3 TWO-DIMENSIONAL KINEMATICS

Figure 3.1 Everyday motion that we experience is, thankfully, rarely as tortuous as a rollercoaster ride like this—the Dragon Khan in Spain's Universal Port Aventura Amusement Park. However, most motion is in curved, rather than straight-line, paths. Motion along a curved path is two- or three-dimensional motion, and can be described in a similar fashion to one-dimensional motion. (credit: Boris23/Wikimedia Commons)

Chapter Outline

3.1. Kinematics in Two Dimensions: An Introduction
- Observe that motion in two dimensions consists of horizontal and vertical components.
- Understand the independence of horizontal and vertical vectors in two-dimensional motion.

3.2. Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods
- Understand the rules of vector addition, subtraction, and multiplication.
- Apply graphical methods of vector addition and subtraction to determine the displacement of moving objects.

3.3. Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods
- Understand the rules of vector addition and subtraction using analytical methods.
- Apply analytical methods to determine vertical and horizontal component vectors.
- Apply analytical methods to determine the magnitude and direction of a resultant vector.

3.4. Projectile Motion
- Identify and explain the properties of a projectile, such as acceleration due to gravity, range, maximum height, and trajectory.
- Determine the location and velocity of a projectile at different points in its trajectory.
- Apply the principle of independence of motion to solve projectile motion problems.

3.5. Addition of Velocities
- Apply principles of vector addition to determine relative velocity.
- Explain the significance of the observer in the measurement of velocity.

Introduction to Two-Dimensional Kinematics

The arc of a basketball, the orbit of a satellite, a bicycle rounding a curve, a swimmer diving into a pool, blood gushing out of a wound, and a puppy chasing its tail are but a few examples of motions along curved paths. In fact, most motions in nature follow curved paths rather than straight lines. Motion along a curved path on a flat surface or a plane (such as that of a ball on a pool table or a skater on an ice rink) is two-dimensional, and thus described by two-dimensional kinematics. Motion not confined to a plane, such as a car following a winding mountain road, is described by three-dimensional kinematics. Both two- and three-dimensional kinematics are simple extensions of the one-dimensional kinematics developed for straight-line motion in the previous chapter. This simple extension will allow us to apply physics to many more situations, and it will also yield unexpected insights about nature.

3.1 Kinematics in Two Dimensions: An Introduction

Figure 3.2 Walkers and drivers in a city like New York are rarely able to travel in straight lines to reach their destinations. Instead, they must follow roads and sidewalks, making two-dimensional, zigzagged paths. (credit: Margaret W. Carruthers)

Two-Dimensional Motion: Walking in a City

Suppose you want to walk from one point to another in a city with uniform square blocks, as pictured in **Figure 3.3**.
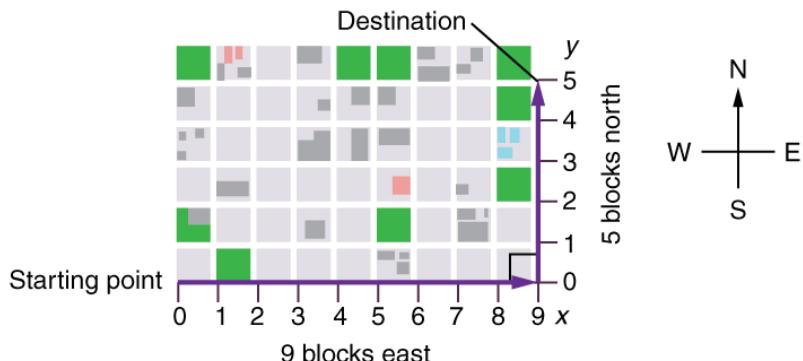

Figure 3.3 A pedestrian walks a two-dimensional path between two points in a city. In this scene, all blocks are square and are the same size.

The straight-line path that a helicopter might fly is blocked to you as a pedestrian, and so you are forced to take a two-dimensional path, such as the one shown. You walk 14 blocks in all, 9 east followed by 5 north. What is the straight-line distance?

An old adage states that the shortest distance between two points is a straight line. The two legs of the trip and the straight-line path form a right triangle, and so the Pythagorean theorem, $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$, can be used to find the straight-line distance.
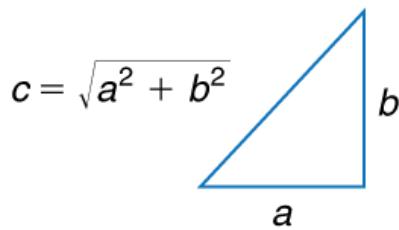
Figure 3.4 The Pythagorean theorem relates the length of the legs of a right triangle, labeled a and b, with the hypotenuse, labeled c. The relationship is given by: $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$. This can be rewritten, solving for c : $c = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$.

The hypotenuse of the triangle is the straight-line path, and so in this case its length in units of city blocks is $\sqrt{(9 \text{ blocks})^2 + (5 \text{ blocks})^2} = 10.3 \text{ blocks}$, considerably shorter than the 14 blocks you walked. (Note that we are using three significant figures in the answer. Although it appears that "9" and "5" have only one significant digit, they are discrete numbers. In this case "9 blocks" is the same as "9.0 or 9.00 blocks." We have decided to use three significant figures in the answer in order to show the result more precisely.)
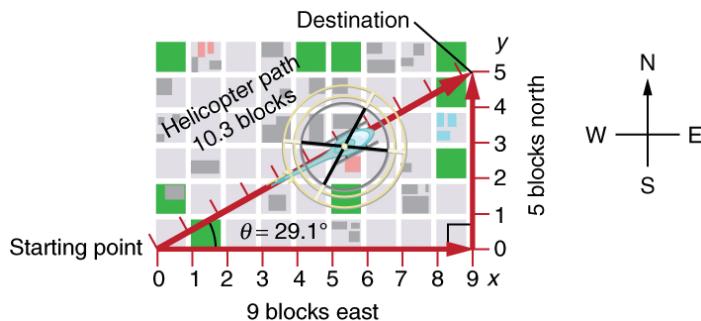

Figure 3.5 The straight-line path followed by a helicopter between the two points is shorter than the 14 blocks walked by the pedestrian. All blocks are square and the same size.

The fact that the straight-line distance (10.3 blocks) in **Figure 3.5** is less than the total distance walked (14 blocks) is one example of a general characteristic of vectors. (Recall that **vectors** are quantities that have both magnitude and direction.)

As for one-dimensional kinematics, we use arrows to represent vectors. The length of the arrow is proportional to the vector's magnitude. The arrow's length is indicated by hash marks in **Figure 3.3** and **Figure 3.5**. The arrow points in the same direction as the vector. For two-dimensional motion, the path of an object can be represented with three vectors: one vector shows the straight-line path between the initial and final points of the motion, one vector shows the horizontal component of the motion, and one vector shows the vertical component of the motion. The horizontal and vertical components of the motion add together to give the straight-line path. For example, observe the three vectors in **Figure 3.5**. The first represents a 9-block displacement east. The second represents a 5-block displacement north. These vectors are added to give the third vector, with a 10.3-block total displacement. The third vector is the straight-line path between the two points. Note that in this example, the vectors that we are adding are perpendicular to each other and thus form a right triangle. This means that we can use the Pythagorean theorem to calculate the magnitude of the total displacement. (Note that we cannot use the Pythagorean theorem to add vectors that are not perpendicular. We will develop techniques for adding vectors having any direction, not just those perpendicular to one another, in **Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods** and **Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods**.)

The Independence of Perpendicular Motions

The person taking the path shown in **Figure 3.5** walks east and then north (two perpendicular directions). How far he or she walks east is only affected by his or her motion eastward. Similarly, how far he or she walks north is only affected by his or her motion northward.

Independence of Motion

The horizontal and vertical components of two-dimensional motion are independent of each other. Any motion in the horizontal direction does not affect motion in the vertical direction, and vice versa.

This is true in a simple scenario like that of walking in one direction first, followed by another. It is also true of more complicated motion involving movement in two directions at once. For example, let's compare the motions of two baseballs. One baseball is dropped from rest. At the same instant, another is thrown horizontally from the same height and follows a curved path. A stroboscope has captured the positions of the balls at fixed time intervals as they fall.
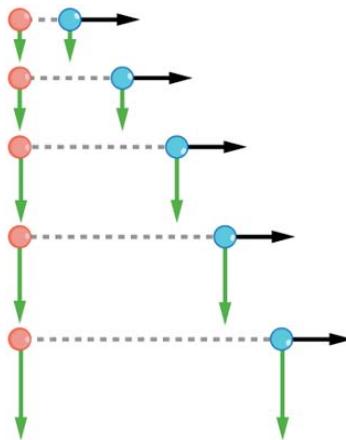
Figure 3.6 This shows the motions of two identical balls—one falls from rest, the other has an initial horizontal velocity. Each subsequent position is an equal time interval. Arrows represent horizontal and vertical velocities at each position. The ball on the right has an initial horizontal velocity, while the ball on the left has no horizontal velocity. Despite the difference in horizontal velocities, the vertical velocities and positions are identical for both balls. This shows that the vertical and horizontal motions are independent.

It is remarkable that for each flash of the strobe, the vertical positions of the two balls are the same. This similarity implies that the vertical motion is independent of whether or not the ball is moving horizontally. (Assuming no air resistance, the vertical motion of a falling object is influenced by gravity only, and not by any horizontal forces.) Careful examination of the ball thrown horizontally shows that it travels the same horizontal distance between flashes. This is due to the fact that there are no additional forces on the ball in the horizontal direction after it is thrown. This result means that the horizontal velocity is constant, and affected neither by vertical motion nor by gravity (which is vertical). Note that this case is true only for ideal conditions. In the real world, air resistance will affect the speed of the balls in both directions.

The two-dimensional curved path of the horizontally thrown ball is composed of two independent one-dimensional motions (horizontal and vertical). The key to analyzing such motion, called *projectile motion*, is to *resolve* (break) it into motions along perpendicular directions. Resolving two-dimensional motion into perpendicular components is possible because the components are independent. We shall see how to resolve vectors in **Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods** and **Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods**. We will find such techniques to be useful in many areas of physics.

PhET Explorations: Ladybug Motion 2D

Learn about position, velocity and acceleration vectors. Move the ladybug by setting the position, velocity or acceleration, and see how the vectors change. Choose linear, circular or elliptical motion, and record and playback the motion to analyze the behavior.

(This media type is not supported in this reader. Click to open media in browser.) (http://cnx.org/content/m42104/1.8/#Phet_module_3.1) Figure 3.7

## 3.2 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods
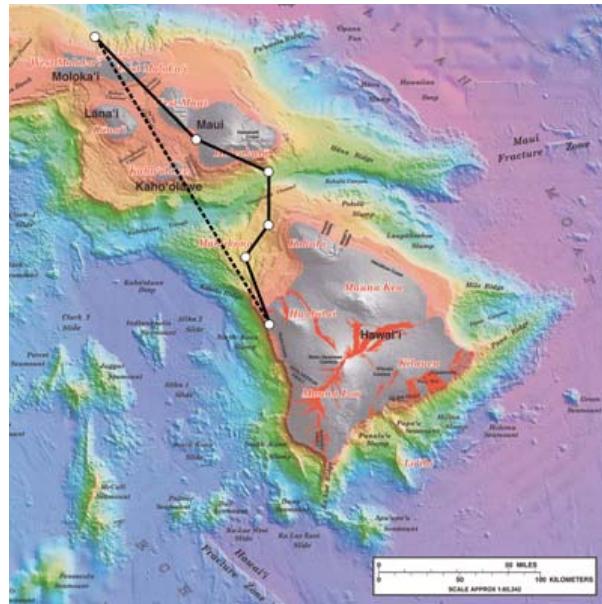
Figure 3.8 Displacement can be determined graphically using a scale map, such as this one of the Hawaiian Islands. A journey from Hawai'i to Moloka'i has a number of legs, or journey segments. These segments can be added graphically with a ruler to determine the total two-dimensional displacement of the journey. (credit: US Geological Survey)

Vectors in Two Dimensions

A **vector** is a quantity that has magnitude and direction. Displacement, velocity, acceleration, and force, for example, are all vectors. In one-dimensional, or straight-line, motion, the direction of a vector can be given simply by a plus or minus sign. In two dimensions (2-d), however, we specify the direction of a vector relative to some reference frame (i.e., coordinate system), using an arrow having length proportional to the vector's magnitude and pointing in the direction of the vector.

Figure 3.9 shows such a *graphical representation of a vector*, using as an example the total displacement for the person walking in a city considered in **Kinematics in Two Dimensions: An Introduction**. We shall use the notation that a boldface symbol, such as $\mathbf{D}$, stands for a vector. Its magnitude is represented by the symbol in italics, D , and its direction by θ .

Vectors in this Text

In this text, we will represent a vector with a boldface variable. For example, we will represent the quantity force with the vector $\mathbf{F}$, which has both magnitude and direction. The magnitude of the vector will be represented by a variable in italics, such as F , and the direction of the variable will be given by an angle θ .
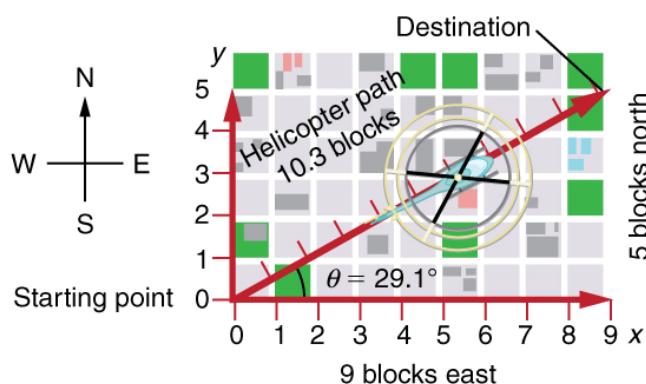

Figure 3.9 A person walks 9 blocks east and 5 blocks north. The displacement is 10.3 blocks at an angle $29.1°$ north of east.
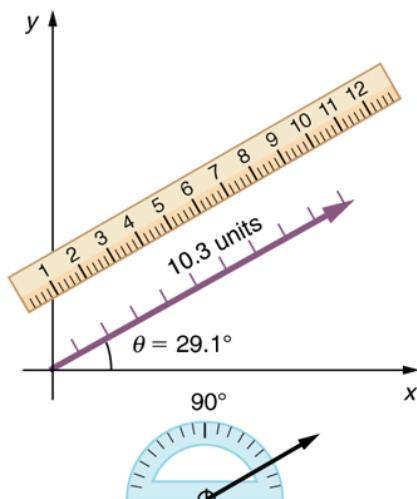
Figure 3.10 To describe the resultant vector for the person walking in a city considered in **Figure 3.9** graphically, draw an arrow to represent the total displacement vector $\mathbf{D}$. Using a protractor, draw a line at an angle θ relative to the east-west axis. The length D of the arrow is proportional to the vector's magnitude and is measured along the line with a ruler. In this example, the magnitude D of the vector is 10.3 units, and the direction θ is $29.1°$ north of east.

Vector Addition: Head-to-Tail Method

The **head-to-tail method** is a graphical way to add vectors, described in **Figure 3.11** below and in the steps following. The **tail** of the vector is the starting point of the vector, and the **head** (or tip) of a vector is the final, pointed end of the arrow.
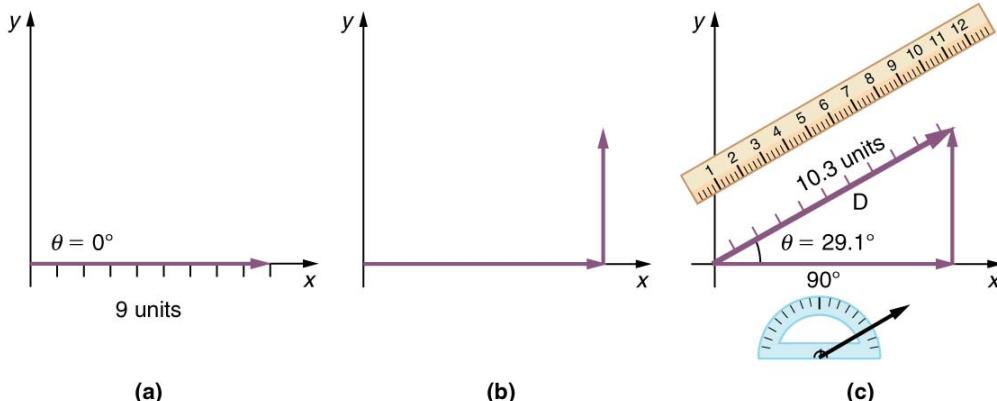
Figure 3.11 Head-to-Tail Method: The head-to-tail method of graphically adding vectors is illustrated for the two displacements of the person walking in a city considered in **Figure 3.9**. (a) Draw a vector representing the displacement to the east. (b) Draw a vector representing the displacement to the north. The tail of this vector should originate from the head of the first, east-pointing vector. (c) Draw a line from the tail of the east-pointing vector to the head of the north-pointing vector to form the sum or **resultant vector** $\mathbf{D}$. The length of the arrow $\mathbf{D}$ is proportional to the vector's magnitude and is measured to be 10.3 units . Its direction, described as the angle with respect to the east (or horizontal axis) θ is measured with a protractor to be $29.1°$.

Step 1. *Draw an arrow to represent the first vector (9 blocks to the east) using a ruler and protractor*.

$\theta = 0°$

9 units

(a)
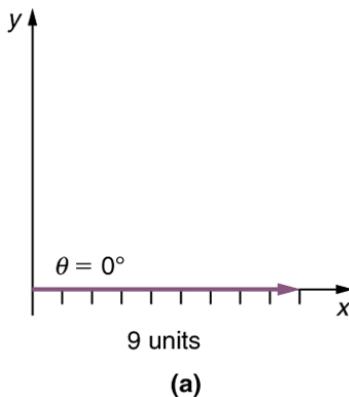
Figure 3.12

Step 2. Now draw an arrow to represent the second vector (5 blocks to the north). *Place the tail of the second vector at the head of the first vector*.


(b)
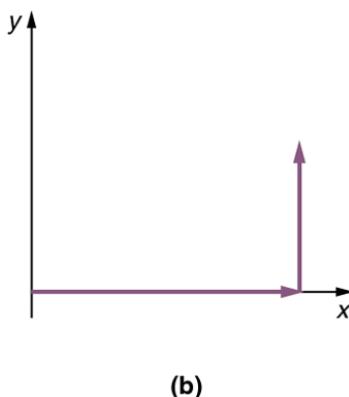
Figure 3.13

Step 3. If there are more than two vectors, continue this process for each vector to be added. Note that in our example, we have only two vectors, so we have finished placing arrows tip to tail.

Step 4. Draw an arrow from the tail of the first vector to the head of the last vector. This is the **resultant**, or the sum, of the other vectors.


10.3 units

D

$\theta = 29.1°$

90°

(c)
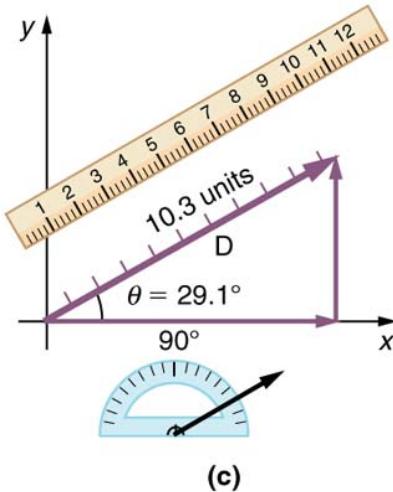
Figure 3.14

Step 5. To get the **magnitude** of the resultant, *measure its length with a ruler. (Note that in most calculations, we will use the Pythagorean theorem to determine this length.)*

Step 6. To get the **direction** of the resultant, *measure the angle it makes with the reference frame using a protractor. (Note that in most calculations, we will use trigonometric relationships to determine this angle.)*

The graphical addition of vectors is limited in accuracy only by the precision with which the drawings can be made and the

precision of the measuring tools. It is valid for any number of vectors.

Example 3.1 Adding Vectors Graphically Using the Head-to-Tail Method: A Woman Takes a Walk

Use the graphical technique for adding vectors to find the total displacement of a person who walks the following three paths (displacements) on a flat field. First, she walks 25.0 m in a direction $49.0°$ north of east. Then, she walks 23.0 m heading $15.0°$ north of east. Finally, she turns and walks 32.0 m in a direction 68.0° south of east.

Strategy

Represent each displacement vector graphically with an arrow, labeling the first $\mathbf{A}$, the second $\mathbf{B}$, and the third $\mathbf{C}$, making the lengths proportional to the distance and the directions as specified relative to an east-west line. The head-to-tail method outlined above will give a way to determine the magnitude and direction of the resultant displacement, denoted $\mathbf{R}$.

Solution

(1) Draw the three displacement vectors.
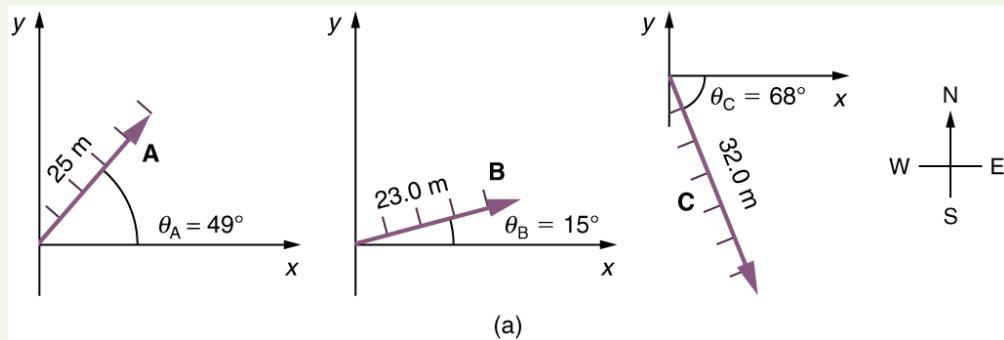
Figure 3.15

(2) Place the vectors head to tail retaining both their initial magnitude and direction.
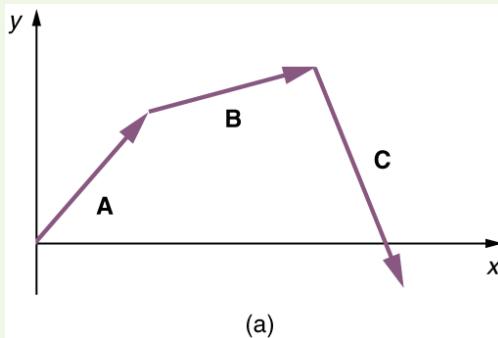
Figure 3.16

(3) Draw the resultant vector, $\mathbf{R}$.
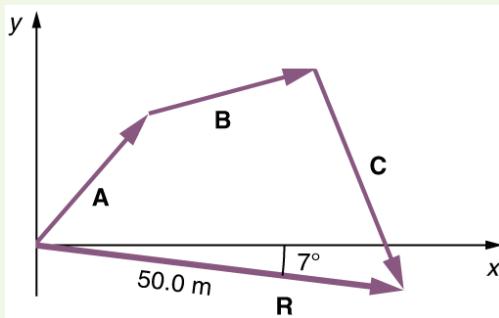
**Figure 3.17**

(4) Use a ruler to measure the magnitude of $\mathbf{R}$, and a protractor to measure the direction of $\mathbf{R}$. While the direction of the vector can be specified in many ways, the easiest way is to measure the angle between the vector and the nearest horizontal or vertical axis. Since the resultant vector is south of the eastward pointing axis, we flip the protractor upside down

and measure the angle between the eastward axis and the vector.
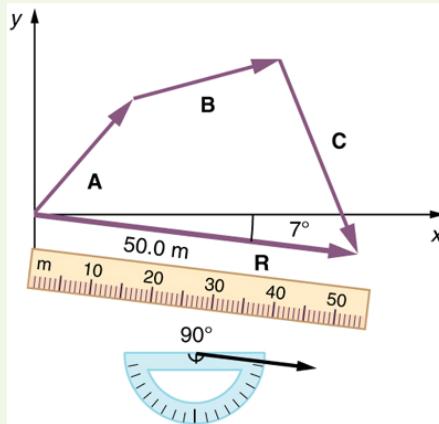
Figure 3.18

In this case, the total displacement $\mathbf{R}$ is seen to have a magnitude of 50.0 m and to lie in a direction 7.0° south of east. By using its magnitude and direction, this vector can be expressed as $R = 50.0$ m and $\theta = 7.0^\circ$ south of east.

Discussion

The head-to-tail graphical method of vector addition works for any number of vectors. It is also important to note that the resultant is independent of the order in which the vectors are added. Therefore, we could add the vectors in any order as illustrated in **Figure 3.19** and we will still get the same solution.
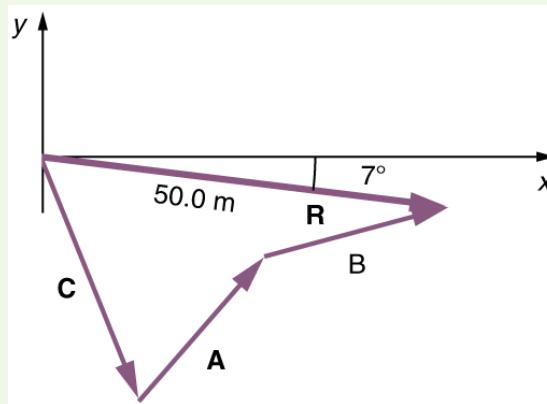

Figure 3.19

Here, we see that when the same vectors are added in a different order, the result is the same. This characteristic is true in every case and is an important characteristic of vectors. Vector addition is **commutative**. Vectors can be added in any order.

$$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}. \tag{3.1}$$

(This is true for the addition of ordinary numbers as well—you get the same result whether you add $2 + 3$ or $3 + 2$, for example).

Vector Subtraction

Vector subtraction is a straightforward extension of vector addition. To define subtraction (say we want to subtract $\mathbf{B}$ from $\mathbf{A}$, written $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$, we must first define what we mean by subtraction. The *negative* of a vector $\mathbf{B}$ is defined to be $-\mathbf{B}$; that is, graphically *the negative of any vector has the same magnitude but the opposite direction*, as shown in **Figure 3.20**. In other words, $\mathbf{B}$ has the same length as $-\mathbf{B}$, but points in the opposite direction. Essentially, we just flip the vector so it points in the opposite direction.
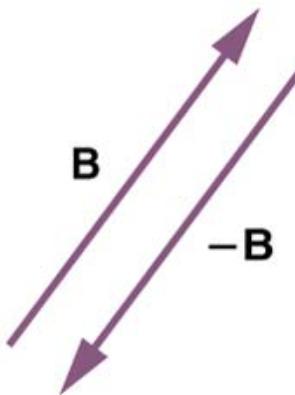
Figure 3.20 The negative of a vector is just another vector of the same magnitude but pointing in the opposite direction. So $\mathbf{B}$ is the negative of $-\mathbf{B}$; it has the same length but opposite direction.

The *subtraction* of vector $\mathbf{B}$ from vector $\mathbf{A}$ is then simply defined to be the addition of $-\mathbf{B}$ to $\mathbf{A}$. Note that vector subtraction is the addition of a negative vector. The order of subtraction does not affect the results.

$$\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{B}). \tag{3.2}$$

This is analogous to the subtraction of scalars (where, for example, $5 - 2 = 5 + (-2)$). Again, the result is independent of the order in which the subtraction is made. When vectors are subtracted graphically, the techniques outlined above are used, as the following example illustrates.

Example 3.2 Subtracting Vectors Graphically: A Woman Sailing a Boat

A woman sailing a boat at night is following directions to a dock. The instructions read to first sail 27.5 m in a direction $66.0°$ north of east from her current location, and then travel 30.0 m in a direction $112°$ north of east (or $22.0°$ west of north). If the woman makes a mistake and travels in the *opposite* direction for the second leg of the trip, where will she end up? Compare this location with the location of the dock.
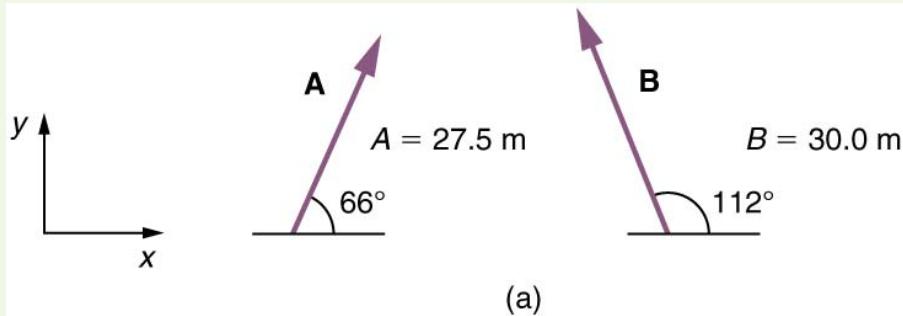
Figure 3.21

Strategy

We can represent the first leg of the trip with a vector $\mathbf{A}$, and the second leg of the trip with a vector $\mathbf{B}$. The dock is located at a location $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$. If the woman mistakenly travels in the *opposite* direction for the second leg of the journey, she will travel a distance B (30.0 m) in the direction $180° - 112° = 68°$ south of east. We represent this as $-\mathbf{B}$, as shown below. The vector $-\mathbf{B}$ has the same magnitude as $\mathbf{B}$ but is in the opposite direction. Thus, she will end up at a location $\mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{B})$, or $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$.
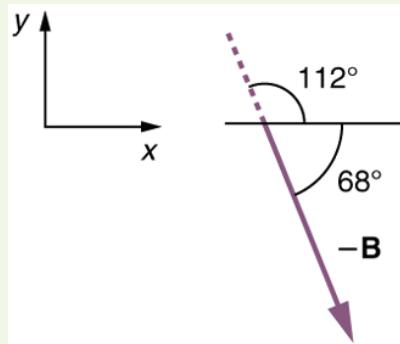
Figure 3.22

We will perform vector addition to compare the location of the dock, $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$, with the location at which the woman mistakenly arrives, $\mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{B})$.

Solution

(1) To determine the location at which the woman arrives by accident, draw vectors $\mathbf{A}$ and $-\mathbf{B}$.

(2) Place the vectors head to tail.

(3) Draw the resultant vector $\mathbf{R}$.

(4) Use a ruler and protractor to measure the magnitude and direction of $\mathbf{R}$.
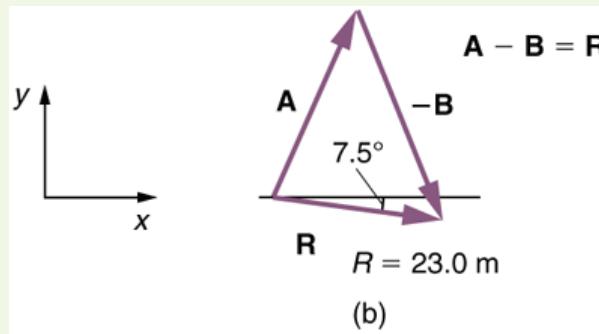
Figure 3.23

In this case, $R = 23.0$ m and $\theta = 7.5°$ south of east.

(5) To determine the location of the dock, we repeat this method to add vectors $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$. We obtain the resultant vector $\mathbf{R}'$:
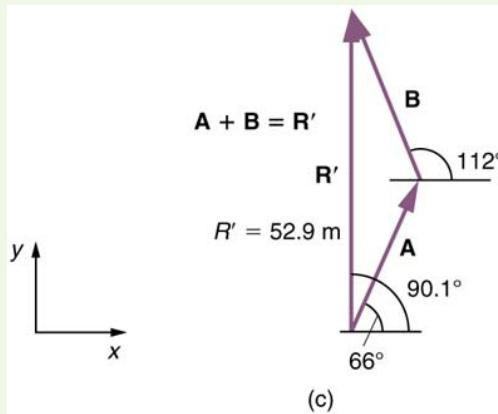
Figure 3.24

In this case $R = 52.9$ m and $\theta = 90.1°$ north of east.

We can see that the woman will end up a significant distance from the dock if she travels in the opposite direction for the second leg of the trip.

> **Discussion**
>
> Because subtraction of a vector is the same as addition of a vector with the opposite direction, the graphical method of subtracting vectors works the same as for addition.

Multiplication of Vectors and Scalars

If we decided to walk three times as far on the first leg of the trip considered in the preceding example, then we would walk $3 \times 27.5 \text{ m}$, or 82.5 m, in a direction $66.0°$ north of east. This is an example of multiplying a vector by a positive **scalar**. Notice that the magnitude changes, but the direction stays the same.

If the scalar is negative, then multiplying a vector by it changes the vector's magnitude and gives the new vector the *opposite* direction. For example, if you multiply by –2, the magnitude doubles but the direction changes. We can summarize these rules in the following way: When vector $\mathbf{A}$ is multiplied by a scalar c,

- the magnitude of the vector becomes the absolute value of $c\ A$,
- if c is positive, the direction of the vector does not change,
- if c is negative, the direction is reversed.

In our case, $c = 3$ and $A = 27.5 \text{ m}$. Vectors are multiplied by scalars in many situations. Note that division is the inverse of multiplication. For example, dividing by 2 is the same as multiplying by the value (1/2). The rules for multiplication of vectors by scalars are the same for division; simply treat the divisor as a scalar between 0 and 1.

Resolving a Vector into Components

In the examples above, we have been adding vectors to determine the resultant vector. In many cases, however, we will need to do the opposite. We will need to take a single vector and find what other vectors added together produce it. In most cases, this involves determining the perpendicular **components** of a single vector, for example the *x- and y*-components, or the north-south and east-west components.

For example, we may know that the total displacement of a person walking in a city is 10.3 blocks in a direction $29.0°$ north of east and want to find out how many blocks east and north had to be walked. This method is called *finding the components (or parts)* of the displacement in the east and north directions, and it is the inverse of the process followed to find the total displacement. It is one example of finding the components of a vector. There are many applications in physics where this is a useful thing to do. We will see this soon in **Projectile Motion**, and much more when we cover **forces** in **Dynamics: Newton's Laws of Motion**. Most of these involve finding components along perpendicular axes (such as north and east), so that right triangles are involved. The analytical techniques presented in **Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods** are ideal for finding vector components.

> PhET Explorations: Maze Game
>
> Learn about position, velocity, and acceleration in the "Arena of Pain". Use the green arrow to move the ball. Add more walls to the arena to make the game more difficult. Try to make a goal as fast as you can.
>
> **(This media type is not supported in this reader. Click to open media in browser.) (http://cnx.org/content/m42127/ 1.11/#Phet_module_3.2)**
>
> **Figure 3.25**

3.3 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods

Analytical methods of vector addition and subtraction employ geometry and simple trigonometry rather than the ruler and protractor of graphical methods. Part of the graphical technique is retained, because vectors are still represented by arrows for easy visualization. However, analytical methods are more concise, accurate, and precise than graphical methods, which are limited by the accuracy with which a drawing can be made. Analytical methods are limited only by the accuracy and precision with which physical quantities are known.

Resolving a Vector into Perpendicular Components

Analytical techniques and right triangles go hand-in-hand in physics because (among other things) motions along perpendicular directions are independent. We very often need to separate a vector into perpendicular components. For example, given a vector like $\mathbf{A}$ in **Figure 3.26**, we may wish to find which two perpendicular vectors, $\mathbf{A}_x$ and $\mathbf{A}_y$, add to produce it.
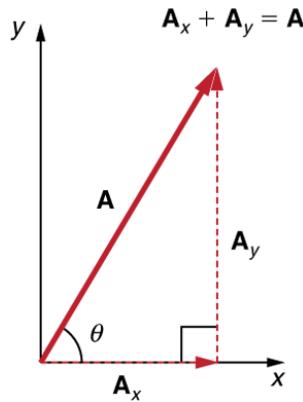
Figure 3.26 The vector $\mathbf{A}$, with its tail at the origin of an *x*, *y*-coordinate system, is shown together with its *x*- and *y*-components, $\mathbf{A}_x$ and $\mathbf{A}_y$.
These vectors form a right triangle. The analytical relationships among these vectors are summarized below.

$\mathbf{A}_x$ and $\mathbf{A}_y$ are defined to be the components of $\mathbf{A}$ along the *x*- and *y*-axes. The three vectors $\mathbf{A}$, $\mathbf{A}_x$, and $\mathbf{A}_y$ form a right triangle:

$$\mathbf{A}_x + \mathbf{A_y} = \mathbf{A}. \tag{3.3}$$

Note that this relationship between vector components and the resultant vector holds only for vector quantities (which include both magnitude and direction). The relationship does not apply for the magnitudes alone. For example, if $\mathbf{A}_x = 3$ m east, $\mathbf{A}_y = 4$ m north, and $\mathbf{A} = 5$ m north-east, then it is true that the vectors $\mathbf{A}_x + \mathbf{A_y} = \mathbf{A}$. However, it is *not* true that the sum of the magnitudes of the vectors is also equal. That is,

$$3 \text{ m} + 4 \text{ m} \ne 5 \text{ m} \tag{3.4}$$

Thus,

$$A_x + A_y \ne A \tag{3.5}$$

If the vector $\mathbf{A}$ is known, then its magnitude A (its length) and its angle θ (its direction) are known. To find A_x and A_y , its *x*- and *y*-components, we use the following relationships for a right triangle.

$$A_x = A \cos \theta \tag{3.6}$$

and

$$A_y = A \sin \theta. \tag{3.7}$$
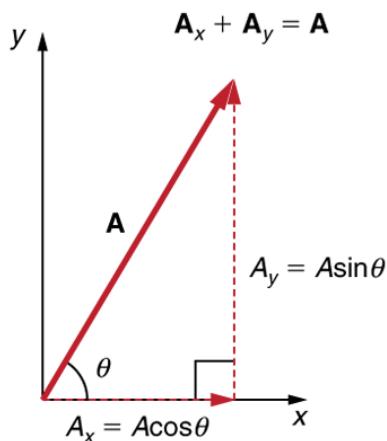
Figure 3.27 The magnitudes of the vector components $\mathbf{A}_x$ and $\mathbf{A}_y$ can be related to the resultant vector $\mathbf{A}$ and the angle θ with trigonometric identities. Here we see that $A_x = A \cos \theta$ and $A_y = A \sin \theta$.

Suppose, for example, that $\mathbf{A}$ is the vector representing the total displacement of the person walking in a city considered in **Kinematics in Two Dimensions: An Introduction** and **Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods**.
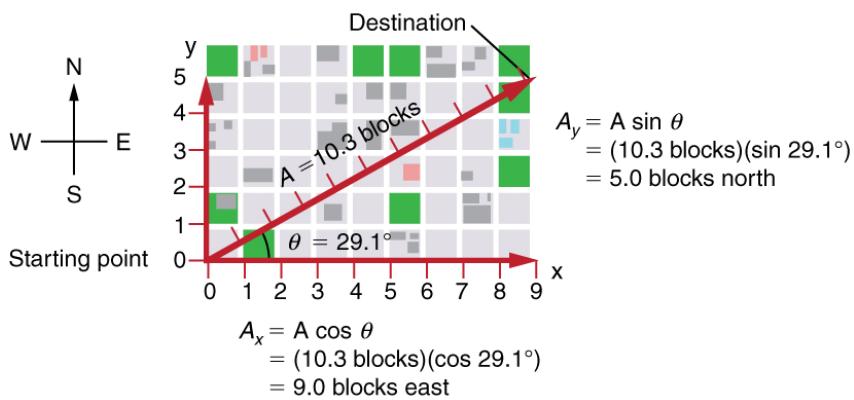
Figure 3.28 We can use the relationships $A_x = A \cos \theta$ and $A_y = A \sin \theta$ to determine the magnitude of the horizontal and vertical component vectors in this example.

Then $A = 10.3$ blocks and $\theta = 29.1°$, so that

$$A_x = A \cos \theta = (10.3 \text{ blocks})(\cos 29.1°) = 9.0 \text{ blocks} \tag{3.8}$$

$$A_y = A \sin \theta = (10.3 \text{ blocks})(\sin 29.1°) = 5.0 \text{ blocks.} \tag{3.9}$$

Calculating a Resultant Vector

If the perpendicular components $\mathbf{A}_x$ and $\mathbf{A}_y$ of a vector $\mathbf{A}$ are known, then $\mathbf{A}$ can also be found analytically. To find the magnitude A and direction θ of a vector from its perpendicular components $\mathbf{A}_x$ and $\mathbf{A}_y$, we use the following relationships:

$$A = \sqrt{A_x{}^2 + A_y{}^2} \tag{3.10}$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(A_y / A_x). \tag{3.11}$$
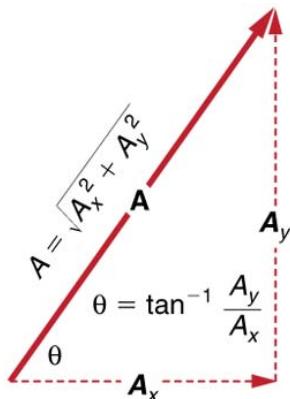
Figure 3.29 The magnitude and direction of the resultant vector can be determined once the horizontal and vertical components A_x and A_y have been determined.

Note that the equation $A = \sqrt{A_x^2 + A_y^2}$ is just the Pythagorean theorem relating the legs of a right triangle to the length of the hypotenuse. For example, if A_x and A_y are 9 and 5 blocks, respectively, then $A = \sqrt{9^2 + 5^2} = 10.3$ blocks, again consistent with the example of the person walking in a city. Finally, the direction is $\theta = \tan^{-1}(5/9) = 29.1°$, as before.

Determining Vectors and Vector Components with Analytical Methods

Equations $A_x = A \cos \theta$ and $A_y = A \sin \theta$ are used to find the perpendicular components of a vector—that is, to go from A and θ to A_x and A_y. Equations $A = \sqrt{A_x^2 + A_y^2}$ and $\theta = \tan^{-1}(A_y / A_x)$ are used to find a vector from its perpendicular components—that is, to go from A_x and A_y to A and θ. Both processes are crucial to analytical methods of vector addition and subtraction.

Adding Vectors Using Analytical Methods

To see how to add vectors using perpendicular components, consider **Figure 3.30**, in which the vectors $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ are added to produce the resultant $\mathbf{R}$.
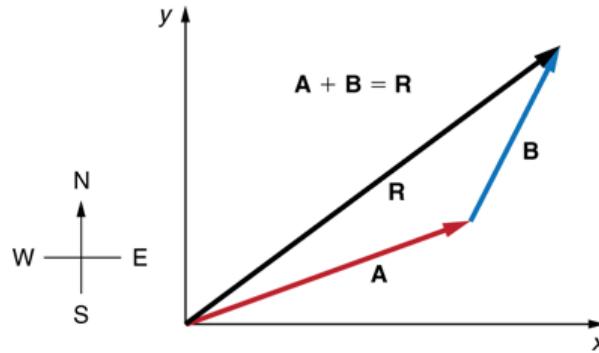
Figure 3.30 Vectors $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ are two legs of a walk, and $\mathbf{R}$ is the resultant or total displacement. You can use analytical methods to determine the magnitude and direction of $\mathbf{R}$.

If $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ represent two legs of a walk (two displacements), then $\mathbf{R}$ is the total displacement. The person taking the walk ends up at the tip of $\mathbf{R}$. There are many ways to arrive at the same point. In particular, the person could have walked first in the *x*-direction and then in the *y*-direction. Those paths are the *x*- and *y*-components of the resultant, $\mathbf{R}_x$ and $\mathbf{R}_y$. If we know $\mathbf{R}_x$ and $\mathbf{R}_y$, we can find R and θ using the equations $A = \sqrt{A_x{}^2 + A_y{}^2}$ and $\theta = \tan^{-1}(A_y / A_x)$. When you use the analytical method of vector addition, you can determine the components or the magnitude and direction of a vector.

Step 1. *Identify the x- and y-axes that will be used in the problem. Then, find the components of each vector to be added along the chosen perpendicular axes.* Use the equations $A_x = A \cos \theta$ and $A_y = A \sin \theta$ to find the components. In **Figure 3.31**, these components are A_x, A_y, B_x, and B_y. The angles that vectors $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ make with the *x*-axis are θ_A and θ_B, respectively.
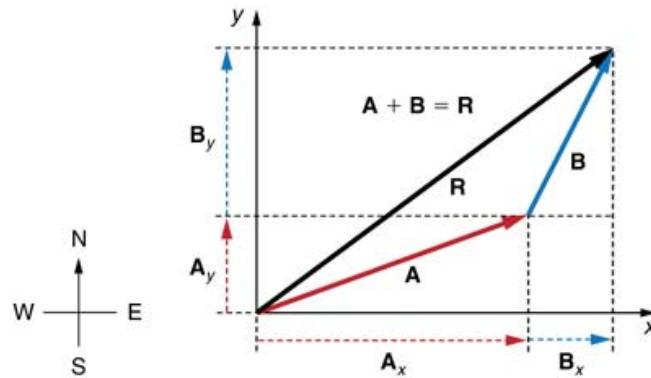
Figure 3.31 To add vectors $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$, first determine the horizontal and vertical components of each vector. These are the dotted vectors $\mathbf{A}_x$, $\mathbf{A}_y$, $\mathbf{B}_x$ and $\mathbf{B}_y$ shown in the image.

Step 2. *Find the components of the resultant along each axis by adding the components of the individual vectors along that axis.* That is, as shown in **Figure 3.32**,

$$R_x = A_x + B_x \tag{3.12}$$

and

$$R_y = A_y + B_y. \tag{3.13}$$
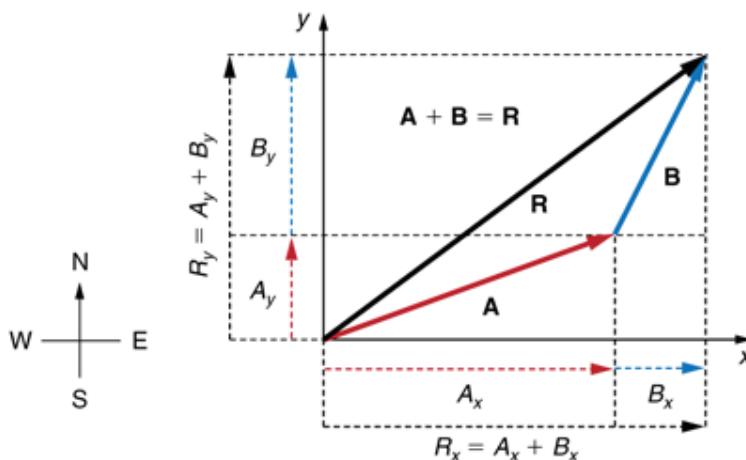
Figure 3.32 The magnitude of the vectors $\mathbf{A}_x$ and $\mathbf{B}_x$ add to give the magnitude R_x of the resultant vector in the horizontal direction. Similarly, the magnitudes of the vectors $\mathbf{A}_y$ and $\mathbf{B}_y$ add to give the magnitude R_y of the resultant vector in the vertical direction.

Components along the same axis, say the *x*-axis, are vectors along the same line and, thus, can be added to one another like ordinary numbers. The same is true for components along the *y*-axis. (For example, a 9-block eastward walk could be taken in two legs, the first 3 blocks east and the second 6 blocks east, for a total of 9, because they are along the same direction.) So resolving vectors into components along common axes makes it easier to add them. Now that the components of $\mathbf{R}$ are known, its magnitude and direction can be found.

Step 3. *To get the magnitude R of the resultant, use the Pythagorean theorem:*

$$R = \sqrt{R_x^2 + R_y^2}.$$ (3.14)

Step 4. *To get the direction of the resultant:*

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(R_y / R_x).$$ (3.15)

The following example illustrates this technique for adding vectors using perpendicular components.

Example 3.3 Adding Vectors Using Analytical Methods

Add the vector $\mathbf{A}$ to the vector $\mathbf{B}$ shown in **Figure 3.33**, using perpendicular components along the *x*- and *y*-axes. The *x*- and *y*-axes are along the east–west and north–south directions, respectively. Vector $\mathbf{A}$ represents the first leg of a walk in which a person walks 53.0 m in a direction $20.0°$ north of east. Vector $\mathbf{B}$ represents the second leg, a displacement of 34.0 m in a direction $63.0°$ north of east.
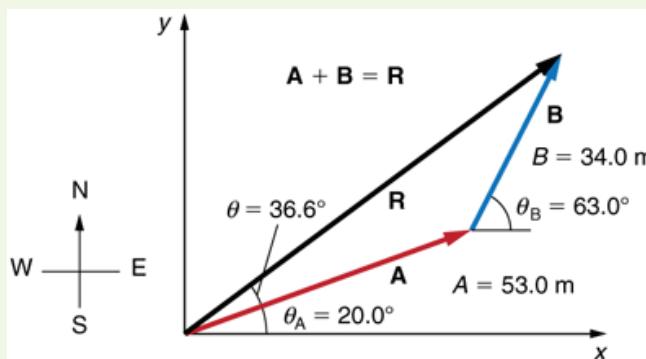
Figure 3.33 Vector $\mathbf{A}$ has magnitude 53.0 m and direction $20.0°$ north of the *x*-axis. Vector $\mathbf{B}$ has magnitude 34.0 m and direction $63.0°$ north of the *x*-axis. You can use analytical methods to determine the magnitude and direction of $\mathbf{R}$.

Strategy

The components of $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ along the *x*- and *y*-axes represent walking due east and due north to get to the same ending point. Once found, they are combined to produce the resultant.

Solution

Following the method outlined above, we first find the components of $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ along the x- and y-axes. Note that $A = 53.0$ m, $\theta_A = 20.0°$, $B = 34.0$ m, and $\theta_B = 63.0°$. We find the x-components by using $A_x = A \cos \theta$, which gives

$$\begin{aligned} A_x &= A \cos \theta_A = (53.0 \text{ m})(\cos 20.0°) \\ &= (53.0 \text{ m})(0.940) = 49.8 \text{ m} \end{aligned} \tag{3.16}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} B_x &= B \cos \theta_B = (34.0 \text{ m})(\cos 63.0°) \\ &= (34.0 \text{ m})(0.454) = 15.4 \text{ m.} \end{aligned} \tag{3.17}$$

Similarly, the y-components are found using $A_y = A \sin \theta_A$:

$$\begin{aligned} A_y &= A \sin \theta_A = (53.0 \text{ m})(\sin 20.0°) \\ &= (53.0 \text{ m})(0.342) = 18.1 \text{ m} \end{aligned} \tag{3.18}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} B_y &= B \sin \theta_B = (34.0 \text{ m})(\sin 63.0°) \\ &= (34.0 \text{ m})(0.891) = 30.3 \text{ m.} \end{aligned} \tag{3.19}$$

The x- and y-components of the resultant are thus

$$R_x = A_x + B_x = 49.8 \text{ m} + 15.4 \text{ m} = 65.2 \text{ m} \tag{3.20}$$

and

$$R_y = A_y + B_y = 18.1 \text{ m} + 30.3 \text{ m} = 48.4 \text{ m.} \tag{3.21}$$

Now we can find the magnitude of the resultant by using the Pythagorean theorem:

$$R = \sqrt{R_x^2 + R_y^2} = \sqrt{(65.2)^2 + (48.4)^2} \text{ m} \tag{3.22}$$

so that

$$R = 81.2 \text{ m.} \tag{3.23}$$

Finally, we find the direction of the resultant:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(R_y / R_x) = +\tan^{-1}(48.4 / 65.2). \tag{3.24}$$

Thus,

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(0.742) = 36.6°. \tag{3.25}$$
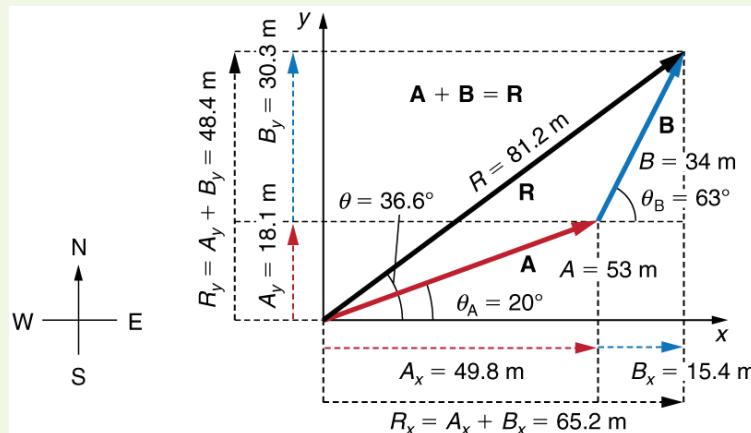
Figure 3.34 Using analytical methods, we see that the magnitude of $\mathbf{R}$ is 81.2 m and its direction is $36.6°$ north of east.

Discussion

This example illustrates the addition of vectors using perpendicular components. Vector subtraction using perpendicular

components is very similar—it is just the addition of a negative vector.

Subtraction of vectors is accomplished by the addition of a negative vector. That is, $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} \equiv \mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{B})$. Thus, *the method for the subtraction of vectors using perpendicular components is identical to that for addition*. The components of $-\mathbf{B}$ are the negatives of the components of $\mathbf{B}$. The *x*- and *y*-components of the resultant $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{R}$ are thus

$$R_x = A_x + (-B_x) \tag{3.26}$$

and

$$R_y = A_y + (-B_y) \tag{3.27}$$

and the rest of the method outlined above is identical to that for addition. (See **Figure 3.35**.)

Analyzing vectors using perpendicular components is very useful in many areas of physics, because perpendicular quantities are often independent of one another. The next module, **Projectile Motion**, is one of many in which using perpendicular components helps make the picture clear and simplifies the physics.
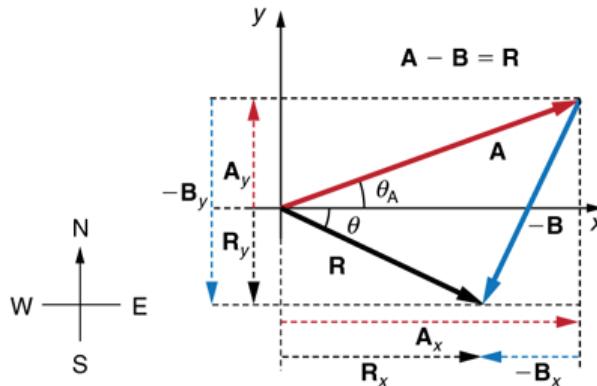

Figure 3.35 The subtraction of the two vectors shown in **Figure 3.30**. The components of $-\mathbf{B}$ are the negatives of the components of $\mathbf{B}$. The method of subtraction is the same as that for addition.

PhET Explorations: Vector Addition

Learn how to add vectors. Drag vectors onto a graph, change their length and angle, and sum them together. The magnitude, angle, and components of each vector can be displayed in several formats.
(This media type is not supported in this reader. Click to open media in browser.) (http://cnx.org/content/m42128/1.15/#Phet_module_3.3)

3.4 Projectile Motion

Projectile motion is the **motion** of an object thrown or projected into the air, subject to only the acceleration of gravity. The object is called a **projectile**, and its path is called its **trajectory**. The motion of falling objects, as covered in **Problem-Solving Basics for One-Dimensional Kinematics**, is a simple one-dimensional type of projectile motion in which there is no horizontal movement. In this section, we consider two-dimensional projectile motion, such as that of a football or other object for which **air resistance** *is negligible*.

The most important fact to remember here is that *motions along perpendicular axes are independent* and thus can be analyzed separately. This fact was discussed in **Kinematics in Two Dimensions: An Introduction**, where vertical and horizontal motions were seen to be independent. The key to analyzing two-dimensional projectile motion is to break it into two motions, one along the horizontal axis and the other along the vertical. (This choice of axes is the most sensible, because acceleration due to gravity is vertical—thus, there will be no acceleration along the horizontal axis when air resistance is negligible.) As is customary, we call the horizontal axis the *x*-axis and the vertical axis the *y*-axis. **Figure 3.36** illustrates the notation for displacement, where $\mathbf{s}$ is defined to be the total displacement and $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ are its components along the horizontal and vertical axes, respectively. The magnitudes of these vectors are *s*, *x*, and *y*. (Note that in the last section we used the notation $\mathbf{A}$ to represent a vector with components $\mathbf{A}_x$ and $\mathbf{A}_y$. If we continued this format, we would call displacement $\mathbf{s}$ with components $\mathbf{s}_x$ and $\mathbf{s}_y$. However, to simplify the notation, we will simply represent the component vectors as $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$.)

Of course, to describe motion we must deal with velocity and acceleration, as well as with displacement. We must find their components along the *x*- and *y*-axes, too. We will assume all forces except gravity (such as air resistance and friction, for example) are negligible. The components of acceleration are then very simple: $a_y = -g = -9.80 \text{ m/s}^2$. (Note that this

definition assumes that the upwards direction is defined as the positive direction. If you arrange the coordinate system instead such that the downwards direction is positive, then acceleration due to gravity takes a positive value.) Because gravity is vertical, $a_x = 0$. Both accelerations are constant, so the kinematic equations can be used.

Review of Kinematic Equations (constant a)

$$x = x_0 + \bar{v}t \tag{3.28}$$

$$\bar{v} = \frac{v_0 + v}{2} \tag{3.29}$$

$$v = v_0 + at \tag{3.30}$$

$$x = x_0 + v_0t + \frac{1}{2}at^2 \tag{3.31}$$

$$v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(x - x_0). \tag{3.32}$$
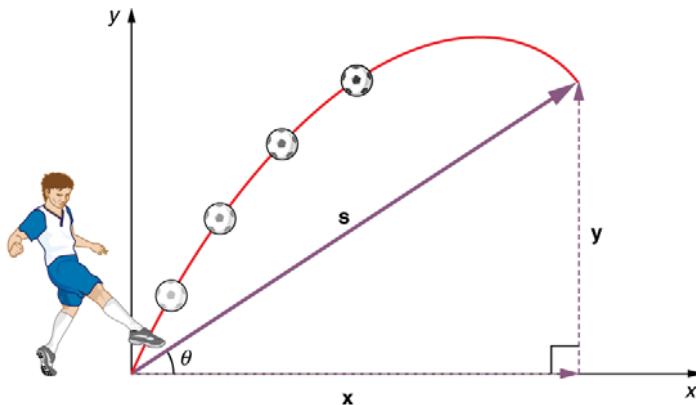
Figure 3.36 The total displacement $\mathbf{s}$ of a soccer ball at a point along its path. The vector $\mathbf{s}$ has components $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ along the horizontal and vertical axes. Its magnitude is s, and it makes an angle θ with the horizontal.

Given these assumptions, the following steps are then used to analyze projectile motion:

Step 1. *Resolve or break the motion into horizontal and vertical components along the x- and y-axes.* These axes are perpendicular, so $A_x = A\cos\theta$ and $A_y = A\sin\theta$ are used. The magnitude of the components of displacement $\mathbf{s}$ along these axes are x and y. The magnitudes of the components of the velocity $\mathbf{v}$ are $v_x = v\cos\theta$ and $v_y = v\sin\theta$, where v is the magnitude of the velocity and θ is its direction, as shown in **Figure 3.37**. Initial values are denoted with a subscript 0, as usual.

Step 2. *Treat the motion as two independent one-dimensional motions, one horizontal and the other vertical.* The kinematic equations for horizontal and vertical motion take the following forms:

$$\text{Horizontal Motion}(a_x = 0) \tag{3.33}$$

$$x = x_0 + v_x t \tag{3.34}$$

$$v_x = v_{0x} = v_x = \text{velocity is a constant.} \tag{3.35}$$

$$\text{Vertical Motion(assuming positive is up } a_y = -g = -9.80\text{m/s}^2) \tag{3.36}$$

$$y = y_0 + \frac{1}{2}(v_{0y} + v_y)t \tag{3.37}$$

$$v_y = v_{0y} - gt \tag{3.38}$$

$$y = y_0 + v_{0y}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2 \tag{3.39}$$

$$v_y^2 = v_{0y}^2 - 2g(y - y_0). \tag{3.40}$$

Step 3. *Solve for the unknowns in the two separate motions—one horizontal and one vertical.* Note that the only common variable between the motions is time t. The problem solving procedures here are the same as for one-dimensional **kinematics** and are illustrated in the solved examples below.

Step 4. *Recombine the two motions to find the total displacement $\mathbf{s}$ and velocity $\mathbf{v}$.* Because the x- and y-motions are perpendicular, we determine these vectors by using the techniques outlined in the **Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical**

Methods and employing $A = \sqrt{A_x^2 + A_y^2}$ and $\theta = \tan^{-1}(A_y / A_x)$ in the following form, where θ is the direction of the displacement $\mathbf{s}$ and θ_v is the direction of the velocity $\mathbf{v}$:

Total displacement and velocity

$$s = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \tag{3.41}$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(y / x) \tag{3.42}$$

$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2} \tag{3.43}$$

$$\theta_v = \tan^{-1}(v_y / v_x). \tag{3.44}$$
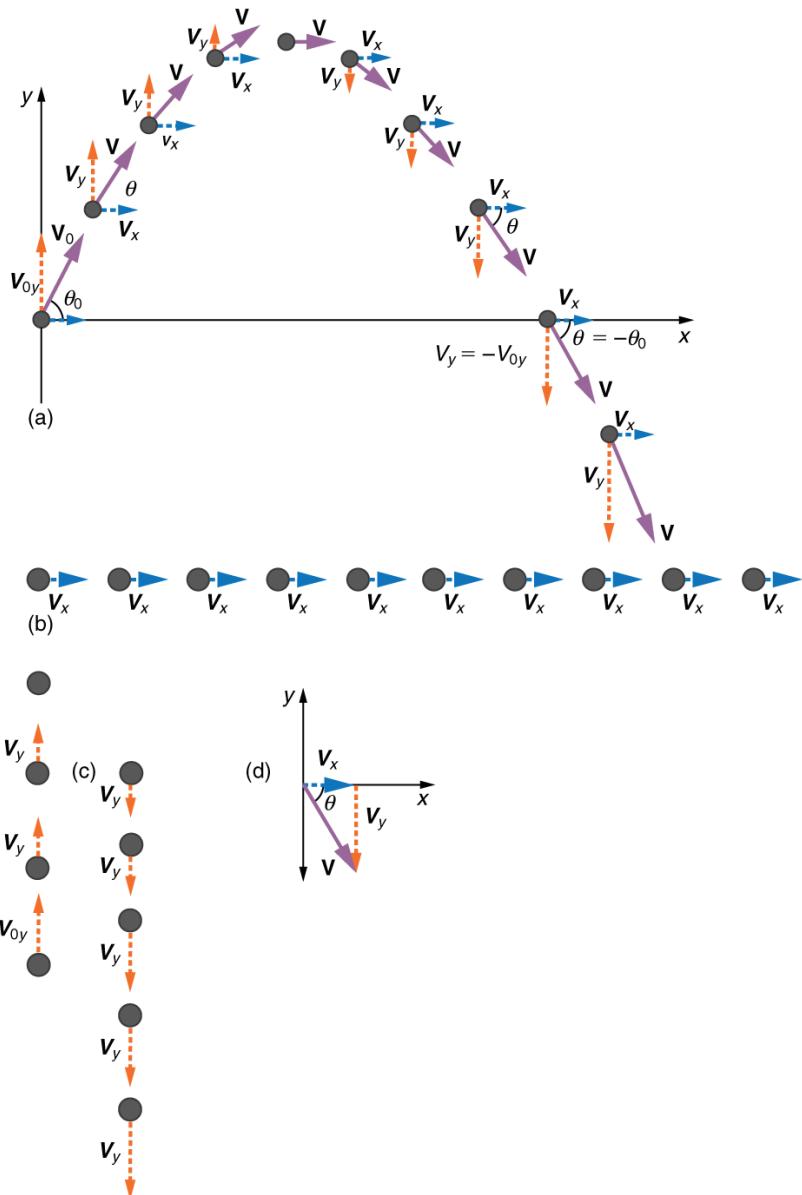
Figure 3.37 (a) We analyze two-dimensional projectile motion by breaking it into two independent one-dimensional motions along the vertical and horizontal axes. (b) The horizontal motion is simple, because $a_x = 0$ and v_x is thus constant. (c) The velocity in the vertical direction begins to decrease as the object rises; at its highest point, the vertical velocity is zero. As the object falls towards the Earth again, the vertical velocity increases again in magnitude but points in the opposite direction to the initial vertical velocity. (d) The x - and y -motions are recombined to give the total velocity at any given point on the trajectory.

Example 3.4 A Fireworks Projectile Explodes High and Away

During a fireworks display, a shell is shot into the air with an initial speed of 70.0 m/s at an angle of $75.0°$ above the horizontal, as illustrated in **Figure 3.38**. The fuse is timed to ignite the shell just as it reaches its highest point above the ground. (a) Calculate the height at which the shell explodes. (b) How much time passed between the launch of the shell and the explosion? (c) What is the horizontal displacement of the shell when it explodes?

Strategy

Because air resistance is negligible for the unexploded shell, the analysis method outlined above can be used. The motion can be broken into horizontal and vertical motions in which $a_x = 0$ and $a_y = -g$. We can then define x_0 and y_0 to be zero and solve for the desired quantities.

Solution for (a)

By "height" we mean the altitude or vertical position y above the starting point. The highest point in any trajectory, called the apex, is reached when $v_y = 0$. Since we know the initial and final velocities as well as the initial position, we use the following equation to find y :

$$v_y^2 = v_{0y}^2 - 2g(y - y_0). \tag{3.45}$$
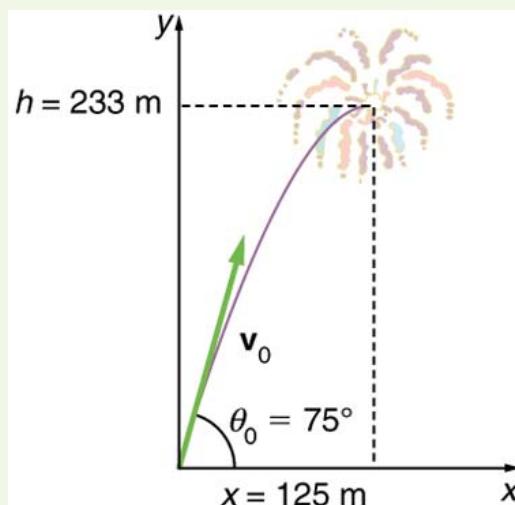
Figure 3.38 The trajectory of a fireworks shell. The fuse is set to explode the shell at the highest point in its trajectory, which is found to be at a height of 233 m and 125 m away horizontally.

Because y_0 and v_y are both zero, the equation simplifies to

$$0 = v_{0y}^2 - 2gy. \tag{3.46}$$

Solving for y gives

$$y = \frac{v_{0y}^2}{2g}. \tag{3.47}$$

Now we must find v_{0y} , the component of the initial velocity in the y-direction. It is given by $v_{0y} = v_0 \sin \theta$, where v_{0y} is the initial velocity of 70.0 m/s, and $\theta_0 = 75.0°$ is the initial angle. Thus,

$$v_{0y} = v_0 \sin \theta_0 = (70.0 \text{ m/s})(\sin 75°) = 67.6 \text{ m/s}. \tag{3.48}$$

and y is

$$y = \frac{(67.6 \text{ m/s})^2}{2(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)}, \tag{3.49}$$

so that

$$y = 233 \text{m}. \tag{3.50}$$

Discussion for (a)

Note that because up is positive, the initial velocity is positive, as is the maximum height, but the acceleration due to gravity is negative. Note also that the maximum height depends only on the vertical component of the initial velocity, so that any projectile with a 67.6 m/s initial vertical component of velocity will reach a maximum height of 233 m (neglecting air resistance). The numbers in this example are reasonable for large fireworks displays, the shells of which do reach such heights before exploding. In practice, air resistance is not completely negligible, and so the initial velocity would have to be somewhat larger than that given to reach the same height.

Solution for (b)

As in many physics problems, there is more than one way to solve for the time to the highest point. In this case, the easiest method is to use $y = y_0 + \frac{1}{2}(v_{0y} + v_y)t$. Because y_0 is zero, this equation reduces to simply

$$y = \frac{1}{2}(v_{0y} + v_y)t. \tag{3.51}$$

Note that the final vertical velocity, v_y, at the highest point is zero. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
t &= \frac{2y}{(v_{0y} + v_y)} = \frac{2(233 \text{ m})}{(67.6 \text{ m/s})} \\
&= 6.90 \text{ s}.
\end{aligned}
\tag{3.52}
$$

Discussion for (b)

This time is also reasonable for large fireworks. When you are able to see the launch of fireworks, you will notice several seconds pass before the shell explodes. (Another way of finding the time is by using $y = y_0 + v_{0y}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$, and solving the quadratic equation for t.)

Solution for (c)

Because air resistance is negligible, $a_x = 0$ and the horizontal velocity is constant, as discussed above. The horizontal displacement is horizontal velocity multiplied by time as given by $x = x_0 + v_x t$, where x_0 is equal to zero:

$$x = v_x t, \tag{3.53}$$

where v_x is the x-component of the velocity, which is given by $v_x = v_0 \cos \theta_0$. Now,

$$v_x = v_0 \cos \theta_0 = (70.0 \text{ m/s})(\cos 75.0°) = 18.1 \text{ m/s}. \tag{3.54}$$

The time t for both motions is the same, and so x is

$$x = (18.1 \text{ m/s})(6.90 \text{ s}) = 125 \text{ m}. \tag{3.55}$$

Discussion for (c)

The horizontal motion is a constant velocity in the absence of air resistance. The horizontal displacement found here could be useful in keeping the fireworks fragments from falling on spectators. Once the shell explodes, air resistance has a major effect, and many fragments will land directly below.

In solving part (a) of the preceding example, the expression we found for y is valid for any projectile motion where air resistance is negligible. Call the maximum height $y = h$; then,

$$h = \frac{v_{0y}^2}{2g}. \tag{3.56}$$

This equation defines the *maximum height of a projectile* and depends only on the vertical component of the initial velocity.

Defining a Coordinate System

It is important to set up a coordinate system when analyzing projectile motion. One part of defining the coordinate system is to define an origin for the x and y positions. Often, it is convenient to choose the initial position of the object as the origin such that $x_0 = 0$ and $y_0 = 0$. It is also important to define the positive and negative directions in the x and y directions.

Typically, we define the positive vertical direction as upwards, and the positive horizontal direction is usually the direction of the object's motion. When this is the case, the vertical acceleration, g, takes a negative value (since it is directed

downwards towards the Earth). However, it is occasionally useful to define the coordinates differently. For example, if you are analyzing the motion of a ball thrown downwards from the top of a cliff, it may make sense to define the positive direction downwards since the motion of the ball is solely in the downwards direction. If this is the case, g takes a positive value.

Example 3.5 Calculating Projectile Motion: Hot Rock Projectile

Kilauea in Hawaii is the world's most continuously active volcano. Very active volcanoes characteristically eject red-hot rocks and lava rather than smoke and ash. Suppose a large rock is ejected from the volcano with a speed of 25.0 m/s and at an angle $35.0°$ above the horizontal, as shown in **Figure 3.39**. The rock strikes the side of the volcano at an altitude 20.0 m lower than its starting point. (a) Calculate the time it takes the rock to follow this path. (b) What are the magnitude and direction of the rock's velocity at impact?
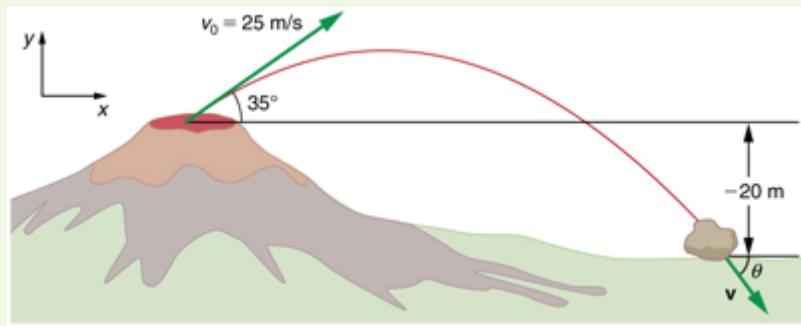

Figure 3.39 The trajectory of a rock ejected from the Kilauea volcano.

Strategy

Again, resolving this two-dimensional motion into two independent one-dimensional motions will allow us to solve for the desired quantities. The time a projectile is in the air is governed by its vertical motion alone. We will solve for t first. While the rock is rising and falling vertically, the horizontal motion continues at a constant velocity. This example asks for the final velocity. Thus, the vertical and horizontal results will be recombined to obtain v and θ_v at the final time t determined in the first part of the example.

Solution for (a)

While the rock is in the air, it rises and then falls to a final position 20.0 m lower than its starting altitude. We can find the time for this by using

$$y = y_0 + v_{0y}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2. \tag{3.57}$$

If we take the initial position y_0 to be zero, then the final position is $y = -20.0$ m. Now the initial vertical velocity is the vertical component of the initial velocity, found from $v_{0y} = v_0 \sin \theta_0 = (25.0 \text{ m/s})(\sin 35.0°) = 14.3$ m/s . Substituting known values yields

$$-20.0 \text{ m} = (14.3 \text{ m/s})t - (4.90 \text{ m/s}^2)t^2. \tag{3.58}$$

Rearranging terms gives a quadratic equation in t :

$$(4.90 \text{ m/s}^2)t^2 - (14.3 \text{ m/s})t - (20.0 \text{ m}) = 0. \tag{3.59}$$

This expression is a quadratic equation of the form $at^2 + bt + c = 0$, where the constants are $a = 4.90$, $b = -14.3$, and $c = -20.0$. Its solutions are given by the quadratic formula:

$$t = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}. \tag{3.60}$$

This equation yields two solutions: $t = 3.96$ and $t = -1.03$. (It is left as an exercise for the reader to verify these solutions.) The time is $t = 3.96$ s or -1.03 s . The negative value of time implies an event before the start of motion, and so we discard it. Thus,

$$t = 3.96 \text{ s}. \tag{3.61}$$

Discussion for (a)

The time for projectile motion is completely determined by the vertical motion. So any projectile that has an initial vertical

velocity of 14.3 m/s and lands 20.0 m below its starting altitude will spend 3.96 s in the air.

Solution for (b)

From the information now in hand, we can find the final horizontal and vertical velocities v_x and v_y and combine them to find the total velocity v and the angle θ_0 it makes with the horizontal. Of course, v_x is constant so we can solve for it at any horizontal location. In this case, we chose the starting point since we know both the initial velocity and initial angle. Therefore:

$$v_x = v_0 \cos \theta_0 = (25.0 \text{ m/s})(\cos 35°) = 20.5 \text{ m/s}. \tag{3.62}$$

The final vertical velocity is given by the following equation:

$$v_y = v_{0y} - gt, \tag{3.63}$$

where v_{0y} was found in part (a) to be 14.3 m/s . Thus,

$$v_y = 14.3 \text{ m/s} - (9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(3.96 \text{ s}) \tag{3.64}$$

so that

$$v_y = -24.5 \text{ m/s}. \tag{3.65}$$

To find the magnitude of the final velocity v we combine its perpendicular components, using the following equation:

$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2} = \sqrt{(20.5 \text{ m/s})^2 + (-24.5 \text{ m/s})^2}, \tag{3.66}$$

which gives

$$v = 31.9 \text{ m/s}. \tag{3.67}$$

The direction θ_v is found from the equation:

$$\theta_v = \tan^{-1}(v_y/v_x) \tag{3.68}$$

so that

$$\theta_v = \tan^{-1}(-24.5/20.5) = \tan^{-1}(-1.19). \tag{3.69}$$

Thus,

$$\theta_v = -50.1°. \tag{3.70}$$

Discussion for (b)

The negative angle means that the velocity is $50.1°$ below the horizontal. This result is consistent with the fact that the final vertical velocity is negative and hence downward—as you would expect because the final altitude is 20.0 m lower than the initial altitude. (See **Figure 3.39**.)

One of the most important things illustrated by projectile motion is that vertical and horizontal motions are independent of each other. Galileo was the first person to fully comprehend this characteristic. He used it to predict the range of a projectile. On level ground, we define **range** to be the horizontal distance R traveled by a projectile. Galileo and many others were interested in the range of projectiles primarily for military purposes—such as aiming cannons. However, investigating the range of projectiles can shed light on other interesting phenomena, such as the orbits of satellites around the Earth. Let us consider projectile range further.
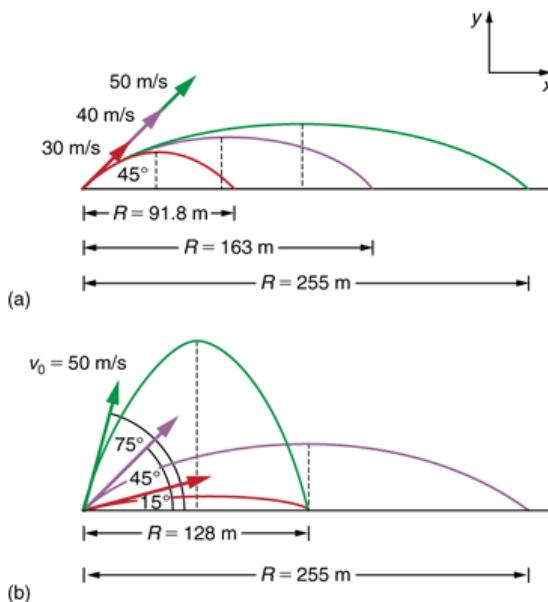
Figure 3.40 Trajectories of projectiles on level ground. (a) The greater the initial speed v_0, the greater the range for a given initial angle. (b) The effect of initial angle θ_0 on the range of a projectile with a given initial speed. Note that the range is the same for $15°$ and $75°$, although the maximum heights of those paths are different.

How does the initial velocity of a projectile affect its range? Obviously, the greater the initial speed v_0, the greater the range, as shown in **Figure 3.40**(a). The initial angle θ_0 also has a dramatic effect on the range, as illustrated in **Figure 3.40**(b). For a fixed initial speed, such as might be produced by a cannon, the maximum range is obtained with $\theta_0 = 45°$. This is true only for conditions neglecting air resistance. If air resistance is considered, the maximum angle is approximately $38°$. Interestingly, for every initial angle except $45°$, there are two angles that give the same range—the sum of those angles is $90°$. The range also depends on the value of the acceleration of gravity g. The lunar astronaut Alan Shepherd was able to drive a golf ball a great distance on the Moon because gravity is weaker there. The range R of a projectile on *level ground* for which air resistance is negligible is given by

$$R = \frac{v_0^2 \sin 2\theta_0}{g},$$
(3.71)

where v_0 is the initial speed and θ_0 is the initial angle relative to the horizontal. The proof of this equation is left as an end-of-chapter problem (hints are given), but it does fit the major features of projectile range as described.

When we speak of the range of a projectile on level ground, we assume that R is very small compared with the circumference of the Earth. If, however, the range is large, the Earth curves away below the projectile and acceleration of gravity changes direction along the path. The range is larger than predicted by the range equation given above because the projectile has farther to fall than it would on level ground. (See **Figure 3.41**.) If the initial speed is great enough, the projectile goes into orbit. This possibility was recognized centuries before it could be accomplished. When an object is in orbit, the Earth curves away from underneath the object at the same rate as it falls. The object thus falls continuously but never hits the surface. These and other aspects of orbital motion, such as the rotation of the Earth, will be covered analytically and in greater depth later in this text.

Once again we see that thinking about one topic, such as the range of a projectile, can lead us to others, such as the Earth orbits. In **Addition of Velocities**, we will examine the addition of velocities, which is another important aspect of two-dimensional kinematics and will also yield insights beyond the immediate topic.
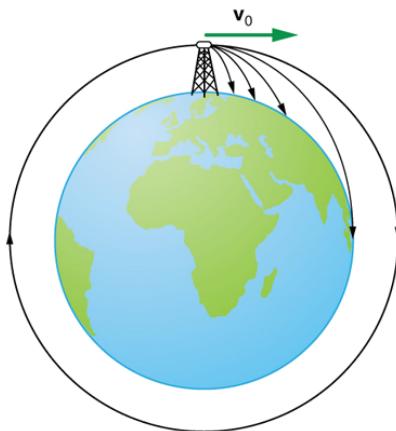
Figure 3.41 Projectile to satellite. In each case shown here, a projectile is launched from a very high tower to avoid air resistance. With increasing initial speed, the range increases and becomes longer than it would be on level ground because the Earth curves away underneath its path. With a large enough initial speed, orbit is achieved.

> **PhET Explorations: Projectile Motion**
>
> Blast a Buick out of a cannon! Learn about projectile motion by firing various objects. Set the angle, initial speed, and mass. Add air resistance. Make a game out of this simulation by trying to hit a target.
>
> **(This media type is not supported in this reader. Click to open media in browser.) (http://cnx.org/content/m42042/ 1.18/#Phet_module_3.4)**
>
> **Figure 3.42**

3.5 Addition of Velocities

Relative Velocity

If a person rows a boat across a rapidly flowing river and tries to head directly for the other shore, the boat instead moves *diagonally* relative to the shore, as in **Figure 3.43**. The boat does not move in the direction in which it is pointed. The reason, of course, is that the river carries the boat downstream. Similarly, if a small airplane flies overhead in a strong crosswind, you can sometimes see that the plane is not moving in the direction in which it is pointed, as illustrated in **Figure 3.44**. The plane is moving straight ahead relative to the air, but the movement of the air mass relative to the ground carries it sideways.
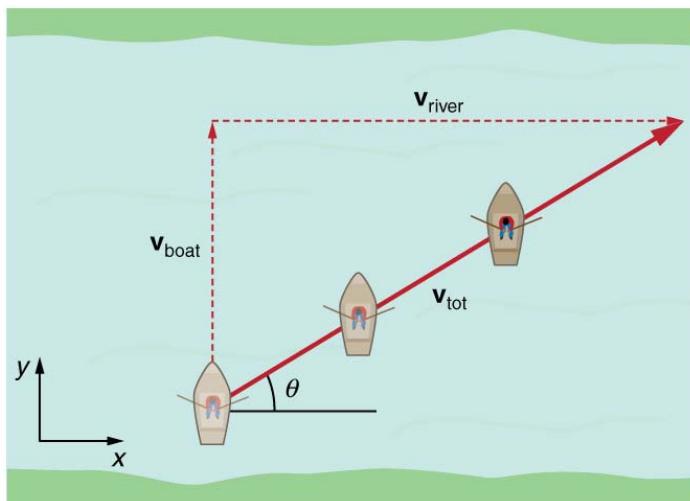

Figure 3.43 A boat trying to head straight across a river will actually move diagonally relative to the shore as shown. Its total velocity (solid arrow) relative to the shore is the sum of its velocity relative to the river plus the velocity of the river relative to the shore.
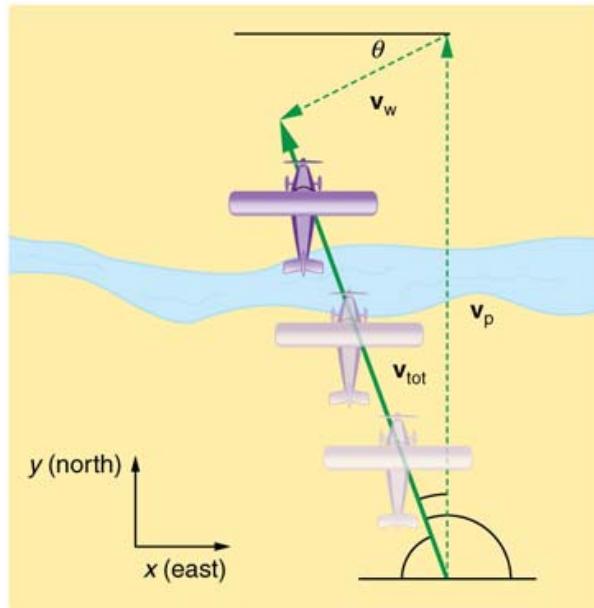
Figure 3.44 An airplane heading straight north is instead carried to the west and slowed down by wind. The plane does not move relative to the ground in the direction it points; rather, it moves in the direction of its total velocity (solid arrow).

In each of these situations, an object has a **velocity** relative to a medium (such as a river) and that medium has a velocity relative to an observer on solid ground. The velocity of the object *relative to the observer* is the sum of these velocity vectors, as indicated in **Figure 3.43** and **Figure 3.44**. These situations are only two of many in which it is useful to add velocities. In this module, we first re-examine how to add velocities and then consider certain aspects of what relative velocity means.

How do we add velocities? Velocity is a vector (it has both magnitude and direction); the rules of **vector addition** discussed in **Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods** and **Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods** apply to the addition of velocities, just as they do for any other vectors. In one-dimensional motion, the addition of velocities is simple—they add like ordinary numbers. For example, if a field hockey player is moving at 5 m/s straight toward the goal and drives the ball in the same direction with a velocity of 30 m/s relative to her body, then the velocity of the ball is 35 m/s relative to the stationary, profusely sweating goalkeeper standing in front of the goal.

In two-dimensional motion, either graphical or analytical techniques can be used to add velocities. We will concentrate on analytical techniques. The following equations give the relationships between the magnitude and direction of velocity (v and θ) and its components (v_x and v_y) along the *x*- and *y*-axes of an appropriately chosen coordinate system:

$$v_x = v \cos \theta \tag{3.72}$$

$$v_y = v \sin \theta \tag{3.73}$$

$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2} \tag{3.74}$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(v_y / v_x). \tag{3.75}$$
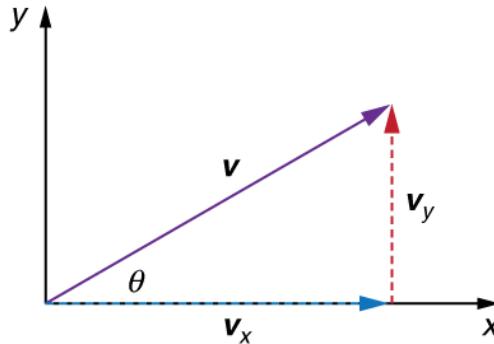
Figure 3.45 The velocity, v , of an object traveling at an angle θ to the horizontal axis is the sum of component vectors $\mathbf{v}_x$ and $\mathbf{v}_y$.

These equations are valid for any vectors and are adapted specifically for velocity. The first two equations are used to find the components of a velocity when its magnitude and direction are known. The last two are used to find the magnitude and direction of velocity when its components are known.

Example 3.6 Adding Velocities: A Boat on a River
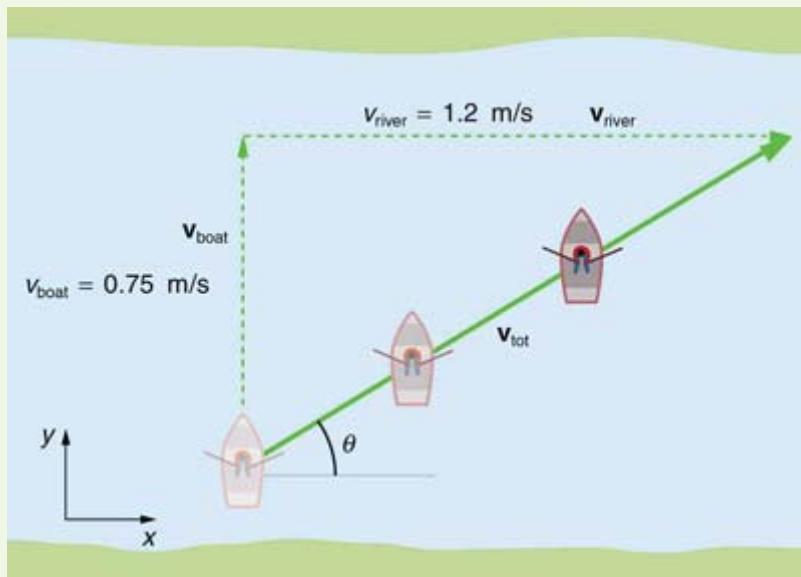
Figure 3.46 A boat attempts to travel straight across a river at a speed 0.75 m/s. The current in the river, however, flows at a speed of 1.20 m/s to the right.

Refer to **Figure 3.46**, which shows a boat trying to go straight across the river. Let us calculate the magnitude and direction of the boat's velocity relative to an observer on the shore, $\mathbf{v}_{tot}$. The velocity of the boat, $\mathbf{v}_{boat}$, is 0.75 m/s in the y -direction relative to the river and the velocity of the river, $\mathbf{v}_{river}$, is 1.20 m/s to the right.

Strategy

We start by choosing a coordinate system with its x -axis parallel to the velocity of the river, as shown in **Figure 3.46**. Because the boat is directed straight toward the other shore, its velocity relative to the water is parallel to the y -axis and perpendicular to the velocity of the river. Thus, we can add the two velocities by using the equations $v_{tot} = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2}$ and $\theta = \tan^{-1}(v_y / v_x)$ directly.

Solution

The magnitude of the total velocity is

$$v_{tot} = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2}, \tag{3.76}$$

where

$$v_x = v_{river} = 1.20 \text{ m/s} \tag{3.77}$$

and

$$v_y = v_{boat} = 0.750 \text{ m/s.} \tag{3.78}$$

Thus,

$$v_{tot} = \sqrt{(1.20 \text{ m/s})^2 + (0.750 \text{ m/s})^2} \tag{3.79}$$

yielding

$$v_{tot} = 1.42 \text{ m/s.} \tag{3.80}$$

The direction of the total velocity θ is given by:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(v_y / v_x) = \tan^{-1}(0.750 / 1.20). \tag{3.81}$$

This equation gives

$$\theta = 32.0°. \tag{3.82}$$

Discussion

Both the magnitude v and the direction θ of the total velocity are consistent with **Figure 3.46**. Note that because the velocity of the river is large compared with the velocity of the boat, it is swept rapidly downstream. This result is evidenced by the small angle (only $32.0°$) the total velocity has relative to the riverbank.

Example 3.7 Calculating Velocity: Wind Velocity Causes an Airplane to Drift

Calculate the wind velocity for the situation shown in **Figure 3.47**. The plane is known to be moving at 45.0 m/s due north relative to the air mass, while its velocity relative to the ground (its total velocity) is 38.0 m/s in a direction $20.0°$ west of north.
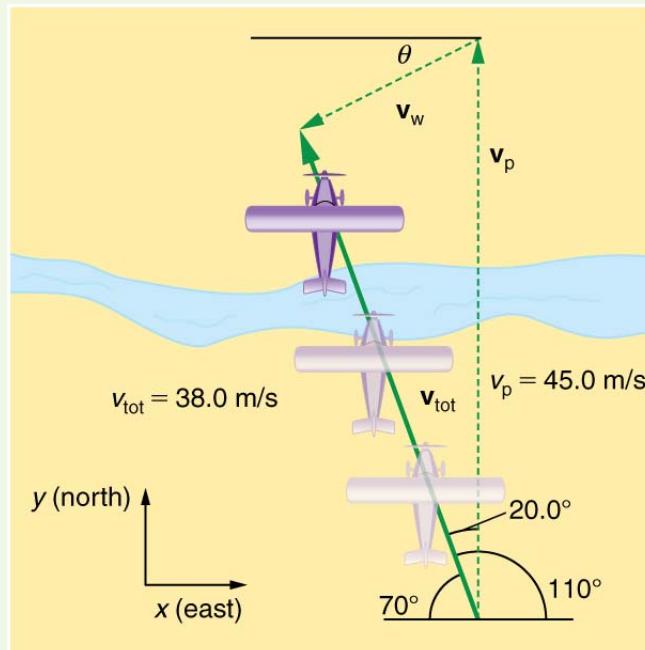
Figure 3.47 An airplane is known to be heading north at 45.0 m/s, though its velocity relative to the ground is 38.0 m/s at an angle west of north. What is the speed and direction of the wind?

Strategy

In this problem, somewhat different from the previous example, we know the total velocity $\mathbf{v}_{tot}$ and that it is the sum of two other velocities, $\mathbf{v}_w$ (the wind) and $\mathbf{v}_p$ (the plane relative to the air mass). The quantity $\mathbf{v}_p$ is known, and we are asked to find $\mathbf{v}_w$. None of the velocities are perpendicular, but it is possible to find their components along a common set of perpendicular axes. If we can find the components of $\mathbf{v}_w$, then we can combine them to solve for its magnitude and direction. As shown in **Figure 3.47**, we choose a coordinate system with its x-axis due east and its y-axis due north (parallel to $\mathbf{v}_p$). (You may wish to look back at the discussion of the addition of vectors using perpendicular components in **Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods**.)

Solution

Because $\mathbf{v}_{tot}$ is the vector sum of the $\mathbf{v}_w$ and $\mathbf{v}_p$, its x- and y-components are the sums of the x- and y-components of the wind and plane velocities. Note that the plane only has vertical component of velocity so $v_{px} = 0$ and $v_{py} = v_p$. That is,

$$v_{totx} = v_{wx} \tag{3.83}$$

and

$$v_{\text{tot}y} = v_{\text{w}y} + v_{\text{p}}. \tag{3.84}$$

We can use the first of these two equations to find $v_{\text{w}x}$:

$$v_{\text{w}x} = v_{\text{tot}x} = v_{\text{tot}}\cos 110°. \tag{3.85}$$

Because $v_{\text{tot}} = 38.0 \text{ m/s}$ and $\cos 110° = -0.342$ we have

$$v_{\text{w}x} = (38.0 \text{ m/s})(-0.342) = -13 \text{ m/s}. \tag{3.86}$$

The minus sign indicates motion west which is consistent with the diagram.

Now, to find $v_{\text{w}y}$ we note that

$$v_{\text{tot}y} = v_{\text{w}y} + v_{\text{p}} \tag{3.87}$$

Here $v_{\text{tot}y} = v_{\text{tot}}\sin 110°$; thus,

$$v_{\text{w}y} = (38.0 \text{ m/s})(0.940) - 45.0 \text{ m/s} = -9.29 \text{ m/s}. \tag{3.88}$$

This minus sign indicates motion south which is consistent with the diagram.

Now that the perpendicular components of the wind velocity $v_{\text{w}x}$ and $v_{\text{w}y}$ are known, we can find the magnitude and direction of $\mathbf{v}_{\text{w}}$. First, the magnitude is

$$\begin{aligned} v_{\text{w}} &= \sqrt{v_{\text{w}x}^2 + v_{\text{w}y}^2} \\ &= \sqrt{(-13.0 \text{ m/s})^2 + (-9.29 \text{ m/s})^2} \end{aligned} \tag{3.89}$$

so that

$$v_{\text{w}} = 16.0 \text{ m/s}. \tag{3.90}$$

The direction is:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(v_{\text{w}y}/v_{\text{w}x}) = \tan^{-1}(-9.29/-13.0) \tag{3.91}$$

giving

$$\theta = 35.6°. \tag{3.92}$$

Discussion

The wind's speed and direction are consistent with the significant effect the wind has on the total velocity of the plane, as seen in **Figure 3.47**. Because the plane is fighting a strong combination of crosswind and head-wind, it ends up with a total velocity significantly less than its velocity relative to the air mass as well as heading in a different direction.

Note that in both of the last two examples, we were able to make the mathematics easier by choosing a coordinate system with one axis parallel to one of the velocities. We will repeatedly find that choosing an appropriate coordinate system makes problem solving easier. For example, in projectile motion we always use a coordinate system with one axis parallel to gravity.

Relative Velocities and Classical Relativity

When adding velocities, we have been careful to specify that the *velocity is relative to some reference frame*. These velocities are called **relative velocities**. For example, the velocity of an airplane relative to an air mass is different from its velocity relative to the ground. Both are quite different from the velocity of an airplane relative to its passengers (which should be close to zero). Relative velocities are one aspect of **relativity**, which is defined to be the study of how different observers moving relative to each other measure the same phenomenon.

Nearly everyone has heard of relativity and immediately associates it with Albert Einstein (1879–1955), the greatest physicist of the 20th century. Einstein revolutionized our view of nature with his *modern* theory of relativity, which we shall study in later chapters. The relative velocities in this section are actually aspects of classical relativity, first discussed correctly by Galileo and Isaac Newton. **Classical relativity** is limited to situations where speeds are less than about 1% of the speed of light—that is, less than $3{,}000 \text{ km/s}$. Most things we encounter in daily life move slower than this speed.

Let us consider an example of what two different observers see in a situation analyzed long ago by Galileo. Suppose a sailor at the top of a mast on a moving ship drops his binoculars. Where will it hit the deck? Will it hit at the base of the mast, or will it hit behind the mast because the ship is moving forward? The answer is that if air resistance is negligible, the binoculars will hit at the base of the mast at a point directly below its point of release. Now let us consider what two different observers see when the binoculars drop. One observer is on the ship and the other on shore. The binoculars have no horizontal velocity relative to the observer on the ship, and so he sees them fall straight down the mast. (See **Figure 3.48**.) To the observer on shore, the

binoculars and the ship have the *same* horizontal velocity, so both move the same distance forward while the binoculars are falling. This observer sees the curved path shown in **Figure 3.48**. Although the paths look different to the different observers, each sees the same result—the binoculars hit at the base of the mast and not behind it. To get the correct description, it is crucial to correctly specify the velocities relative to the observer.
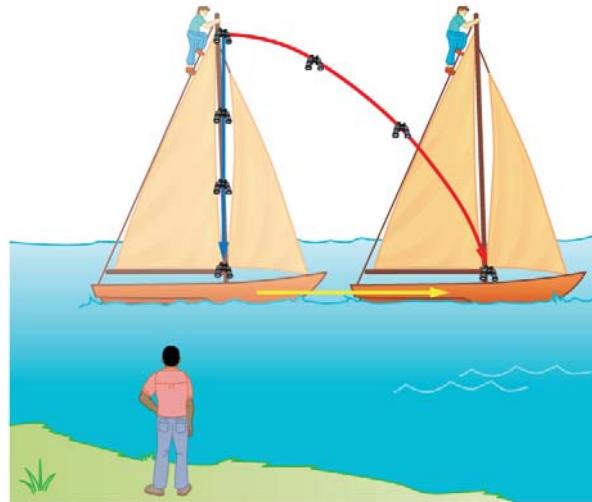

Figure 3.48 Classical relativity. The same motion as viewed by two different observers. An observer on the moving ship sees the binoculars dropped from the top of its mast fall straight down. An observer on shore sees the binoculars take the curved path, moving forward with the ship. Both observers see the binoculars strike the deck at the base of the mast. The initial horizontal velocity is different relative to the two observers. (The ship is shown moving rather fast to emphasize the effect.)

Example 3.8 Calculating Relative Velocity: An Airline Passenger Drops a Coin

An airline passenger drops a coin while the plane is moving at 260 m/s. What is the velocity of the coin when it strikes the floor 1.50 m below its point of release: (a) Measured relative to the plane? (b) Measured relative to the Earth?

Figure 3.49 The motion of a coin dropped inside an airplane as viewed by two different observers. (a) An observer in the plane sees the coin fall straight down. (b) An observer on the ground sees the coin move almost horizontally.

Strategy

Both problems can be solved with the techniques for falling objects and projectiles. In part (a), the initial velocity of the coin is zero relative to the plane, so the motion is that of a falling object (one-dimensional). In part (b), the initial velocity is 260 m/s horizontal relative to the Earth and gravity is vertical, so this motion is a projectile motion. In both parts, it is best to use a coordinate system with vertical and horizontal axes.

Solution for (a)

Using the given information, we note that the initial velocity and position are zero, and the final position is 1.50 m. The final velocity can be found using the equation:

$$v_y{}^2 = v_{0y}{}^2 - 2g(y - y_0). \tag{3.93}$$

Substituting known values into the equation, we get

$$v_y{}^2 = 0^2 - 2(9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)(-1.50 \text{ m} - 0 \text{ m}) = 29.4 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2 \tag{3.94}$$

yielding

$$v_y = -5.42 \text{ m/s}. \tag{3.95}$$

We know that the square root of 29.4 has two roots: 5.42 and -5.42. We choose the negative root because we know that the velocity is directed downwards, and we have defined the positive direction to be upwards. There is no initial horizontal velocity relative to the plane and no horizontal acceleration, and so the motion is straight down relative to the plane.

Solution for (b)

Because the initial vertical velocity is zero relative to the ground and vertical motion is independent of horizontal motion, the final vertical velocity for the coin relative to the ground is $v_y = -5.42 \text{ m/s}$, the same as found in part (a). In contrast to part (a), there now is a horizontal component of the velocity. However, since there is no horizontal acceleration, the initial and final horizontal velocities are the same and $v_x = 260 \text{ m/s}$. The x- and y-components of velocity can be combined to find the magnitude of the final velocity:

$$v = \sqrt{v_x{}^2 + v_y{}^2}. \tag{3.96}$$

Thus,

$$v = \sqrt{(260 \text{ m/s})^2 + (-5.42 \text{ m/s})^2} \tag{3.97}$$

yielding

$$v = 260.06 \text{ m/s}. \tag{3.98}$$

The direction is given by:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(v_y / v_x) = \tan^{-1}(-5.42 / 260) \tag{3.99}$$

so that

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(-0.0208) = -1.19°. \tag{3.100}$$

Discussion

In part (a), the final velocity relative to the plane is the same as it would be if the coin were dropped from rest on the Earth and fell 1.50 m. This result fits our experience; objects in a plane fall the same way when the plane is flying horizontally as when it is at rest on the ground. This result is also true in moving cars. In part (b), an observer on the ground sees a much different motion for the coin. The plane is moving so fast horizontally to begin with that its final velocity is barely greater than the initial velocity. Once again, we see that in two dimensions, vectors do not add like ordinary numbers—the final velocity v in part (b) is *not* $(260 - 5.42)$ m/s; rather, it is 260.06 m/s. The velocity's magnitude had to be calculated to five digits to see any difference from that of the airplane. The motions as seen by different observers (one in the plane and one on the ground) in this example are analogous to those discussed for the binoculars dropped from the mast of a moving ship, except that the velocity of the plane is much larger, so that the two observers see *very* different paths. (See **Figure 3.49**.) In addition, both observers see the coin fall 1.50 m vertically, but the one on the ground also sees it move forward 144 m (this calculation is left for the reader). Thus, one observer sees a vertical path, the other a nearly horizontal path.

Making Connections: Relativity and Einstein

Because Einstein was able to clearly define how measurements are made (some involve light) and because the speed of light is the same for all observers, the outcomes are spectacularly unexpected. Time varies with observer, energy is stored as increased mass, and more surprises await.

PhET Explorations: Motion in 2D

Try the new "Motion in 2D" simulation for the latest updated version. Learn about position, velocity, and acceleration vectors.

Move the ball with the mouse or let the simulation move the ball in four types of motion (2 types of linear, simple harmonic, circle). **Click to open media in new browser. (https://phet.colorado.edu/en/simulation/legacy/motion-2d)**

Glossary

air resistance: a frictional force that slows the motion of objects as they travel through the air; when solving basic physics problems, air resistance is assumed to be zero

analytical method: the method of determining the magnitude and direction of a resultant vector using the Pythagorean theorem and trigonometric identities

classical relativity: the study of relative velocities in situations where speeds are less than about 1% of the speed of light—that is, less than 3000 km/s

commutative: refers to the interchangeability of order in a function; vector addition is commutative because the order in which vectors are added together does not affect the final sum

component (of a 2-d vector): a piece of a vector that points in either the vertical or the horizontal direction; every 2-d vector can be expressed as a sum of two vertical and horizontal vector components

direction (of a vector): the orientation of a vector in space

head (of a vector): the end point of a vector; the location of the tip of the vector's arrowhead; also referred to as the "tip"

head-to-tail method: a method of adding vectors in which the tail of each vector is placed at the head of the previous vector

kinematics: the study of motion without regard to mass or force

magnitude (of a vector): the length or size of a vector; magnitude is a scalar quantity

motion: displacement of an object as a function of time

projectile: an object that travels through the air and experiences only acceleration due to gravity

projectile motion: the motion of an object that is subject only to the acceleration of gravity

range: the maximum horizontal distance that a projectile travels

relative velocity: the velocity of an object as observed from a particular reference frame

relativity: the study of how different observers moving relative to each other measure the same phenomenon

resultant: the sum of two or more vectors

resultant vector: the vector sum of two or more vectors

scalar: a quantity with magnitude but no direction

tail: the start point of a vector; opposite to the head or tip of the arrow

trajectory: the path of a projectile through the air

vector: a quantity that has both magnitude and direction; an arrow used to represent quantities with both magnitude and direction

vector addition: the rules that apply to adding vectors together

velocity: speed in a given direction

Section Summary

3.1 Kinematics in Two Dimensions: An Introduction
- The shortest path between any two points is a straight line. In two dimensions, this path can be represented by a vector with horizontal and vertical components.
- The horizontal and vertical components of a vector are independent of one another. Motion in the horizontal direction does not affect motion in the vertical direction, and vice versa.

3.2 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods
- The **graphical method of adding vectors** $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ involves drawing vectors on a graph and adding them using the

head-to-tail method. The resultant vector $\mathbf{R}$ is defined such that $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{R}$. The magnitude and direction of $\mathbf{R}$ are then determined with a ruler and protractor, respectively.

- The **graphical method of subtracting vector** $\mathbf{B}$ from $\mathbf{A}$ involves adding the opposite of vector $\mathbf{B}$, which is defined as $-\mathbf{B}$. In this case, $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{R}$. Then, the head-to-tail method of addition is followed in the usual way to obtain the resultant vector $\mathbf{R}$.

- Addition of vectors is **commutative** such that $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}$.

- The **head-to-tail method** of adding vectors involves drawing the first vector on a graph and then placing the tail of each subsequent vector at the head of the previous vector. The resultant vector is then drawn from the tail of the first vector to the head of the final vector.

- If a vector $\mathbf{A}$ is multiplied by a scalar quantity c, the magnitude of the product is given by cA. If c is positive, the direction of the product points in the same direction as $\mathbf{A}$; if c is negative, the direction of the product points in the opposite direction as $\mathbf{A}$.

3.3 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods

- The analytical method of vector addition and subtraction involves using the Pythagorean theorem and trigonometric identities to determine the magnitude and direction of a resultant vector.

- The steps to add vectors $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ using the analytical method are as follows:

Step 1: Determine the coordinate system for the vectors. Then, determine the horizontal and vertical components of each vector using the equations

$$\begin{aligned} A_x &= A \cos \theta \\ B_x &= B \cos \theta \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} A_y &= A \sin \theta \\ B_y &= B \sin \theta. \end{aligned}$$

Step 2: Add the horizontal and vertical components of each vector to determine the components R_x and R_y of the resultant vector, $\mathbf{R}$:

$$R_x = A_x + B_x$$

and

$$R_y = A_y + B_y.$$

Step 3: Use the Pythagorean theorem to determine the magnitude, R, of the resultant vector $\mathbf{R}$:

$$R = \sqrt{R_x^2 + R_y^2}.$$

Step 4: Use a trigonometric identity to determine the direction, θ, of $\mathbf{R}$:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(R_y / R_x).$$

3.4 Projectile Motion

- Projectile motion is the motion of an object through the air that is subject only to the acceleration of gravity.

- To solve projectile motion problems, perform the following steps:

1. Determine a coordinate system. Then, resolve the position and/or velocity of the object in the horizontal and vertical components. The components of position $\mathbf{s}$ are given by the quantities x and y, and the components of the velocity $\mathbf{v}$ are given by $v_x = v \cos \theta$ and $v_y = v \sin \theta$, where v is the magnitude of the velocity and θ is its direction.

2. Analyze the motion of the projectile in the horizontal direction using the following equations:

$$\text{Horizontal motion}(a_x = 0)$$

$$x = x_0 + v_x t$$

$$v_x = v_{0x} = \mathbf{v}_x = \text{velocity is a constant.}$$

3. Analyze the motion of the projectile in the vertical direction using the following equations:

$$\text{Vertical motion}(\text{Assuming positive direction is up; } a_y = -g = -9.80 \text{ m/s}^2)$$

$$y = y_0 + \frac{1}{2}(v_{0y} + v_y)t$$

$$v_y = v_{0y} - gt$$

$$y = y_0 + v_{0y}t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

$$v_y^2 = v_{0y}^2 - 2g(y - y_0).$$

4. Recombine the horizontal and vertical components of location and/or velocity using the following equations:

$$s = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(y/x)$$

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

$$\theta_v = \tan^{-1}(v_y/v_x).$$

- The maximum height h of a projectile launched with initial vertical velocity v_{0y} is given by

$$h = \frac{v_{0y}^2}{2g}.$$

- The maximum horizontal distance traveled by a projectile is called the **range**. The range R of a projectile on level ground launched at an angle θ_0 above the horizontal with initial speed v_0 is given by

$$R = \frac{v_0^2 \sin 2\theta_0}{g}.$$

3.5 Addition of Velocities

- Velocities in two dimensions are added using the same analytical vector techniques, which are rewritten as

$$v_x = v \cos \theta$$
$$v_y = v \sin \theta$$
$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2}$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(v_y/v_x).$$

- Relative velocity is the velocity of an object as observed from a particular reference frame, and it varies dramatically with reference frame.
- **Relativity** is the study of how different observers measure the same phenomenon, particularly when the observers move relative to one another. **Classical relativity** is limited to situations where speed is less than about 1% of the speed of light (3000 km/s).

Conceptual Questions

3.2 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods

1. Which of the following is a vector: a person's height, the altitude on Mt. Everest, the age of the Earth, the boiling point of water, the cost of this book, the Earth's population, the acceleration of gravity?

2. Give a specific example of a vector, stating its magnitude, units, and direction.

3. What do vectors and scalars have in common? How do they differ?

4. Two campers in a national park hike from their cabin to the same spot on a lake, each taking a different path, as illustrated below. The total distance traveled along Path 1 is 7.5 km, and that along Path 2 is 8.2 km. What is the final displacement of each camper?
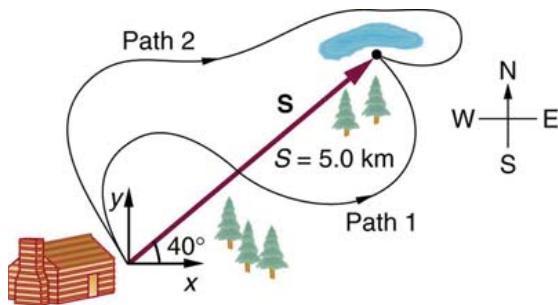

Figure 3.50

5. If an airplane pilot is told to fly 123 km in a straight line to get from San Francisco to Sacramento, explain why he could end up anywhere on the circle shown in **Figure 3.51**. What other information would he need to get to Sacramento?

Figure 3.51

6. Suppose you take two steps $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ (that is, two nonzero displacements). Under what circumstances can you end up at your starting point? More generally, under what circumstances can two nonzero vectors add to give zero? Is the maximum distance you can end up from the starting point $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$ the sum of the lengths of the two steps?

7. Explain why it is not possible to add a scalar to a vector.

8. If you take two steps of different sizes, can you end up at your starting point? More generally, can two vectors with different magnitudes ever add to zero? Can three or more?

3.3 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods

9. Suppose you add two vectors $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$. What relative direction between them produces the resultant with the greatest magnitude? What is the maximum magnitude? What relative direction between them produces the resultant with the smallest magnitude? What is the minimum magnitude?

10. Give an example of a nonzero vector that has a component of zero.

11. Explain why a vector cannot have a component greater than its own magnitude.

12. If the vectors $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ are perpendicular, what is the component of $\mathbf{A}$ along the direction of $\mathbf{B}$? What is the component of $\mathbf{B}$ along the direction of $\mathbf{A}$?

3.4 Projectile Motion

13. Answer the following questions for projectile motion on level ground assuming negligible air resistance (the initial angle being neither 0° nor 90°): (a) Is the velocity ever zero? (b) When is the velocity a minimum? A maximum? (c) Can the velocity ever be the same as the initial velocity at a time other than at $t = 0$? (d) Can the speed ever be the same as the initial speed at a time other than at $t = 0$?

14. Answer the following questions for projectile motion on level ground assuming negligible air resistance (the initial angle being neither 0° nor 90°): (a) Is the acceleration ever zero? (b) Is the acceleration ever in the same direction as a component of velocity? (c) Is the acceleration ever opposite in direction to a component of velocity?

15. For a fixed initial speed, the range of a projectile is determined by the angle at which it is fired. For all but the maximum, there are two angles that give the same range. Considering factors that might affect the ability of an archer to hit a target, such as wind, explain why the smaller angle (closer to the horizontal) is preferable. When would it be necessary for the archer to use the larger angle? Why does the punter in a football game use the higher trajectory?

16. During a lecture demonstration, a professor places two coins on the edge of a table. She then flicks one of the coins horizontally off the table, simultaneously nudging the other over the edge. Describe the subsequent motion of the two coins, in particular discussing whether they hit the floor at the same time.

3.5 Addition of Velocities

17. What frame or frames of reference do you instinctively use when driving a car? When flying in a commercial jet airplane?

18. A basketball player dribbling down the court usually keeps his eyes fixed on the players around him. He is moving fast. Why doesn't he need to keep his eyes on the ball?

19. If someone is riding in the back of a pickup truck and throws a softball straight backward, is it possible for the ball to fall straight down as viewed by a person standing at the side of the road? Under what condition would this occur? How would the motion of the ball appear to the person who threw it?

20. The hat of a jogger running at constant velocity falls off the back of his head. Draw a sketch showing the path of the hat in the jogger's frame of reference. Draw its path as viewed by a stationary observer.

21. A clod of dirt falls from the bed of a moving truck. It strikes the ground directly below the end of the truck. What is the direction of its velocity relative to the truck just before it hits? Is this the same as the direction of its velocity relative to ground just before it hits? Explain your answers.

Problems & Exercises

3.2 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Graphical Methods

Use graphical methods to solve these problems. You may assume data taken from graphs is accurate to three digits.

1. Find the following for path A in **Figure 3.52**: (a) the total distance traveled, and (b) the magnitude and direction of the displacement from start to finish.
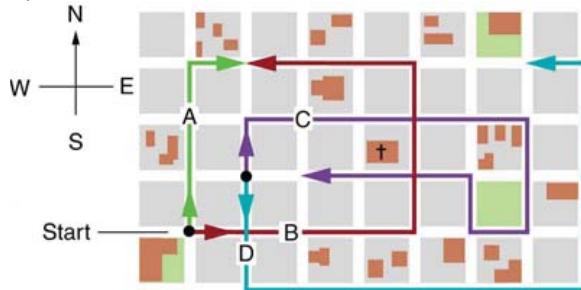
Figure 3.52 The various lines represent paths taken by different people walking in a city. All blocks are 120 m on a side.

2. Find the following for path B in **Figure 3.52**: (a) the total distance traveled, and (b) the magnitude and direction of the displacement from start to finish.

3. Find the north and east components of the displacement for the hikers shown in **Figure 3.50**.

4. Suppose you walk 18.0 m straight west and then 25.0 m straight north. How far are you from your starting point, and what is the compass direction of a line connecting your starting point to your final position? (If you represent the two legs of the walk as vector displacements $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$, as in **Figure 3.53**, then this problem asks you to find their sum $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$.)
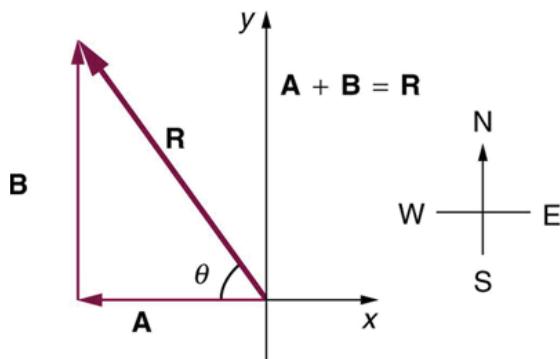
Figure 3.53 The two displacements $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ add to give a total displacement $\mathbf{R}$ having magnitude R and direction θ.

5. Suppose you first walk 12.0 m in a direction $20°$ west of north and then 20.0 m in a direction $40.0°$ south of west. How far are you from your starting point, and what is the compass direction of a line connecting your starting point to your final position? (If you represent the two legs of the walk as vector displacements $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$, as in **Figure 3.54**, then this problem finds their sum $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$.)
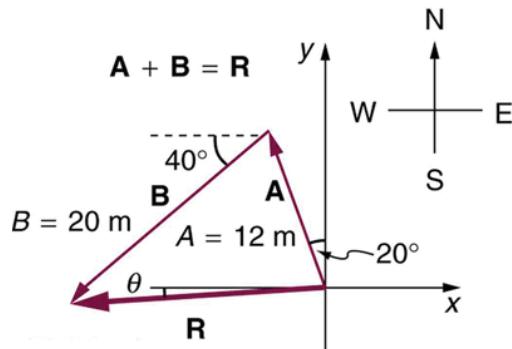

Figure 3.54

6. Repeat the problem above, but reverse the order of the two legs of the walk; show that you get the same final result. That is, you first walk leg $\mathbf{B}$, which is 20.0 m in a direction exactly $40°$ south of west, and then leg $\mathbf{A}$, which is 12.0 m in a direction exactly $20°$ west of north. (This problem shows that $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}$.)

7. (a) Repeat the problem two problems prior, but for the second leg you walk 20.0 m in a direction $40.0°$ north of east (which is equivalent to subtracting $\mathbf{B}$ from $\mathbf{A}$ —that is, to finding $\mathbf{R}' = \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$). (b) Repeat the problem two problems prior, but now you first walk 20.0 m in a direction $40.0°$ south of west and then 12.0 m in a direction $20.0°$ east of south (which is equivalent to subtracting $\mathbf{A}$ from $\mathbf{B}$ —that is, to finding $\mathbf{R}'' = \mathbf{B} - \mathbf{A} = -\mathbf{R}'$). Show that this is the case.

8. Show that the *order* of addition of three vectors does not affect their sum. Show this property by choosing any three vectors $\mathbf{A}$, $\mathbf{B}$, and $\mathbf{C}$, all having different lengths and directions. Find the sum $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}$ then find their sum when added in a different order and show the result is the same. (There are five other orders in which $\mathbf{A}$, $\mathbf{B}$, and $\mathbf{C}$ can be added; choose only one.)

9. Show that the sum of the vectors discussed in **Example 3.2** gives the result shown in **Figure 3.24**.

10. Find the magnitudes of velocities v_A and v_B in **Figure 3.55**

$$V_{tot} = V_A + V_B$$
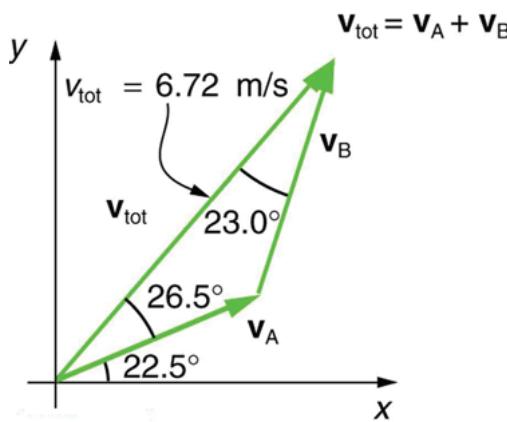
Figure 3.55 The two velocities V_A and V_B add to give a total V_{tot}.

11. Find the components of v_{tot} along the *x*- and *y*-axes in **Figure 3.55**.

12. Find the components of v_{tot} along a set of perpendicular axes rotated $30°$ counterclockwise relative to those in **Figure 3.55**.

3.3 Vector Addition and Subtraction: Analytical Methods

13. Find the following for path C in **Figure 3.56**: (a) the total distance traveled and (b) the magnitude and direction of the displacement from start to finish. In this part of the problem, explicitly show how you follow the steps of the analytical method of vector addition.
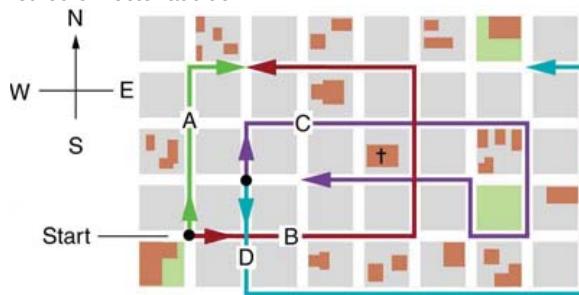
Figure 3.56 The various lines represent paths taken by different people walking in a city. All blocks are 120 m on a side.

14. Find the following for path D in **Figure 3.56**: (a) the total distance traveled and (b) the magnitude and direction of the displacement from start to finish. In this part of the problem, explicitly show how you follow the steps of the analytical method of vector addition.

15. Find the north and east components of the displacement from San Francisco to Sacramento shown in **Figure 3.57**.

Figure 3.57

16. Solve the following problem using analytical techniques: Suppose you walk 18.0 m straight west and then 25.0 m straight north. How far are you from your starting point, and what is the compass direction of a line connecting your starting point to your final position? (If you represent the two legs of the walk as vector displacements A and B, as in **Figure 3.58**, then this problem asks you to find their sum $R = A + B$.)
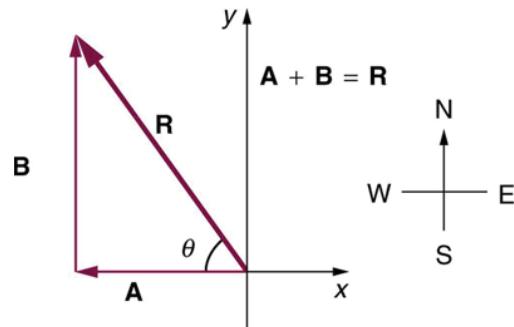
Figure 3.58 The two displacements A and B add to give a total displacement R having magnitude R and direction θ.

Note that you can also solve this graphically. Discuss why the analytical technique for solving this problem is potentially more accurate than the graphical technique.

17. Repeat **Exercise 3.16** using analytical techniques, but reverse the order of the two legs of the walk and show that you get the same final result. (This problem shows that adding them in reverse order gives the same result—that is, $B + A = A + B$.) Discuss how taking another path to reach the same point might help to overcome an obstacle blocking you other path.

26. A ball is kicked with an initial velocity of 16 m/s in the horizontal direction and 12 m/s in the vertical direction. (a) At what speed does the ball hit the ground? (b) For how long does the ball remain in the air? (c)What maximum height is attained by the ball?

27. A ball is thrown horizontally from the top of a 60.0-m building and lands 100.0 m from the base of the building. Ignore air resistance. (a) How long is the ball in the air? (b) What must have been the initial horizontal component of the velocity? (c) What is the vertical component of the velocity just before the ball hits the ground? (d) What is the velocity (including both the horizontal and vertical components) of the ball just before it hits the ground?

28. (a) A daredevil is attempting to jump his motorcycle over a line of buses parked end to end by driving up a $32°$ ramp at a speed of $40.0 \text{ m/s} (144 \text{ km/h})$. How many buses can he clear if the top of the takeoff ramp is at the same height as the bus tops and the buses are 20.0 m long? (b) Discuss what your answer implies about the margin of error in this act—that is, consider how much greater the range is than the horizontal distance he must travel to miss the end of the last bus. (Neglect air resistance.)

29. An archer shoots an arrow at a 75.0 m distant target; the bull's-eye of the target is at same height as the release height of the arrow. (a) At what angle must the arrow be released to hit the bull's-eye if its initial speed is 35.0 m/s? In this part of the problem, explicitly show how you follow the steps involved in solving projectile motion problems. (b) There is a large tree halfway between the archer and the target with an overhanging horizontal branch 3.50 m above the release height of the arrow. Will the arrow go over or under the branch?

30. A rugby player passes the ball 7.00 m across the field, where it is caught at the same height as it left his hand. (a) At what angle was the ball thrown if its initial speed was 12.0 m/s, assuming that the smaller of the two possible angles was used? (b) What other angle gives the same range, and why would it not be used? (c) How long did this pass take?

31. Verify the ranges for the projectiles in **Figure 3.40**(a) for $\theta = 45°$ and the given initial velocities.

32. Verify the ranges shown for the projectiles in **Figure 3.40**(b) for an initial velocity of 50 m/s at the given initial angles.

33. The cannon on a battleship can fire a shell a maximum distance of 32.0 km. (a) Calculate the initial velocity of the shell. (b) What maximum height does it reach? (At its highest, the shell is above 60% of the atmosphere—but air resistance is not really negligible as assumed to make this problem easier.) (c) The ocean is not flat, because the Earth is curved. Assume that the radius of the Earth is $6.37\times10^3 \text{ km}$. How many meters lower will its surface be 32.0 km from the ship along a horizontal line parallel to the surface at the ship? Does your answer imply that error introduced by the assumption of a flat Earth in projectile motion is significant here?

34. An arrow is shot from a height of 1.5 m toward a cliff of height H. It is shot with a velocity of 30 m/s at an angle of $60°$ above the horizontal. It lands on the top edge of the cliff 4.0 s later. (a) What is the height of the cliff? (b) What is the maximum height reached by the arrow along its trajectory? (c) What is the arrow's impact speed just before hitting the cliff?

35. In the standing broad jump, one squats and then pushes off with the legs to see how far one can jump. Suppose the extension of the legs from the crouch position is 0.600 m and the acceleration achieved from this position is 1.25 times the acceleration due to gravity, g. How far can they jump? State your assumptions. (Increased range can be achieved by swinging the arms in the direction of the jump.)

36. The world long jump record is 8.95 m (Mike Powell, USA, 1991). Treated as a projectile, what is the maximum range obtainable by a person if he has a take-off speed of 9.5 m/s? State your assumptions.

37. Serving at a speed of 170 km/h, a tennis player hits the ball at a height of 2.5 m and an angle θ below the horizontal. The base line is 11.9 m from the net, which is 0.91 m high. What is the angle θ such that the ball just crosses the net? Will the ball land in the service box, whose service line is 6.40 m from the net?

38. A football quarterback is moving straight backward at a speed of 2.00 m/s when he throws a pass to a player 18.0 m straight downfield. (a) If the ball is thrown at an angle of $25°$ relative to the ground and is caught at the same height as it is released, what is its initial speed relative to the ground? (b) How long does it take to get to the receiver? (c) What is its maximum height above its point of release?

39. Gun sights are adjusted to aim high to compensate for the effect of gravity, effectively making the gun accurate only for a specific range. (a) If a gun is sighted to hit targets that are at the same height as the gun and 100.0 m away, how low will the bullet hit if aimed directly at a target 150.0 m away? The muzzle velocity of the bullet is 275 m/s. (b) Discuss qualitatively how a larger muzzle velocity would affect this problem and what would be the effect of air resistance.

40. An eagle is flying horizontally at a speed of 3.00 m/s when the fish in her talons wiggles loose and falls into the lake 5.00 m below. Calculate the velocity of the fish relative to the water when it hits the water.

41. An owl is carrying a mouse to the chicks in its nest. Its position at that time is 4.00 m west and 12.0 m above the center of the 30.0 cm diameter nest. The owl is flying east at 3.50 m/s at an angle $30.0°$ below the horizontal when it accidentally drops the mouse. Is the owl lucky enough to have the mouse hit the nest? To answer this question, calculate the horizontal position of the mouse when it has fallen 12.0 m.

42. Suppose a soccer player kicks the ball from a distance 30 m toward the goal. Find the initial speed of the ball if it just passes over the goal, 2.4 m above the ground, given the initial direction to be $40°$ above the horizontal.

43. Can a goalkeeper at her/ his goal kick a soccer ball into the opponent's goal without the ball touching the ground? The distance will be about 95 m. A goalkeeper can give the ball a speed of 30 m/s.

44. The free throw line in basketball is 4.57 m (15 ft) from the basket, which is 3.05 m (10 ft) above the floor. A player standing on the free throw line throws the ball with an initial speed of 8.15 m/s, releasing it at a height of 2.44 m (8 ft) above the floor. At what angle above the horizontal must the ball be thrown to exactly hit the basket? Note that most players will use a large initial angle rather than a flat shot because it allows for a larger margin of error. Explicitly show how you follow the steps involved in solving projectile motion problems.

45. In 2007, Michael Carter (U.S.) set a world record in the shot put with a throw of 24.77 m. What was the initial speed of the shot if he released it at a height of 2.10 m and threw it at an angle of $38.0°$ above the horizontal? (Although the maximum distance for a projectile on level ground is achieved at $45°$ when air resistance is neglected, the actual angle to achieve maximum range is smaller; thus, $38°$ will give a longer range than $45°$ in the shot put.)

46. A basketball player is running at 5.00 m/s directly toward the basket when he jumps into the air to dunk the ball. He maintains his horizontal velocity. (a) What vertical velocity does he need to rise 0.750 m above the floor? (b) How far from the basket (measured in the horizontal direction) must he start his jump to reach his maximum height at the same time as he reaches the basket?

47. A football player punts the ball at a $45.0°$ angle. Without an effect from the wind, the ball would travel 60.0 m horizontally. (a) What is the initial speed of the ball? (b) When the ball is near its maximum height it experiences a brief gust of wind that reduces its horizontal velocity by 1.50 m/s. What distance does the ball travel horizontally?

48. Prove that the trajectory of a projectile is parabolic, having the form $y = ax + bx^2$. To obtain this expression, solve the equation $x = v_{0x}t$ for t and substitute it into the expression for $y = v_{0y}t - (1/2)gt^2$ (These equations describe the x and y positions of a projectile that starts at the origin.) You should obtain an equation of the form $y = ax + bx^2$ where a and b are constants.

49. Derive $R = \dfrac{v_0^2 \sin 2\theta_0}{g}$ for the range of a projectile on level ground by finding the time t at which y becomes zero and substituting this value of t into the expression for $x - x_0$, noting that $R = x - x_0$

50. Unreasonable Results (a) Find the maximum range of a super cannon that has a muzzle velocity of 4.0 km/s. (b) What is unreasonable about the range you found? (c) Is the premise unreasonable or is the available equation inapplicable? Explain your answer. (d) If such a muzzle velocity could be obtained, discuss the effects of air resistance, thinning air with altitude, and the curvature of the Earth on the range of the super cannon.

51. Construct Your Own Problem Consider a ball tossed over a fence. Construct a problem in which you calculate the ball's needed initial velocity to just clear the fence. Among the things to determine are; the height of the fence, the distance to the fence from the point of release of the ball, and the height at which the ball is released. You should also consider whether it is possible to choose the initial speed for the ball and just calculate the angle at which it is thrown. Also examine the possibility of multiple solutions given the distances and heights you have chosen.

3.5 Addition of Velocities

52. Bryan Allen pedaled a human-powered aircraft across the English Channel from the cliffs of Dover to Cap Gris-Nez on June 12, 1979. (a) He flew for 169 min at an average velocity of 3.53 m/s in a direction $45°$ south of east. What was his total displacement? (b) Allen encountered a headwind averaging 2.00 m/s almost precisely in the opposite direction of his motion relative to the Earth. What was his average velocity relative to the air? (c) What was his total displacement relative to the air mass?

53. A seagull flies at a velocity of 9.00 m/s straight into the wind. (a) If it takes the bird 20.0 min to travel 6.00 km relative to the Earth, what is the velocity of the wind? (b) If the bird turns around and flies with the wind, how long will he take to return 6.00 km? (c) Discuss how the wind affects the total round-trip time compared to what it would be with no wind.

54. Near the end of a marathon race, the first two runners are separated by a distance of 45.0 m. The front runner has a velocity of 3.50 m/s, and the second a velocity of 4.20 m/s. (a) What is the velocity of the second runner relative to the first? (b) If the front runner is 250 m from the finish line, who will win the race, assuming they run at constant velocity? (c) What distance ahead will the winner be when she crosses the finish line?

55. Verify that the coin dropped by the airline passenger in the **Example 3.8** travels 144 m horizontally while falling 1.50 m in the frame of reference of the Earth.

56. A football quarterback is moving straight backward at a speed of 2.00 m/s when he throws a pass to a player 18.0 m straight downfield. The ball is thrown at an angle of $25.0°$ relative to the ground and is caught at the same height as it is released. What is the initial velocity of the ball *relative to the quarterback* ?

57. A ship sets sail from Rotterdam, The Netherlands, heading due north at 7.00 m/s relative to the water. The local ocean current is 1.50 m/s in a direction $40.0°$ north of east. What is the velocity of the ship relative to the Earth?

58. (a) A jet airplane flying from Darwin, Australia, has an air speed of 260 m/s in a direction $5.0°$ south of west. It is in the jet stream, which is blowing at 35.0 m/s in a direction $15°$ south of east. What is the velocity of the airplane relative to the Earth? (b) Discuss whether your answers are consistent with your expectations for the effect of the wind on the plane's path.

59. (a) In what direction would the ship in **Exercise 3.57** have to travel in order to have a velocity straight north relative to the Earth, assuming its speed relative to the water remains 7.00 m/s ? (b) What would its speed be relative to the Earth?

60. (a) Another airplane is flying in a jet stream that is blowing at 45.0 m/s in a direction $20°$ south of east (as in **Exercise 3.58**). Its direction of motion relative to the Earth is $45.0°$ south of west, while its direction of travel relative to the air is $5.00°$ south of west. What is the airplane's speed relative to the air mass? (b) What is the airplane's speed relative to the Earth?

61. A sandal is dropped from the top of a 15.0-m-high mast on a ship moving at 1.75 m/s due south. Calculate the velocity of the sandal when it hits the deck of the ship: (a) relative to the ship and (b) relative to a stationary observer on shore. (c) Discuss how the answers give a consistent result for the position at which the sandal hits the deck.

62. The velocity of the wind relative to the water is crucial to sailboats. Suppose a sailboat is in an ocean current that has a velocity of 2.20 m/s in a direction $30.0°$ east of north relative to the Earth. It encounters a wind that has a velocity of 4.50 m/s in a direction of $50.0°$ south of west relative to the Earth. What is the velocity of the wind relative to the water?

63. The great astronomer Edwin Hubble discovered that all distant galaxies are receding from our Milky Way Galaxy with velocities proportional to their distances. It appears to an observer on the Earth that we are at the center of an expanding universe. **Figure 3.62** illustrates this for five galaxies lying along a straight line, with the Milky Way Galaxy at the center. Using the data from the figure, calculate the velocities: (a) relative to galaxy 2 and (b) relative to galaxy 5. The results mean that observers on all galaxies will see themselves at the center of the expanding universe, and they would likely be aware of relative velocities, concluding that it is not possible to locate the center of expansion with the given information.


Galaxy 1 300 Mly	Galaxy 2 150 Mly	Galaxy 3 MW	Galaxy 4 190 Mly	Galaxy 5 450 Mly

$v_1 = -4500$ km/s $v_2 = -2200$ km/s $v_4 = 2830$ km/s $v_5 = 6700$ km/s
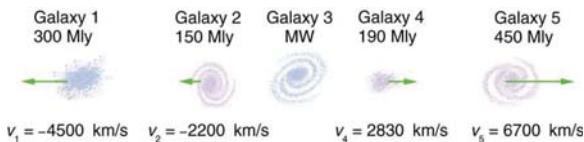
Figure 3.62 Five galaxies on a straight line, showing their distances and velocities relative to the Milky Way (MW) Galaxy. The distances are in millions of light years (Mly), where a light year is the distance light travels in one year. The velocities are nearly proportional to the distances. The sizes of the galaxies are greatly exaggerated; an average galaxy is about 0.1 Mly across.

64. (a) Use the distance and velocity data in **Figure 3.62** to find the rate of expansion as a function of distance.

(b) If you extrapolate back in time, how long ago would all of the galaxies have been at approximately the same position? The two parts of this problem give you some idea of how the Hubble constant for universal expansion and the time back to the Big Bang are determined, respectively.

65. An athlete crosses a 25-m-wide river by swimming perpendicular to the water current at a speed of 0.5 m/s relative to the water. He reaches the opposite side at a distance 40 m downstream from his starting point. How fast is the water in the river flowing with respect to the ground? What is the speed of the swimmer with respect to a friend at rest on the ground?

66. A ship sailing in the Gulf Stream is heading $25.0°$ west of north at a speed of 4.00 m/s relative to the water. Its velocity relative to the Earth is 4.80 m/s $5.00°$ west of north. What is the velocity of the Gulf Stream? (The velocity obtained is typical for the Gulf Stream a few hundred kilometers off the east coast of the United States.)

67. An ice hockey player is moving at 8.00 m/s when he hits the puck toward the goal. The speed of the puck relative to the player is 29.0 m/s. The line between the center of the goal and the player makes a $90.0°$ angle relative to his path as shown in **Figure 3.63**. What angle must the puck's velocity make relative to the player (in his frame of reference) to hit the center of the goal?
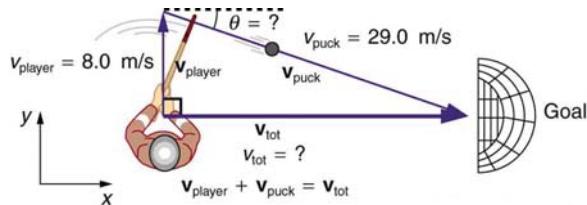

Figure 3.63 An ice hockey player moving across the rink must shoot backward to give the puck a velocity toward the goal.

68. Unreasonable Results Suppose you wish to shoot supplies straight up to astronauts in an orbit 36,000 km above the surface of the Earth. (a) At what velocity must the supplies be launched? (b) What is unreasonable about this velocity? (c) Is there a problem with the relative velocity between the supplies and the astronauts when the supplies reach their maximum height? (d) Is the premise unreasonable or is the available equation inapplicable? Explain your answer.

69. Unreasonable Results A commercial airplane has an air speed of 280 m/s due east and flies with a strong tailwind. It travels 3000 km in a direction $5°$ south of east in 1.50 h. (a) What was the velocity of the plane relative to the ground? (b) Calculate the magnitude and direction of the tailwind's velocity. (c) What is unreasonable about both of these velocities? (d) Which premise is unreasonable?

70. Construct Your Own Problem Consider an airplane headed for a runway in a cross wind. Construct a problem in which you calculate the angle the airplane must fly relative to the air mass in order to have a velocity parallel to the runway. Among the things to consider are the direction of the runway, the wind speed and direction (its velocity) and the speed of the plane relative to the air mass. Also calculate the speed of the airplane relative to the ground. Discuss any last minute maneuvers the pilot might have to perform in order for the plane to land with its wheels pointing straight down the runway.