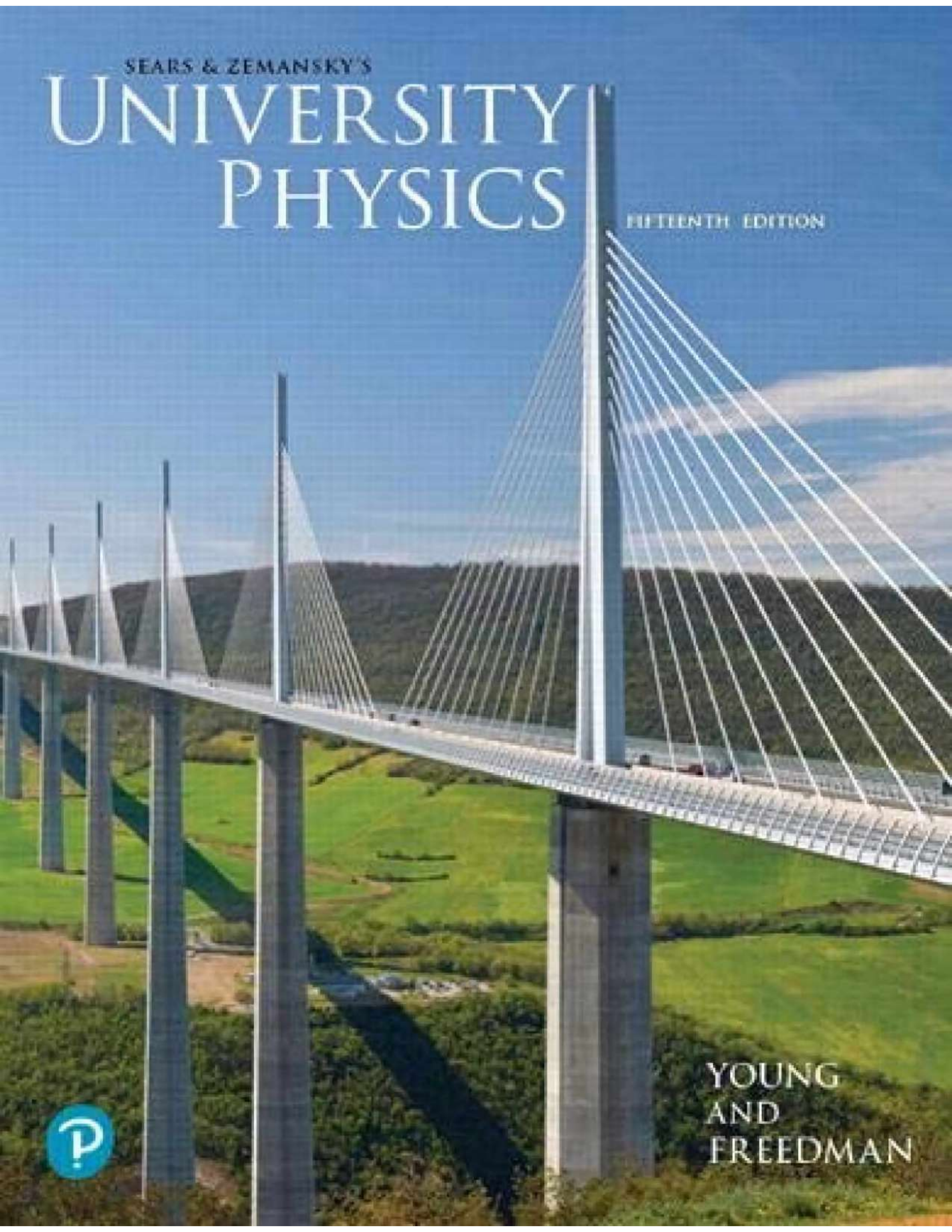
SEARS & ZEMANSKY'S

UNIVERSITY PHYSICS

FIFTEENTH EDITION



YOUNG
AND
FREEDMAN

UNIT CONVERSION FACTORS

Length

1 m = 100 cm = 1000 mm = 10^6 μm = 10^9 nm
1 km = 1000 m = 0.6214 mi
1 m = 3.281 ft = 39.37 in.
1 cm = 0.3937 in.
1 in. = 2.540 cm
1 ft = 30.48 cm
1 yd = 91.44 cm
1 mi = 5280 ft = 1.609 km
1 Å = 10^{-10} m = 10^{-8} cm = 10^{-1} nm
1 nautical mile = 6080 ft
1 light-year = 9.461×10^{15} m

Area

1 cm^2 = 0.155 in.^2
1 m^2 = 10^4 cm^2 = 10.76 ft^2
1 in.^2 = 6.452 cm^2
1 ft^2 = 144 in.^2 = 0.0929 m^2

Volume

1 liter = 1000 cm^3 = 10^{-3} m^3 = 0.03531 ft^3 = 61.02 in.^3
1 ft^3 = 0.02832 m^3 = 28.32 liters = 7.477 gallons
1 gallon = 3.788 liters

Time

1 min = 60 s
1 h = 3600 s
1 d = 86,400 s
1 y = 365.24 d = 3.156×10^7 s

Angle

1 rad = 57.30° = 180°/π
1° = 0.01745 rad = π/180 rad
1 revolution = 360° = 2π rad
1 rev/min (rpm) = 0.1047 rad/s

Speed

1 m/s = 3.281 ft/s
1 ft/s = 0.3048 m/s
1 mi/min = 60 mi/h = 88 ft/s
1 km/h = 0.2778 m/s = 0.6214 mi/h
1 mi/h = 1.466 ft/s = 0.4470 m/s = 1.609 km/h
1 furlong/fortnight = 1.662×10^{-4} m/s

Acceleration

1 m/s^2 = 100 cm/s^2 = 3.281 ft/s^2
1 cm/s^2 = 0.01 m/s^2 = 0.03281 ft/s^2
1 ft/s^2 = 0.3048 m/s^2 = 30.48 cm/s^2
1 mi/h · s = 1.467 ft/s^2

Mass

1 kg = 10^3 g = 0.0685 slug
1 g = 6.85×10^{-5} slug
1 slug = 14.59 kg
1 u = 1.661×10^{-27} kg
1 kg has a weight of 2.205 lb when $g = 9.80\ \text{m/s}^2$

Force

1 N = 10^5 dyn = 0.2248 lb
1 lb = 4.448 N = 4.448×10^5 dyn

Pressure

1 Pa = 1 N/m^2 = 1.450×10^{-4} lb/in.^2 = 0.0209 lb/ft^2
1 bar = 10^5 Pa
1 lb/in.^2 = 6895 Pa
1 lb/ft^2 = 47.88 Pa
1 atm = 1.013×10^5 Pa = 1.013 bar
= 14.7 lb/in.^2 = 2117 lb/ft^2
1 mm Hg = 1 torr = 133.3 Pa

Energy

1 J = 10^7 ergs = 0.239 cal
1 cal = 4.186 J (based on 15° calorie)
1 ft · lb = 1.356 J
1 Btu = 1055 J = 252 cal = 778 ft · lb
1 eV = 1.602×10^{-19} J
1 kWh = 3.600×10^6 J

Mass–Energy Equivalence

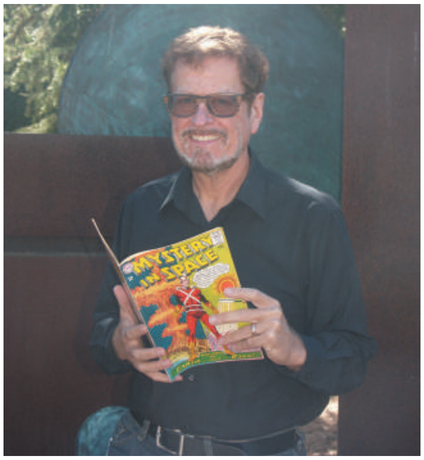
1 kg $\leftrightarrow$ 8.988×10^{16} J
1 u $\leftrightarrow$ 931.5 MeV
1 eV $\leftrightarrow$ 1.074×10^{-9} u

Power

1 W = 1 J/s
1 hp = 746 W = 550 ft · lb/s
1 Btu/h = 0.293 W

APPLICATIONS

ABOUT THE AUTHORS



Roger A. Freedman is a Lecturer in Physics at the University of California, Santa Barbara. He was an undergraduate at the University of California campuses in San Diego and Los Angeles and did his doctoral research in nuclear theory at Stanford University under the direction of Professor J. Dirk Walecka. Dr. Freedman came to UCSB in 1981 after three years of teaching and doing research at the University of Washington.

At UCSB, Dr. Freedman has taught in both the Department of Physics and the College of Creative Studies, a branch of the university intended for highly gifted and motivated undergraduates. He has published research in nuclear physics, elementary particle physics, and laser physics. In recent years, he has worked to make physics lectures a more interactive experience through the use of classroom response systems and pre-lecture videos.

In the 1970s Dr. Freedman worked as a comic book letterer and helped organize the San Diego Comic-Con (now the world's largest popular culture convention) during its first few years. Today, when not in the classroom or slaving over a computer, Dr. Freedman can be found either flying (he holds a commercial pilot's license) or with his wife, Caroline, cheering on the rowers of UCSB Men's and Women's Crew.

IN MEMORIAM: HUGH YOUNG (1930–2013)

Hugh D. Young was Emeritus Professor of Physics at Carnegie Mellon University. He earned both his undergraduate and graduate degrees from that university. He earned his Ph.D. in fundamental particle theory under the direction of the late Richard Cutkosky. Dr. Young joined the faculty of Carnegie Mellon in 1956 and retired in 2004. He also had two visiting professorships at the University of California, Berkeley.

Dr. Young's career was centered entirely on undergraduate education. He wrote several undergraduate-level textbooks, and in 1973 he became a coauthor with Francis Sears and Mark Zemansky of their well-known introductory textbooks. In addition to his role on Sears and Zemansky's *University Physics,* he was the author of Sears and Zemansky's *College Physics*.

Dr. Young earned a bachelor's degree in organ performance from Carnegie Mellon in 1972 and spent several years as Associate Organist at St. Paul's Cathedral in Pittsburgh. He often ventured into the wilderness to hike, climb, or go caving with students in Carnegie Mellon's Explorers Club, which he founded as a graduate student and later advised. Dr. Young and his wife, Alice, hosted up to 50 students each year for Thanksgiving dinners in their home.

Always gracious, Dr. Young expressed his appreciation earnestly: "I want to extend my heartfelt thanks to my colleagues at Carnegie Mellon, especially Professors Robert Kraemer, Bruce Sherwood, Ruth Chabay, Helmut Vogel, and Brian Quinn, for many stimulating discussions about physics pedagogy and for their support and encouragement during the writing of several successive editions of this book. I am equally indebted to the many generations of Carnegie Mellon students who have helped me learn what good teaching and good writing are, by showing me what works and what doesn't. It is always a joy and a privilege to express my gratitude to my wife, Alice, and our children, Gretchen and Rebecca, for their love, support, and emotional sustenance during the writing of several successive editions of this book. May all men and women be blessed with love such as theirs." We at Pearson appreciated his professionalism, good nature, and collaboration. He will be missed.

A. Lewis Ford is Professor of Physics at Texas A&M University. He received a B.A. from Rice University in 1968 and a Ph.D. in chemical physics from the University of Texas at Austin in 1972. After a one-year postdoc at Harvard University, he joined the Texas A&M physics faculty in 1973 and has been there ever since. Professor Ford has specialized in theoretical atomic physics—in particular, atomic collisions. At Texas A&M he has taught a variety of undergraduate and graduate courses, but primarily introductory physics.

TO THE STUDENT

HOW TO SUCCEED IN PHYSICS BY REALLY TRYING

Mark Hollabaugh, Normandale Community College, Emeritus

Physics encompasses the large and the small, the old and the new. From the atom to galaxies, from electrical circuitry to aerodynamics, physics is very much a part of the world around us. You probably are taking this introductory course in calculus-based physics because it is required for subsequent courses that you plan to take in preparation for a career in science or engineering. Your professor wants you to learn physics and to enjoy the experience. He or she is very interested in helping you learn this fascinating subject. That is part of the reason your professor chose this textbook for your course. That is also the reason Drs. Young and Freedman asked me to write this introductory section. We want you to succeed!

The purpose of this section of *University Physics* is to give you some ideas that will assist your learning. Specific suggestions on how to use the textbook will follow a brief discussion of general study habits and strategies.

PREPARATION FOR THIS COURSE

If you had high school physics, you will probably learn concepts faster than those who have not because you will be familiar with the language of physics. If English is a second language for you, keep a glossary of new terms that you encounter and make sure you understand how they are used in physics. Likewise, if you are further along in your mathematics courses, you will pick up the mathematical aspects of physics faster. Even if your mathematics is adequate, you may find a book such as Edward Adelson's *Get Ready for Physics* to be a great help for sharpening your math skills as well as your study skills.

LEARNING TO LEARN

Each of us has a different learning style and a preferred means of learning. Understanding your own learning style will help you to focus on aspects of physics that may give you difficulty and to use those components of your course that will help you overcome the difficulty. Obviously you will want to spend more time on those aspects that give you the most trouble. If you learn by hearing, lectures will be very important. If you learn by explaining, then working with other students will be useful to you. If solving problems is difficult for you, spend more time learning how to solve problems. Also, it is important to understand and develop good study habits. Perhaps the most important thing you can do for yourself is set aside adequate, regularly scheduled study time in a distraction-free environment.

Answer the following questions for yourself:

- Am I able to use fundamental mathematical concepts from algebra, geometry, and trigonometry? (If not, plan a program of review with help from your professor.)
- In similar courses, what activity has given me the most trouble? (Spend more time on this.) What has been the easiest for me? (Do this first; it will build your confidence.)
- Do I understand the material better if I read the book before or after the lecture? (You may learn best by skimming the material, going to lecture, and then undertaking an in-depth reading.)
- Do I spend adequate time studying physics? (A rule of thumb for a class like this is to devote, on average, 2.5 hours out of class for each hour in class. For a course that meets 5 hours each week, that means you should spend about 10 to 15 hours per week studying physics.)
- Do I study physics every day? (Spread that 10 to 15 hours out over an entire week!) At what time of the day am I at my best for studying physics? (Pick a specific time of the day and stick to it.)
- Do I work in a quiet place where I can maintain my focus? (Distractions will break your routine and cause you to miss important points.)

WORKING WITH OTHERS

Scientists or engineers seldom work in isolation from one another but rather work cooperatively. You will learn more physics and have more fun doing it if you work with other students. Some professors may formalize the use of cooperative learning or facilitate the formation of study groups. You may wish to form your own informal study group with members of your class. Use e-mail to keep in touch with one another. Your study group is an excellent resource when you review for exams.

LECTURES AND TAKING NOTES

An important component of any college course is the lecture. In physics this is especially important, because your professor will frequently do demonstrations of physical principles, run computer simulations, or show video clips. All of these are learning activities that will help you understand the basic principles of physics. Don't miss lectures. If for some reason you do, ask a friend or member of your study group to provide you with notes and let you know what happened.

Take your class notes in outline form, and fill in the details later. It can be very difficult to take word-for-word notes, so just write down key ideas. Your professor may use a diagram from the textbook. Leave a space in your notes and add the diagram later. After class, edit your notes, filling in any gaps or omissions and noting things that you need to study further. Make references to the textbook by page, equation number, or section number.

Ask questions in class, or see your professor during office hours. Remember that the only "dumb" question is the one that is not asked. Your college may have teaching assistants or peer tutors who are available to help you with any difficulties.

EXAMINATIONS

Taking an examination is stressful. But if you feel adequately prepared and are well rested, your stress will be lessened. Preparing for an exam is a continuous process; it begins the moment the previous exam is over. You should immediately go over the exam to understand any mistakes you made. If you worked a problem and made substantial errors, try this: Take a piece of paper and divide it down the middle with a line from top to bottom. In one column, write the proper solution to the problem. In the other column, write what you did and why, if you know, and why your solution was incorrect. If you are uncertain why you made your mistake or how to avoid making it again, talk with your professor. Physics constantly builds on fundamental ideas, and it is important to correct any misunderstandings immediately. *Warning:* Although cramming at the last minute may get you through the present exam, you will not adequately retain the concepts for use on the next exam.

TO THE INSTRUCTOR

PREFACE

In the years since it was first published, *University Physics* has always embraced change, not just to include the latest developments in our understanding of the physical world, but also to address our understanding of how students learn physics and how they study.

In preparing for this new Fifteenth Edition, we listened to the thousands of students who have told us that they often struggle to see the connections between the worked examples in their textbook and problems on homework or exams. Every problem seems different because the objects, situations, numbers, and questions posed change with each problem. As a result, students experience frustration and a lack of confidence. By contrast, expert problem-solvers categorize problems by type, based on the underlying principles.

Several of the revisions we have made therefore address this particular challenge by, for example, helping students see the big picture of what each worked example is trying to illustrate and allowing them to practice sets of related problems to help them identify repeating patterns and strategies. These new features are explained in more detail below.

NEW TO THIS EDITION

- **Worked example KEYCONCEPT statements** appear at the end of every Example and Conceptual Example, providing a brief summary of the key idea used in the solution to consolidate what was most important and what can be broadly applied to other problems, to help students identify strategies that can be used in future problems.
- **KEY EXAMPLE √ARIATION PROBLEMS** in the new Guided Practice section at the end of each chapter are based on selected worked examples. They build in difficulty by changing scenarios, swapping the knowns and unknowns, and adding complexity and/or steps of reasoning to provide the most helpful range of related problems that use the same basic approach to solve. These scaffolded problem sets help students see patterns and make connections between problems that can be solved using the same underlying principles and strategies so that they are more able to tackle different problem types when exam time comes.
- **Expanded Caution paragraphs** focus on typical student misconceptions and problem areas. Over a dozen more have been added to this edition based on common errors made in Mastering$^{\text{TM}}$ Physics.
- **Updated and expanded Application sidebars** give students engaging and relevant real-world context.
- **Based on data from Mastering Physics and feedback from instructors, changes to the homework problems include the following:**
  - **Over 500 new problems,** with scores of other problems revised to improve clarity.
  - **Expanded three-dot-difficulty and Challenge Problems** significantly stretch students by requiring sophisticated reasoning that often involves multiple steps or concepts and/or mathematical skills. Challenge Problems are the most difficult problems in each chapter and often involve calculus, multiple steps that lead students through a complex analysis, and/or the exploration of a topic or application not explicitly covered in the chapter.
  - **New estimation problems** help students learn to analyze problem scenarios, assess data, and work with orders of magnitude. This problem type engages students to more thoroughly explore the situation by requiring them to not only estimate some of the data in the problem but also decide what data need to be estimated based on real-world experience, reasoning, assumptions, and/or modeling.
  - **Expanded cumulative problems** promote more advanced problem-solving techniques by requiring knowledge and skills covered in previous chapters to be integrated with understanding and skills from the current chapter.
  - **Expanded alternative problem sets** in Mastering Physics provide textbook-specific problems from previous editions to assign for additional student practice.

Standard, Extended,
and Three-Volume Editions

With Mastering Physics:

- **Standard Edition:** Chapters 1–37 (ISBN 978-0-135-64663-2)
- **Extended Edition:** Chapters 1–44 (ISBN 978-0-135-15970-5)

Without Mastering Physics:

- **Standard Edition:** Chapters 1–37 (ISBN 978-0-135-21611-8)
- **Extended Edition:** Chapters 1–44 (ISBN 978-0-135-15955-2)
- **Volume 1:** Chapters 1–20 (ISBN 978-0-135-21672-9)
- **Volume 2:** Chapters 21–37 (ISBN 978-0-135-21612-5)
- **Volume 3:** Chapters 37–44 (ISBN 978-0-135-21673-6)

KEY FEATURES OF *UNIVERSITY PHYSICS*

- A **QR code** at the beginning of the new Guided Practice section in each chapter allows students to use a mobile phone to access the Study Area of Mastering Physics, where they can watch interactive videos of a physics professor giving a relevant physics demonstration (Video Tutor Demonstrations) or showing a narrated and animated worked Example (Video Tutor Solutions). All videos also play directly through links within the Pearson eText.
- End-of-chapter **Bridging Problems** provide a transition between the single-concept Examples and the more challenging end-of-chapter problems. Each Bridging Problem poses a difficult, multiconcept problem that typically incorporates physics from earlier chapters. The **Solution Guide** that follows each problem provides questions and hints that help students approach and solve challenging problems with confidence.
- Deep and extensive **problem sets** cover a wide range of difficulty (with blue dots to indicate relative difficulty level) and exercise both physical understanding and problem-solving expertise. Many problems are based on complex real-life situations.
- This textbook offers more **Examples** and **Conceptual Examples** than most other leading calculus-based textbooks, allowing students to explore problem-solving challenges that are not addressed in other textbooks.
- A research-based **problem-solving approach (Identify, Set Up, Execute, Evaluate)** is used in every Example as well as in the Problem-Solving Strategies, in the Bridging Problems, and throughout the Instructor's Solutions Manual and the Study Guide. This consistent approach teaches students to tackle problems thoughtfully rather than cutting straight to the math.
- **Problem-Solving Strategies** coach students in how to approach specific types of problems.
- The **figures** use a simplified graphical style to focus on the physics of a situation, and they incorporate blue **explanatory annotations.** Both techniques have been demonstrated to have a strong positive effect on learning.
- Many figures that illustrate Example solutions take the form of black-and-white **pencil sketches,** which directly represent what a student should draw in solving such problems themselves.
- The popular **Caution paragraphs** focus on typical misconceptions and student problem areas.
- End-of-section **Test Your Understanding** questions let students check their grasp of the material and use a multiple-choice or ranking-task format to probe for common misconceptions. Answers are now provided immediately after the question in order to encourage students to try them.
- **Visual Summaries** at the end of each chapter present the key ideas in words, equations, and thumbnail pictures, helping students review more effectively.

Mastering™ is the teaching and learning platform that empowers you to reach *every* student. By combining trusted author content with digital tools developed to engage students and emulate the office-hour experience, Mastering personalizes learning and improves results for each student. Now providing a fully integrated experience, the eText is linked to every problem within Mastering for seamless integration among homework problems, practice problems, the textbook, worked examples, and more.

Reach every student with Mastering

- **Teach your course your way:** Your course is unique. Whether you'd like to build your own auto-graded assignments, foster student engagement during class, or give students anytime, anywhere access, Mastering gives you the flexibility to easily create *your* course to fit *your* needs.
    - With **Learning Catalytics,** you'll hear from every student when it matters most. You pose a variety of questions that help students recall ideas, apply concepts, and develop critical-thinking skills. Your students respond using their own smartphones, tablets, or laptops. You can monitor responses with real-time analytics and find out what your students do—and don't—understand. Then you can adjust your teaching accordingly and even facilitate peer-to-peer learning, helping students stay motivated and engaged.

  - **Expanded alternative problem sets,** with hundreds of vetted problems from previous editions of the book, provide additional problem-solving practice and offer instructors more options when creating assignments.
- **Empower each learner:** Each student learns at a different pace. Personalized learning, including adaptive tools and wrong-answer feedback, pinpoints the precise areas where each student needs practice and gives all students the support they need—when and where they need it—to be successful.
  - **Interactive Pre-lecture Videos** provide an introduction to key topics with embedded assessment to help students prepare before lecture and to help professors identify student misconceptions.
    - **NEW! Quantitative Pre-lecture Videos** now complement the conceptual Interactive Pre-lecture Videos designed to expose students to concepts before class and help them learn how problems for a specific concept are worked.
  - **NEW! Direct Measurement Videos** are short videos that show real situations of physical phenomena. Grids, rulers, and frame counters appear as overlays, helping students to make precise measurements of quantities such as position and time. Students then apply these quantities along with physics concepts to solve problems and answer questions about the motion of the objects in the video. The problems are assignable in Mastering Physics and can be used to replace or supplement traditional word problems; they can also serve as open-ended questions to help develop problem-solving skills.
  - **NEW! Dynamic Study Modules** help students study effectively—and at their own pace. How? By keeping them motivated and engaged. The assignable modules rely on the latest research in cognitive science, using methods—such as adaptivity, gamification, and intermittent rewards—to stimulate learning and improve retention. Each module poses a series of questions about a course topic. These question sets adapt to each student's performance and offer personalized, targeted feedback to help students master key concepts.
  - **NEW! The Physics Primer** relies on videos, hints, and feedback to refresh students' math skills in the context of physics and prepares them for success in the course. These tutorials can be assigned before the course begins or throughout the course as just-in-time remediation. They ensure that students practice and maintain their math skills, while tying together mathematical operations and physics analysis.
- **Deliver trusted content:** We partner with highly respected authors to develop interactive content and course-specific resources that keep students on track and engaged.
  - **Video Tutor Demonstrations and Video Tutor Solutions** tie directly to relevant content in the textbook and can be accessed through Mastering Physics, via the eText, or from QR codes in the textbook.
    - **Video Tutor Solutions (VTSs) for every worked example** in the book walk students through the problem-solving process, providing a virtual teaching assistant on a round-the-clock basis.
    - **Video Tutor Demonstrations (VTDs)** feature "pause-and-predict" demonstrations of key physics concepts and incorporate assessment to engage students in understanding key concepts. New VTDs build on the existing collection, adding new topics for a more robust set of demonstrations.
  - **NEW! Enhanced end-of-chapter questions** provide expanded remediation built into each question when and where students need it. Remediation includes scaffolded support, links to hints, links to appropriate sections of the eText, links from the eText to Mastering Physics, Video Tutor Solutions, math remediation, and wrong-answer feedback for homework assignments. Half of all end-of-chapter problems now have wrong-answer feedback and links to the eText.
  - **NEW! Key Example Variation Problems,** assignable in Mastering Physics, build in difficulty by changing scenarios, swapping the knowns and unknowns, and adding complexity and/or steps of reasoning to provide the most helpful range of related problems that use the same basic approach to find their solutions.
  - **NEW! Bridging Problems are now assignable in Mastering Physics,** thus providing students with additional practice in moving from single-concept worked examples to multi-concept homework problems.

- **Improve student results:** Usage statistics show that when you teach with Mastering, student performance improves. That's why instructors have chosen Mastering for over 15 years, touching the lives of more than 20 million students.

INSTRUCTIONAL PACKAGE

University Physics with Modern Physics, Fifteenth Edition, provides an integrated teaching and learning package of support material for students and instructors.

NOTE: For convenience, instructor supplements can be downloaded from the Instructor Resources area of Mastering Physics.

Supplement	Print	Online	Instructor or Student Supplement	Description
Mastering Physics with Pearson eText (ISBN 0135180678)		✓	Instructor and Student Supplement	This product features all of the resources of Mastering Physics in addition to Pearson eText 2.0. Available on smartphones and tablets, Pearson eText 2.0 comprises the full text, including videos and other rich media.
Instructor's Solutions Manual (ISBN 0135275881)		✓	Instructor Supplement	This comprehensive solutions manual contains complete solutions to all end-of-chapter questions and problems.
Instructor's Resource Materials		✓	Instructor Supplement	All art, photos, and tables from the book are available in JPEG format and as modifiable PowerPoints^{TM}. In addition, instructors can access lecture outlines as well as "clicker" questions in PowerPoint format; editable content for key features, including key equations and Problem-Solving Strategies; and the TestGen test bank.
Student's Study Guide/Solutions Manual Volume 1 (Chs 1–20) (ISBN 0135216958) Volume 2 (Chs 21–37) (ISBN 013521694X) Volume 3 (Chs 37–44) (ISBN 013559202X)	✓		Student Supplement	This combination study guide and solutions manual reinforces the textbook's research-based problem-solving approach (Identify, Set Up, Evaluate, Execute). The solutions manual contains solutions to most of the odd-numbered problems in the text, and the study guide provides a chapter-by-chapter review of key concepts and equations as well as additional example problems with solutions.

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I would like to thank the hundreds of reviewers and colleagues who have offered valuable comments and suggestions over the life of this textbook. The continuing success of *University Physics* is due in large measure to their contributions.

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PLEASE TELL ME WHAT YOU THINK!

I welcome communications from students and professors, especially concerning errors or deficiencies that you find in this edition. The late Hugh Young and I have devoted a lot of time and effort to writing the best book we know how to write, and I hope it will help as you teach and learn physics. In turn, you can help me by letting me know what still needs to be improved! Please feel free to contact me either electronically or by ordinary mail. Your comments will be greatly appreciated.

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Roger A. Freedman
Department of Physics
University of California, Santa Barbara
Santa Barbara, CA 93106-9530
airboy@physics.ucsb.edu
http://www.physics.ucsb.edu/~airboy/
Twitter: @RogerFreedman

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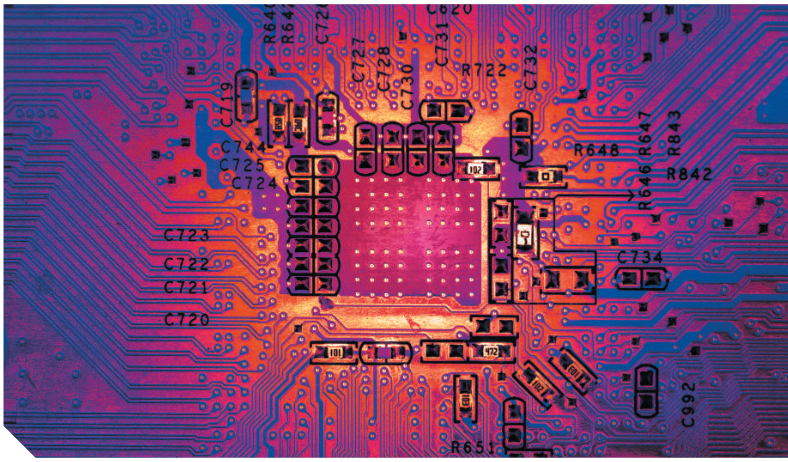
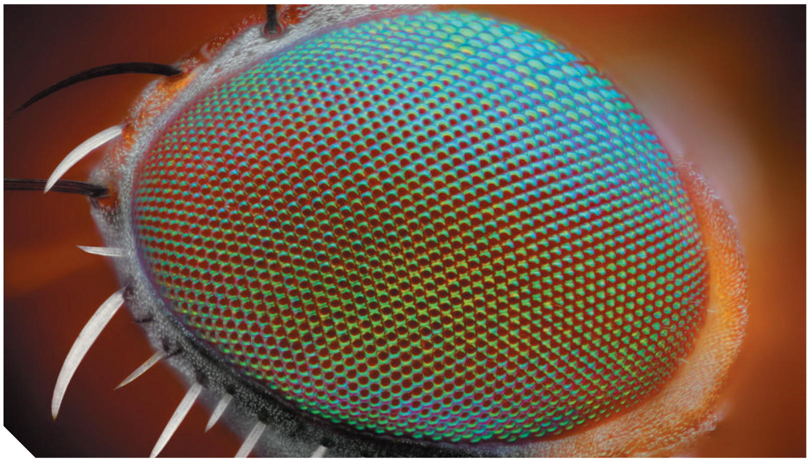
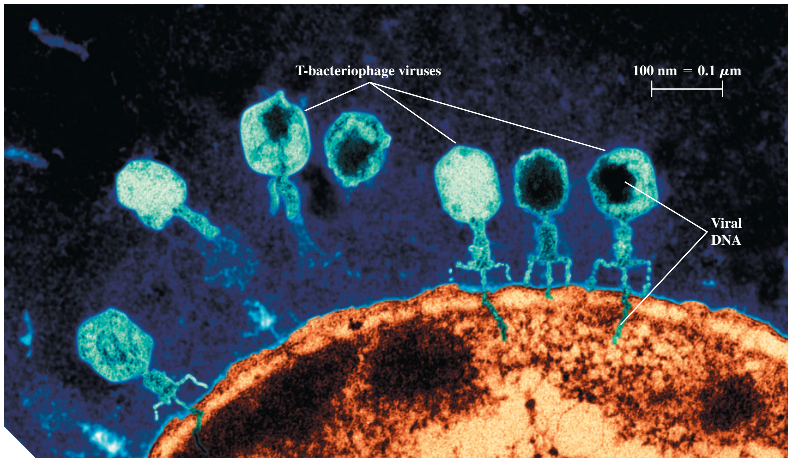


OPTICS



MODERN PHYSICS



APPENDICES

? Tornadoes are spawned by severe thunderstorms, so being able to predict the path of thunderstorms is essential. If a thunderstorm is moving at 15 km/h in a direction 37° north of east, how far north does the thunderstorm move in 2.0 h? (i) 30 km; (ii) 24 km; (iii) 18 km; (iv) 12 km; (v) 9 km.

1

Units, Physical Quantities, and Vectors

Physics is one of the most fundamental of the sciences. Scientists of all disciplines use the ideas of physics, including chemists who study the structure of molecules, paleontologists who try to reconstruct how dinosaurs walked, and climatologists who study how human activities affect the atmosphere and oceans. Physics is also the foundation of all engineering and technology. No engineer could design a flat-screen TV, a prosthetic leg, or even a better mousetrap without first understanding the basic laws of physics.

The study of physics is also an adventure. You'll find it challenging, sometimes frustrating, occasionally painful, and often richly rewarding. If you've ever wondered why the sky is blue, how radio waves can travel through empty space, or how a satellite stays in orbit, you can find the answers by using fundamental physics. You'll come to see physics as a towering achievement of the human intellect in its quest to understand our world and ourselves.

In this opening chapter, we'll go over some important preliminaries that we'll need throughout our study. We'll discuss the nature of physical theory and the use of idealized models to represent physical systems. We'll introduce the systems of units used to describe physical quantities and discuss ways to describe the accuracy of a number. We'll look at examples of problems for which we can't (or don't want to) find a precise answer, but for which rough estimates can be useful and interesting. Finally, we'll study several aspects of vectors and vector algebra. We'll need vectors throughout our study of physics to help us describe and analyze physical quantities, such as velocity and force, that have direction as well as magnitude.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

In this chapter, you'll learn...

1.1 What a physical theory is.
1.2 The four steps you can use to solve any physics problem.
1.3 Three fundamental quantities of physics and the units physicists use to measure them.
1.4 How to work with units in your calculations.
1.5 How to keep track of significant figures in your calculations.
1.6 How to make rough, order-of-magnitude estimates.
1.7 The difference between scalars and vectors, and how to add and subtract vectors graphically.
1.8 What the components of a vector are and how to use them in calculations.
1.9 What unit vectors are and how to use them with components to describe vectors.
1.10 Two ways to multiply vectors: the scalar (dot) product and the vector (cross) product.

1.1 THE NATURE OF PHYSICS

Physics is an *experimental* science. Physicists observe the phenomena of nature and try to find patterns that relate these phenomena. These patterns are called physical theories or, when they are very well established and widely used, physical laws or principles.

Figure **1.1** Two research laboratories.

(a) According to legend, Galileo investigated falling objects by dropping them from the Leaning Tower of Pisa, Italy, ...

... and he studied pendulum motion by observing the swinging chandelier in the adjacent cathedral.

(b) By doing experiments in apparent weightlessness on board the International Space Station, physicists have been able to make sensitive measurements that would be impossible in Earth's surface gravity.

CAUTION **The meaning of "theory"** A theory is *not* just a random thought or an unproven concept. Rather, a theory is an explanation of natural phenomena based on observation and accepted fundamental principles. An example is the well-established theory of biological evolution, which is the result of extensive research and observation by generations of biologists.

To develop a physical theory, a physicist has to ask appropriate questions, design experiments to try to answer the questions, and draw appropriate conclusions from the results. **Figure 1.1** shows two important facilities used for physics experiments.

Legend has it that Galileo Galilei (1564–1642) dropped light and heavy objects from the top of the Leaning Tower of Pisa (Fig. 1.1a) to find out whether their rates of fall were different. From examining the results of his experiments (which were actually much more sophisticated than in the legend), he deduced the theory that the acceleration of a freely falling object is independent of its weight.

The development of physical theories such as Galileo's often takes an indirect path, with blind alleys, wrong guesses, and the discarding of unsuccessful theories in favor of more promising ones. Physics is not simply a collection of facts and principles; it is also the *process* by which we arrive at general principles that describe how the physical universe behaves.

No theory is ever regarded as the ultimate truth. It's always possible that new observations will require that a theory be revised or discarded. Note that we can disprove a theory by finding behavior that is inconsistent with it, but we can never prove that a theory is always correct.

Getting back to Galileo, suppose we drop a feather and a cannonball. They certainly do *not* fall at the same rate. This does not mean that Galileo was wrong; it means that his theory was incomplete. If we drop the feather and the cannonball *in a vacuum* to eliminate the effects of the air, then they do fall at the same rate. Galileo's theory has a **range of validity:** It applies only to objects for which the force exerted by the air (due to air resistance and buoyancy) is much less than the weight. Objects like feathers or parachutes are clearly outside this range.

1.2 SOLVING PHYSICS PROBLEMS

At some point in their studies, almost all physics students find themselves thinking, "I understand the concepts, but I just can't solve the problems." But in physics, truly understanding a concept *means* being able to apply it to a variety of problems. Learning how to solve problems is absolutely essential; you don't *know* physics unless you can *do* physics.

How do you learn to solve physics problems? In every chapter of this book you'll find *Problem-Solving Strategies* that offer techniques for setting up and solving problems efficiently and accurately. Following each *Problem-Solving Strategy* are one or more worked *Examples* that show these techniques in action. (The *Problem-Solving Strategies* will also steer you away from some *incorrect* techniques that you may be tempted to use.) You'll also find additional examples that aren't associated with a particular *Problem-Solving Strategy*. In addition, at the end of each chapter you'll find a *Bridging Problem* that uses more than one of the key ideas from the chapter. Study these strategies and problems carefully, and work through each example for yourself on a piece of paper.

Different techniques are useful for solving different kinds of physics problems, which is why this book offers dozens of *Problem-Solving Strategies*. No matter what kind of problem you're dealing with, however, there are certain key steps that you'll always follow. (These same steps are equally useful for problems in math, engineering, chemistry, and many other fields.) In this book we've organized these steps into four stages of solving a problem.

All of the *Problem-Solving Strategies* and *Examples* in this book will follow these four steps. (In some cases we'll combine the first two or three steps.) We encourage you to follow these same steps when you solve problems yourself. You may find it useful to remember the acronym ***I SEE***—short for *Identify, Set up, Execute,* and *Evaluate.*

PROBLEM-SOLVING STRATEGY 1.1 Solving Physics Problems

IDENTIFY *the relevant concepts:*

- Use the physical conditions stated in the problem to help you decide which physics concepts are relevant.
- Identify the **target variables** of the problem—that is, the quantities whose values you're trying to find, such as the speed at which a projectile hits the ground, the intensity of a sound made by a siren, or the size of an image made by a lens.
- Identify the known quantities, as stated or implied in the problem. This step is essential whether the problem asks for an algebraic expression or a numerical answer.

SET UP *the problem*:

- Given the concepts, known quantities, and target variables that you found in the IDENTIFY step, choose the equations that you'll use to solve the problem and decide how you'll use them. Study the worked examples in this book for tips on how to select the proper equations. If this seems challenging, don't worry—you'll get better with practice!
- Make sure that the variables you have identified correlate exactly with those in the equations.
- If appropriate, draw a sketch of the situation described in the problem. (Graph paper and a ruler will help you make clear, useful sketches.)

EXECUTE *the solution*:

- Here's where you'll "do the math" with the equations that you selected in the SET UP step to solve for the target variables that you found in the IDENTIFY step. Study the worked examples to see what's involved in this step.

EVALUATE *your answer:*

- Check your answer from the SOLVE step to see if it's reasonable. (If you're calculating how high a thrown baseball goes, an answer of 1.0 mm is unreasonably small and an answer of 100 km is unreasonably large.) If your answer includes an algebraic expression, confirm that it correctly represents what would happen if the variables in it had very large or very small values.
- For future reference, make note of any answer that represents a quantity of particular significance. Ask yourself how you might answer a more general or more difficult version of the problem you have just solved.

Idealized Models

In everyday conversation we use the word "model" to mean either a small-scale replica, such as a model railroad, or a person who displays articles of clothing (or the absence thereof). In physics a **model** is a simplified version of a physical system that would be too complicated to analyze in full detail.

For example, suppose we want to analyze the motion of a thrown baseball (**Fig. 1.2a**). How complicated is this problem? The ball is not a perfect sphere (it has raised seams), and it spins as it moves through the air. Air resistance and wind influence its motion, the ball's weight varies a little as its altitude changes, and so on. If we try to include all these effects, the analysis gets hopelessly complicated. Instead, we invent a simplified version of the problem. We ignore the size, shape, and rotation of the ball by representing it as a point object, or **particle.** We ignore air resistance by making the ball move in a vacuum, and we make the weight constant. Now we have a problem that is simple enough to deal with (Fig. 1.2b). We'll analyze this model in detail in Chapter 3.

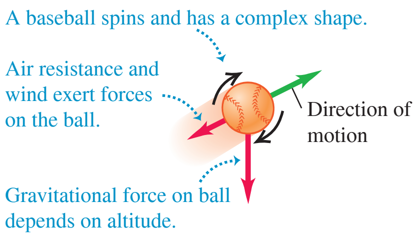
We have to overlook quite a few minor effects to make an idealized model, but we must be careful not to neglect too much. If we ignore the effects of gravity completely, then our model predicts that when we throw the ball up, it will go in a straight line and disappear into space. A useful model simplifies a problem enough to make it manageable, yet keeps its essential features.

The validity of the predictions we make using a model is limited by the validity of the model. For example, Galileo's prediction about falling objects (see Section 1.1) corresponds to an idealized model that does not include the effects of air resistance. This model works fairly well for a dropped cannonball, but not so well for a feather.

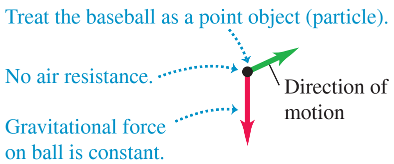
Idealized models play a crucial role throughout this book. Watch for them in discussions of physical theories and their applications to specific problems.

Figure 1.2 To simplify the analysis of (a) a baseball in flight, we use (b) an idealized model.

(a) A real baseball in flight



(b) An idealized model of the baseball



1.3 STANDARDS AND UNITS

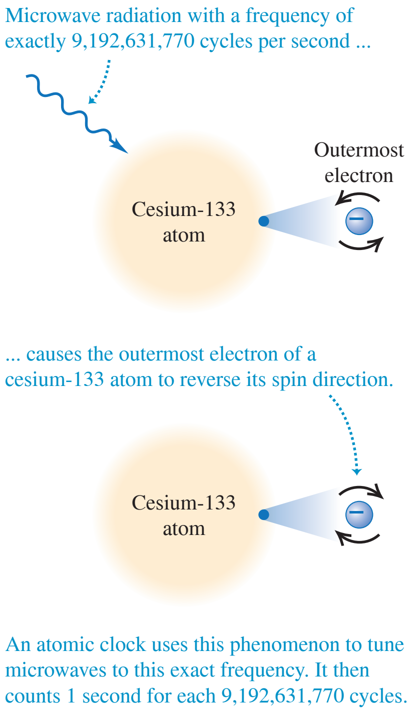
As we learned in Section 1.1, physics is an experimental science. Experiments require measurements, and we generally use numbers to describe the results of measurements. Any number that is used to describe a physical phenomenon quantitatively is called a **physical quantity.** For example, two physical quantities that describe you are your weight and your height. Some physical quantities are so fundamental that we can define them only by describing how to measure them. Such a definition is called an **operational definition.** Two examples are measuring a distance by using a ruler and measuring a time interval by using a stopwatch. In other cases we define a physical quantity by describing how to calculate it from other quantities that we *can* measure. Thus we might define the average speed of a moving object as the distance traveled (measured with a ruler) divided by the time of travel (measured with a stopwatch).

When we measure a quantity, we always compare it with some reference standard. When we say that a basketball hoop is 3.05 meters above the ground, we mean that this distance is 3.05 times as long as a meter stick, which we define to be 1 meter long. Such a standard defines a **unit** of the quantity. The meter is a unit of distance, and the second is a unit of time. When we use a number to describe a physical quantity, we must always specify the unit that we are using; to describe a distance as simply "3.05" wouldn't mean anything.

To make accurate, reliable measurements, we need units of measurement that do not change and that can be duplicated by observers in various locations. The system of units used by scientists and engineers around the world is commonly called "the metric system," but since 1960 it has been known officially as the **International System,** or **SI** (the abbreviation for its French name, *Système International*). Appendix A gives a list of all SI units as well as definitions of the most fundamental units.

Figure **1.3** The measurements used to determine (a) the duration of a second and (b) the length of a meter. These measurements are useful for setting standards because they give the same results no matter where they are made.

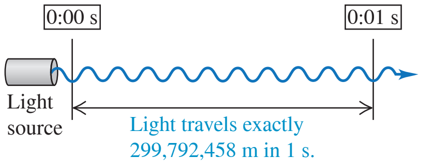
(a) Measuring the second


Microwave radiation with a frequency of exactly 9,192,631,770 cycles per second ...

... causes the outermost electron of a cesium-133 atom to reverse its spin direction.

An atomic clock uses this phenomenon to tune microwaves to this exact frequency. It then counts 1 second for each 9,192,631,770 cycles.

(b) Measuring the meter


Light travels exactly 299,792,458 m in 1 s.

Time

From 1889 until 1967, the unit of time was defined as a certain fraction of the mean solar day, the average time between successive arrivals of the sun at its highest point in the sky. The present standard, adopted in 1967, is much more precise. It is based on an atomic clock, which uses the energy difference between the two lowest energy states of the cesium atom (^{133}Cs). When bombarded by microwaves of precisely the proper frequency, cesium atoms undergo a transition from one of these states to the other. One **second** (abbreviated s) is defined as the time required for 9,192,631,770 cycles of this microwave radiation (**Fig. 1.3a**).

Length

In 1960 an atomic standard for the meter was also established, using the wavelength of the orange-red light emitted by excited atoms of krypton (^{86}Kr). From this length standard, the speed of light in vacuum was measured to be 299,792,458 m/s. In November 1983, the length standard was changed again so that the speed of light in vacuum was *defined* to be precisely 299,792,458 m/s. Hence the new definition of the **meter** (abbreviated m) is the distance that light travels in vacuum in 1/299,792,458 second (Fig. 1.3b). This modern definition provides a much more precise standard of length than the one based on a wavelength of light.

Mass

Until recently the unit of mass, the **kilogram** (abbreviated kg), was defined to be the mass of a metal cylinder kept at the International Bureau of Weights and Measures in France (**Fig. 1.4**). This was a very inconvenient standard to use. Since 2018 the value of the kilogram has been based on a fundamental constant of nature called *Planck's constant* (symbol h), whose defined value $h = 6.62607015 \times 10^{-34}\ \text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}$ is related to those of the kilogram, meter, and second. Given the values of the meter and the second, the masses of objects can be experimentally determined in terms of h. (We'll explain the meaning of h in Chapter 28.) The *gram* (which is not a fundamental unit) is 0.001 kilogram.

Other *derived units* can be formed from the fundamental units. For example, the units of speed are meters per second, or m/s; these are the units of length (m) divided by the units of time (s).

Figure **1.4** Until 2018 a metal cylinder was used to define the value of the kilogram. (The one shown here, a copy of the one in France, was maintained by the U. S. National Institute of Standards and Technology.) Today the kilogram is defined in terms of one of the fundamental constants of nature.

Unit Prefixes

Once we have defined the fundamental units, it is easy to introduce larger and smaller units for the same physical quantities. In the metric system these other units are related to the fundamental units (or, in the case of mass, to the gram) by multiples of 10 or $\frac{1}{10}$. Thus one kilometer (1 km) is 1000 meters, and one centimeter (1 cm) is $\frac{1}{100}$ meter. We usually express multiples of 10 or $\frac{1}{10}$ in exponential notation: $1000 = 10^3$, $\frac{1}{1000} = 10^{-3}$, and so on. With this notation, $1\text{ km} = 10^3\text{ m}$ and $1\text{ cm} = 10^{-2}\text{ m}$.

The names of the additional units are derived by adding a **prefix** to the name of the fundamental unit. For example, the prefix “kilo-,” abbreviated k, always means a unit larger by a factor of 1000; thus

$$1\text{ kilometer} = 1\text{ km} = 10^3\text{ meters} = 10^3\text{ m}$$

$$1\text{ kilogram} = 1\text{ kg} = 10^3\text{ grams} = 10^3\text{ g}$$

$$1\text{ kilowatt} = 1\text{ kW} = 10^3\text{ watts} = 10^3\text{ W}$$

A table in Appendix A lists the standard SI units, with their meanings and abbreviations.

Table 1.1 gives some examples of the use of multiples of 10 and their prefixes with the units of length, mass, and time. **Figure 1.5** (next page) shows how these prefixes are used to describe both large and small distances.

The British System

Finally, we mention the British system of units. These units are used in only the United States and a few other countries, and in most of these they are being replaced by SI units. British units are now officially defined in terms of SI units, as follows:

Length: 1 inch = 2.54 cm (exactly)

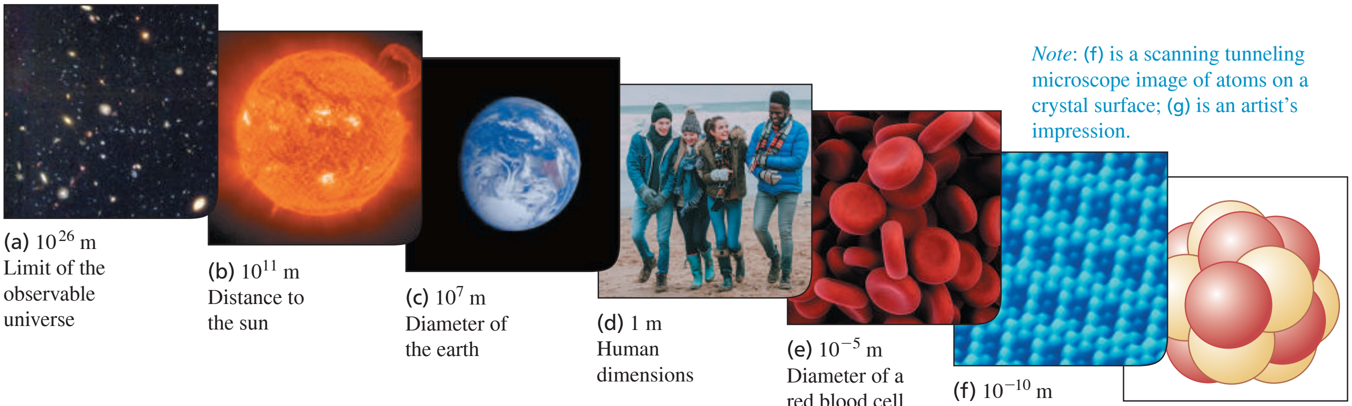
Force: 1 pound = 4.448221615260 newtons (exactly)

The newton, abbreviated N, is the SI unit of force. The British unit of time is the second, defined the same way as in SI. In physics, British units are used in mechanics and thermodynamics only; there is no British system of electrical units.

TABLE 1.1 Some Units of Length, Mass, and Time

Length	Mass	Time
1 nanometer $= 1\text{ nm} = 10^{-9}\text{ m}$ (a few times the size of the largest atom)	1 microgram $= 1\ \mu\text{g} = 10^{-6}\text{ g} = 10^{-9}\text{ kg}$ (mass of a very small dust particle)	1 nanosecond $= 1\text{ ns} = 10^{-9}\text{ s}$ (time for light to travel 0.3 m)
1 micrometer $= 1\ \mu\text{m} = 10^{-6}\text{ m}$ (size of some bacteria and other cells)	1 milligram $= 1\text{ mg} = 10^{-3}\text{ g} = 10^{-6}\text{ kg}$ (mass of a grain of salt)	1 microsecond $= 1\ \mu\text{s} = 10^{-6}\text{ s}$ (time for space station to move 8 mm)
1 millimeter $= 1\text{ mm} = 10^{-3}\text{ m}$ (diameter of the point of a ballpoint pen)	1 gram $= 1\text{ g} = 10^{-3}\text{ kg}$ (mass of a paper clip)	1 millisecond $= 1\text{ ms} = 10^{-3}\text{ s}$ (time for a car moving at freeway speed to travel 3 cm)
1 centimeter $= 1\text{ cm} = 10^{-2}\text{ m}$ (diameter of your little finger)		
1 kilometer $= 1\text{ km} = 10^{3}\text{ m}$ (distance in a 10 minute walk)		

Figure **1.5** Some typical lengths in the universe.



(a) 10^{26} m Limit of the observable universe

(b) 10^{11} m Distance to the sun

(c) 10^{7} m Diameter of the earth

(d) 1 m Human dimensions

(e) 10^{-5} m Diameter of a red blood cell

(f) 10^{-10} m Radius of an atom

(g) 10^{-14} m Radius of an atomic nucleus

Note: (f) is a scanning tunneling microscope image of atoms on a crystal surface; (g) is an artist's impression.

Figure **1.6** Many everyday items make use of both SI and British units. An example is this speedometer from a U.S.-built car, which shows the speed in both kilometers per hour (inner scale) and miles per hour (outer scale).

In this book we use SI units for all examples and problems, but we occasionally give approximate equivalents in British units. As you do problems using SI units, you may also wish to convert to the approximate British equivalents if they are more familiar to you (**Fig. 1.6**). But you should try to *think* in SI units as much as you can.

1.4 USING AND CONVERTING UNITS

We use equations to express relationships among physical quantities, represented by algebraic symbols. Each algebraic symbol always denotes both a number and a unit. For example, d might represent a distance of 10 m, t a time of 5 s, and v a speed of 2 m/s.

An equation must always be **dimensionally consistent.** You can't add apples and automobiles; two terms may be added or equated only if they have the same units. For example, if an object moving with constant speed v travels a distance d in a time t, these quantities are related by the equation

$$d = vt$$

If d is measured in meters, then the product vt must also be expressed in meters. Using the above numbers as an example, we may write

$$10\text{ m} = \left(2\,\frac{\text{m}}{\cancel{\text{s}}}\right)(5\,\cancel{\text{s}})$$

Because the unit s in the denominator of m/s cancels, the product has units of meters, as it must. In calculations, units are treated just like algebraic symbols with respect to multiplication and division.

CAUTION **Always use units in calculations** Make it a habit to *always* write numbers with the correct units and carry the units through the calculation as in the example above. This provides a very useful check. If at some stage in a calculation you find that an equation or an expression has inconsistent units, you know you have made an error. In this book we'll *always* carry units through all calculations, and we strongly urge you to follow this practice when you solve problems.

PROBLEM-SOLVING STRATEGY 1.2 Unit Conversions

IDENTIFY *the relevant concepts:* In most cases, it's best to use the fundamental SI units (lengths in meters, masses in kilograms, and times in seconds) in every problem. If you need the answer to be in a different set of units (such as kilometers, grams, or hours), wait until the end of the problem to make the conversion.

SET UP *the problem* and **EXECUTE** *the solution:* Units are multiplied and divided just like ordinary algebraic symbols. This gives us an easy way to convert a quantity from one set of units to another: Express the same physical quantity in two different units and form an equality.

For example, when we say that 1 min = 60 s, we don't mean that the number 1 is equal to the number 60; rather, we mean that 1 min represents the same physical time interval as 60 s. For this reason, the ratio (1 min)/(60 s) equals 1, as does its reciprocal, (60 s)/(1 min). We may multiply a quantity by either of these factors (which we call *unit multipliers*) without changing that quantity's physical meaning. For example, to find the number of seconds in 3 min, we write

$$3\ \text{min} = (3\ \cancel{\text{min}})\left(\frac{60\ \text{s}}{1\ \cancel{\text{min}}}\right) = 180\ \text{s}$$

EVALUATE *your answer:* If you do your unit conversions correctly, unwanted units will cancel, as in the example above. If, instead, you had multiplied 3 min by (1 min)/(60 s), your result would have been the nonsensical $\frac{1}{20}\ \text{min}^2/\text{s}$. To be sure you convert units properly, include the units at *all* stages of the calculation.

Finally, check whether your answer is reasonable. For example, the result 3 min = 180 s is reasonable because the second is a smaller unit than the minute, so there are more seconds than minutes in the same time interval.

EXAMPLE 1.1 Converting speed units

The world land speed record of 763.0 mi/h was set on October 15, 1997, by Andy Green in the jet-engine car *Thrust SSC*. Express this speed in meters per second.

IDENTIFY, SET UP, and EXECUTE We need to convert the units of a speed from mi/h to m/s. We must therefore find unit multipliers that relate (i) miles to meters and (ii) hours to seconds. In Appendix E we find the equalities 1 mi = 1.609 km, 1 km = 1000 m, and 1 h = 3600 s. We set up the conversion as follows, which ensures that all the desired cancellations by division take place:

$$\begin{aligned} 763.0\ \text{mi/h} &= \left(763.0\ \frac{\cancel{\text{mi}}}{\cancel{\text{h}}}\right)\left(\frac{1.609\ \cancel{\text{km}}}{1\ \cancel{\text{mi}}}\right)\left(\frac{1000\ \text{m}}{1\ \cancel{\text{km}}}\right)\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{\text{h}}}{3600\ \text{s}}\right) \\ &= 341.0\ \text{m/s} \end{aligned}$$

EVALUATE This example shows a useful rule of thumb: A speed expressed in m/s is a bit less than half the value expressed in mi/h, and a bit less than one-third the value expressed in km/h. For example, a normal freeway speed is about 30 m/s = 67 mi/h = 108 km/h, and a typical walking speed is about 1.4 m/s = 3.1 mi/h = 5.0 km/h.

KEYCONCEPT To convert units, multiply by an appropriate unit multiplier.

EXAMPLE 1.2 Converting volume units

One of the world's largest cut diamonds is the First Star of Africa (mounted in the British Royal Sceptre and kept in the Tower of London). Its volume is 1.84 cubic inches. What is its volume in cubic centimeters? In cubic meters?

IDENTIFY, SET UP, and EXECUTE Here we are to convert the units of a volume from cubic inches (in.^3) to both cubic centimeters (cm^3) and cubic meters (m^3). Appendix E gives us the equality 1 in. = 2.540 cm, from which we obtain $1\ \text{in.}^3 = (2.54\ \text{cm})^3$. We then have

$$\begin{aligned} 1.84\ \text{in.}^3 &= (1.84\ \text{in.}^3)\left(\frac{2.54\ \text{cm}}{1\ \text{in.}}\right)^3 \\ &= (1.84)(2.54)^3\ \frac{\cancel{\text{in.}^3}\ \text{cm}^3}{\cancel{\text{in.}^3}} = 30.2\ \text{cm}^3 \end{aligned}$$

Appendix E also gives us 1 m = 100 cm, so

$$\begin{aligned} 30.2\ \text{cm}^3 &= (30.2\ \text{cm}^3)\left(\frac{1\ \text{m}}{100\ \text{cm}}\right)^3 \\ &= (30.2)\left(\frac{1}{100}\right)^3 \frac{\cancel{\text{cm}^3}\ \text{m}^3}{\cancel{\text{cm}^3}} = 30.2 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{m}^3 \\ &= 3.02 \times 10^{-5}\ \text{m}^3 \end{aligned}$$

EVALUATE Following the pattern of these conversions, can you show that $1\ \text{in.}^3 \approx 16\ \text{cm}^3$ and that $1\ \text{m}^3 \approx 60{,}000\ \text{in.}^3$?

KEYCONCEPT If the units of a quantity are a product of simpler units, such as $\text{m}^3 = \text{m} \times \text{m} \times \text{m}$, use a product of unit multipliers to convert these units.

1.5 UNCERTAINTY AND SIGNIFICANT FIGURES

Figure **1.7** This spectacular mishap was the result of a very small percent error—traveling a few meters too far at the end of a journey of hundreds of thousands of meters.

Measurements always have uncertainties. If you measure the thickness of the cover of a hardbound version of this book using an ordinary ruler, your measurement is reliable to only the nearest millimeter, and your result will be 3 mm. It would be *wrong* to state this result as 3.00 mm; given the limitations of the measuring device, you can't tell whether the actual thickness is 3.00 mm, 2.85 mm, or 3.11 mm. But if you use a micrometer caliper, a device that measures distances reliably to the nearest 0.01 mm, the result will be 2.91 mm. The distinction between the measurements with a ruler and with a caliper is in their **uncertainty**; the measurement with a caliper has a smaller uncertainty. The uncertainty is also called the **error** because it indicates the maximum difference there is likely to be between the measured value and the true value. The uncertainty or error of a measured value depends on the measurement technique used.

We often indicate the **accuracy** of a measured value—that is, how close it is likely to be to the true value—by writing the number, the symbol ±, and a second number indicating the uncertainty of the measurement. If the diameter of a steel rod is given as 56.47 ± 0.02 mm, this means that the true value is likely to be within the range from 56.45 mm to 56.49 mm. In a commonly used shorthand notation, the number 1.6454(21) means 1.6454 ± 0.0021. The numbers in parentheses show the uncertainty in the final digits of the main number.

We can also express accuracy in terms of the maximum likely **fractional error** or **percent error** (also called *fractional uncertainty* and *percent uncertainty*). A resistor labeled "47 ohms ± 10%" probably has a true resistance that differs from 47 ohms by no more than 10% of 47 ohms—that is, by about 5 ohms. The resistance is probably between 42 and 52 ohms. For the diameter of the steel rod given above, the fractional error is (0.02 mm)/(56.47 mm), or about 0.0004; the percent error is (0.0004)(100%), or about 0.04%. Even small percent errors can be very significant (**Fig. 1.7**).

TABLE 1.2 Using Significant Figures

Multiplication or division:
Result can have no more significant figures than the factor with the fewest significant figures:

$$\frac{0.745 \times 2.2}{3.885} = 0.42$$

$$1.32578 \times 10^{7} \times 4.11 \times 10^{-3} = 5.45 \times 10^{4}$$

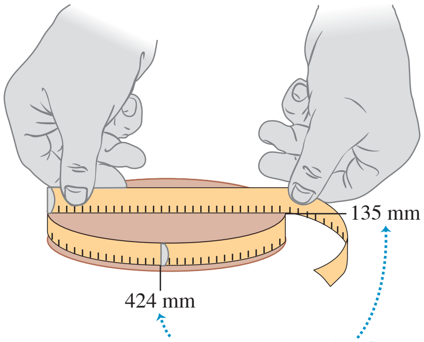
Addition or subtraction:
Number of significant figures is determined by the term with the largest uncertainty (i.e., fewest digits to the right of the decimal point):

$$27.153 + 138.2 - 11.74 = 153.6$$

In many cases the uncertainty of a number is not stated explicitly. Instead, the uncertainty is indicated by the number of meaningful digits, or **significant figures,** in the measured value. We gave the thickness of the cover of the book as 2.91 mm, which has three significant figures. By this we mean that the first two digits are known to be correct, while the third digit is uncertain. The last digit is in the hundredths place, so the uncertainty is about 0.01 mm. Two values with the *same* number of significant figures may have *different* uncertainties; a distance given as 137 km also has three significant figures, but the uncertainty is about 1 km. A distance given as 0.25 km has two significant figures (the zero to the left of the decimal point doesn't count); if given as 0.250 km, it has three significant figures.

When you use numbers that have uncertainties to compute other numbers, the computed numbers are also uncertain. When numbers are multiplied or divided, the result can have no more significant figures than the factor with the fewest significant figures has. For example, 3.1416 × 2.34 × 0.58 = 4.3. When we add and subtract numbers, it's the location of the decimal point that matters, not the number of significant figures. For example, 123.62 + 8.9 = 132.5. Although 123.62 has an uncertainty of about 0.01, 8.9 has an uncertainty of about 0.1. So their sum has an uncertainty of about 0.1 and should be written as 132.5, not 132.52. **Table 1.2** summarizes these rules for significant figures.

Figure **1.8** Determining the value of π from the circumference and diameter of a circle.



The measured values have only three significant figures, so their calculated ratio (π) also has only three significant figures.

To apply these ideas, suppose you want to verify the value of π, the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter. The true value of this ratio to ten digits is 3.141592654. To test this, you draw a large circle and measure its circumference and diameter to the nearest millimeter, obtaining the values 424 mm and 135 mm (**Fig. 1.8**). You enter these into your calculator and obtain the quotient (424 mm)/(135 mm) = 3.140740741. This may seem to disagree with the true value of π, but keep in mind that each of your measurements has three significant figures, so your measured value of π can have only three significant figures. It should be stated simply as 3.14. Within the limit of three significant figures, your value does agree with the true value.

In the examples and problems in this book we usually give numerical values with three significant figures, so your answers should usually have no more than three significant figures. (Many numbers in the real world have even less accuracy. The speedometer in a car, for example, usually gives only two significant figures.) Even if you do the arithmetic with a calculator that displays ten digits, a ten-digit answer would misrepresent the accuracy of the results. Always round your final answer to keep only the correct number of significant figures or, in doubtful cases, one more at most. In Example 1.1 it would have been wrong to state the answer as 341.01861 m/s. Note that when you reduce such an answer to the appropriate number of significant figures, you must *round,* not *truncate.* Your calculator will tell you that the ratio of 525 m to 311 m is 1.688102894; to three significant figures, this is 1.69, not 1.68.

Here's a special note about calculations that involve multiple steps: As you work, it's helpful to keep extra significant figures in your calculations. Once you have your final answer, round it to the correct number of significant figures. This will give you the most accurate results.

When we work with very large or very small numbers, we can show significant figures much more easily by using **scientific notation,** sometimes called **powers-of-10 notation.** The distance from the earth to the moon is about 384,000,000 m, but writing the number in this form doesn't indicate the number of significant figures. Instead, we move the decimal point eight places to the left (corresponding to dividing by 10^8) and multiply by 10^8; that is,

$$384{,}000{,}000\text{ m} = 3.84 \times 10^8\text{ m}$$

In this form, it is clear that we have three significant figures. The number 4.00×10^{-7} also has three significant figures, even though two of them are zeros. Note that in scientific notation the usual practice is to express the quantity as a number between 1 and 10 multiplied by the appropriate power of 10.

When an integer or a fraction occurs in an algebraic equation, we treat that number as having no uncertainty at all. For example, in the equation $v_x{}^2 = v_{0x}{}^2 + 2a_x(x - x_0)$, which is Eq. (2.13) in Chapter 2, the coefficient 2 is *exactly* 2. We can consider this coefficient as having an infinite number of significant figures (2.000000 . . .). The same is true of the exponent 2 in $v_x{}^2$ and $v_{0x}{}^2$.

Finally, let's note that **precision** is not the same as *accuracy.* A cheap digital watch that gives the time as 10:35:17 a.m. is very *precise* (the time is given to the second), but if the watch runs several minutes slow, then this value isn't very *accurate.* On the other hand, a grandfather clock might be very accurate (that is, display the correct time), but if the clock has no second hand, it isn't very precise. A high-quality measurement is both precise *and* accurate.

EXAMPLE 1.3 Significant figures in multiplication

The rest energy E of an object with rest mass m is given by Albert Einstein's famous equation $E = mc^2$, where c is the speed of light in vacuum. Find E for an electron for which (to three significant figures) $m = 9.11 \times 10^{-31}$ kg. The SI unit for E is the joule (J); $1\text{ J} = 1\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}^2$.

IDENTIFY and SET UP Our target variable is the energy E. We are given the value of the mass m; from Section 1.3 (or Appendix F) the speed of light is $c = 2.99792458 \times 10^8$ m/s.

EXECUTE Substituting the values of m and c into Einstein's equation, we find

$$\begin{aligned} E &= (9.11 \times 10^{-31}\text{ kg})(2.99792458 \times 10^8\text{ m/s})^2 \\ &= (9.11)(2.99792458)^2(10^{-31})(10^8)^2\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}^2 \\ &= (81.87659678)(10^{[-31+(2\times 8)]})\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}^2 \\ &= 8.187659678 \times 10^{-14}\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}^2 \end{aligned}$$

Since the value of m was given to only three significant figures, we must round this to

$$E = 8.19 \times 10^{-14}\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}^2 = 8.19 \times 10^{-14}\text{ J}$$

EVALUATE While the rest energy contained in an electron may seem ridiculously small, on the atomic scale it is tremendous. Compare our answer to 10^{-19} J, the energy gained or lost by a single atom during a typical chemical reaction. The rest energy of an electron is about 1,000,000 times larger! (We'll discuss the significance of rest energy in Chapter 37.)

KEYCONCEPT When you are multiplying (or dividing) quantities, the result can have no more significant figures than the quantity with the fewest significant figures.

TEST YOUR UNDERSTANDING OF SECTION 1.5 The density of a material is equal to its mass divided by its volume. What is the density (in kg/m^3) of a rock of mass 1.80 kg and volume $6.0 \times 10^{-4}\text{ m}^3$? (i) $3 \times 10^3\text{ kg/m}^3$; (ii) $3.0 \times 10^3\text{ kg/m}^3$; (iii) $3.00 \times 10^3\text{ kg/m}^3$; (iv) $3.000 \times 10^3\text{ kg/m}^3$; (v) any of these—all of these answers are mathematically equivalent.

ANSWER

❙ **(ii)** Density $= (1.80\text{ kg})/(6.0 \times 10^{-4}\text{ m}^3) = 3.0 \times 10^3\text{ kg/m}^3$. When we multiply or divide, the number with the fewest significant figures controls the number of significant figures in the result.

1.6 ESTIMATES AND ORDERS OF MAGNITUDE

We have stressed the importance of knowing the accuracy of numbers that represent physical quantities. But even a very crude estimate of a quantity often gives us useful information. Sometimes we know how to calculate a certain quantity, but we have to guess at the data we need for the calculation. Or the calculation might be too complicated to carry out exactly, so we make rough approximations. In either case our result is also a guess, but such a guess can be useful even if it is uncertain by a factor of two, ten, or more. Such calculations are called **order-of-magnitude estimates.** The great Italian-American nuclear physicist Enrico Fermi (1901–1954) called them “back-of-the-envelope calculations.”

Exercises 1.15 through 1.20 at the end of this chapter are of the estimating, or order-of-magnitude, variety. Most require guesswork for the needed input data. Don’t try to look up a lot of data; make the best guesses you can. Even when they are off by a factor of ten, the results can be useful and interesting.

EXAMPLE 1.4 An order-of-magnitude estimate

You are writing an adventure novel in which the hero escapes with a billion dollars’ worth of gold in his suitcase. Could anyone carry that much gold? Would it fit in a suitcase?

IDENTIFY, SET UP, and EXECUTE Gold sells for about \$1400 an ounce, or about \$100 for $\frac{1}{14}$ ounce. (The price per ounce has varied between \$200 and \$1900 over the past twenty years or so.) An ounce is about 30 grams, so \$100 worth of gold has a mass of about $\frac{1}{14}$ of 30 grams, or roughly 2 grams. A billion (10^9) dollars’ worth of gold has a mass 10^7 times greater, about 2×10^7 (20 million) grams or 2×10^4 (20,000) kilograms. A thousand kilograms has a weight in British units of about a ton, so the suitcase weighs roughly 20 tons! No human could lift it.

Roughly what is the *volume* of this gold? The density of water is 10^3 kg/m^3; if gold, which is much denser than water, has a density 10 times greater, then 10^4 kg of gold fits into a volume of 1 m^3. So 10^9 dollars’ worth of gold has a volume of 2 m^3, many times the volume of a suitcase.

EVALUATE Clearly your novel needs rewriting. Try the calculation again with a suitcase full of five-carat (1-gram) diamonds, each worth \$500,000. Would this work?

KEYCONCEPT To decide whether the numerical value of a quantity is reasonable, assess the quantity in terms of other quantities that you can estimate, even if only roughly.

TEST YOUR UNDERSTANDING OF SECTION 1.6 Can you estimate the total number of teeth in the mouths of all the students on your campus? (*Hint:* How many teeth are in your mouth? Count them!)

ANSWER

The answer depends on how many students are enrolled at your campus.

APPLICATION Scalar Temperature, Vector Wind The comfort level on a wintry day depends on the temperature, a scalar quantity that can be positive or negative (say, +5°C or −20°C) but has no direction. It also depends on the wind velocity, a vector quantity with both magnitude and direction (for example, 15 km/h from the west).

1.7 VECTORS AND VECTOR ADDITION

Some physical quantities, such as time, temperature, mass, and density, can be described completely by a single number with a unit. But many other important quantities in physics have a *direction* associated with them and cannot be described by a single number. A simple example is the motion of an airplane: We must say not only how fast the plane is moving but also in what direction. The speed of the airplane combined with its direction of motion constitute a quantity called *velocity.* Another example is *force,* which in physics means a push or pull exerted on an object. Giving a complete description of a force means describing both how hard the force pushes or pulls on the object and the direction of the push or pull.

When a physical quantity is described by a single number, we call it a **scalar quantity.** In contrast, a **vector quantity** has both a **magnitude** (the “how much” or “how big” part) and a direction in space. Calculations that combine scalar quantities use the operations of ordinary arithmetic. For example, 6 kg + 3 kg = 9 kg, or 4 × 2 s = 8 s. However, combining vectors requires a different set of operations.

To understand more about vectors and how they combine, we start with the simplest vector quantity, **displacement.** Displacement is a change in the position of an object.