other units of length frequently used in pure science are:

$$1 \text{ angstrom unit} = 1 \text{ \AA} = 10^{-10} \text{ m}$$

(used by spectroscopists),

$$1 \text{ nanometer} = 1 \text{ nm} = 10^{-9} \text{ m}$$

(used by optical designers),

TABLE 1-2 PREFIXES FOR POWERS OF TEN

Power of ten	10^{-12}	10^{-9}	10^{-6}	10^{-3}	10^{-2}	10^3	10^6	10^9	10^{12}
Prefix	pico-	nano-	micro-	milli-	centi-	kilo-	mega-	giga-	tera-
Abbreviation	p	n	μ	m	c	k	M	G	T

- 1 micrometer = $1 \mu\text{m} = 10^{-6} \text{ m}$
 (used commonly in biology),
 1 millimeter = $1 \text{ mm} = 10^{-3} \text{ m}$
 1 centimeter = $1 \text{ cm} = 10^{-2} \text{ m}$
 1 kilometer = $1 \text{ km} = 10^3 \text{ m}$
 (a common European unit of distance),

The words "nanometer," "micrometer," and "kilometer" are all accented on the *first* syllable, *not* the second, just like the words "millimeter" and "centimeter." The prefix "nano" is pronounced "nanno." Units of length used in everyday life and in engineering in both the United States and the United Kingdom are defined as follows:

- 1 inch = 1 in. = $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 41,929.399 \text{ wavelengths of Kr light,} \\ 2.54 \text{ cm,} \end{array} \right.$
 1 foot = 1 ft = 12 in.,
 1 yard = 1 yd = 3 ft,
 1 mile = 1 mi = 5280 ft.

The device used to subdivide the standard of mass, the kilogram, into equal submasses is the *equal-arm balance*, which will be discussed in Chapter 5. Frequently used units of mass are:

- 1 microgram = $1 \mu\text{g} = 10^{-9} \text{ kg}$,
 1 milligram = $1 \text{ mg} = 10^{-6} \text{ kg}$,
 1 gram = $1 \text{ g} = 10^{-3} \text{ kg}$,
 1 pound mass = $1 \text{ lbm} = 0.45359237 \text{ kg}$.

The clock making use of the standard time interval is the *cesium clock*, a large, complex, and expensive laboratory instrument. It is extraordinarily precise and maintains its frequency constant to one part in one hundred billion (10^{11}) or better. Furthermore, it may be compared with other high-precision clocks in an hour or so as against the years required for comparison with the old astronomical standard. In the atomic clock, a beam of cesium-133 atoms passes through a long metal cylin-

der and interacts with microwaves brought in by a wave guide from a generator controlled by a quartz oscillator. The *unit* of time used throughout the world is called the *second* and is defined to be

$$1 \text{ second} = 1 \text{ s} = 9,192,631,770 \text{ Cs periods.}$$

Other common units of time are:

- 1 nanosecond = $1 \text{ ns} = 10^{-9} \text{ s}$,
 1 microsecond = $1 \mu\text{s} = 10^{-6} \text{ s}$,
 1 millisecond = $1 \text{ ms} = 10^{-3} \text{ s}$,
 1 minute = $1 \text{ min} = 60 \text{ s}$,
 1 hour = $1 \text{ hr} = 3600 \text{ s}$,
 1 day = $1 \text{ day} = 86,400 \text{ s}$.

It will be found useful to memorize the prefixes and abbreviations for the various powers of ten which are collected in Table 1-2. (The prefix "giga" is pronounced "jeega.")

1-3 SYMBOLS FOR PHYSICAL QUANTITIES

We shall adopt the convention that an algebraic symbol representing a physical quantity, such as F , p , or v , stands for both a *number* and a *unit*. For example, F might represent a force of 10 lb, p a pressure of 15 lb ft⁻², and v a velocity of 15 ft s⁻¹.

When we write

$$x = v_0 t + \frac{1}{2} a t^2,$$

if x is in feet, then the terms $v_0 t$ and $\frac{1}{2} a t^2$ must be in feet also. Suppose t is in seconds. Then the units of v_0 must be ft s⁻¹ and those of a must be ft s⁻². (The factor $\frac{1}{2}$ is a *pure number*, without units.) As a numerical example, let $v_0 = 10 \text{ ft s}^{-1}$, $a = 4 \text{ ft s}^{-2}$, $t = 10 \text{ s}$. Then the preceding equation would be written

$$x = 10 \text{ ft s}^{-1} \times 10 \text{ s} + \frac{1}{2} \times 4 \text{ ft s}^{-2} \times 10 \text{ s}^2.$$

The units are treated like algebraic symbols. The s 's cancel in the first term and the s^2 's in the second, and

$$x = 100 \text{ ft} + 200 \text{ ft} = 300 \text{ ft}.$$

The beginning student will do well to include the units of all physical quantities, as well as their magnitudes, in all his calculations. This will be done consistently in the numerical examples throughout the book.

1-4 FORCE

Mechanics is the branch of physics which deals with the motion of material bodies and with the forces that bring about the motion. Since motion is best described by the methods of calculus and many readers of this book are just beginning their study of this subject, we shall postpone a discussion of motion until Chapter 4, and start with a study of forces.

When we push or pull on a body, we are said to exert a *force* on it. Forces can also be exerted by inanimate objects: a stretched spring exerts forces on the bodies to which its ends are attached; compressed air exerts a force on the walls of its container; a locomotive exerts a force on the train it is drawing. The force of which we are most aware in our daily lives is the force of gravitational attraction exerted on every body by the earth, and is called the *weight* of the body. Gravitational forces (and electrical and magnetic forces also) can act through empty space without contact. In this respect they differ from the forces mentioned above, where the body doing the pushing or pulling must make contact with the body being pushed or pulled.

We are not yet in a position to show how a unit of force can be defined in terms of the units of mass, length, and time. This will be done in Chapter 5. For the present, a unit of force can be defined as follows. We select as a standard body the standard pound, defined in Section 1-2 as a certain fraction (approximately 0.454) of a standard kilogram. The force with which the earth attracts this body, at some specified point on the earth's surface, is then a perfectly definite, reproducible force and is called a force of *one pound* (avoirdupois). A particular point on the earth's surface must be specified, since the attraction of the earth for a given body varies slightly from one point to another. If great precision is not required, it suffices to take any point at sea level and 45° latitude.

In order that an unknown force can be compared with the force unit, and thereby measured, some measurable effect produced by a force must be used. One such effect is to alter the dimensions or shape of a body on which the force is exerted; another is to alter the state of motion of the body. Both of these effects are used in the measurement of forces. In this chapter we shall consider only the former; the latter will be discussed in Chapter 5.

The instrument most commonly used to measure forces is the spring balance, which consists of a coil spring enclosed in a case for protection and carrying at one end a pointer that moves over a scale. A force exerted on the balance changes the length of the spring. The balance can be calibrated as follows. The standard pound is first suspended from the balance at sea level and 45° latitude and the position of the pointer is marked 1 lb. Any number of duplicates of the standard can then be prepared by suspending a body from the balance and adding or removing material until the index again stands at 1 lb. Then when two, three, or more of these are suspended simultaneously from the balance, the force stretching it is 2 lb, 3 lb, etc., and the corresponding positions of the pointer can be labeled 2 lb, 3 lb, etc. This procedure makes no assumption about the elastic properties of the spring except that the force exerted on it is always the same when the pointer stands at the same position. The calibrated balance can then be used to measure an unknown force.



Fig. 1-2

1-5 GRAPHICAL REPRESENTATION OF FORCES. VECTORS

Suppose we are to slide a box along the floor by pulling it with a string or pushing it with a stick, as in Fig. 1-2. That is, we are to slide it by exerting a force on it. The point of view which we now adopt is that the motion of the box is caused not by the *objects* which push or pull on it, but by the *forces* which these exert. For concreteness, assume the magnitude of the push or pull to be 10 lb.

It is clear that simply to write "10 lb" on the diagram would not completely describe the force, since it would not indicate the direction in which the force was acting. One might write "10 lb, 30° above horizontal to the right," or "10 lb, 45° below horizontal to the right," but all the above information may be conveyed more briefly if we adopt the convention of representing a force by an arrow. The length of the arrow, to some chosen scale, indicates the size or *magnitude* of the force, and the direction in which the arrow points indicates the *direction* of the force. Thus Fig. 1-3 is the force diagram corresponding to Fig. 1-2. (There are other forces acting on the box, but these are not shown in the figure.)



Fig. 1-3

Force is not the only physical quantity which requires the specification of a direction in space as well as a magnitude. For example, the velocity of an aircraft is not completely specified by stating that it is 300 miles per hour; we need to know the direction also. The concept of volume, on the other hand, has no direction associated with it.

Quantities like volume, which involve a magnitude only, are called *scalars*. Those like force and velocity, which involve both a magnitude and a direction in space, are called *vector quantities*. Any vector quantity can be represented by an arrow, and this arrow is called a vector (or if a more specific statement is needed, a force vector or a velocity vector).

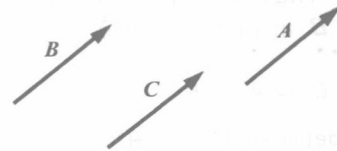
Some vector quantities, of which force is one, are not *completely* specified by their magnitude and direction alone. Thus the effect of a force depends also on its *line of action* and its *point of application*. (The line of action is a line of indefinite length, of which the force vector is a segment.) For example, if one is pushing horizontally against a door, the effectiveness of a force of given magnitude and direction depends on the distance of its line of action from the hinges. If a body is

deformable, as all bodies are to a greater or lesser extent, the deformation depends on the point of application of the force. However, since many actual objects are deformed only very slightly by the forces acting on them, we shall assume for the present that all objects considered are perfectly rigid. The point of application of a given force acting on a rigid body may be transferred to any other point on the line of action without altering the effect of the force. Thus a force applied to a rigid body may be regarded as acting anywhere along its line of action.

A vector quantity is represented by a letter in bold-face type. The same letter in ordinary type represents the magnitude of the quantity. Thus the magnitude of a force F is represented by F .

1-6 VECTOR ADDITION. RESULTANT OF A SET OF FORCES

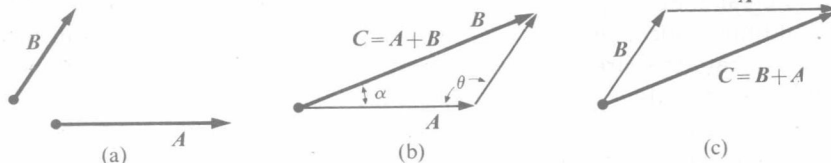
The sciences of arithmetic and algebra deal with pure numbers. Similarly, in the science of *vector analysis*, another branch of pure mathematics, a vector is considered simply as an arrow or a "directed line segment," without any physical significance. However, just as the laws of arithmetic and algebra are found to describe certain operations that can be carried out with some physical quantities, so the laws of vector algebra are found to represent some (but not all) aspects of the behavior of other physical quantities.

1-4 The vectors, A , B , and C are mathematically equal.

For example, two (mathematical) vectors are considered equal, by definition, if they have the same magnitude and direction. Thus in Fig. 1-4 the vectors A , B , and C are all equal. It follows that in mathematics a given vector may be moved around at will, provided its length and direction are not changed. However, if the vectors in Fig. 1-4 represent forces acting on a body, the forces are not physically equivalent, since they have different points of application and different lines of action.

The *vector sum* of two (mathematical) vectors is defined as follows. Let A and B in Fig. 1-5(a) be two given

1-5 Vector C is the vector sum of vectors A and B . $C = A + B = B + A$.



vectors. Draw the vectors as in (b) at any convenient point, with the initial point of B at the endpoint of A . The vector sum C is then defined as the vector from the initial point of A to the endpoint of B . The symbol for vector addition is the same as for algebraic addition, and we write

$$C = A + B.$$

Alternatively, the given vectors can be drawn as in Fig. 1-5(c), with the initial point of A at the endpoint of B . The vector C has the same magnitude and direction as in (b) and hence the two vector sums are mathematically equal. The order in which the vectors are added is therefore immaterial, and vector addition obeys the same commutative law as algebraic addition:

$$A + B = B + A.$$

The magnitude and direction of the vector sum C can be found from measurements on a carefully drawn diagram. They can also be computed by the methods of trigonometry. Thus if θ represents the angle between vectors A and B , as in Fig. 1-5(b), the magnitude of C is given by

$$C^2 = A^2 + B^2 - 2AB \cos \theta.$$

The angle α between C and A can be found from the relation

$$\frac{\sin \alpha}{B} = \frac{\sin \theta}{C}.$$

Another useful method of finding the sum of two vectors is shown in Fig. 1-6, where vectors A and B are both drawn from a common point. The vector sum C is the concurrent diagonal of a parallelogram of which the given vectors form two sides.

1-6 Parallelogram method for obtaining the vector sum of two vectors.

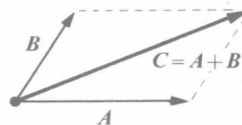


Figure 1-7 illustrates a special case in which two vectors are parallel, as in (a), or antiparallel, as in (b). If they are parallel, the magnitude of the vector sum C equals the sum of the magnitudes of A and B . If they are antiparallel, the magnitude of the vector sum equals the difference of the magnitudes of A and B . (The vectors in Fig. 1-7 have been displaced slightly sidewise from their line of action to show them more clearly. Actually, all vectors lie along the same geometrical line.)

When more than two vectors are to be added, we may first find the vector sum of any two, add this vectorially to the third, and so on. This process is illustrated in Fig. 1-8, which shows in part (a) four vectors A , B , C , and D . In Fig. 1-8(b), vectors A and B are first added by the triangle method, giving a vector sum E ; vectors E and C are then added by the same process to obtain the vector sum F ; finally, F and D are added to obtain the vector sum

$$G = A + B + C + D.$$

Evidently the vectors E and F need not have been drawn; we need only draw the given vectors in succession, with the tail of each at the head of the one preceding it, and complete the polygon by a vector G from the tail of the first to the head of the last vector. The order in which

1-7 Vector sum of (a) two parallel vectors, (b) two antiparallel vectors.

