

Momentum of a Particle

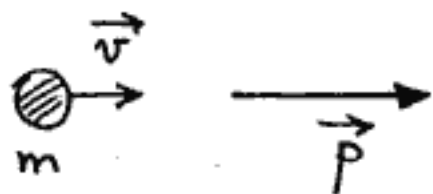
9-4

Newton's laws are more precisely stated in terms of momentum.

The momentum of a particle of mass m , moving with velocity \vec{v} is defined to be:

$$\vec{p} = m\vec{v}$$

$$\left[\frac{\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}}{\text{s}} \right]$$



- same direction as the velocity.

Law - I

When no forces are acting, the momentum of a particle is constant. $[F=0 \Rightarrow v = \text{constant}]$

$$\boxed{p = \text{constant}}$$

← No external forces

⇒ A conserved quantity

Conserved quantities in physics

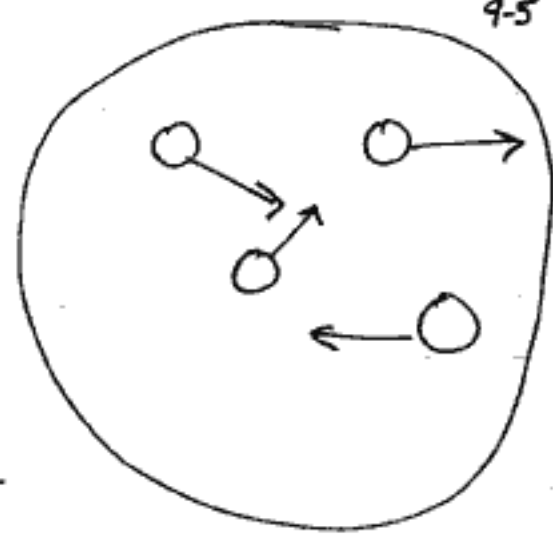
- momentum
- energy
- angular momentum
- charge

In certain situations these basic conservation laws allow us to make general statements about the physics without doing detailed calculations.

System of Particles

Internally: collisions/interactions very complicated

Externally: No net forces
⇒ Total system linear momentum is conserved.



Law - II

Rate of change of linear momentum equals the applied force.

$$\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = \frac{d(m\vec{v})}{dt}$$

$$= \left(\frac{dm}{dt}\right)\vec{v} + m \underbrace{\left(\frac{d\vec{v}}{dt}\right)}_{m\vec{a}}$$

$$\vec{F} = m\vec{a},$$

$$\text{If } \left(\frac{dm}{dt}\right) = 0$$

$$\vec{F} = \left(\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}\right)$$

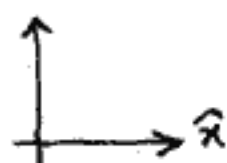
Most general statement.
Can handle problems where mass may also change
eg. Rockets, etc.

Action force is exactly opposite to reaction force.

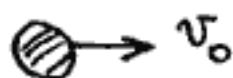
\therefore Rate of change of momentum generated by an action force on one body is exactly opposite to the rate of change of momentum generated by the reaction force on the other body.

Whenever two bodies interact the resulting changes in momentum are equal and opposite.
 \Rightarrow Law of Conservation of Momentum.

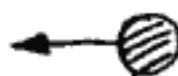
Example: Elastic Collision



Before:



After: v_0




Ball of $m_B = 100g$ strikes a wall with a speed of 50 m/s . Rebounds with the same speed. What is change in momentum of the ball?


$$\Delta \vec{p} = \vec{p}_f - \vec{p}_i$$

$$= -2m_B v_0 \hat{x}$$

$$= -2 \times 0.1 \times 50 \hat{x} = -10 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$$



$$\vec{p}_i = m_B v_0 \hat{x}$$



$$\vec{p}_f = -m_B v_0 \hat{x}$$

What happened to the missing momentum: $2m_0 v_0 \hat{x}$
 Wall absorbed change in \vec{p} : $\vec{a}_w \sim \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t}$ [very tiny!!!]

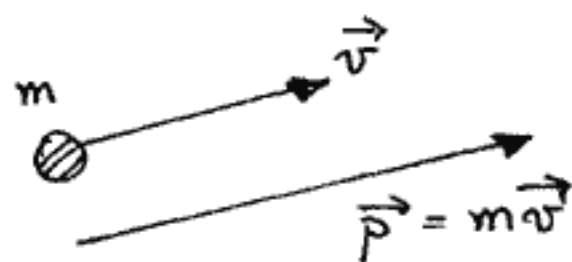
Systems of Particles: Energy and Momentum

18-1

- up to now we have studied motion of a single particle.
- We now want to look at a system of particles to see what we can learn about the motion.
- In general the solutions of the equations of motion are impossible.
- We will study how the conservation laws:
 - Energy
 - Momentum
 - Angular Momentumapply to a system of particles.

Momentum

Single Particle: $\vec{p} = m\vec{v}$



Total momentum for a system of particles is the sum of the individual momenta.

$$\vec{p}_1 = m_1 \vec{v}_1$$

$$\vec{p}_2 = m_2 \vec{v}_2$$

⋮

$$\vec{p}_n = m_n \vec{v}_n$$

$$\vec{P} = \vec{p}_1 + \vec{p}_2 + \dots + \vec{p}_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{p}_i$$

2-Particle System

- simplest many-particle system.
- Particles exert forces on each other.

By Newton's 3rd law

$$\vec{F}_1 = -\vec{F}_2$$

Eg. of motion:

$$\frac{d\vec{p}_1}{dt} = \vec{F}_1$$

$$\frac{d\vec{p}_2}{dt} = \vec{F}_2$$

$$\frac{d\vec{p}_1}{dt} + \frac{d\vec{p}_2}{dt} = \vec{F}_1 + \vec{F}_2 \equiv 0.$$

$$\therefore \frac{d}{dt}(\vec{p}_1 + \vec{p}_2) = 0$$

$$\vec{P} = \vec{p}_1 + \vec{p}_2 = \text{constant.}$$

- Particles exchange momentum as they interact.
- If only internal forces act the total linear momentum is conserved.

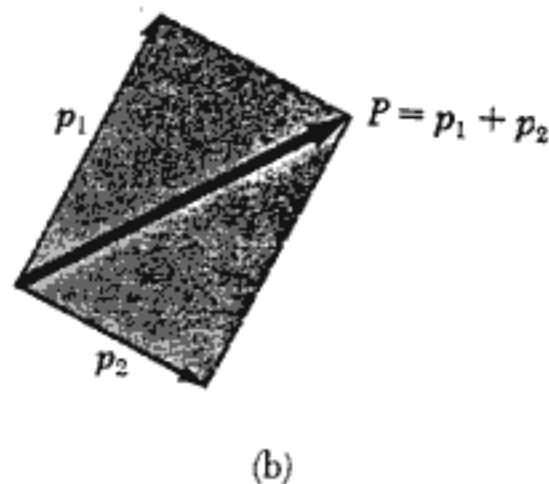
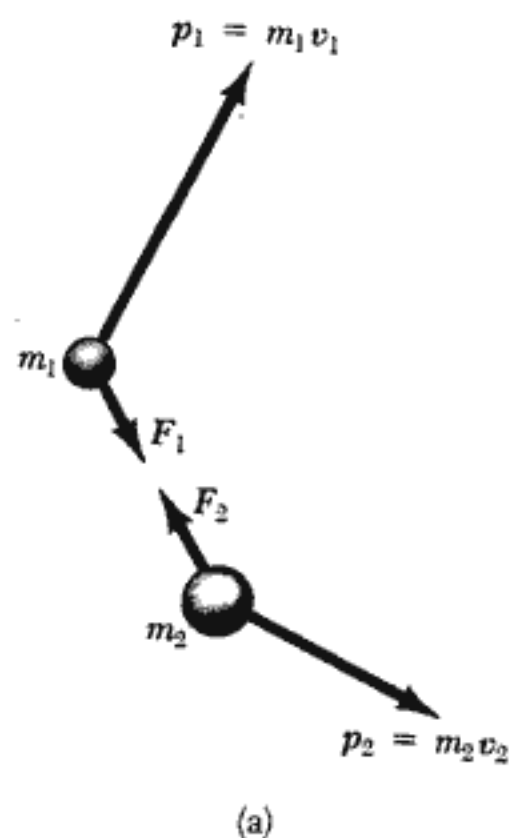


Figure (a) At some instant, the momentum of m_1 is $p_1 = m_1 v_1$ and the momentum of m_2 is $p_2 = m_2 v_2$. If the particles are isolated, $F_1 = -F_2$. (b) The total momentum of the system, P , is equal to the vector sum $p_1 + p_2$.

2-Particles / External Forces

18-3

- consider 2-particles with external forces acting on them.
- e.g. gravitational force.
- let \vec{F} be the internal force.

$$\frac{d\vec{p}_1}{dt} = \vec{F} + \vec{F}_{1, \text{ext}}$$

$$\frac{d\vec{p}_2}{dt} = -\vec{F} + \vec{F}_{2, \text{ext}}$$

$$\frac{d(\vec{p}_1 + \vec{p}_2)}{dt} = \vec{F}_{1, \text{ext}} + \vec{F}_{2, \text{ext}}$$

\vec{p} \vec{F}_{ext} : total external force on system.

In general for many particles:

$$\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = \vec{F}_{\text{ext}}$$

Eqn. of motion for the system.
Determines overall translational motion.

If $\vec{F}_{\text{ext}} = 0$

$$\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = 0 \implies \vec{p} = [\text{constant}]$$

Note:

In some problems external forces may vanish on one or more axes but not on all. linear momentum is a constant for those components having vanishing \vec{F}_{ext} .

Collisions:

- Two objects approach and interact by means of forces.
- Collision time is very short when velocities change from initial to final values.
- Interaction force is much greater than any external forces which are present.

Two types of collisions: Elastic and Inelastic

Elastic:

- Energy is conserved
- Total momentum is conserved

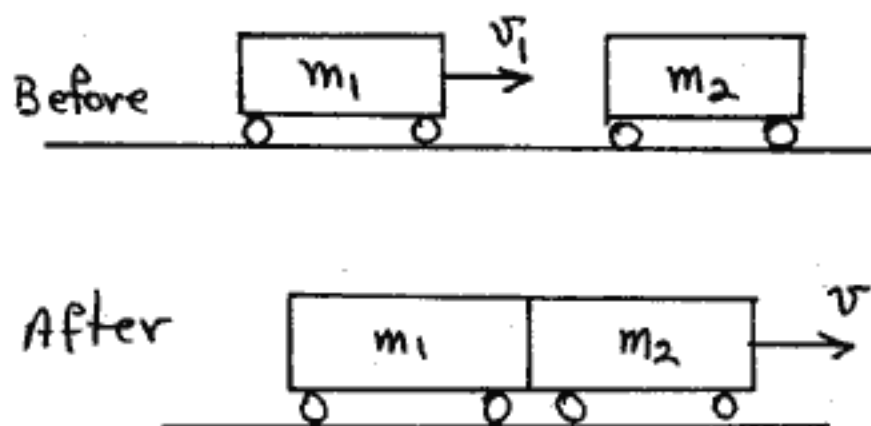
Inelastic:

- Energy is not conserved. Some energy is lost: heat, etc.
- Total momentum is conserved.
- Perfectly inelastic \rightarrow objects stick together after the collision.

Example: Inelastic Collision

18-4

$$m_1 = m_2 = 10,000 \text{ kg}$$
$$v_1 = 24 \text{ m/s}$$



- Railroad cars collide and stay coupled
- What is common speed v' ?
- Only internal forces act on system.

Initial Momentum: $m_1 v_1 \hat{x}$

Final Momentum: $(m_1 + m_2) v' \hat{x}$

Conservation of \vec{P} :

$$m_1 v_1 = (m_1 + m_2) v'$$

$$v' = \frac{m_1}{m_1 + m_2} v_1$$

$$= \frac{10,000}{20,000} \times 24 = 12 \text{ m/s.}$$

Energy is not conserved; collision is inelastic

$$K = \frac{1}{2} m_1 v_1^2$$

$$K' = \frac{1}{2} (m_1 + m_2) v'^2 = \frac{m_1 v_1^2}{4} \ll K$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{m_1^2}{m_1 + m_2} v_1^2$$

Annotations: \nearrow (from $\frac{m_1^2}{m_1 + m_2}$ to $\frac{m_1 v_1^2}{4}$) and \nwarrow (from $\frac{m_1 v_1^2}{4}$ to $m_1 = m_2$)

Example:

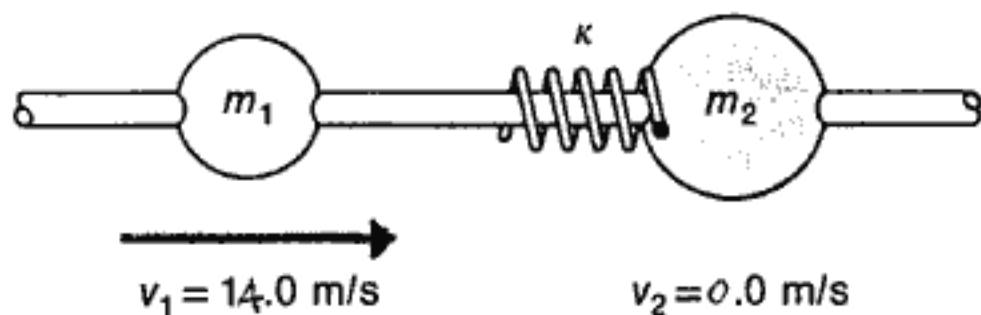
18-5

Two particles with mass $m_1 = 2.0 \text{ kg}$ and $m_2 = 5.0 \text{ kg}$ can slide on a frictionless rod. A spring with $k = 1000 \text{ N/m}$ is attached to m_2 .

$$v_1 = 14 \text{ m/s}$$

$$v_2 = 0.$$

- What is the maximum compression of the spring when the particles collide?
- What are the final velocities of the particles?



- When the spring is under maximum compression, the relative velocity of the particles is zero.
- The system then has a velocity v_0 .

Conservation of linear momentum: [At max. comp.]

$$m_1 v_1 + m_2 \times 0 = (m_1 + m_2) v_0$$

$$v_0 = \frac{m_1}{m_1 + m_2} v_1 = \frac{2 \times 14}{2 + 5} = 4 \text{ m/s}.$$

Initial KE, before collision

$$K_0 = \frac{1}{2} m_1 v_1^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_2 \times 0 = \frac{1}{2} \times 2.0 \times (14)^2 = 196 \text{ J}$$

At maximum spring compression the remaining KE is

$$K = \frac{1}{2} (m_1 + m_2) v_0^2 = \frac{1}{2} (2+5) 4^2 = 56 \text{ J}$$

Energy difference is stored as PE in the spring.

$$\frac{1}{2} kx^2 = K_0 - K$$

$$x = \sqrt{\frac{2(K_0 - K)}{k}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times (196 - 56)}{1000}} = 0.53 \text{ m}$$

b) When particles separate, the energy stored in the spring is returned to the particles and total energy and momentum is conserved.

$$\textcircled{1} \quad m_1 v_1' + m_2 v_2' = m_1 v_1 + m_2 \times 0$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \frac{1}{2} m_1 v_1'^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_2 v_2'^2 = \frac{1}{2} m_1 v_1^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_2 \times 0^2$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad 2v_1' + 5v_2' = 28 \text{ kg.m/s} \quad [\text{sub. in Eq. ①}]$$

$$\textcircled{4} \quad 2v_1'^2 + 5v_2'^2 = 392 \text{ J}^2 \quad [\text{sub in eq. ②}]$$

$$\text{From ③} \quad v_2' = (28 - 2v_1')/5$$

$$2v_1'^2 + 5 \left[\frac{28 - 2v_1'}{5} \right]^2 = 392$$

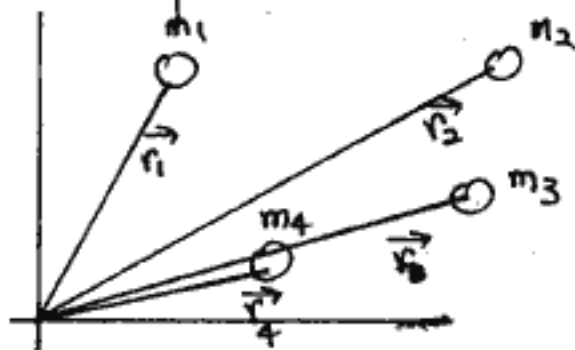
(NG)!!	v_1'	v_2'
	14	0
	-6	8

Center-of-Mass

18-7

- Up to now we have ignored the size of objects
- We will now show that for an object of finite size, the center-of-mass mimics particle motion.

- The position of the center-of-mass is the average position of the mass of the system.



$$\vec{r}_{cm} = \frac{m_1 \vec{r}_1 + m_2 \vec{r}_2 + \dots + m_n \vec{r}_n}{m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_n}$$

$$\vec{r}_{cm} = (m_1 \vec{r}_1 + m_2 \vec{r}_2 + \dots + m_n \vec{r}_n) / M = \frac{\sum m_i \vec{r}_i}{M}$$

$M \equiv$ Total Mass

In terms of vector components.:

$$x_{cm} = \frac{1}{M} [m_1 x_1 + m_2 x_2 + \dots + m_n x_n] = \frac{1}{M} \sum m_i x_i$$

$$y_{cm} = \frac{1}{M} [m_1 y_1 + m_2 y_2 + \dots + m_n y_n] = \frac{1}{M} \sum m_i y_i$$

$$z_{cm} = \frac{1}{M} [m_1 z_1 + m_2 z_2 + \dots + m_n z_n] = \frac{1}{M} \sum m_i z_i$$

$$\vec{r}_{cm} = x_{cm} \hat{x} + y_{cm} \hat{y} + z_{cm} \hat{z}$$

Example: CM of Two Particles.

[Potassium Bromide KBr]

$$y_{cm} = 0$$

$$x_{cm} = \frac{m_1 x_1 + m_2 x_2}{m_1 + m_2}$$

$$x_1 = 0 \quad x_2 = 2.82 \text{ \AA}$$

$$m_1 = 79.9 \text{ u} \quad m_2 = 39.1 \text{ u}$$

$$x_{cm} = \frac{39.1 \times 2.82 \text{ \AA}}{79.9 + 39.1} = 0.93 \text{ \AA}$$

[Near heavier atom]

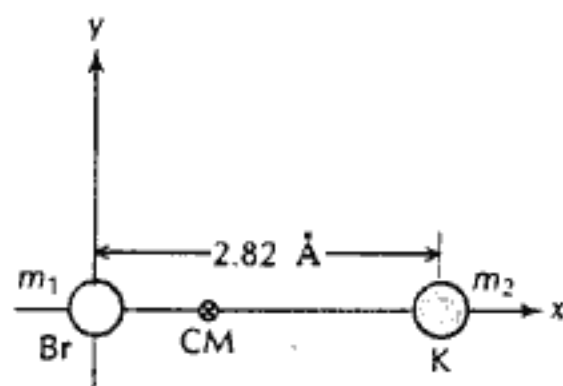


Fig. 9.7 Atoms of bromine (Br) and potassium (K), regarded as particles.

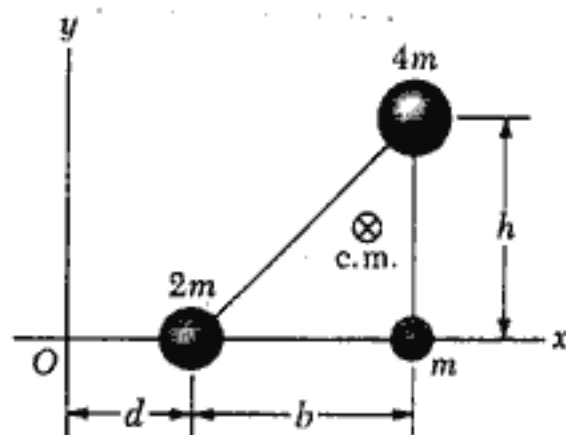
Example: CM of Three Particles

$$x_{cm} = \frac{\sum m_i x_i}{M} = \frac{2md + m(d+b) + 4m(d+b)}{7m}$$

$$= \frac{d + 5b}{7}$$

$$y_{cm} = \frac{\sum m_i y_i}{M} = \frac{2m(0) + m(0) + 4mh}{7m}$$

$$= \frac{4}{7} h$$



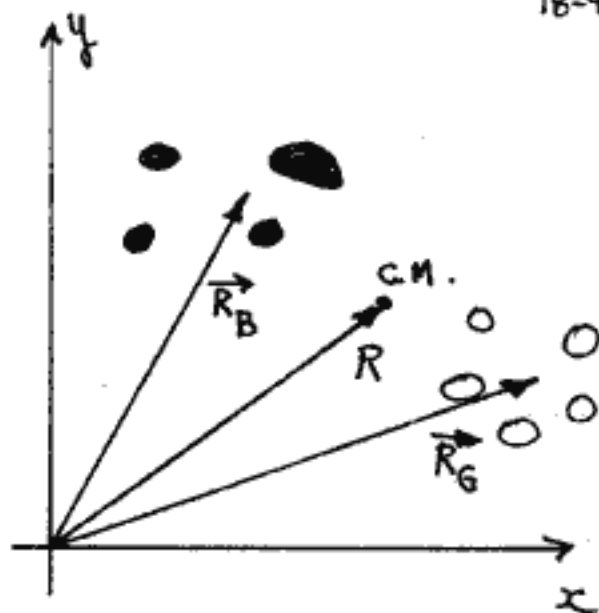
The position vector of the cm

$$\vec{r}_{cm} = x_{cm} \hat{x} + y_{cm} \hat{y} = \left(\frac{d + 5b}{7} \right) \hat{x} + \frac{4}{7} h \hat{y}$$

Groups of Particles

18-9

- Divide system of particles into groups.
- Find cm of each group.
- Treat each group as a particle at its cm and find cm of the combined groups.



$$MR = \sum_{i=1}^l m_i \vec{r}_i + \sum_{j=l+1}^n m_j \vec{r}_j$$

$$\text{let } \vec{R}_B = \frac{1}{M_B} \sum_{i=1}^l m_i \vec{r}_i$$

$$M_B = \sum_{i=1}^l m_i$$

$$\vec{R}_G = \frac{1}{M_G} \sum_{j=l+1}^n m_j \vec{r}_j$$

$$M_G = \sum_{j=l+1}^n m_j$$

$$M\vec{R} = M_B \vec{R}_B + M_G \vec{R}_G$$

$$M = M_B + M_G$$

$$\vec{R} = \frac{1}{M} [M_B \vec{R}_B + M_G \vec{R}_G]$$

cm of Solid Bodies

18-10

- Consider objects with continuous distributions of mass.
- Divide body up into elements of mass Δm_i with coordinates x_i, y_i, z_i .

The x-coordinate of the cm becomes

$$x_c = \frac{\sum x_i \Delta m_i}{M}$$

Let the number of elements approach infinity.

Then

$$x_c = \lim_{\Delta m_i \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sum x_i \Delta m_i}{M} = \frac{1}{M} \int x dm$$

$$\text{Also } y_c = \frac{1}{M} \int y dm$$

$$z_c = \frac{1}{M} \int z dm \quad [\text{First moments of mass distr.}]$$

For the position vector of the cm

$$\vec{r}_{cm} = \frac{1}{M} \int \vec{r} dm$$

Note: From above it follows that the cm of homogeneous, symmetric bodies must lie on an axis of symmetry.

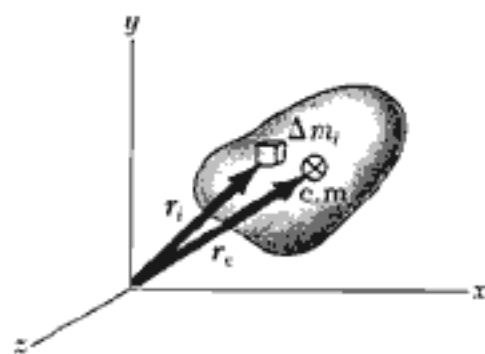


Figure A rigid body can be considered a distribution of small elements of mass Δm_i . The center of mass is located at the vector position r_c , which has coordinates x_c , y_c , and z_c .

If an object has a point, line or plane of symmetry, the cm must lie on that point, on that line or on that plane.

No particle need be at cm. e.g. donut.

It is often convenient to express the mass distribution in terms of the local density and an element of volume:

$$dm = \rho dV \quad \rho = \rho(x, y, z).$$

then
$$\vec{r}_{cm} = \frac{1}{M} \int \vec{r} \rho dV$$

$$x_c = \frac{1}{M} \int x \rho dV$$

$$y_c = \frac{1}{M} \int y \rho dV$$

$$z_c = \frac{1}{M} \int z \rho dV$$

This is a general result even if $\rho(x, y, z)$ varies throughout the volume. If ρ is a constant then cm is often easily obtained by the symmetry of the object volume.

\Rightarrow First moments of the volume distribution if $\rho = \text{constant}$.

Integrals are evaluated over the entire volume.

$$dV = dx dy dz$$