Chapter 4

Motion in Two Dimensions

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Kinematics in Two Dimensions

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Will study the vector nature of position, velocity and acceleration in greater detail.

Will treat projectile motion and uniform circular motion as special cases.

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Position and Displacement

The position of an object is described by its position vector, $\vec{r}$.

The **displacement** of the object is defined as the *change in its position.*

$$\Delta\vec{r} \equiv \vec{r}_f - \vec{r}_i$$

The displacement of the particle is the vector $\Delta\vec{r}$.

Path of particle

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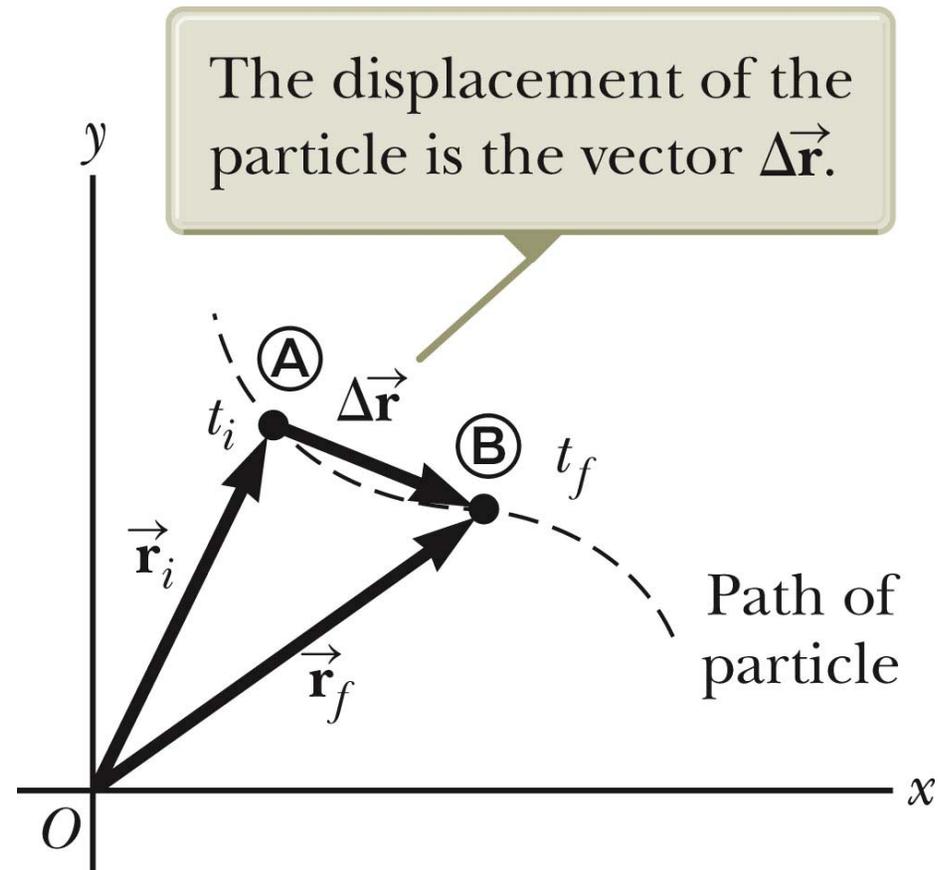
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In two- or three-dimensional kinematics, everything is the same as in one-dimensional motion except that we must now use full vector notation.

- Positive and negative signs are no longer sufficient to determine the direction.

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Average Velocity

The **average velocity** is the ratio of the displacement to the time interval for the displacement.

$$\vec{\mathbf{v}}_{avg} \equiv \frac{\Delta \vec{\mathbf{r}}}{\Delta t}$$

The direction of the average velocity is the direction of the displacement vector.

The average velocity between points is *independent of the path* taken.

- This is because it is dependent on the displacement, which is also independent of the path.

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Instantaneous Velocity

The **instantaneous velocity** is the limit of the average velocity as Δt approaches zero.

$$\vec{v} \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\Delta \vec{r}}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}$$

- As the time interval becomes smaller, the direction of the displacement approaches that of the line tangent to the curve.

As the end point approaches Ⓐ, Δt approaches zero and the direction of $\Delta\vec{r}$ approaches that of the green line tangent to the curve at Ⓐ.

Direction of $\vec{v}$ at Ⓐ

$\Delta\vec{r}_1$ $\Delta\vec{r}_2$ $\Delta\vec{r}_3$

As the end point of the path is moved from Ⓑ to Ⓑ′ to Ⓑ″, the respective displacements and corresponding time intervals become smaller and smaller.

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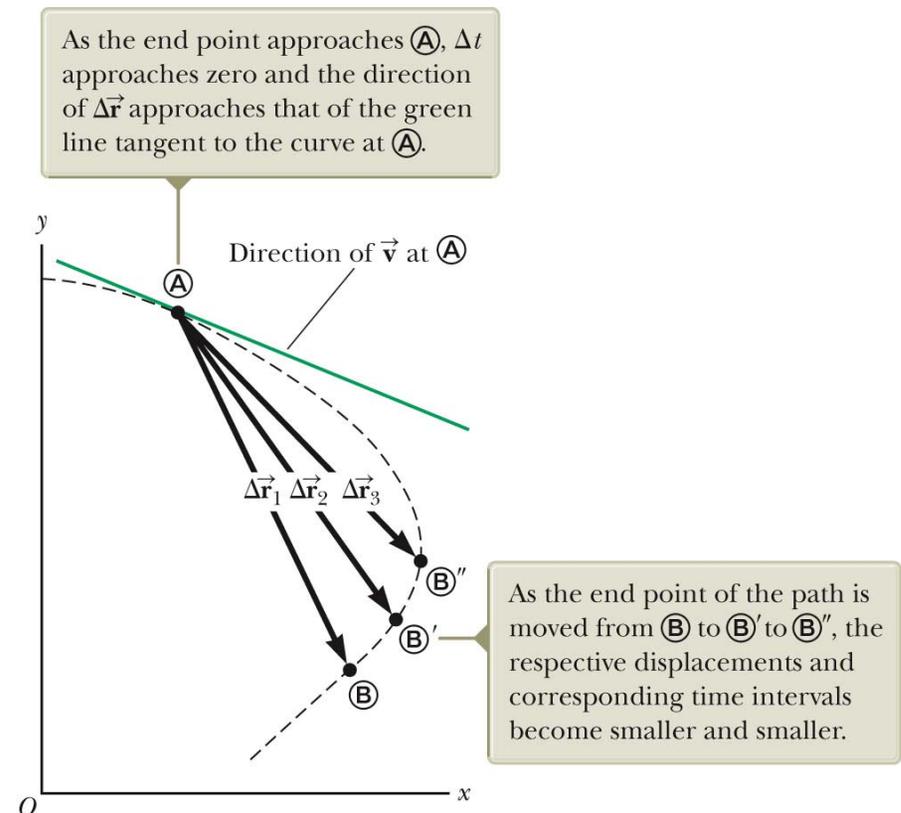
Instantaneous Velocity, cont

The direction of the instantaneous velocity vector at any point in a particle's path is along a line tangent to the path at that point and in the direction of motion.

The magnitude of the instantaneous velocity vector is the speed.

- The speed is a scalar quantity.

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Average Acceleration

The **average acceleration** of a particle as it moves is defined as the change in the instantaneous velocity vector divided by the time interval during which that change occurs.

$$\vec{a}_{avg} \equiv \frac{\Delta\vec{v}}{\Delta t} = \frac{\vec{v}_f - \vec{v}_i}{t_f - t_i}$$

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Average Acceleration, cont

As a particle moves, the direction of the change in velocity is found by vector subtraction.

$$\Delta \vec{\mathbf{v}} = \vec{\mathbf{v}}_f - \vec{\mathbf{v}}_i$$

The average acceleration is a vector quantity directed along $\Delta \vec{\mathbf{v}}$.

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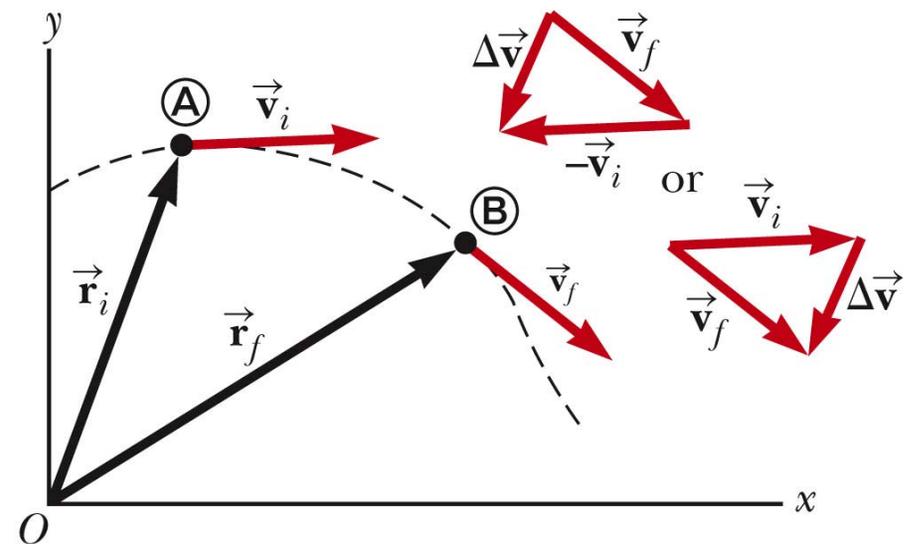
Instantaneous Acceleration

The instantaneous acceleration is the limiting value of the ratio $\Delta\vec{\mathbf{v}}/\Delta t$ as Δt approaches zero.

$$\vec{\mathbf{a}} \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\Delta\vec{\mathbf{v}}}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{\mathbf{v}}}{dt}$$

- The instantaneous equals the derivative of the velocity vector with respect to time.

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Producing An Acceleration

Various changes in a particle's motion may produce an acceleration.

- The magnitude of the velocity vector may change.

- The direction of the velocity vector may change.

- Even if the magnitude remains constant

- Both may change simultaneously

Kinematic Equations for Two-Dimensional Motion

When the two-dimensional motion has a constant acceleration, a series of equations can be developed that describe the motion.

These equations will be similar to those of one-dimensional kinematics.

Motion in two dimensions can be modeled as two *independent* motions in each of the two perpendicular directions associated with the x and y axes.

- Any influence in the y direction does not affect the motion in the x direction.

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Kinematic Equations, 2

Position vector for a particle moving in the xy plane.

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{\mathbf{i}} + y\hat{\mathbf{j}}$$

The velocity vector can be found from the position vector.

$$\vec{v} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} = v_x\hat{\mathbf{i}} + v_y\hat{\mathbf{j}}$$

- Since acceleration is constant, we can also find an expression for the velocity as a function of time:

$$\vec{v}_f = \vec{v}_i + \vec{a}t$$

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Kinematic Equations, 3

The position vector can also be expressed as a function of time:

- $\vec{r}_f = \vec{r}_i + \vec{v}_i t + \frac{1}{2}\vec{a}t^2$

- This indicates that the position vector is the sum of three other vectors:
    - The initial position vector
    - The displacement resulting from the initial velocity
    - The displacement resulting from the acceleration

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Kinematic Equations, Graphical Representation of Final Velocity

The velocity vector can be represented by its components.

$\vec{\mathbf{v}}_f$ is generally not along the direction of either $\vec{\mathbf{v}}_i$ or $\vec{\mathbf{a}}$

Section 4.2
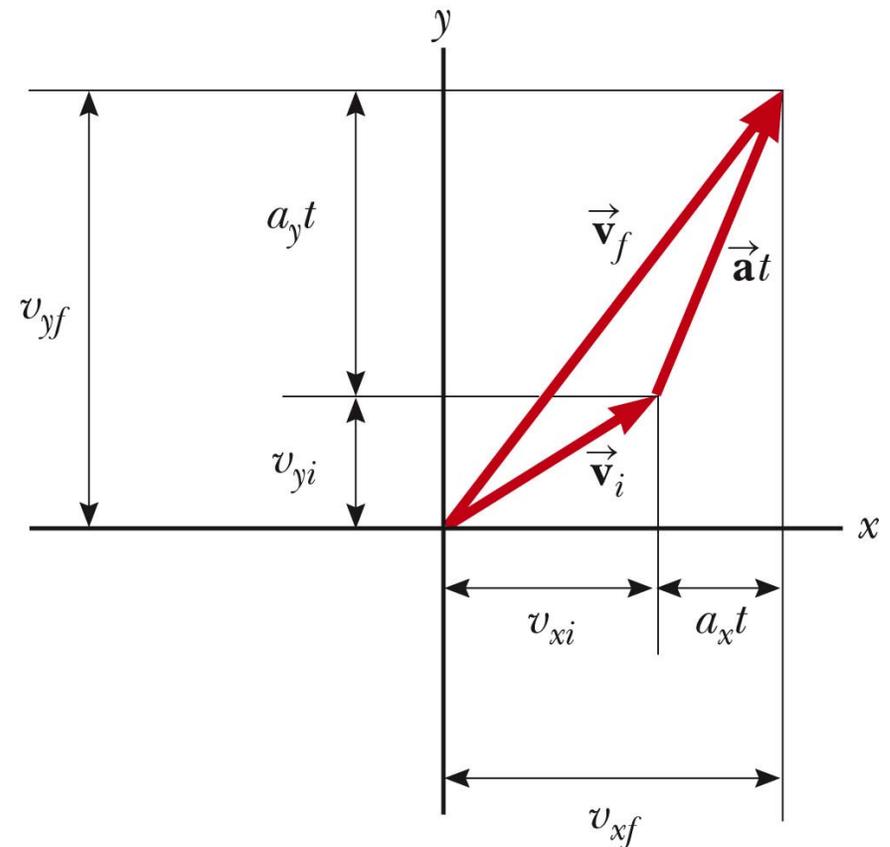
Kinematic Equations, Graphical Representation of Final Position

The vector representation of the position vector

$\vec{r}_f$ is generally not along the same direction as $\vec{r}_i$, $\vec{v}_i$ or $\vec{a}$

$\vec{v}_f$ and $\vec{r}_f$ are generally not in the same direction

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Section 4.2

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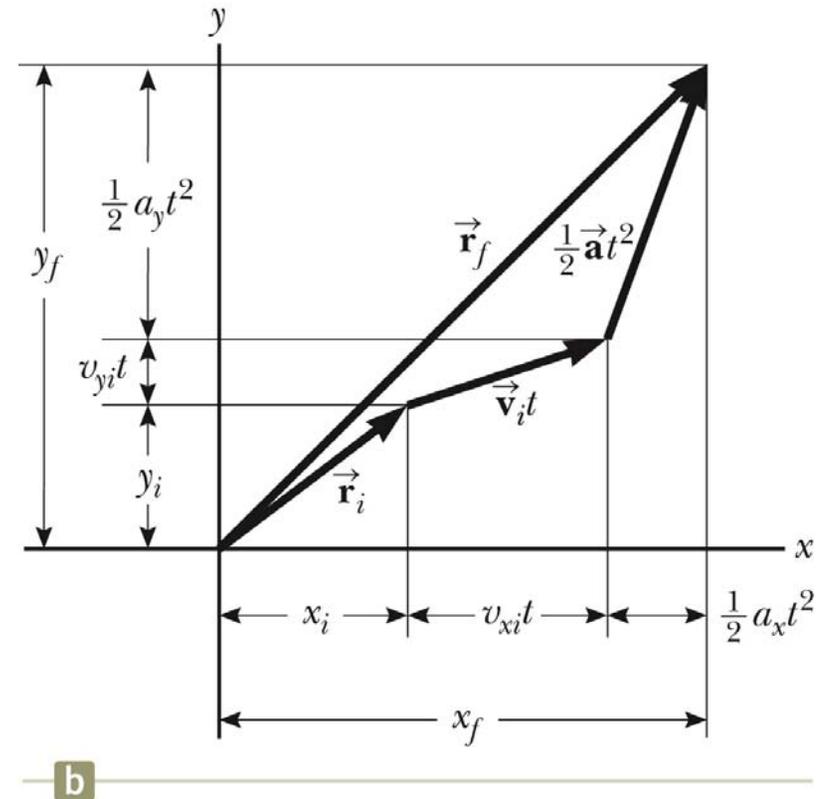
Graphical Representation Summary

Various starting positions and initial velocities can be chosen.

Note the relationships between changes made in either the position or velocity and the resulting effect on the other.

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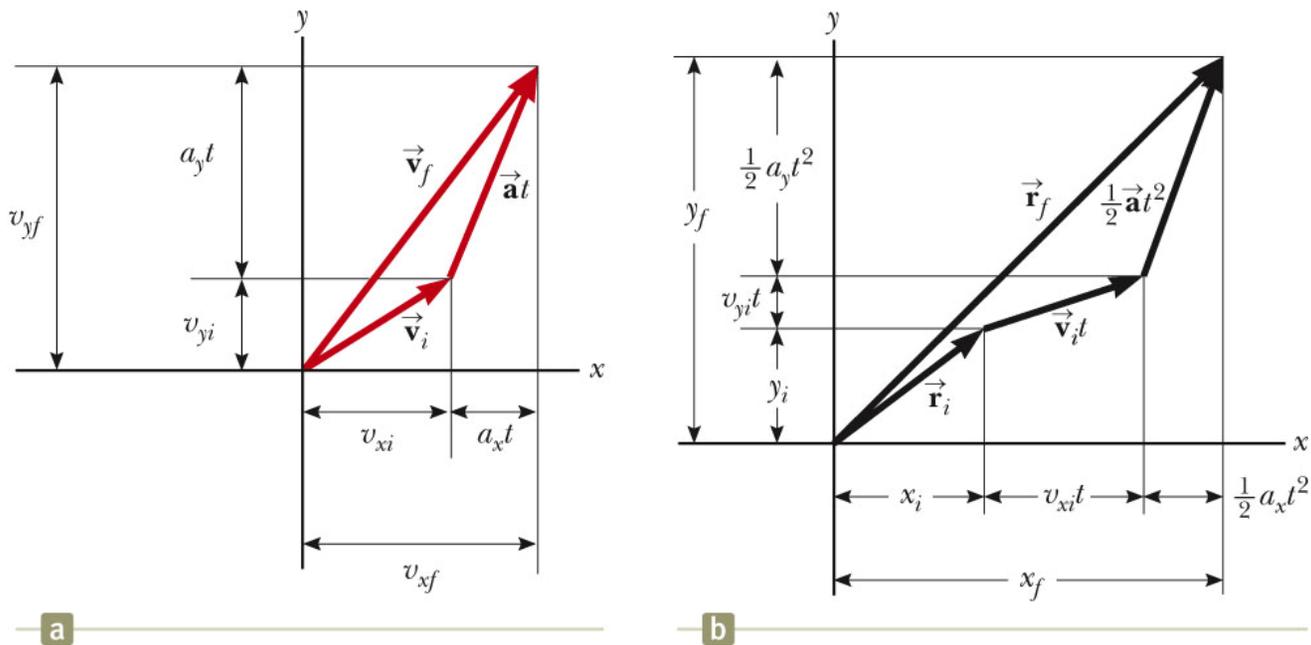
Projectile Motion

An object may move in both the *x* and *y* directions simultaneously.

The form of two-dimensional motion we will deal with is called **projectile motion.**

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Assumptions of Projectile Motion

The free-fall acceleration is constant over the range of motion.

- It is directed downward.

- This is the same as assuming a flat Earth over the range of the motion.

- It is reasonable as long as the range is small compared to the radius of the Earth.

The effect of air friction is negligible.

With these assumptions, an object in projectile motion will follow a parabolic path.

- This path is called the *trajectory.*

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Projectile Motion Diagram

The y component of velocity is zero at the peak of the path.

The x component of velocity remains constant because there is no acceleration in the x direction.

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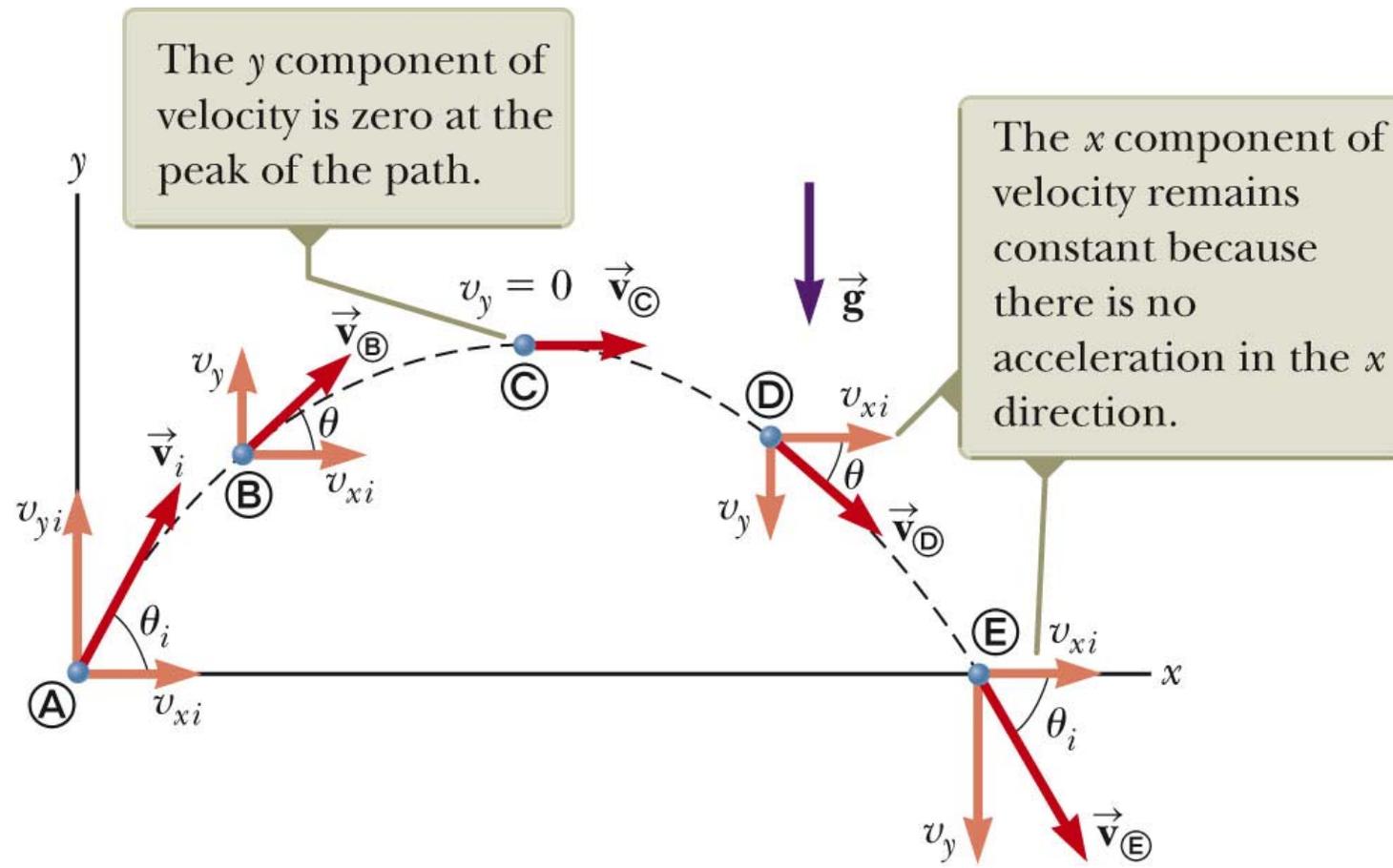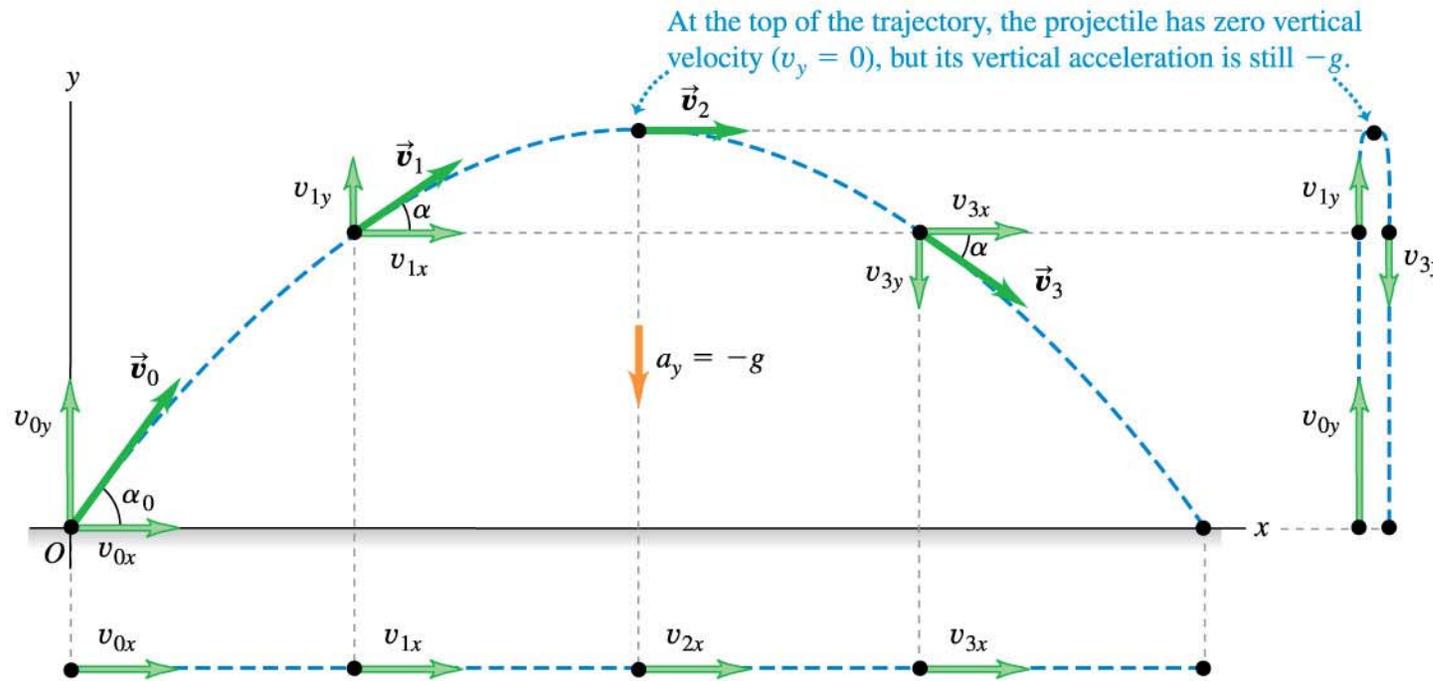
At the top of the trajectory, the projectile has zero vertical velocity ($v_y = 0$), but its vertical acceleration is still $-g$.

Vertically, the projectile is in constant-acceleration motion in response to the earth's gravitational pull. Thus its vertical velocity *changes* by equal amounts during equal time intervals.

$a_y = -g$

Horizontally, the projectile is in constant-velocity motion: Its horizontal acceleration is zero, so it moves equal x-distances in equal time intervals.

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Acceleration at the Highest Point

The vertical velocity is zero at the top.

The acceleration is not zero anywhere along the trajectory.

- If the projectile experienced zero acceleration at the highest point, its velocity at the point would not change.
  - The projectile would move with a constant horizontal velocity from that point on.

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Analyzing Projectile Motion

Consider the motion as the superposition of the motions in the *x*- and *y*-directions.

The actual position at any time is given by:

$$\vec{r}_f = \vec{r}_i + \vec{v}_i t + \frac{1}{2}\vec{g}t^2$$

The initial velocity can be expressed in terms of its components.

- $v_{xi} = v_i \cos \theta$ and $v_{yi} = v_i \sin \theta$

The *x*-direction has constant velocity.

- $a_x = 0$

The y-direction is free fall.

- $a_y = -g$

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Projectile Motion Vectors

$$\vec{r}_f = \vec{r}_i + \vec{v}_i t + \frac{1}{2}\vec{g}t^2$$

The final position is the vector sum of the initial position, the position resulting from the initial velocity and the position resulting from the acceleration.

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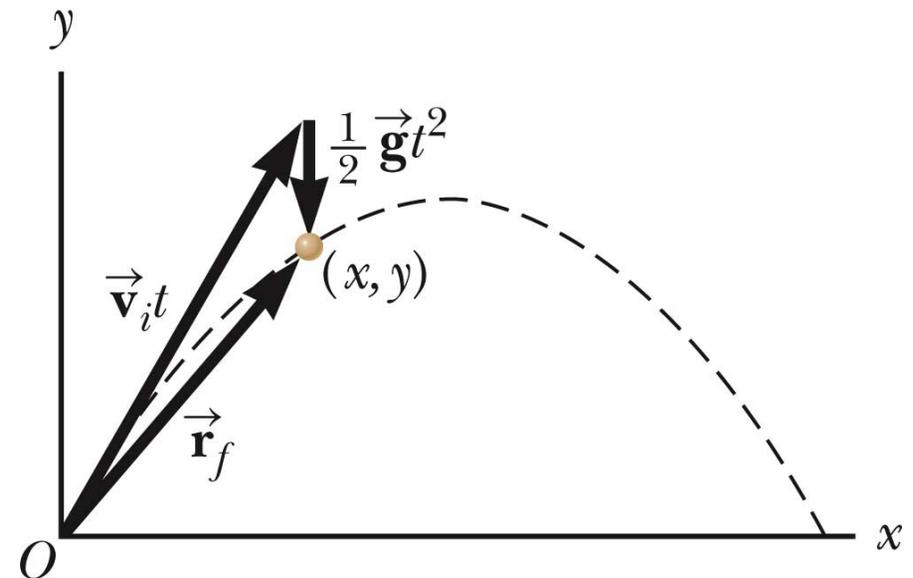
Range and Maximum Height of a Projectile

When analyzing projectile motion, two characteristics are of special interes.t

The range, R, is the horizontal distance of the projectile.

The maximum height the projectile reaches is h.

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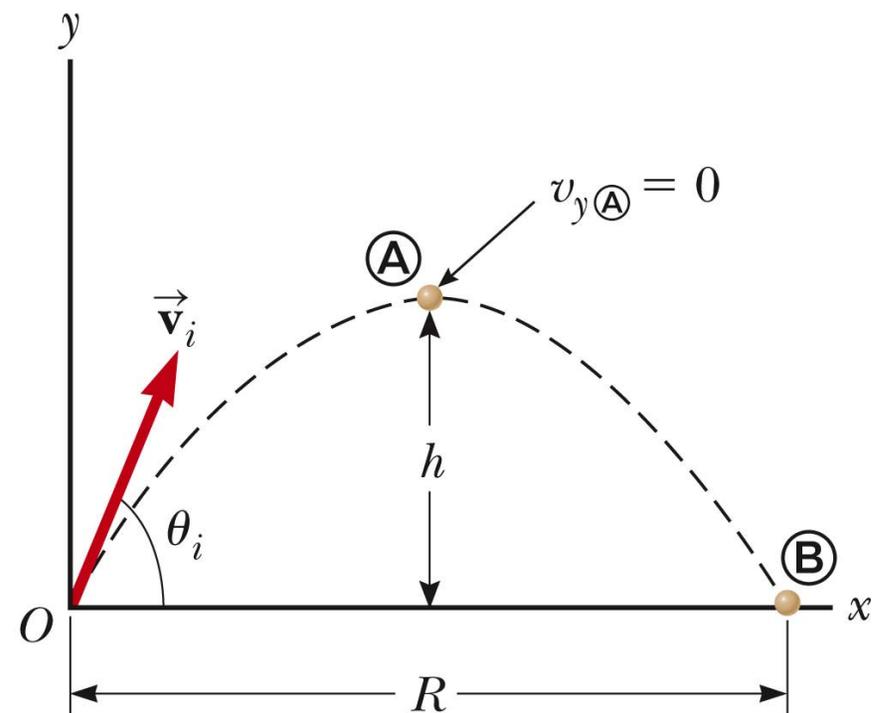
Height of a Projectile, equation

The maximum height of the projectile can be found in terms of the initial velocity vector:

$$h = \frac{v_i^2 \sin^2 \theta_i}{2g}$$

This equation is valid only for symmetric motion.

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Range of a Projectile, equation

The range of a projectile can be expressed in terms of the initial velocity vector:

$$R = \frac{v_i^2 \sin 2\theta_i}{g}$$

This is valid only for symmetric trajectory.

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A 45° launch angle gives the greatest range; other angles fall shorter.

Launch angle:

$\alpha_0 = 30°$

$\alpha_0 = 45°$

$\alpha_0 = 60°$

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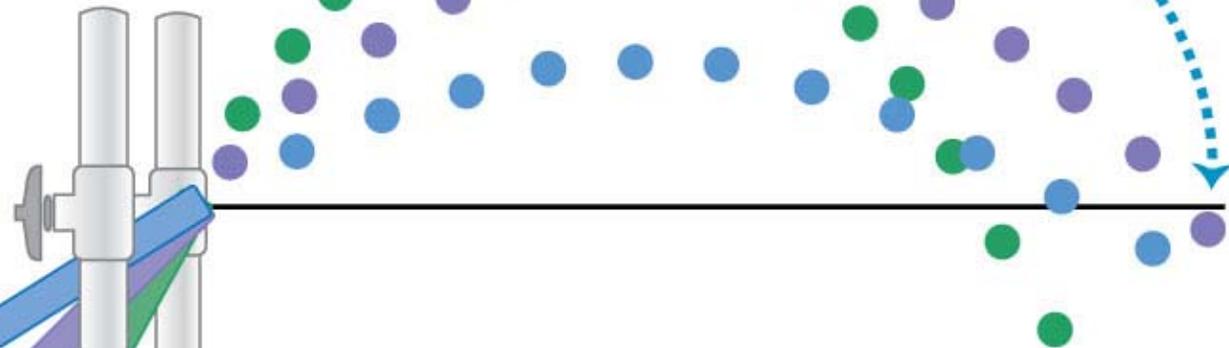
More About the Range of a Projectile
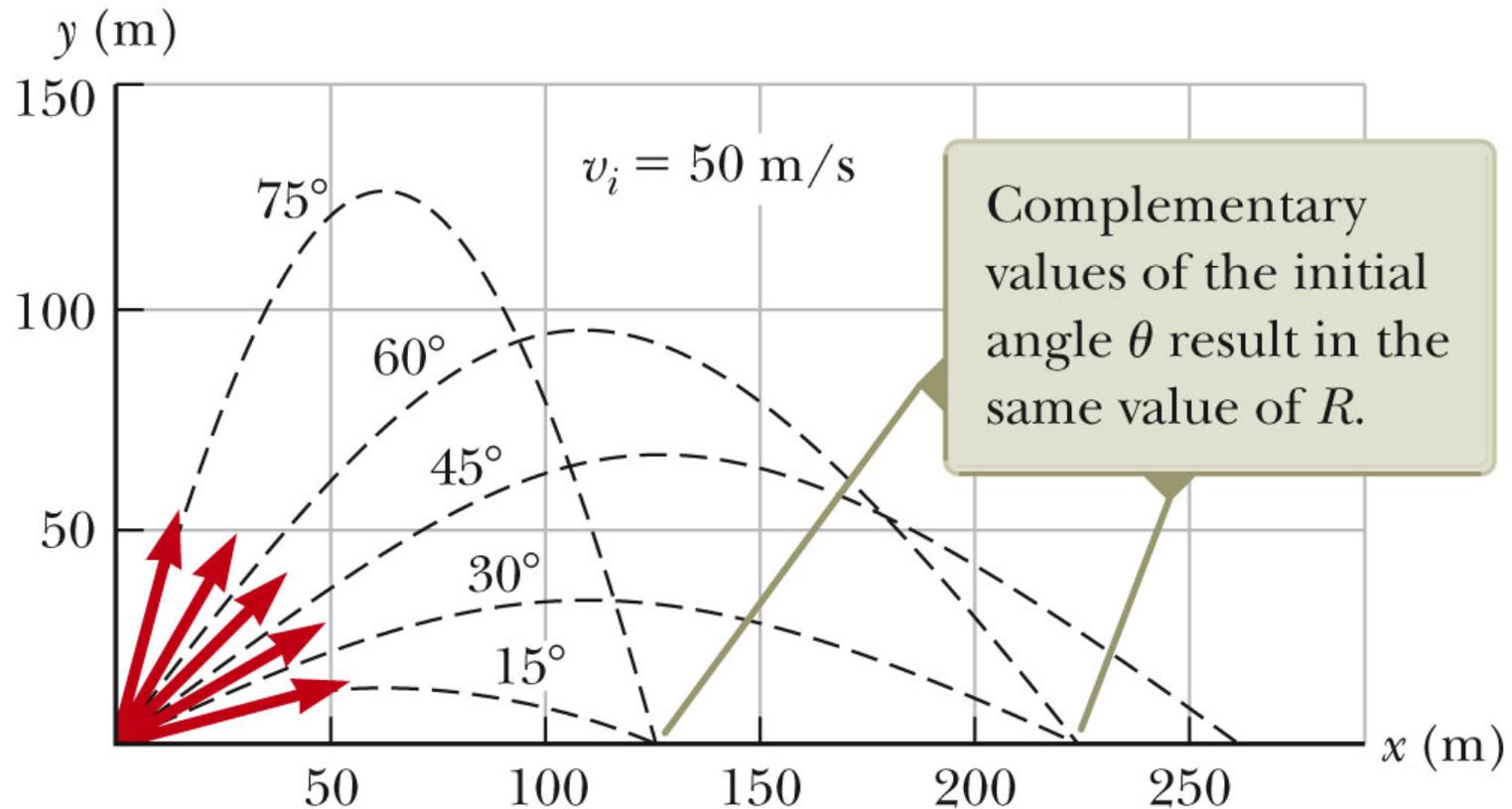
Range of a Projectile, final

The maximum range occurs at $\theta_i = 45^o$.

Complementary angles will produce the same range.

- The maximum height will be different for the two angles.

- The times of the flight will be different for the two angles.

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Projectile Motion – Problem Solving Hints

Conceptualize

- Establish the mental representation of the projectile moving along its trajectory.

Categorize

- Confirm air resistance is neglected.

- Select a coordinate system with x in the horizontal and y in the vertical direction.

Analyze

- If the initial velocity is given, resolve it into x and y components.

- Treat the horizontal and vertical motions independently.

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Projectile Motion – Problem Solving Hints, cont.

Analysis, cont.

- Analyze the horizontal motion with the particle-under-constant-velocity model.

- Analyze the vertical motion with the particle-under-constant-acceleration model.

- Remember that both directions share the same time.

Finalize

- Check to see if your answers are consistent with the mental and pictorial representations.

- Check to see if your results are realistic.

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Non-Symmetric Projectile Motion

Follow the general rules for projectile motion.

Break the *y*-direction into parts.

- up and down *or*

- symmetrical back to initial height and then the rest of the height

Apply the problem solving process to determine and solve the necessary equations.

May be non-symmetric in other ways

$v_i = 20.0 \text{ m/s}$

$\theta_i = 30.0°$

45.0 m

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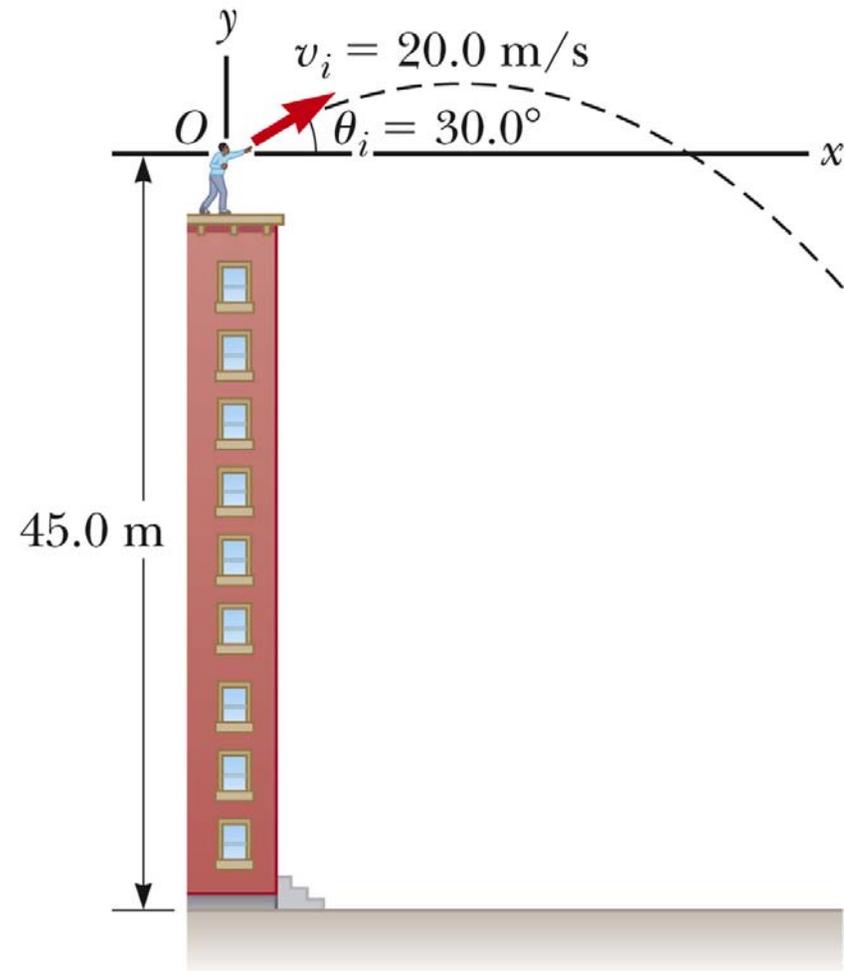
Uniform Circular Motion

Uniform circular motion **occurs when an object moves in a circular path with a constant speed.**

The associated **analysis model** is a *particle in uniform circular motion.*

An acceleration exists since the *direction* of the motion is changing .

- This change in velocity is related to an acceleration.

The constant-magnitude velocity vector is always tangent to the path of the object.

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Changing Velocity in Uniform Circular Motion

The change in the velocity vector is due to the change in direction.

The direction of the change in velocity is toward the center of the circle.

The vector diagram shows $\vec{v}_f = \vec{v}_i + \Delta\vec{v}$

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(a)

$\vec{v}_2$

P_2

$\vec{v}_1$

This car accelerates by slowing while rounding a curve. (Its instantaneous velocity changes in both magnitude and direction.)

P_1

(b)

$\vec{v}_2$

P_2

$\vec{v}_1$

$\vec{v}_1$

$\Delta\vec{v} = \vec{v}_2 - \vec{v}_1$

P_1

$\vec{v}_2$
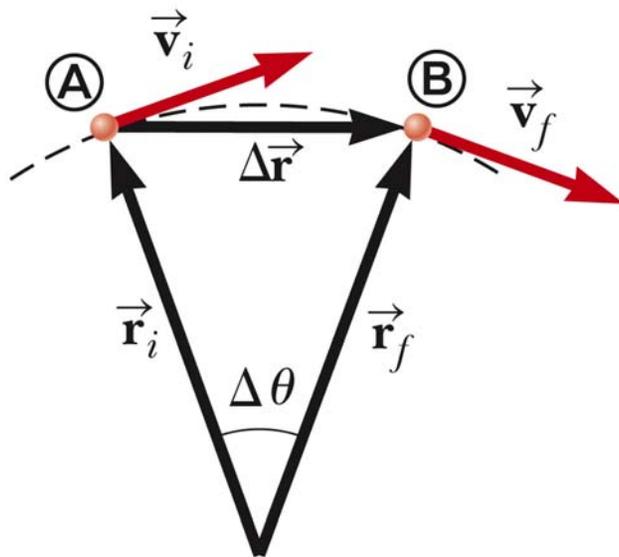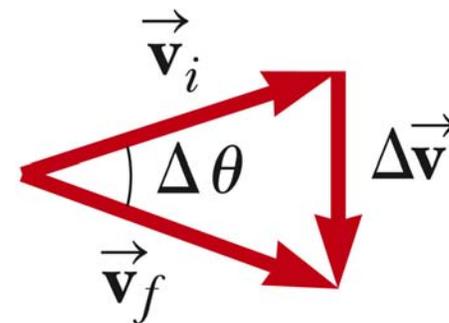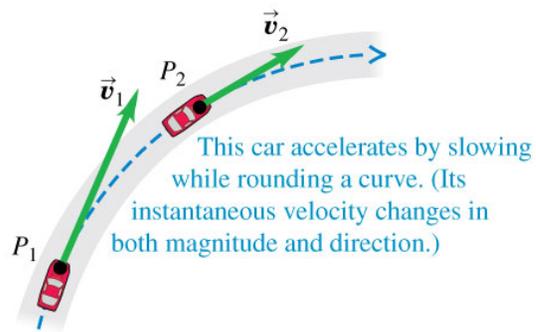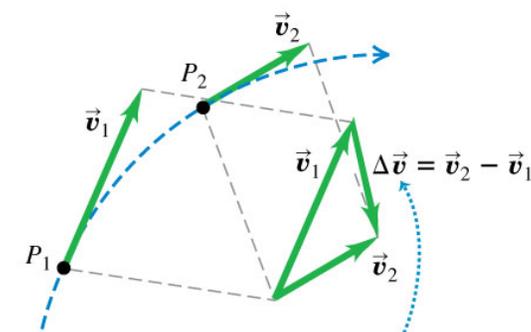
To find the car's average acceleration between P_1 and P_2, we first find the change in velocity $\Delta\vec{v}$ by subtracting $\vec{v}_1$ from $\vec{v}_2$. (Notice that $\vec{v}_1 + \Delta\vec{v} = \vec{v}_2$.)

(c)

$\vec{v}_2$

P_2

$\vec{v}_1$

P_1

$\Delta\vec{v}$

$\vec{a}_{av} = \dfrac{\Delta\vec{v}}{\Delta t}$
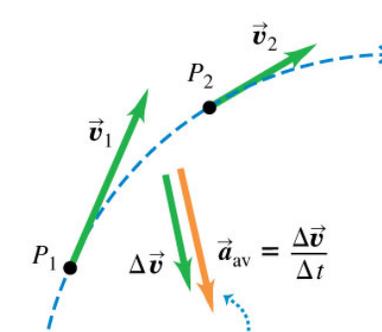
The average acceleration has the same direction as the change in velocity, $\Delta\vec{v}$.

Figure 3.6

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(a) Acceleration: curved trajectory
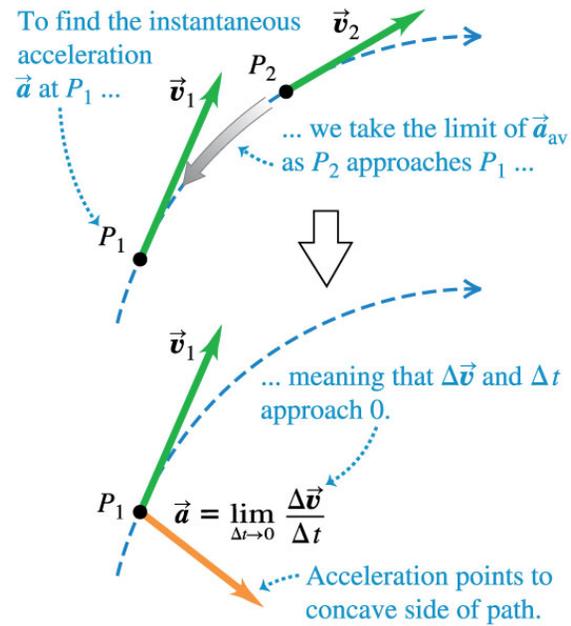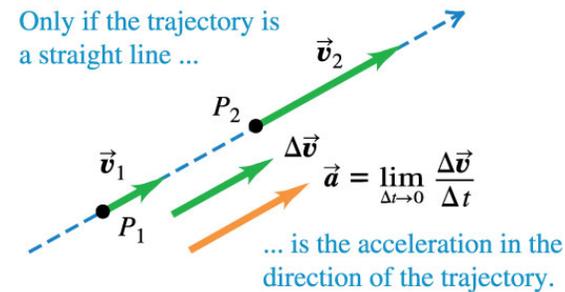
To find the instantaneous acceleration $\vec{a}$ at P_1 ...

$\vec{v}_2$

P_2

$\vec{v}_1$

... we take the limit of $\vec{a}_{av}$ as P_2 approaches P_1 ...

P_1

$\vec{v}_1$

... meaning that $\Delta\vec{v}$ and Δt approach 0.

P_1 $\vec{a} = \lim\limits_{\Delta t \to 0} \dfrac{\Delta\vec{v}}{\Delta t}$

Acceleration points to concave side of path.

(b) Acceleration: straight-line trajectory

Only if the trajectory is a straight line ...

$\vec{v}_2$

P_2

$\vec{v}_1$ $\Delta\vec{v}$ $\vec{a} = \lim\limits_{\Delta t \to 0} \dfrac{\Delta\vec{v}}{\Delta t}$

P_1

... is the acceleration in the direction of the trajectory.

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(b) Acceleration: straight-line trajectory

Only if the trajectory is a straight line ...

$\vec{v}_2$

P_2

$\vec{v}_1$

$\Delta\vec{v}$

$$\vec{a} = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\Delta\vec{v}}{\Delta t}$$

P_1

... is the acceleration in the direction of the trajectory.

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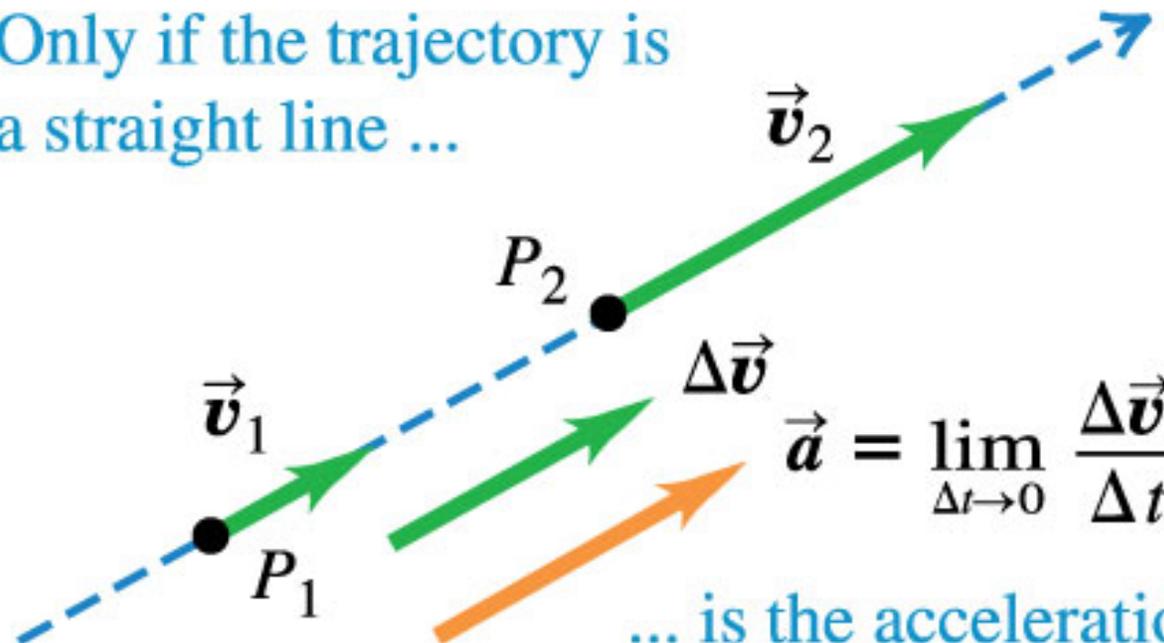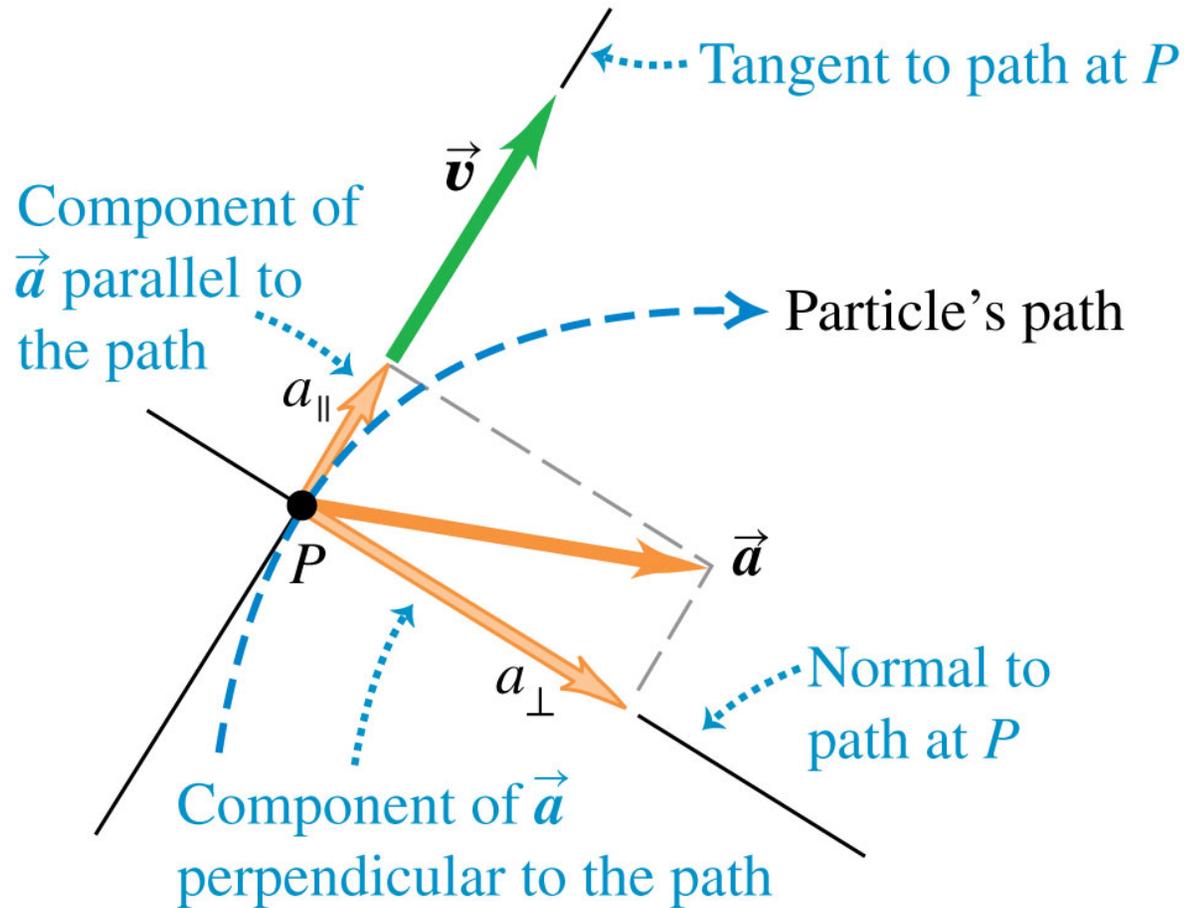
(a) When speed is constant along a curved path ...
... acceleration is normal to the path.
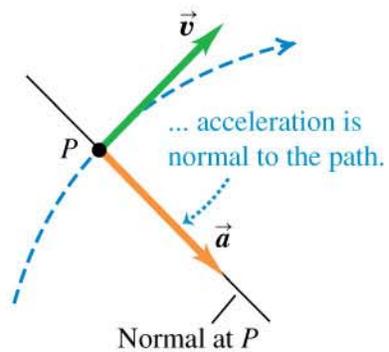
(b) When speed is increasing along a curved path ...
... acceleration points ahead of the normal.
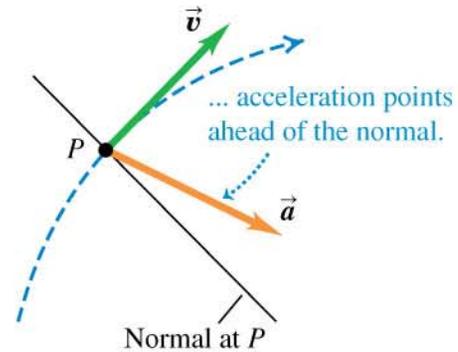
(c) When speed is decreasing along a curved path ...
... acceleration points behind the normal.

(a)

A

Direction
of motion

B

C

D

F

E

(b)

B $\vec{a}$

C

Normal at E

Normal at D   Normal at F

$\vec{a}$ $\vec{a}$

$\vec{a}$

D   F

E

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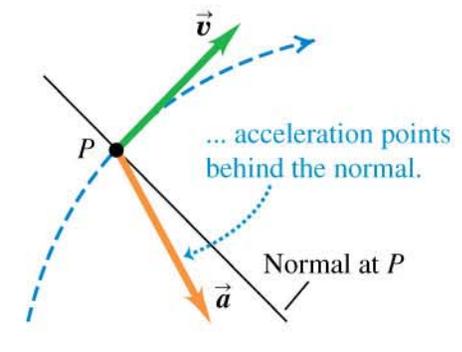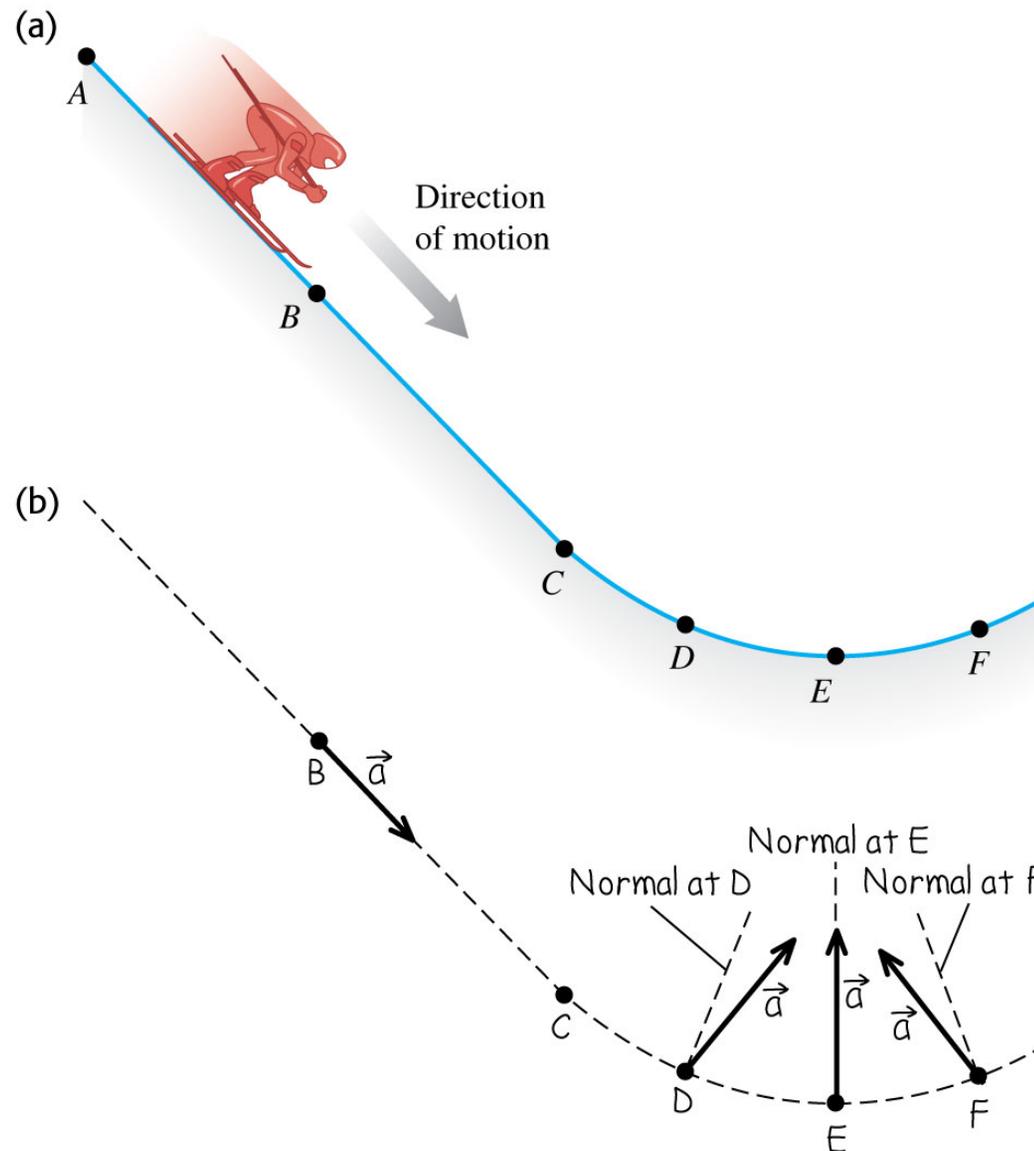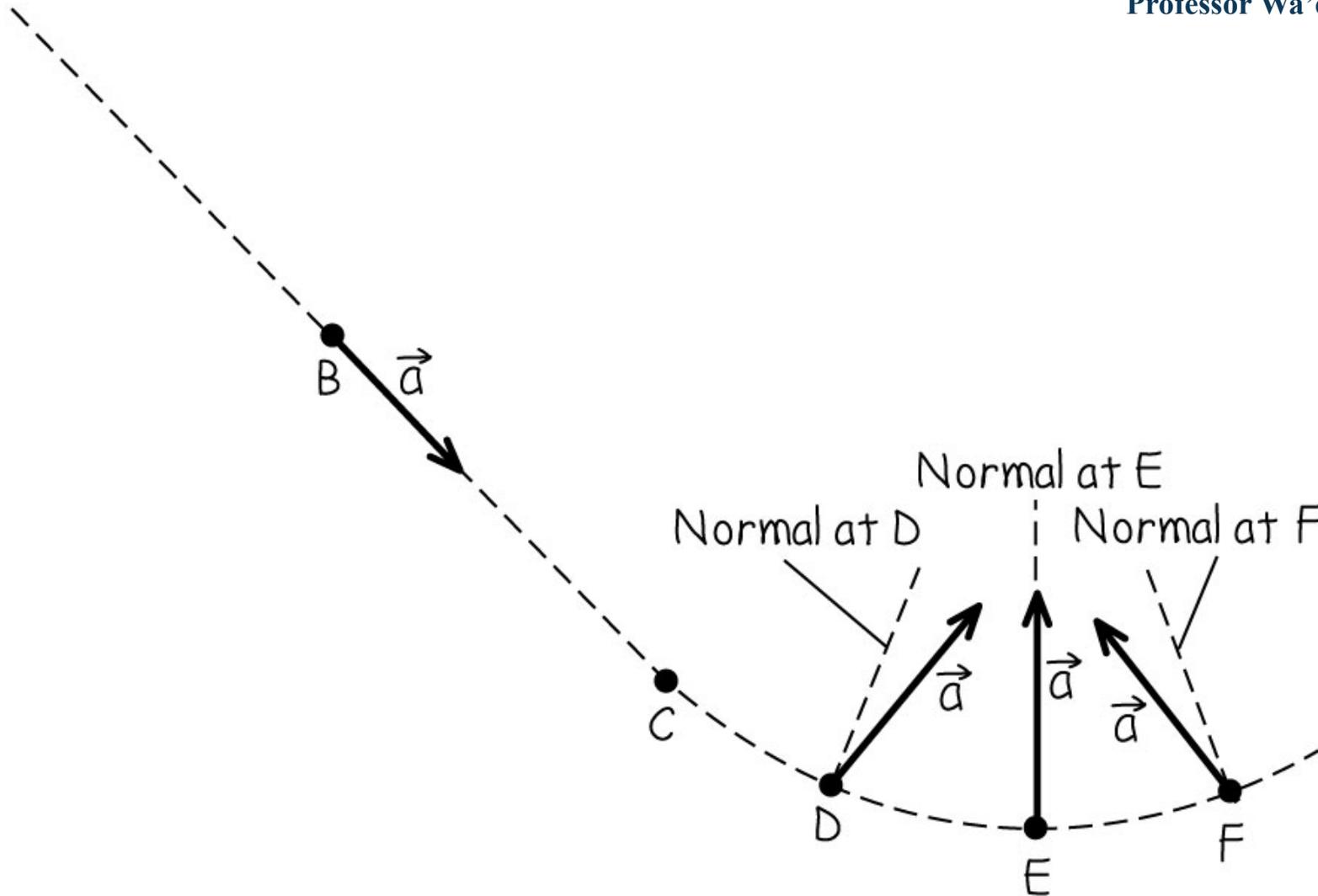
Centripetal Acceleration

The acceleration is always perpendicular to the path of the motion.

The acceleration always points toward the center of the circle of motion.

This acceleration is called the *centripetal acceleration.*

Centripetal Acceleration, cont

The magnitude of the centripetal acceleration vector is given by

$$a_C = \frac{v^2}{r}$$

The direction of the centripetal acceleration vector is always changing, to stay directed toward the center of the circle of motion.

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Period

The **period**, *T*, is the time required for one complete revolution.

The speed of the particle would be the circumference of the circle of motion divided by the period.

Therefore, **the period is defined as**

$$T \equiv \frac{2\pi r}{v}$$

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Tangential Acceleration

The magnitude of the velocity could also be changing.

In this case, there would be a *tangential acceleration.*

The motion would be under the influence of both tangential and centripetal accelerations.

- **Note the changing acceleration vectors**

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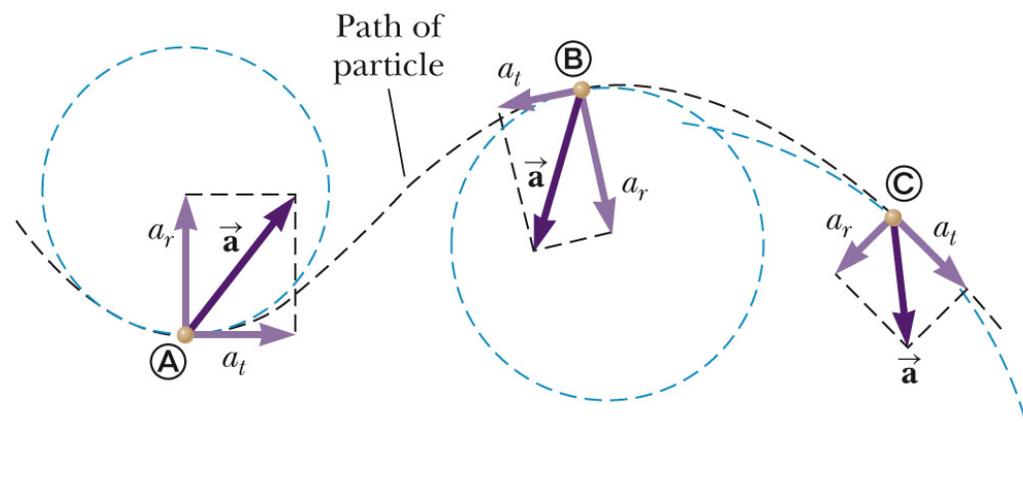
Total Acceleration

The tangential acceleration causes the change in the speed of the particle.

The radial acceleration comes from a change in the direction of the velocity vector.

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Total Acceleration, equations

The tangential acceleration:

$$a_t = \left| \frac{dv}{dt} \right|$$

The radial acceleration:

$$a_r = -a_C = -\frac{v^2}{r}$$

The total acceleration:

- Magnitude

$$a = \sqrt{a_r^2 + a_t^2}$$

- **Direction**
  - **Same as velocity vector if *v* is increasing, opposite if *v* is decreasing**

Section 4.5

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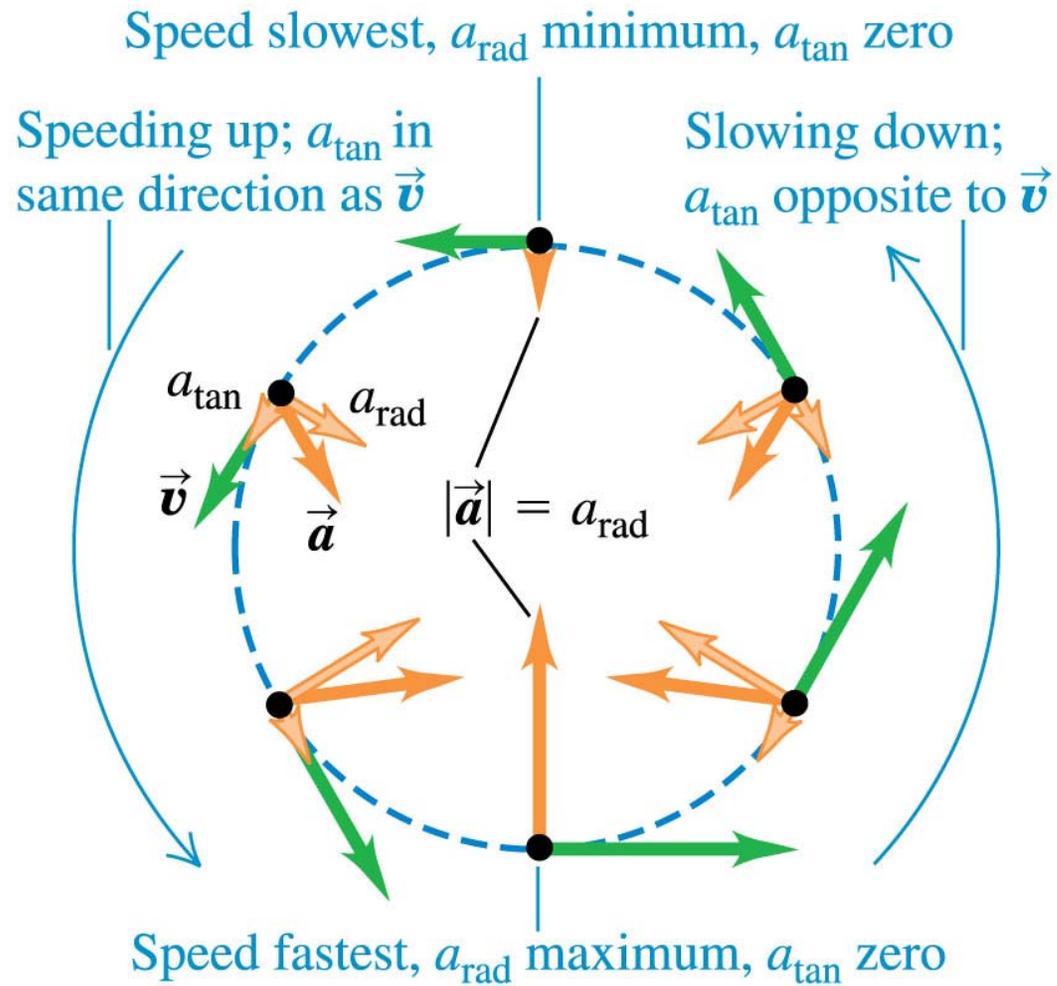
Example

$r = 2.50$ m, $a = 15.0$ m/s^2

(a) $a_c = a\cos 30.0° = (15.0\,\text{m/s}^2)(\cos 30°) = \boxed{13.0\,\text{m/s}^2}$

(b) $a_c = \dfrac{v^2}{r}$

so $v^2 = ra_c = 2.50\ \text{m}(13.0\ \text{m/s}^2) = 32.5\ \text{m}^2/\text{s}^2$

$v = \sqrt{32.5}\ \text{m/s} = \boxed{5.70\ \text{m/s}}$
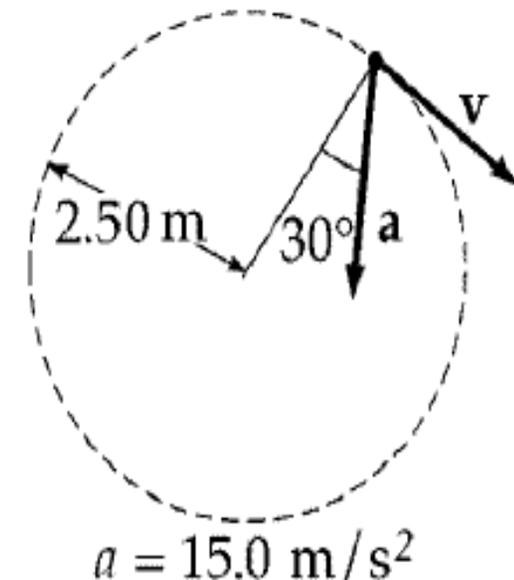
$a = 15.0\ \text{m/s}^2$

ANS FIG. P4.32

(c) $a^2 = a_t^2 + a_r^2$

so $a_t = \sqrt{a^2 - a_r^2} = \sqrt{(15.0\ \text{m/s}^2)^2 - (13.0\ \text{m/s}^2)^2} = \boxed{7.50\ \text{m/s}^2}$

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(a) Uniform circular motion

Acceleration has constant magnitude but varying direction.

Velocity and acceleration are always perpendicular.
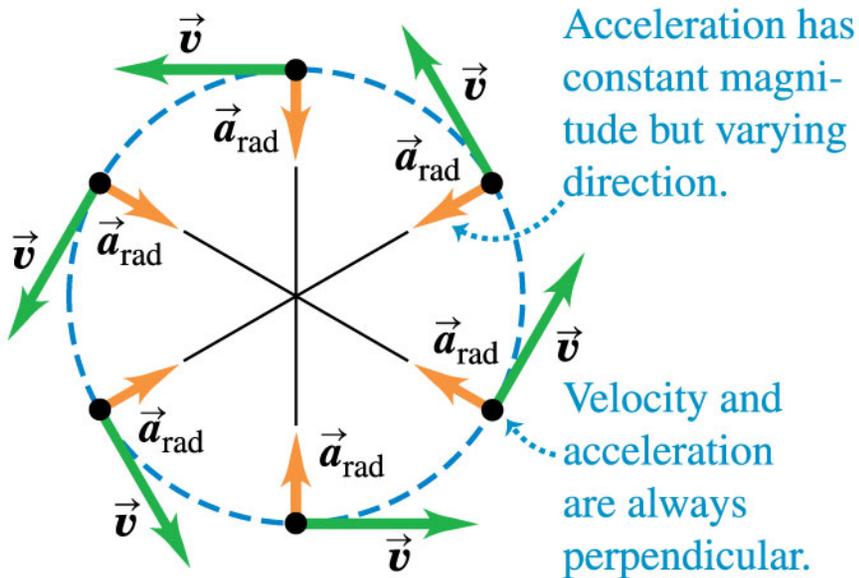
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(b) Projectile motion

Velocity and acceleration are perpendicular only at the peak of the trajectory.

Acceleration is constant in magnitude and direction.

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