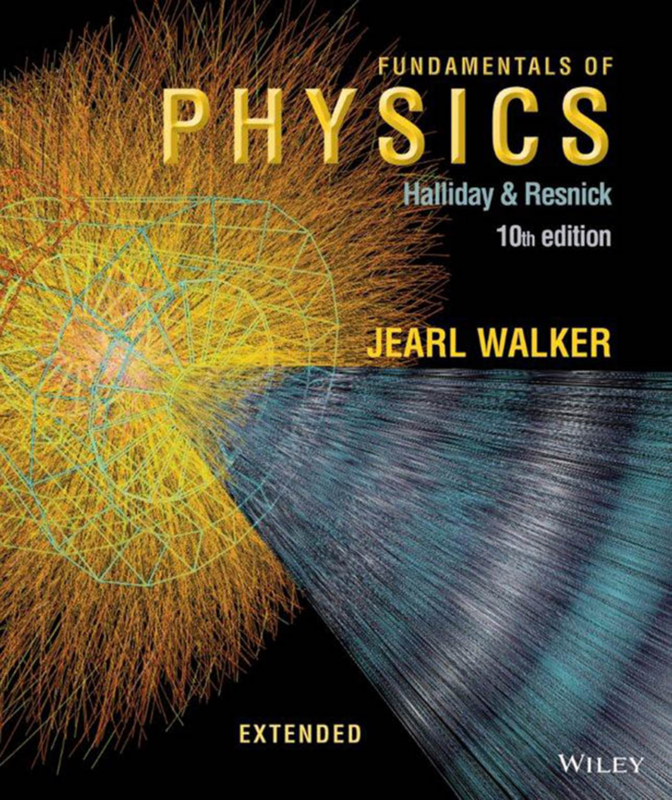

FUNDAMENTALS OF
PHYSICS

Halliday & Resnick

10th edition

JEARL WALKER

EXTENDED

WILEY

MATHEMATICAL FORMULAS*

Quadratic Formula

If $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$, then $x = \dfrac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$

Binomial Theorem

$$(1 + x)^n = 1 + \frac{nx}{1!} + \frac{n(n-1)x^2}{2!} + \cdots \qquad (x^2 < 1)$$

Products of Vectors

Let θ be the smaller of the two angles between $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$. Then

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \vec{b} \cdot \vec{a} = a_x b_x + a_y b_y + a_z b_z = ab \cos\theta$$

$$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = -\vec{b} \times \vec{a} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\mathrm{i}} & \hat{\mathrm{j}} & \hat{\mathrm{k}} \\ a_x & a_y & a_z \\ b_x & b_y & b_z \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \hat{\mathrm{i}} \begin{vmatrix} a_y & a_z \\ b_y & b_z \end{vmatrix} - \hat{\mathrm{j}} \begin{vmatrix} a_x & a_z \\ b_x & b_z \end{vmatrix} + \hat{\mathrm{k}} \begin{vmatrix} a_x & a_y \\ b_x & b_y \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (a_y b_z - b_y a_z)\hat{\mathrm{i}} + (a_z b_x - b_z a_x)\hat{\mathrm{j}} + (a_x b_y - b_x a_y)\hat{\mathrm{k}}$$

$$|\vec{a} \times \vec{b}| = ab \sin\theta$$

Trigonometric Identities

$$\sin\alpha \pm \sin\beta = 2 \sin\tfrac{1}{2}(\alpha \pm \beta) \cos\tfrac{1}{2}(\alpha \mp \beta)$$

$$\cos\alpha + \cos\beta = 2 \cos\tfrac{1}{2}(\alpha + \beta) \cos\tfrac{1}{2}(\alpha - \beta)$$

*See Appendix E for a more complete list.

Derivatives and Integrals

$$\frac{d}{dx}\sin x = \cos x \qquad \int \sin x\,dx = -\cos x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}\cos x = -\sin x \qquad \int \cos x\,dx = \sin x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}e^x = e^x \qquad \int e^x\,dx = e^x$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}} = \ln(x + \sqrt{x^2 + a^2})$$

$$\int \frac{x\,dx}{(x^2 + a^2)^{3/2}} = -\frac{1}{(x^2 + a^2)^{1/2}}$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{(x^2 + a^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{x}{a^2(x^2 + a^2)^{1/2}}$$

Cramer's Rule

Two simultaneous equations in unknowns x and y,

$$a_1 x + b_1 y = c_1 \quad \text{and} \quad a_2 x + b_2 y = c_2,$$

have the solutions

$$x = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} c_1 & b_1 \\ c_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{c_1 b_2 - c_2 b_1}{a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1}$$

and

$$y = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & c_2 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{a_1 c_2 - a_2 c_1}{a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1}.$$

SI PREFIXES*

Factor	Prefix	Symbol	Factor	Prefix	Symbol
10^{24}	yotta	Y	10^{-1}	deci	d
10^{21}	zetta	Z	10^{-2}	centi	c
10^{18}	exa	E	10^{-3}	milli	m
10^{15}	peta	P	10^{-6}	micro	μ
10^{12}	tera	T	10^{-9}	nano	n
10^{9}	giga	G	10^{-12}	pico	p
10^{6}	mega	M	10^{-15}	femto	f
10^{3}	kilo	k	10^{-18}	atto	a
10^{2}	hecto	h	10^{-21}	zepto	z
10^{1}	deka	da	10^{-24}	yocto	y

*In all cases, the first syllable is accented, as in ná-no-mé-ter.

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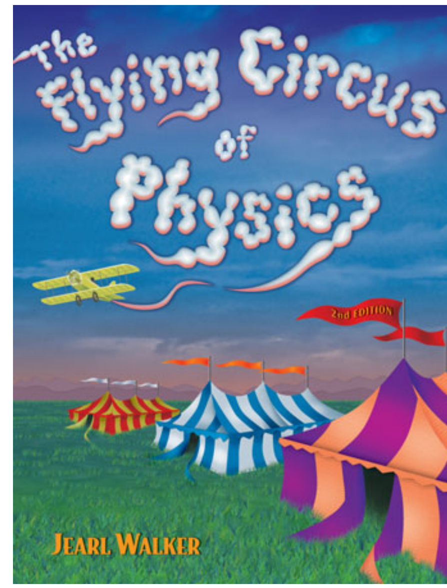
P R E F A C E

WHY I WROTE THIS BOOK

Fun with a big challenge. That is how I have regarded physics since the day when Sharon, one of the students in a class I taught as a graduate student, suddenly demanded of me, "What has any of this got to do with my life?" Of course I immediately responded, "Sharon, this has everything to do with your life—this is physics."



She asked me for an example. I thought and thought but could not come up with a single one.That night I began writing the book *The Flying Circus of Physics* (John Wiley & Sons Inc., 1975) for Sharon but also for me because I realized her complaint was mine. I had spent six years slugging my way through many dozens of physics textbooks that were carefully written with the best of pedagogical plans, but there was something missing. Physics is the most interesting subject in the world because it is about how the world works, and yet the textbooks had been thoroughly wrung of any connection with the real world.The fun was missing.

I have packed a lot of real-world physics into *Fundamentals of Physics*, connecting it with the new edition of *The Flying Circus of Physics*. Much of the material comes from the introductory physics classes I teach, where I can judge from the faces and blunt comments what material and presentations work and what do not. The notes I make on my successes and failures there help form the basis of this book. My message here is the same as I had with every student I've met since Sharon so long ago: "Yes, you *can* reason from basic physics concepts all the way to valid conclusions about the real world, and that understanding of the real world is where the fun is."

I have many goals in writing this book but the overriding one is to provide instructors with tools by which they can teach students how to effectively read scientific material, identify fundamental concepts, reason through scientific questions, and solve quantitative problems. This process is not easy for either students or instructors. Indeed, the course associated with this book may be one of the most challenging of all the courses taken by a student. However, it can also be one of the most rewarding because it reveals the world's fundamental clockwork from which all scientific and engineering applications spring.

Many users of the ninth edition (both instructors and students) sent in comments and suggestions to improve the book. These improvements are now incorporated into the narrative and problems throughout the book. The publisher John Wiley & Sons and I regard the book as an ongoing project and encourage more input from users. You can send suggestions, corrections, and positive or negative comments to John Wiley & Sons or Jearl Walker (mail address: Physics Department, Cleveland State University, Cleveland, OH 44115 USA; or the blog site at www.flyingcircusofphysics.com). We may not be able to respond to all suggestions, but we keep and study each of them.

WHAT'S NEW?

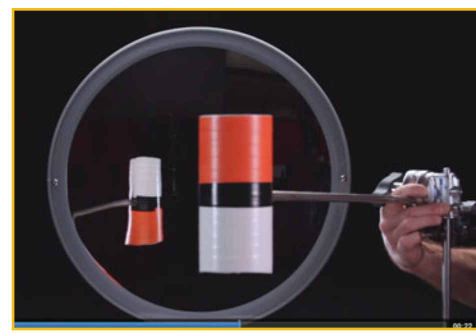
Modules and Learning Objectives "What was I supposed to learn from this section?" Students have asked me this question for decades, from the weakest student to the strongest. The problem is that even a thoughtful student may not feel confident that the important points were captured while reading a section. I felt the same way back when I was using the first edition of Halliday and Resnick while taking first-year physics.

To ease the problem in this edition, I restructured the chapters into concept modules based on a primary theme and begin each module with a list of the module's learning objectives. The list is an explicit statement of the skills and learning points that should be gathered in reading the module. Each list is following by a brief summary of the key ideas that should also be gathered. For example, check out the first module in Chapter 16, where a student faces a truck load of concepts and terms. Rather than depending on the student's ability to gather and sort those ideas, I now provide an explicit checklist that functions somewhat like the checklist a pilot works through before taxiing out to the runway for takeoff.

Links Between Homework Problems and Learning Objectives In *WileyPLUS*, every question and problem at the end of the chapter is linked to a learning objective, to answer the (usually unspoken) questions, "Why am I working this problem? What am I supposed to learn from it?" By being explicit about a problem's purpose, I believe that a student might better transfer the learning objective to other problems with a different wording but the same key idea. Such transference would help defeat the common trouble that a student learns to work a particular problem but cannot then apply its key idea to a problem in a different setting.

Rewritten Chapters My students have continued to be challenged by several key chapters and by spots in several other chapters and so, in this edition, I rewrote a lot of the material. For example, I redesigned the chapters on Gauss' law and electric potential, which have proved to be tough-going for my students. The presentations are now smoother and more direct to the key points. In the quantum chapters, I expanded the coverage of the Schrödinger equation, including reflection of matter waves from a step potential. At the request of several instructors, I decoupled the discussion of the Bohr atom from the Schrödinger solution for the hydrogen atom so that the historical account of Bohr's work can be bypassed. Also, there is now a module on Planck's blackbody radiation.

New Sample Problems and Homework Questions and Problems Sixteen new sample problems have been added to the chapters, written so as to spotlight some of the difficult areas for my students. Also, about 250 problems and 50 questions have been added to the homework sections of the chapters. Some of these problems come from earlier editions of the book, as requested by several instructors.



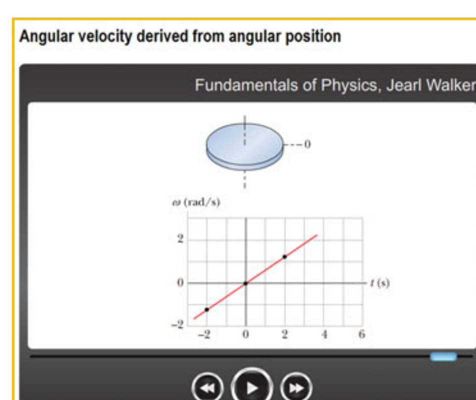
Video Illustrations In the eVersion of the text available in *WileyPLUS*, David Maiullo of Rutgers University has created video versions of approximately 30 of the photographs and figures from the text. Much of physics is the study of things that move and video can often provide a better representation than a static photo or figure.

Online Aid *WileyPLUS* is not just an online grading program. Rather, it is a dynamic learning center stocked with many different learning aids, including just-in-time problem-solving tutorials, embedded reading quizzes to encourage reading, animated figures, hundreds of sample problems, loads of simulations and demonstrations, and over 1500 videos ranging from math reviews to mini-lectures to examples. More of these learning aids are added every semester. For this 10th edition of HRW, some of the photos involving motion have been converted into videos so that the motion can be slowed and analyzed.

These thousands of learning aids are available 24/7 and can be repeated as many times as desired. Thus, if a student gets stuck on a homework problem at, say, 2:00 AM (which appears to be a popular time for doing physics homework), friendly and helpful resources are available at the click of a mouse.

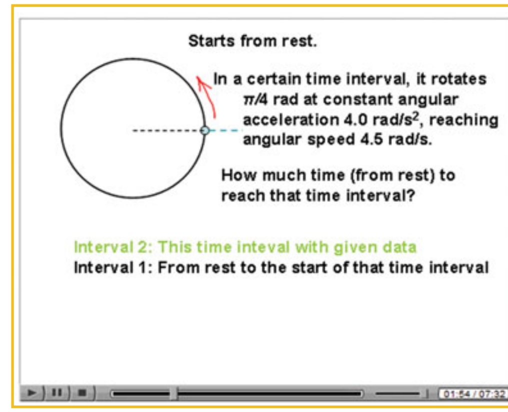
LEARNINGS TOOLS

When I learned first-year physics in the first edition of Halliday and Resnick, I caught on by repeatedly rereading a chapter. These days we better understand that students have a wide range of learning styles. So, I have produced a wide range of learning tools, both in this new edition and online in *WileyPLUS*:



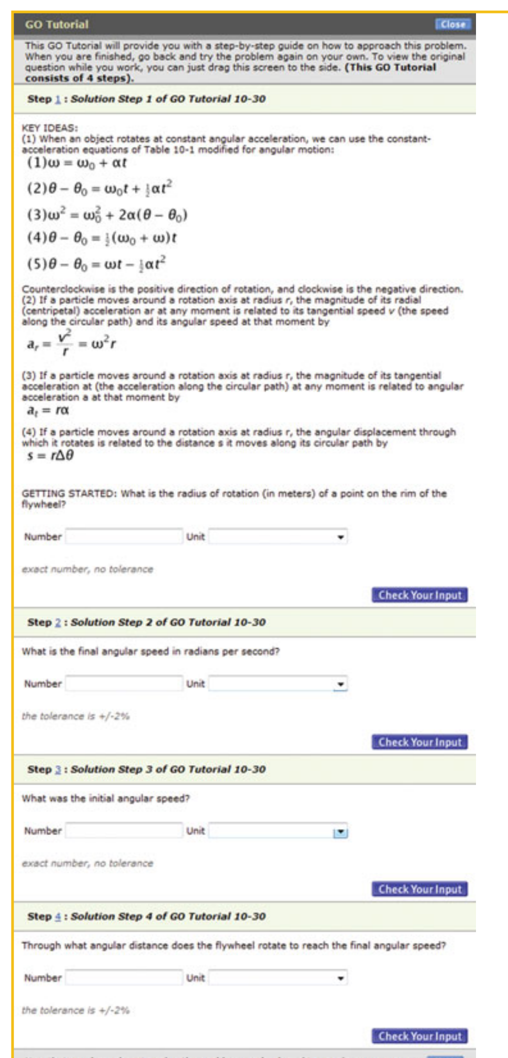
Animations of one of the key figures in each chapter. Here in the book, those figures are flagged with the swirling icon. In the online chapter in *WileyPLUS*, a mouse click begins the animation. I have chosen the figures that are rich in information so that a student can see the physics in action and played out over a minute or two instead of just being flat on a printed page. Not only does this give life to the physics, but the animation can be repeated as many times as a student wants.

Videos I have made well over 1500 instructional videos, with more coming each semester. Students can watch me draw or type on the screen as they hear me talk about a solution, tutorial, sample problem, or review, very much as they would experience were they sitting next to me in my office while I worked out something on a notepad. An instructor's lectures and tutoring will always be the most valuable learning tools, but my videos are available 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, and can be repeated indefinitely.



- **Video tutorials on subjects in the chapters.** I chose the subjects that challenge the students the most, the ones that my students scratch their heads about.
- **Video reviews of high school math**, such as basic algebraic manipulations, trig functions, and simultaneous equations.
- **Video introductions to math**, such as vector multiplication, that will be new to the students.
- **Video presentations of every Sample Problem** in the textbook chapters . My intent is to work out the physics, starting with the Key Ideas instead of just grabbing a formula. However, I also want to demonstrate how to read a sample problem, that is, how to read technical material to learn problem-solving procedures that can be transferred to other types of problems.
- **Video solutions to 20% of the end-of chapter problems.** The availability and timing of these solutions are controlled by the instructor. For example, they might be available after a homework deadline or a quiz. Each solution is not simply a plug-and-chug recipe. Rather I build a solution from the Key Ideas to the first step of reasoning and to a final solution. The student learns not just how to solve a particular problem but how to tackle any problem, even those that require *physics courage*.
- **Video examples of how to read data from graphs** (more than simply reading off a number with no comprehension of the physics).

Problem-Solving Help I have written a large number of resources for *WileyPLUS* designed to help build the students' problem-solving skills.



- **Every sample problem in the textbook** is available online in both reading and video formats.
- **Hundreds of additional sample problems.** These are available as standalone resources but (at the discretion of the instructor) they are also linked out of the homework problems. So, if a homework problem deals with, say, forces on a block on a ramp, a link to a related sample problem is provided. However, the sample problem is not just a replica of the homework problem and thus does not provide a solution that can be merely duplicated without comprehension.
- **GO Tutorials** for 15% of the end-of-chapter homework problems. In multiple steps, I lead a student through a homework problem, starting with the Key Ideas and giving hints when wrong answers are submitted. However, I purposely leave the last step (for the final answer) to the student so that they are responsible at the end. Some online tutorial systems trap a student when wrong answers are given, which can generate a lot of frustration. My GO Tutorials are not traps, because at any step along the way, a student can return to the main problem.
- **Hints on every end-of-chapter homework problem** are available (at the discretion of the instructor). I wrote these as true hints about the main ideas and the general procedure for a solution, not as recipes that provide an answer without any comprehension.

Evaluation Materials

• **Reading questions are available within each online section.** I wrote these so that they do not require analysis or any deep understanding; rather they simply test whether a student has read the section. When a student opens up a section, a randomly chosen reading question (from a bank of questions) appears at the end. The instructor can decide whether the question is part of the grading for that section or whether it is just for the benefit of the student.

• **Checkpoints are available within most sections.** I wrote these so that they require analysis and decisions about the physics in the section. *Answers to all checkpoints are in the back of the book*.

Checkpoint 1

Here are three pairs of initial and final positions, respectively, along an x axis. Which pairs give a negative displacement: (a) -3 m, $+5$ m; (b) -3 m, -7 m; (c) 7 m, -3 m?

• **All end-of-chapter homework Problems** in the book (and many more problems) are available in *WileyPLUS*. The instructor can construct a homework assignment and control how it is graded when the answers are submitted online. For example, the instructor controls the deadline for submission and how many attempts a student is allowed on an answer. The instructor also controls which, if any, learning aids are available with each homework problem. Such links can include hints, sample problems, in-chapter reading materials, video tutorials, video math reviews, and even video solutions (which can be made available to the students after, say, a homework deadline).

• **Symbolic notation problems** that require algebraic answers are available in every chapter.

• **All end-of-chapter homework Questions** in the book are available for assignment in *WileyPLUS*. These Questions (in a multiple choice format) are designed to evaluate the students' conceptual understanding.

Icons for Additional Help When worked-out solutions are provided either in print or electronically for certain of the odd-numbered problems, the statements for those problems include an icon to alert both student and instructor as to where the solutions are located. There are also icons indicating which problems have GO Tutorial, an Interactive LearningWare, or a link to the *The Flying Circus of Physics*. An icon guide is provided here and at the beginning of each set of problems.

GO	Tutoring problem available (at instructor's discretion) in *WileyPLUS* and WebAssign
SSM	Worked-out solution available in Student Solutions Manual
• – •••	Number of dots indicates level of problem difficulty
	Additional information available in *The Flying Circus of Physics* and at flyingcircusofphysics.com
WWW	Worked-out solution is at http://www.wiley.com/college/halliday
ILW	Interactive solution is at http://www.wiley.com/college/halliday

VERSIONS OF THE TEXT

To accommodate the individual needs of instructors and students, the ninth edition of *Fundamentals of Physics* is available in a number of different versions.

The **Regular Edition** consists of Chapters 1 through 37 (ISBN 9781118230718).

The **Extended Edition** contains seven additional chapters on quantum physics and cosmology, Chapters 1–44 (ISBN 9781118230725).

Volume 1 — Chapters 1–20 (Mechanics and Thermodynamics), hardcover, ISBN 9781118233764

Volume 2 — Chapters 21–44 (E&M, Optics, and Quantum Physics), hardcover, ISBN 9781118230732

INSTRUCTOR SUPPLEMENTS

Instructor's Solutions Manual by Sen-Ben Liao, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory. This manual provides worked-out solutions for all problems found at the end of each chapter. It is available in both MSWord and PDF.

Instructor Companion Site http://www.wiley.com/college/halliday

• **Instructor's Manual** This resource contains lecture notes outlining the most important topics of each chapter; demonstration experiments; laboratory and computer projects; film and video sources; answers to all Questions, Exercises, Problems, and Checkpoints; and a correlation guide to the Questions, Exercises, and Problems in the previous edition. It also contains a complete list of all problems for which solutions are available to students (SSM, WWW, and ILW).

• **Lecture PowerPoint Slides** These PowerPoint slides serve as a helpful starter pack for instructors, outlining key concepts and incorporating figures and equations from the text.

• **Classroom Response Systems ("Clicker") Questions** by David Marx, Illinois State University. There are two sets of questions available: Reading Quiz questions and Interactive Lecture questions. The Reading Quiz questions are intended to be relatively straightforward for any student who reads the assigned material. The Interactive Lecture questions are intended for use in an interactive lecture setting.

• **Wiley Physics Simulations** by Andrew Duffy, Boston University and John Gastineau, Vernier Software. This is a collection of 50 interactive simulations (Java applets) that can be used for classroom demonstrations.

• **Wiley Physics Demonstrations** by David Maiullo, Rutgers University. This is a collection of digital videos of 80 standard physics demonstrations. They can be shown in class or accessed from *WileyPLUS*. There is an accompanying Instructor's Guide that includes "clicker" questions.

• **Test Bank** For the 10th edition, the Test Bank has been completely over-hauled by Suzanne Willis, Northern Illinois University. The Test Bank includes more than 2200 multiple-choice questions. These items are also available in the Computerized Test Bank which provides full editing features to help you customize tests (available in both IBM and Macintosh versions).

• **All text illustrations** suitable for both classroom projection and printing.

Online Homework and Quizzing. In addition to *WileyPLUS*, *Fundamentals of Physics*, tenth edition, also supports WebAssignPLUS and LON-CAPA, which are other programs that give instructors the ability to deliver and grade homework and quizzes online. WebAssign PLUS also offers students an online version of the text.

STUDENT SUPPLEMENTS

Student Companion Site. The web site http://www.wiley.com/college/halliday was developed specifically for *Fundamentals of Physics*, tenth edition, and is designed to further assist students in the study of physics. It includes solutions to selected end-of-chapter problems (which are identified with a www icon in the text); simulation exercises; tips on how to make best use of a programmable calculator; and the Interactive LearningWare tutorials that are described below.

Student Study Guide (ISBN 9781118230787) by Thomas Barrett of Ohio State University. The Student Study Guide consists of an overview of the chapter's important concepts, problem solving techniques and detailed examples.

Student Solutions Manual (ISBN 9781118230664) by Sen-Ben Liao, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory. This manual provides students with complete worked-out solutions to 15 percent of the problems found at the end of each chapter within the text. The Student Solutions Manual for the 10th edition is written using an innovative approach called TEAL which stands for Think, Express, Analyze, and Learn. This learning strategy was originally developed at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and has proven to be an effective learning tool for students. These problems with TEAL solutions are indicated with an SSM icon in the text.

Interactive Learningware. This software guides students through solutions to 200 of the end-of-chapter problems. These problems are indicated with an ILW icon in the text. The solutions process is developed interactively, with appropriate feedback and access to error-specific help for the most common mistakes.

Introductory Physics with Calculus as a Second Language: (ISBN 9780471739104) *Mastering Problem Solving* by Thomas Barrett of Ohio State University. This brief paperback teaches the student how to approach problems more efficiently and effectively. The student will learn how to recognize common patterns in physics problems, break problems down into manageable steps, and apply appropriate techniques. The book takes the student step by step through the solutions to numerous examples.

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CHAPTER 1

Measurement

1-1 MEASURING THINGS, INCLUDING LENGTHS

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

1.01 Identify the base quantities in the SI system.

1.02 Name the most frequently used prefixes for SI units.

1.03 Change units (here for length, area, and volume) by using chain-link conversions.

1.04 Explain that the meter is defined in terms of the speed of light in vacuum.

Key Ideas

- Physics is based on measurement of physical quantities. Certain physical quantities have been chosen as base quantities (such as length, time, and mass); each has been defined in terms of a standard and given a unit of measure (such as meter, second, and kilogram). Other physical quantities are defined in terms of the base quantities and their standards and units.
- The unit system emphasized in this book is the International System of Units (SI). The three physical quantities displayed in Table 1-1 are used in the early chapters. Standards, which must be both accessible and invariable, have been established for these base quantities by international agreement. These standards are used in all physical measurement, for both the base quantities and the quantities derived from them. Scientific notation and the prefixes of Table 1-2 are used to simplify measurement notation.
- Conversion of units may be performed by using chain-link conversions in which the original data are multiplied successively by conversion factors written as unity and the units are manipulated like algebraic quantities until only the desired units remain.
- The meter is defined as the distance traveled by light during a precisely specified time interval.

What Is Physics?

Science and engineering are based on measurements and comparisons. Thus, we need rules about how things are measured and compared, and we need experiments to establish the units for those measurements and comparisons. One purpose of physics (and engineering) is to design and conduct those experiments.

For example, physicists strive to develop clocks of extreme accuracy so that any time or time interval can be precisely determined and compared. You may wonder whether such accuracy is actually needed or worth the effort. Here is one example of the worth: Without clocks of extreme accuracy, the Global Positioning System (GPS) that is now vital to worldwide navigation would be useless.

Measuring Things

We discover physics by learning how to measure the quantities involved in physics. Among these quantities are length, time, mass, temperature, pressure, and electric current.

We measure each physical quantity in its own units, by comparison with a **standard**. The **unit** is a unique name we assign to measures of that quantity—for example, meter (m) for the quantity length. The standard corresponds to exactly 1.0 unit of the quantity. As you will see, the standard for length, which corresponds to exactly 1.0 m, is the distance traveled by light in a vacuum during a certain fraction of a second. We can define a unit and its standard in any way we care to. However, the important thing is to do so in such a way that scientists around the world will agree that our definitions are both sensible and practical.

Once we have set up a standard—say, for length—we must work out procedures by which any length whatever, be it the radius of a hydrogen atom, the wheelbase of a skateboard, or the distance to a star, can be expressed in terms of the standard. Rulers, which approximate our length standard, give us one such procedure for measuring length. However, many of our comparisons must be indirect. You cannot use a ruler, for example, to measure the radius of an atom or the distance to a star.

Base Quantities. There are so many physical quantities that it is a problem to organize them. Fortunately, they are not all independent; for example, speed is the ratio of a length to a time. Thus, what we do is pick out—by international agreement—a small number of physical quantities, such as length and time, and assign standards to them alone. We then define all other physical quantities in terms of these *base quantities* and their standards (called *base standards*). Speed, for example, is defined in terms of the base quantities length and time and their base standards.

Base standards must be both accessible and invariable. If we define the length standard as the distance between one's nose and the index finger on an outstretched arm, we certainly have an accessible standard—but it will, of course, vary from person to person. The demand for precision in science and engineering pushes us to aim first for invariability. We then exert great effort to make duplicates of the base standards that are accessible to those who need them.

Table 1-1 **Units for Three SI Base Quantities**

Quantity	Unit Name	Unit Symbol
Length	meter	m
Time	second	s
Mass	kilogram	kg

The International System of Units

In 1971, the 14th General Conference on Weights and Measures picked seven quantities as base quantities, thereby forming the basis of the International System of Units, abbreviated SI from its French name and popularly known as the *metric system*. Table 1-1 shows the units for the three base quantities—length, mass, and time—that we use in the early chapters of this book. These units were defined to be on a "human scale."

Many SI *derived units* are defined in terms of these base units. For example, the SI unit for power, called the **watt** (W), is defined in terms of the base units for mass, length, and time. Thus, as you will see in Chapter 7,

$$1 \text{ watt} = 1 \text{ W} = 1 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}^3, \tag{1-1}$$

where the last collection of unit symbols is read as kilogram-meter squared per second cubed.

To express the very large and very small quantities we often run into in physics, we use *scientific notation*, which employs powers of 10. In this notation,

$$3\,560\,000\,000 \text{ m} = 3.56 \times 10^9 \text{ m} \tag{1-2}$$

and

$$0.000\,000\,492 \text{ s} = 4.92 \times 10^{-7} \text{ s}. \tag{1-3}$$

Scientific notation on computers sometimes takes on an even briefer look, as in 3.56 E9 and 4.92 E–7, where E stands for "exponent of ten." It is briefer still on some calculators, where E is replaced with an empty space.

As a further convenience when dealing with very large or very small measurements, we use the prefixes listed in Table 1-2. As you can see, each prefix represents a certain power of 10, to be used as a multiplication factor. Attaching a prefix to an SI unit has the effect of multiplying by the associated factor. Thus, we can express a particular electric power as

$$1.27 \times 10^9 \text{ watts} = 1.27 \text{ gigawatts} = 1.27 \text{ GW} \tag{1-4}$$

Table 1-2 **Prefixes for SI Units**

Factor	Prefix[a]	Symbol
10^{24}	yotta-	Y
10^{21}	zetta-	Z
10^{18}	exa-	E
10^{15}	peta-	P
10^{12}	tera-	T
$\mathbf{10^{9}}$	**giga-**	**G**
$\mathbf{10^{6}}$	**mega-**	**M**
$\mathbf{10^{3}}$	**kilo-**	**k**
10^{2}	hecto-	h
10^{1}	deka-	da
10^{-1}	deci-	d
$\mathbf{10^{-2}}$	**centi-**	**c**
$\mathbf{10^{-3}}$	**milli-**	**m**
$\mathbf{10^{-6}}$	**micro-**	$\boldsymbol{\mu}$
$\mathbf{10^{-9}}$	**nano-**	**n**
$\mathbf{10^{-12}}$	**pico-**	**p**
10^{-15}	femto-	f
10^{-18}	atto-	a
10^{-21}	zepto-	z
10^{-24}	yocto-	y

[a] The most frequently used prefixes are shown in bold type.

or a particular time interval as

$$2.35 \times 10^{-9}\ \text{s} = 2.35\ \text{nanoseconds} = 2.35\ \text{ns}. \tag{1-5}$$

Some prefixes, as used in milliliter, centimeter, kilogram, and megabyte, are probably familiar to you.

Changing Units

We often need to change the units in which a physical quantity is expressed. We do so by a method called *chain-link conversion*. In this method, we multiply the original measurement by a **conversion factor** (a ratio of units that is equal to unity). For example, because 1 min and 60 s are identical time intervals, we have

$$\frac{1\ \text{min}}{60\ \text{s}} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{60\ \text{s}}{1\ \text{min}} = 1.$$

Thus, the ratios (1 min)/(60 s) and (60 s)/(1 min) can be used as conversion factors. This is *not* the same as writing $\frac{1}{60} = 1$ or $60 = 1$; each *number* and its *unit* must be treated together.

Because multiplying any quantity by unity leaves the quantity unchanged, we can introduce conversion factors wherever we find them useful. In chain-link conversion, we use the factors to cancel unwanted units. For example, to convert 2 min to seconds, we have

$$2\ \text{min} = (2\ \text{min})(1) = (2\ \cancel{\text{min}})\left(\frac{60\ \text{s}}{1\ \cancel{\text{min}}}\right) = 120\ \text{s}. \tag{1-6}$$

If you introduce a conversion factor in such a way that unwanted units do *not* cancel, invert the factor and try again. In conversions, the units obey the same algebraic rules as variables and numbers.

Appendix D gives conversion factors between SI and other systems of units, including non-SI units still used in the United States. However, the conversion factors are written in the style of "1 min = 60 s" rather than as a ratio. So, you need to decide on the numerator and denominator in any needed ratio.

Length

In 1792, the newborn Republic of France established a new system of weights and measures. Its cornerstone was the meter, defined to be one ten-millionth of the distance from the north pole to the equator. Later, for practical reasons, this Earth standard was abandoned and the meter came to be defined as the distance between two fine lines engraved near the ends of a platinum–iridium bar, the **standard meter bar**, which was kept at the International Bureau of Weights and Measures near Paris. Accurate copies of the bar were sent to standardizing laboratories throughout the world. These **secondary standards** were used to produce other, still more accessible standards, so that ultimately every measuring device derived its authority from the standard meter bar through a complicated chain of comparisons.

Eventually, a standard more precise than the distance between two fine scratches on a metal bar was required. In 1960, a new standard for the meter, based on the wavelength of light, was adopted. Specifically, the standard for the meter was redefined to be 1 650 763.73 wavelengths of a particular orange-red light emitted by atoms of krypton-86 (a particular isotope, or type, of krypton) in a gas discharge tube that can be set up anywhere in the world. This awkward number of wavelengths was chosen so that the new standard would be close to the old meter-bar standard.

By 1983, however, the demand for higher precision had reached such a point that even the krypton-86 standard could not meet it, and in that year a bold step was taken. The meter was redefined as the distance traveled by light in a specified time interval. In the words of the 17th General Conference on Weights and Measures:

> The meter is the length of the path traveled by light in a vacuum during a time interval of 1/299 792 458 of a second.

This time interval was chosen so that the speed of light c is exactly

$$c = 299\,792\,458 \text{ m/s}.$$

Measurements of the speed of light had become extremely precise, so it made sense to adopt the speed of light as a defined quantity and to use it to redefine the meter.

Table 1-3 shows a wide range of lengths, from that of the universe (top line) to those of some very small objects.

Table 1-3 Some Approximate Lengths

Measurement	Length in Meters
Distance to the first galaxies formed	2×10^{26}
Distance to the Andromeda galaxy	2×10^{22}
Distance to the nearby star Proxima Centauri	4×10^{16}
Distance to Pluto	6×10^{12}
Radius of Earth	6×10^{6}
Height of Mt. Everest	9×10^{3}
Thickness of this page	1×10^{-4}
Length of a typical virus	1×10^{-8}
Radius of a hydrogen atom	5×10^{-11}
Radius of a proton	1×10^{-15}

Significant Figures and Decimal Places

Suppose that you work out a problem in which each value consists of two digits. Those digits are called **significant figures** and they set the number of digits that you can use in reporting your final answer. With data given in two significant figures, your final answer should have only two significant figures. However, depending on the mode setting of your calculator, many more digits might be displayed. Those extra digits are meaningless.

In this book, final results of calculations are often rounded to match the least number of significant figures in the given data. (However, sometimes an extra significant figure is kept.) When the leftmost of the digits to be discarded is 5 or more, the last remaining digit is rounded up; otherwise it is retained as is. For example, 11.3516 is rounded to three significant figures as 11.4 and 11.3279 is rounded to three significant figures as 11.3. (The answers to sample problems in this book are usually presented with the symbol = instead of ≈ even if rounding is involved.)

When a number such as 3.15 or 3.15×10^3 is provided in a problem, the number of significant figures is apparent, but how about the number 3000? Is it known to only one significant figure (3×10^3)? Or is it known to as many as four significant figures (3.000×10^3)? In this book, we assume that all the zeros in such given numbers as 3000 are significant, but you had better not make that assumption elsewhere.

Don't confuse *significant figures* with *decimal places*. Consider the lengths 35.6 mm, 3.56 m, and 0.00356 m. They all have three significant figures but they have one, two, and five decimal places, respectively.

Sample Problem 1.01 Estimating order of magnitude, ball of string

The world's largest ball of string is about 2 m in radius. To the nearest order of magnitude, what is the total length L of the string in the ball?

KEY IDEA

We could, of course, take the ball apart and measure the total length L, but that would take great effort and make the ball's builder most unhappy. Instead, because we want only the nearest order of magnitude, we can estimate any quantities required in the calculation.

Calculations: Let us assume the ball is spherical with radius $R = 2$ m. The string in the ball is not closely packed (there are uncountable gaps between adjacent sections of string). To allow for these gaps, let us somewhat overestimate the cross-sectional area of the string by assuming the cross section is square, with an edge length $d = 4$ mm. Then, with a cross-sectional area of d^2 and a length L, the string occupies a total volume of

$$V = (\text{cross-sectional area})(\text{length}) = d^2L.$$

This is approximately equal to the volume of the ball, given by $\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3$, which is about $4R^3$ because π is about 3. Thus, we have the following

$$d^2L = 4R^3,$$

or
$$L = \frac{4R^3}{d^2} = \frac{4(2\text{ m})^3}{(4 \times 10^{-3}\text{ m})^2}$$
$$= 2 \times 10^6\text{ m} \approx 10^6\text{ m} = 10^3\text{ km}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

(Note that you do not need a calculator for such a simplified calculation.) To the nearest order of magnitude, the ball contains about 1000 km of string!

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1-2 TIME

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

1.05 Change units for time by using chain-link conversions.

1.06 Use various measures of time, such as for motion or as determined on different clocks.

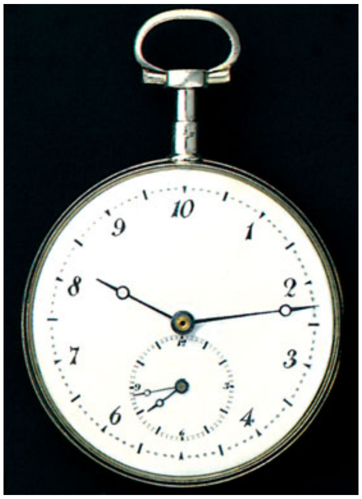
Key Idea

- The second is defined in terms of the oscillations of light emitted by an atomic (cesium-133) source. Accurate time signals are sent worldwide by radio signals keyed to atomic clocks in standardizing laboratories.

Time

Time has two aspects. For civil and some scientific purposes, we want to know the time of day so that we can order events in sequence. In much scientific work, we want to know how long an event lasts. Thus, any time standard must be able to answer two questions: "*When* did it happen?" and "What is its *duration*?" Table 1-4 shows some time intervals.

Any phenomenon that repeats itself is a possible time standard. Earth's rotation, which determines the length of the day, has been used in this way for centuries; Fig. 1-1 shows one novel example of a watch based on that rotation. A quartz clock, in which a quartz ring is made to vibrate continuously, can be calibrated against Earth's rotation via astronomical observations and used to measure time intervals in the laboratory. However, the calibration cannot be carried out with the accuracy called for by modern scientific and engineering technology.



Steven Pitkin

Figure 1-1 When the metric system was proposed in 1792, the hour was redefined to provide a 10-hour day. The idea did not catch on. The maker of this 10-hour watch wisely provided a small dial that kept conventional 12-hour time. Do the two dials indicate the same time?

Table 1-4 Some Approximate Time Intervals

Measurement	Time Interval in Seconds	Measurement	Time Interval in Seconds
Lifetime of the proton (predicted)	3×10^{40}	Time between human heartbeats	8×10^{-1}
Age of the universe	5×10^{17}	Lifetime of the muon	2×10^{-6}
Age of the pyramid of Cheops	1×10^{11}	Shortest lab light pulse	1×10^{-16}
Human life expectancy	2×10^{9}	Lifetime of the most unstable particle	1×10^{-23}
Length of a day	9×10^{4}	The Planck time[a]	1×10^{-43}

[a]This is the earliest time after the big bang at which the laws of physics as we know them can be applied.

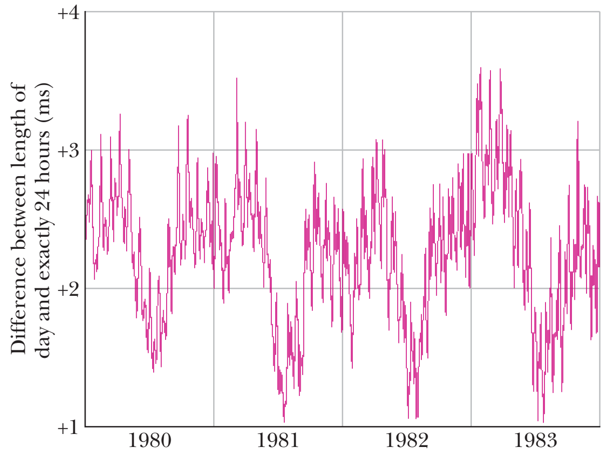


Figure 1-2 Variations in the length of the day over a 4-year period. Note that the entire vertical scale amounts to only 3 ms (= 0.003 s).

To meet the need for a better time standard, atomic clocks have been developed. An atomic clock at the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) in Boulder, Colorado, is the standard for Coordinated Universal Time (UTC) in the United States. Its time signals are available by shortwave radio (stations WWV and WWVH) and by telephone (303-499-7111). Time signals (and related information) are also available from the United States Naval Observatory at website http://tycho.usno.navy.mil/time.html. (To set a clock extremely accurately at your particular location, you would have to account for the travel time required for these signals to reach you.)

Figure 1-2 shows variations in the length of one day on Earth over a 4-year period, as determined by comparison with a cesium (atomic) clock. Because the variation displayed by Fig. 1-2 is seasonal and repetitious, we suspect the rotating Earth when there is a difference between Earth and atom as timekeepers. The variation is due to tidal effects caused by the Moon and to large-scale winds.

The 13th General Conference on Weights and Measures in 1967 adopted a standard second based on the cesium clock:

> One second is the time taken by 9 192 631 770 oscillations of the light (of a specified wavelength) emitted by a cesium-133 atom.

Atomic clocks are so consistent that, in principle, two cesium clocks would have to run for 6000 years before their readings would differ by more than 1 s. Even such accuracy pales in comparison with that of clocks currently being developed; their precision may be 1 part in 10^{18}—that is, 1 s in 1×10^{18} s (which is about 3×10^{10} y).

1-3 MASS

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

1.07 Change units for mass by using chain-link conversions.

1.08 Relate density to mass and volume when the mass is uniformly distributed.

Key Ideas

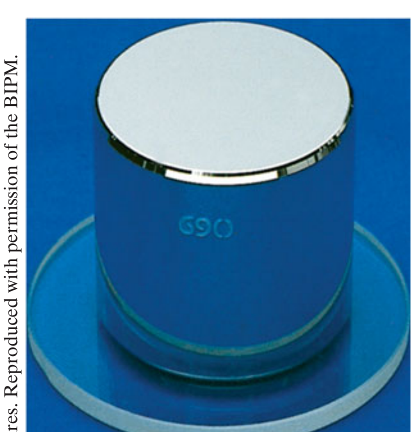
- The kilogram is defined in terms of a platinum–iridium standard mass kept near Paris. For measurements on an atomic scale, the atomic mass unit, defined in terms of the atom carbon-12, is usually used.
- The density ρ of a material is the mass per unit volume:

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V}.$$

Mass

The Standard Kilogram

The SI standard of mass is a cylinder of platinum and iridium (Fig. 1-3) that is kept at the International Bureau of Weights and Measures near Paris and assigned, by



Courtesy Bureau International des Poids et Mesures. Reproduced with permission of the BIPM.

Figure 1-3 The international 1 kg standard of mass, a platinum–iridium cylinder 3.9 cm in height and in diameter.

international agreement, a mass of 1 kilogram. Accurate copies have been sent to standardizing laboratories in other countries, and the masses of other bodies can be determined by balancing them against a copy. Table 1-5 shows some masses expressed in kilograms, ranging over about 83 orders of magnitude.

The U.S. copy of the standard kilogram is housed in a vault at NIST. It is removed, no more than once a year, for the purpose of checking duplicate copies that are used elsewhere. Since 1889, it has been taken to France twice for recomparison with the primary standard.

Table 1-5 Some Approximate Masses

Object	Mass in Kilograms
Known universe	1×10^{53}
Our galaxy	2×10^{41}
Sun	2×10^{30}
Moon	7×10^{22}
Asteroid Eros	5×10^{15}
Small mountain	1×10^{12}
Ocean liner	7×10^{7}
Elephant	5×10^{3}
Grape	3×10^{-3}
Speck of dust	7×10^{-10}
Penicillin molecule	5×10^{-17}
Uranium atom	4×10^{-25}
Proton	2×10^{-27}
Electron	9×10^{-31}

A Second Mass Standard

The masses of atoms can be compared with one another more precisely than they can be compared with the standard kilogram. For this reason, we have a second mass standard. It is the carbon-12 atom, which, by international agreement, has been assigned a mass of 12 **atomic mass units** (u). The relation between the two units is

$$1\ \text{u} = 1.660\,538\,86 \times 10^{-27}\ \text{kg}, \tag{1-7}$$

with an uncertainty of ± 10 in the last two decimal places. Scientists can, with reasonable precision, experimentally determine the masses of other atoms relative to the mass of carbon-12. What we presently lack is a reliable means of extending that precision to more common units of mass, such as a kilogram.

Density

As we shall discuss further in Chapter 14, **density** ρ (lowercase Greek letter rho) is the mass per unit volume:

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V}. \tag{1-8}$$

Densities are typically listed in kilograms per cubic meter or grams per cubic centimeter. The density of water (1.00 gram per cubic centimeter) is often used as a comparison. Fresh snow has about 10% of that density; platinum has a density that is about 21 times that of water.

Sample Problem 1.02 Density and liquefaction

A heavy object can sink into the ground during an earthquake if the shaking causes the ground to undergo *liquefaction,* in which the soil grains experience little friction as they slide over one another. The ground is then effectively quicksand. The possibility of liquefaction in sandy ground can be predicted in terms of the *void ratio e* for a sample of the ground:

$$e = \frac{V_{\text{voids}}}{V_{\text{grains}}}. \tag{1-9}$$

Here, V_{grains} is the total volume of the sand grains in the sample and V_{voids} is the total volume between the grains (in the *voids*). If e exceeds a critical value of 0.80, liquefaction can occur during an earthquake. What is the corresponding sand density ρ_{sand}? Solid silicon dioxide (the primary component of sand) has a density of $\rho_{SiO_2} = 2.600 \times 10^3\ \text{kg/m}^3$.

KEY IDEA

The density of the sand ρ_{sand} in a sample is the mass per unit volume—that is, the ratio of the total mass m_{sand} of the sand grains to the total volume V_{total} of the sample:

$$\rho_{\text{sand}} = \frac{m_{\text{sand}}}{V_{\text{total}}}. \tag{1-10}$$

Calculations: The total volume V_{total} of a sample is

$$V_{\text{total}} = V_{\text{grains}} + V_{\text{voids}}.$$

Substituting for V_{voids} from Eq. 1-9 and solving for V_{grains} lead to

$$V_{\text{grains}} = \frac{V_{\text{total}}}{1 + e}. \tag{1-11}$$

From Eq. 1-8, the total mass m_{sand} of the sand grains is the product of the density of silicon dioxide and the total volume of the sand grains:

$$m_{\text{sand}} = \rho_{SiO_2} V_{\text{grains}}. \tag{1-12}$$

Substituting this expression into Eq. 1-10 and then substituting for V_{grains} from Eq. 1-11 lead to

$$\rho_{\text{sand}} = \frac{\rho_{SiO_2}}{V_{\text{total}}} \frac{V_{\text{total}}}{1+e} = \frac{\rho_{SiO_2}}{1+e}. \tag{1-13}$$

Substituting $\rho_{SiO_2} = 2.600 \times 10^3$ kg/m^3 and the critical value of $e = 0.80$, we find that liquefaction occurs when the sand density is less than

$$\rho_{\text{sand}} = \frac{2.600 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3}{1.80} = 1.4 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3.$$

(Answer)

A building can sink several meters in such liquefaction.

WILEY PLUS Additional examples, video, and practice available at *WileyPLUS*

Review & Summary

Measurement in Physics Physics is based on measurement of physical quantities. Certain physical quantities have been chosen as **base quantities** (such as length, time, and mass); each has been defined in terms of a **standard** and given a **unit** of measure (such as meter, second, and kilogram). Other physical quantities are defined in terms of the base quantities and their standards and units.

SI Units The unit system emphasized in this book is the International System of Units (SI). The three physical quantities displayed in Table 1-1 are used in the early chapters. Standards, which must be both accessible and invariable, have been established for these base quantities by international agreement. These standards are used in all physical measurement, for both the base quantities and the quantities derived from them. Scientific notation and the prefixes of Table 1-2 are used to simplify measurement notation.

Changing Units Conversion of units may be performed by using *chain-link conversions* in which the original data are multiplied successively by conversion factors written as unity and the units are manipulated like algebraic quantities until only the desired units remain.

Length The meter is defined as the distance traveled by light during a precisely specified time interval.

Time The second is defined in terms of the oscillations of light emitted by an atomic (cesium-133) source. Accurate time signals are sent worldwide by radio signals keyed to atomic clocks in standardizing laboratories.

Mass The kilogram is defined in terms of a platinum–iridium standard mass kept near Paris. For measurements on an atomic scale, the atomic mass unit, defined in terms of the atom carbon-12, is usually used.

Density The density ρ of a material is the mass per unit volume:

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V}. \tag{1-8}$$

Problems

GO Tutoring problem available (at instructor's discretion) in *WileyPLUS* and WebAssign

SSM Worked-out solution available in Student Solutions Manual

• – ••• Number of dots indicates level of difficulty

Additional information available in *The Flying Circus of Physics* and at flyingcircusofphysics.com

WWW Worked-out solution is at http://www.wiley.com/college/halliday

ILW Interactive solution is at http://www.wiley.com/college/halliday

Module 1-1 Measuring Things, Including Lengths

•1 SSM Earth is approximately a sphere of radius 6.37×10^6 m. What are (a) its circumference in kilometers, (b) its surface area in square kilometers, and (c) its volume in cubic kilometers?

•2 A *gry* is an old English measure for length, defined as 1/10 of a line, where *line* is another old English measure for length, defined as 1/12 inch. A common measure for length in the publishing business is a *point,* defined as 1/72 inch. What is an area of 0.50 gry^2 in points squared (points^2)?

•3 The micrometer (1 μm) is often called the *micron.* (a) How many microns make up 1.0 km? (b) What fraction of a centimeter equals 1.0 μm? (c) How many microns are in 1.0 yd?

•4 Spacing in this book was generally done in units of points and picas: 12 points = 1 pica, and 6 picas = 1 inch. If a figure was misplaced in the page proofs by 0.80 cm, what was the misplacement in (a) picas and (b) points?

•5 SSM WWW Horses are to race over a certain English meadow for a distance of 4.0 furlongs. What is the race distance in (a) rods and (b) chains? (1 furlong = 201.168 m, 1 rod = 5.0292 m, and 1 chain = 20.117 m.)

••6 You can easily convert common units and measures electronically, but you still should be able to use a conversion table, such as those in Appendix D. Table 1-6 is part of a conversion table for a system of volume measures once common in Spain; a volume of 1 fanega is equivalent to 55.501 dm^3 (cubic decimeters). To complete the table, what numbers (to three significant figures) should be entered in (a) the cahiz column, (b) the fanega column, (c) the cuartilla column, and (d) the almude column, starting with the top blank? Express 7.00 almudes in (e) medios, (f) cahizes, and (g) cubic centimeters (cm^3).

Table 1-6 Problem 6

	cahiz	fanega	cuartilla	almude	medio
1 cahiz =	1	12	48	144	288
1 fanega =		1	4	12	24
1 cuartilla =			1	3	6
1 almude =				1	2
1 medio =					1

••7 ILW Hydraulic engineers in the United States often use, as a unit of volume of water, the *acre-foot,* defined as the volume of water that will cover 1 acre of land to a depth of 1 ft. A severe thunderstorm dumped 2.0 in. of rain in 30 min on a town of area 26 km^2. What volume of water, in acre-feet, fell on the town?

••8 GO Harvard Bridge, which connects MIT with its fraternities across the Charles River, has a length of 364.4 Smoots plus one ear. The unit of one Smoot is based on the length of Oliver Reed Smoot, Jr., class of 1962, who was carried or dragged length by length across the bridge so that other pledge members of the Lambda Chi Alpha fraternity could mark off (with paint) 1-Smoot lengths along the bridge. The marks have been repainted biannually by fraternity pledges since the initial measurement, usually during times of traffic congestion so that the police cannot easily interfere. (Presumably, the police were originally upset because the Smoot is not an SI base unit, but these days they seem to have accepted the unit.) Figure 1-4 shows three parallel paths, measured in Smoots (S), Willies (W), and Zeldas (Z). What is the length of 50.0 Smoots in (a) Willies and (b) Zeldas?

Figure 1-4 Problem 8.

••9 Antarctica is roughly semicircular, with a radius of 2000 km (Fig. 1-5). The average thickness of its ice cover is 3000 m. How many cubic centimeters of ice does Antarctica contain? (Ignore the curvature of Earth.)

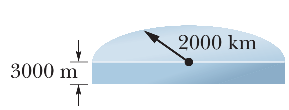


Figure 1-5 Problem 9.

Module 1-2 Time

•10 Until 1883, every city and town in the United States kept its own local time. Today, travelers reset their watches only when the time change equals 1.0 h. How far, on the average, must you travel in degrees of longitude between the time-zone boundaries at which your watch must be reset by 1.0 h? (*Hint:* Earth rotates 360° in about 24 h.)

•11 For about 10 years after the French Revolution, the French government attempted to base measures of time on multiples of ten: One week consisted of 10 days, one day consisted of 10 hours, one hour consisted of 100 minutes, and one minute consisted of 100 seconds. What are the ratios of (a) the French decimal week to the standard week and (b) the French decimal second to the standard second?

•12 The fastest growing plant on record is a *Hesperoyucca whipplei* that grew 3.7 m in 14 days. What was its growth rate in micrometers per second?

•13 GO Three digital clocks A, B, and C run at different rates and do not have simultaneous readings of zero. Figure 1-6 shows simultaneous readings on pairs of the clocks for four occasions. (At the earliest occasion, for example, B reads 25.0 s and C reads 92.0 s.) If two events are 600 s apart on clock A, how far apart are they on (a) clock B and (b) clock C? (c) When clock A reads 400 s, what does clock B read? (d) When clock C reads 15.0 s, what does clock B read? (Assume negative readings for prezero times.)

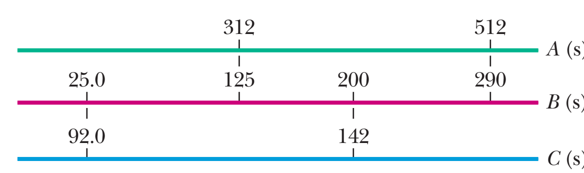


Figure 1-6 Problem 13.

•14 A lecture period (50 min) is close to 1 microcentury. (a) How long is a microcentury in minutes? (b) Using

$$\text{percentage difference} = \left(\frac{\text{actual} - \text{approximation}}{\text{actual}}\right) 100,$$

find the percentage difference from the approximation.

•15 A fortnight is a charming English measure of time equal to 2.0 weeks (the word is a contraction of "fourteen nights"). That is a nice amount of time in pleasant company but perhaps a painful string of microseconds in unpleasant company. How many microseconds are in a fortnight?

•16 Time standards are now based on atomic clocks. A promising second standard is based on *pulsars,* which are rotating neutron stars (highly compact stars consisting only of neutrons). Some rotate at a rate that is highly stable, sending out a radio beacon that sweeps briefly across Earth once with each rotation, like a lighthouse beacon. Pulsar PSR 1937 + 21 is an example; it rotates once every 1.557 806 448 872 75 ± 3 ms, where the trailing ±3 indicates the uncertainty in the last decimal place (it does *not* mean ±3 ms). (a) How many rotations does PSR 1937 + 21 make in 7.00 days? (b) How much time does the pulsar take to rotate exactly one million times and (c) what is the associated uncertainty?

•17 SSM Five clocks are being tested in a laboratory. Exactly at noon, as determined by the WWV time signal, on successive days of a week the clocks read as in the following table. Rank the five clocks according to their relative value as good timekeepers, best to worst. Justify your choice.

Clock	Sun.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Fri.	Sat.
A	12:36:40	12:36:56	12:37:12	12:37:27	12:37:44	12:37:59	12:38:14
B	11:59:59	12:00:02	11:59:57	12:00:07	12:00:02	11:59:56	12:00:03
C	15:50:45	15:51:43	15:52:41	15:53:39	15:54:37	15:55:35	15:56:33
D	12:03:59	12:02:52	12:01:45	12:00:38	11:59:31	11:58:24	11:57:17
E	12:03:59	12:02:49	12:01:54	12:01:52	12:01:32	12:01:22	12:01:12

••18 Because Earth's rotation is gradually slowing, the length of each day increases: The day at the end of 1.0 century is 1.0 ms longer than the day at the start of the century. In 20 centuries, what is the total of the daily increases in time?

•••19 Suppose that, while lying on a beach near the equator watching the Sun set over a calm ocean, you start a stopwatch just as the top of the Sun disappears. You then stand, elevating your eyes by a height $H = 1.70$ m, and stop the watch when the top of the Sun again disappears. If the elapsed time is $t = 11.1$ s, what is the radius r of Earth?

Module 1-3 Mass

•20 GO The record for the largest glass bottle was set in 1992 by a team in Millville, New Jersey—they blew a bottle with a volume of 193 U.S. fluid gallons. (a) How much short of 1.0 million cubic centimeters is that? (b) If the bottle were filled with water at the leisurely rate of 1.8 g/min, how long would the filling take? Water has a density of 1000 kg/m^3.

•21 Earth has a mass of 5.98×10^{24} kg. The average mass of the atoms that make up Earth is 40 u. How many atoms are there in Earth?

•22 Gold, which has a density of 19.32 g/cm^3, is the most ductile metal and can be pressed into a thin leaf or drawn out into a long fiber. (a) If a sample of gold, with a mass of 27.63 g, is pressed into a leaf of 1.000 μm thickness, what is the area of the leaf? (b) If, instead, the gold is drawn out into a cylindrical fiber of radius 2.500 μm, what is the length of the fiber?

•23 SSM (a) Assuming that water has a density of exactly 1 g/cm^3, find the mass of one cubic meter of water in kilograms. (b) Suppose that it takes 10.0 h to drain a container of 5700 m^3 of water. What is the "mass flow rate," in kilograms per second, of water from the container?

••24 GO Grains of fine California beach sand are approximately spheres with an average radius of 50 μm and are made of silicon dioxide, which has a density of 2600 kg/m^3. What mass of sand grains would have a total surface area (the total area of all the individual spheres) equal to the surface area of a cube 1.00 m on an edge?

••25 During heavy rain, a section of a mountainside measuring 2.5 km horizontally, 0.80 km up along the slope, and 2.0 m deep slips into a valley in a mud slide. Assume that the mud ends up uniformly distributed over a surface area of the valley measuring 0.40 km $\times$ 0.40 km and that mud has a density of 1900 kg/m^3. What is the mass of the mud sitting above a 4.0 m^2 area of the valley floor?

••26 One cubic centimeter of a typical cumulus cloud contains 50 to 500 water drops, which have a typical radius of 10 μm. For that range, give the lower value and the higher value, respectively, for the following. (a) How many cubic meters of water are in a cylindrical cumulus cloud of height 3.0 km and radius 1.0 km? (b) How many 1-liter pop bottles would that water fill? (c) Water has a density of 1000 kg/m^3. How much mass does the water in the cloud have?

••27 Iron has a density of 7.87 g/cm^3, and the mass of an iron atom is 9.27×10^{-26} kg. If the atoms are spherical and tightly packed, (a) what is the volume of an iron atom and (b) what is the distance between the centers of adjacent atoms?

••28 A mole of atoms is 6.02×10^{23} atoms. To the nearest order of magnitude, how many moles of atoms are in a large domestic cat? The masses of a hydrogen atom, an oxygen atom, and a carbon atom are 1.0 u, 16 u, and 12 u, respectively. (*Hint:* Cats are sometimes known to kill a mole.)

••29 On a spending spree in Malaysia, you buy an ox with a weight of 28.9 piculs in the local unit of weights: 1 picul = 100 gins, 1 gin = 16 tahils, 1 tahil = 10 chees, and 1 chee = 10 hoons. The weight of 1 hoon corresponds to a mass of 0.3779 g. When you arrange to ship the ox home to your astonished family, how much mass in kilograms must you declare on the shipping manifest? (*Hint:* Set up multiple chain-link conversions.)

••30 GO Water is poured into a container that has a small leak. The mass m of the water is given as a function of time t by $m = 5.00t^{0.8} - 3.00t + 20.00$, with $t \geq 0$, m in grams, and t in seconds. (a) At what time is the water mass greatest, and (b) what is that greatest mass? In kilograms per minute, what is the rate of mass change at (c) $t = 2.00$ s and (d) $t = 5.00$ s?

•••31 A vertical container with base area measuring 14.0 cm by 17.0 cm is being filled with identical pieces of candy, each with a volume of 50.0 mm^3 and a mass of 0.0200 g. Assume that the volume of the empty spaces between the candies is negligible. If the height of the candies in the container increases at the rate of 0.250 cm/s, at what rate (kilograms per minute) does the mass of the candies in the container increase?

Additional Problems

32 In the United States, a doll house has the scale of 1:12 of a real house (that is, each length of the doll house is $\frac{1}{12}$ that of the real house) and a miniature house (a doll house to fit within a doll house) has the scale of 1:144 of a real house. Suppose a real house (Fig. 1-7) has a front length of 20 m, a depth of 12 m, a height of 6.0 m, and a standard sloped roof (vertical triangular faces on the ends) of height 3.0 m. In cubic meters, what are the volumes of the corresponding (a) doll house and (b) miniature house?

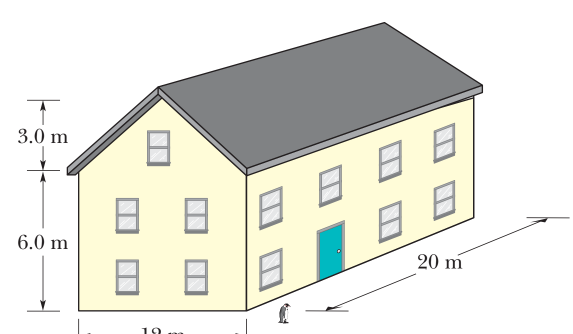


Figure 1-7 Problem 32.

33 SSM A ton is a measure of volume frequently used in shipping, but that use requires some care because there are at least three types of tons: A *displacement ton* is equal to 7 barrels bulk, a *freight ton* is equal to 8 barrels bulk, and a *register ton* is equal to 20 barrels bulk. A *barrel bulk* is another measure of volume: 1 barrel bulk = 0.1415 m^3. Suppose you spot a shipping order for "73 tons" of M&M candies, and you are certain that the client who sent the order intended "ton" to refer to volume (instead of weight or mass, as discussed in Chapter 5). If the client actually meant displacement tons, how many extra U.S. bushels of the candies will you erroneously ship if you interpret the order as (a) 73 freight tons and (b) 73 register tons? (1 m^3 = 28.378 U.S. bushels.)

34 Two types of *barrel* units were in use in the 1920s in the United States. The apple barrel had a legally set volume of 7056 cubic inches; the cranberry barrel, 5826 cubic inches. If a merchant sells 20 cranberry barrels of goods to a customer who thinks he is receiving apple barrels, what is the discrepancy in the shipment volume in liters?

35 An old English children's rhyme states, "Little Miss Muffet sat on a tuffet, eating her curds and whey, when along came a spider who sat down beside her. . . ." The spider sat down not because of the curds and whey but because Miss Muffet had a stash of 11 tuffets of dried flies. The volume measure of a tuffet is given by 1 tuffet = 2 pecks = 0.50 Imperial bushel, where 1 Imperial bushel = 36.3687 liters (L). What was Miss Muffet's stash in (a) pecks, (b) Imperial bushels, and (c) liters?

36 Table 1-7 shows some old measures of liquid volume. To complete the table, what numbers (to three significant figures) should be entered in (a) the wey column, (b) the chaldron column, (c) the bag column, (d) the pottle column, and (e) the gill column, starting from the top down? (f) The volume of 1 bag is equal to 0.1091 m^3. If an old story has a witch cooking up some vile liquid in a cauldron of volume 1.5 chaldrons, what is the volume in cubic meters?

Table 1-7 Problem 36

	wey	chaldron	bag	pottle	gill
1 wey =	1	10/9	40/3	640	120 240
1 chaldron =					
1 bag =					
1 pottle =					
1 gill =					

37 A typical sugar cube has an edge length of 1 cm. If you had a cubical box that contained a mole of sugar cubes, what would its edge length be? (One mole = 6.02×10^{23} units.)

38 An old manuscript reveals that a landowner in the time of King Arthur held 3.00 acres of plowed land plus a livestock area of 25.0 perches by 4.00 perches. What was the total area in (a) the old unit of roods and (b) the more modern unit of square meters? Here, 1 acre is an area of 40 perches by 4 perches, 1 rood is an area of 40 perches by 1 perch, and 1 perch is the length 16.5 ft.

39 SSM A tourist purchases a car in England and ships it home to the United States. The car sticker advertised that the car's fuel consumption was at the rate of 40 miles per gallon on the open road. The tourist does not realize that the U.K. gallon differs from the U.S. gallon:

$$1 \text{ U.K. gallon} = 4.546\,090\,0 \text{ liters}$$
$$1 \text{ U.S. gallon} = 3.785\,411\,8 \text{ liters.}$$

For a trip of 750 miles (in the United States), how many gallons of fuel does (a) the mistaken tourist believe she needs and (b) the car actually require?

40 Using conversions and data in the chapter, determine the number of hydrogen atoms required to obtain 1.0 kg of hydrogen. A hydrogen atom has a mass of 1.0 u.

41 SSM A *cord* is a volume of cut wood equal to a stack 8 ft long, 4 ft wide, and 4 ft high. How many cords are in 1.0 m^3?

42 One molecule of water (H_2O) contains two atoms of hydrogen and one atom of oxygen. A hydrogen atom has a mass of 1.0 u and an atom of oxygen has a mass of 16 u, approximately. (a) What is the mass in kilograms of one molecule of water? (b) How many molecules of water are in the world's oceans, which have an estimated total mass of 1.4×10^{21} kg?

43 A person on a diet might lose 2.3 kg per week. Express the mass loss rate in milligrams per second, as if the dieter could sense the second-by-second loss.

44 What mass of water fell on the town in Problem 7? Water has a density of 1.0×10^3 kg/m^3.

45 (a) A unit of time sometimes used in microscopic physics is the *shake.* One shake equals 10^{-8} s. Are there more shakes in a second than there are seconds in a year? (b) Humans have existed for about 10^6 years, whereas the universe is about 10^{10} years old. If the age of the universe is defined as 1 "universe day," where a universe day consists of "universe seconds" as a normal day consists of normal seconds, how many universe seconds have humans existed?

46 A unit of area often used in measuring land areas is the *hectare,* defined as 10^4 m^2. An open-pit coal mine consumes 75 hectares of land, down to a depth of 26 m, each year. What volume of earth, in cubic kilometers, is removed in this time?

47 SSM An astronomical unit (AU) is the average distance between Earth and the Sun, approximately 1.50×10^8 km. The speed of light is about 3.0×10^8 m/s. Express the speed of light in astronomical units per minute.

48 The common Eastern mole, a mammal, typically has a mass of 75 g, which corresponds to about 7.5 moles of atoms. (A mole of atoms is 6.02×10^{23} atoms.) In atomic mass units (u), what is the average mass of the atoms in the common Eastern mole?

49 A traditional unit of length in Japan is the ken (1 ken = 1.97 m). What are the ratios of (a) square kens to square meters and (b) cubic kens to cubic meters? What is the volume of a cylindrical water tank of height 5.50 kens and radius 3.00 kens in (c) cubic kens and (d) cubic meters?

50 You receive orders to sail due east for 24.5 mi to put your salvage ship directly over a sunken pirate ship. However, when your divers probe the ocean floor at that location and find no evidence of a ship, you radio back to your source of information, only to discover that the sailing distance was supposed to be 24.5 *nautical miles,* not regular miles. Use the Length table in Appendix D to calculate how far horizontally you are from the pirate ship in kilometers.

51 The cubit is an ancient unit of length based on the distance between the elbow and the tip of the middle finger of the measurer. Assume that the distance ranged from 43 to 53 cm, and suppose that ancient drawings indicate that a cylindrical pillar was to have a length of 9 cubits and a diameter of 2 cubits. For the stated range, what are the lower value and the upper value, respectively, for (a) the cylinder's length in meters, (b) the cylinder's length in millimeters, and (c) the cylinder's volume in cubic meters?

52 As a contrast between the old and the modern and between the large and the small, consider the following: In old rural England 1 hide (between 100 and 120 acres) was the area of land needed to sustain one family with a single plough for one year. (An area of 1 acre is equal to 4047 m^2.) Also, 1 wapentake was the area of land needed by 100 such families. In quantum physics, the cross-sectional area of a nucleus (defined in terms of the chance of a particle hitting and being absorbed by it) is measured in units of barns, where 1 barn is 1×10^{-28} m^2. (In nuclear physics jargon, if a nucleus is "large," then shooting a particle at it is like shooting a bullet at a barn door, which can hardly be missed.) What is the ratio of 25 wapentakes to 11 barns?

53 SSM An *astronomical unit* (AU) is equal to the average distance from Earth to the Sun, about 92.9×10^6 mi. A *parsec* (pc) is the distance at which a length of 1 AU would subtend an angle of exactly 1 second of arc (Fig. 1-8). A *light-year* (ly) is the distance that light, traveling through a vacuum with a speed of 186 000 mi/s, would cover in 1.0 year. Express the Earth–Sun distance in (a) parsecs and (b) light-years.

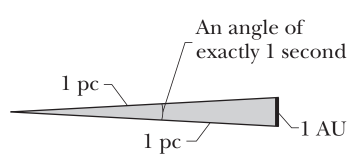


Figure 1-8 Problem 53.

54 The description for a certain brand of house paint claims a coverage of 460 ft^2/gal. (a) Express this quantity in square meters per liter. (b) Express this quantity in an SI unit (see Appendices A and D). (c) What is the inverse of the original quantity, and (d) what is its physical significance?

55 Strangely, the wine for a large wedding reception is to be served in a stunning cut-glass receptacle with the interior dimensions of 40 cm × 40 cm × 30 cm (height). The receptacle is to be initially filled to the top. The wine can be purchased in bottles of the sizes given in the following table. Purchasing a larger bottle instead of multiple smaller bottles decreases the overall cost of the wine. To minimize the cost, (a) which bottle sizes should be purchased and how many of each should be purchased and, once the receptacle is filled, how much wine is left over in terms of (b) standard bottles and (c) liters?

1 standard bottle

1 magnum = 2 standard bottles

1 jeroboam = 4 standard bottles

1 rehoboam = 6 standard bottles

1 methuselah = 8 standard bottles

1 salmanazar = 12 standard bottles

1 balthazar = 16 standard bottles = 11.356 L

1 nebuchadnezzar = 20 standard bottles

56 The *corn–hog ratio* is a financial term used in the pig market and presumably is related to the cost of feeding a pig until it is large enough for market. It is defined as the ratio of the market price of a pig with a mass of 3.108 slugs to the market price of a U.S. bushel of corn. (The word "slug" is derived from an old German word that means "to hit"; we have the same meaning for "slug" as a verb in modern English.) A U.S. bushel is equal to 35.238 L. If the corn–hog ratio is listed as 5.7 on the market exchange, what is it in the metric units of

$$\frac{\text{price of 1 kilogram of pig}}{\text{price of 1 liter of corn}}?$$

(*Hint:* See the Mass table in Appendix D.)

57 You are to fix dinners for 400 people at a convention of Mexican food fans. Your recipe calls for 2 jalapeño peppers per serving (one serving per person). However, you have only habanero peppers on hand. The spiciness of peppers is measured in terms of the *scoville heat unit* (SHU). On average, one jalapeño pepper has a spiciness of 4000 SHU and one habanero pepper has a spiciness of 300 000 SHU. To get the desired spiciness, how many habanero peppers should you substitute for the jalapeño peppers in the recipe for the 400 dinners?

58 A standard interior staircase has steps each with a rise (height) of 19 cm and a run (horizontal depth) of 23 cm. Research suggests that the stairs would be safer for descent if the run were, instead, 28 cm. For a particular staircase of total height 4.57 m, how much farther into the room would the staircase extend if this change in run were made?

59 In purchasing food for a political rally, you erroneously order shucked medium-size Pacific oysters (which come 8 to 12 per U.S. pint) instead of shucked medium-size Atlantic oysters (which come 26 to 38 per U.S. pint). The filled oyster container shipped to you has the interior measure of 1.0 m × 12 cm × 20 cm, and a U.S. pint is equivalent to 0.4732 liter. By how many oysters is the order short of your anticipated count?

60 An old English cookbook carries this recipe for cream of nettle soup: "Boil stock of the following amount: 1 breakfastcup plus 1 teacup plus 6 tablespoons plus 1 dessertspoon. Using gloves, separate nettle tops until you have 0.5 quart; add the tops to the boiling stock. Add 1 tablespoon of cooked rice and 1 saltspoon of salt. Simmer for 15 min." The following table gives some of the conversions among old (premetric) British measures and among common (still premetric) U.S. measures. (These measures just scream for metrication.) For liquid measures, 1 British teaspoon = 1 U.S. teaspoon. For dry measures, 1 British teaspoon = 2 U.S. teaspoons and 1 British quart = 1 U.S. quart. In U.S. measures, how much (a) stock, (b) nettle tops, (c) rice, and (d) salt are required in the recipe?

Old British Measures	U.S. Measures
teaspoon = 2 saltspoons	tablespoon = 3 teaspoons
dessertspoon = 2 teaspoons	half cup = 8 tablespoons
tablespoon = 2 dessertspoons	cup = 2 half cups
teacup = 8 tablespoons	
breakfastcup = 2 teacups	

CHAPTER 2

Motion Along a Straight Line

2-1 POSITION, DISPLACEMENT, AND AVERAGE VELOCITY

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

2.01 Identify that if all parts of an object move in the same direction and at the same rate, we can treat the object as if it were a (point-like) particle. (This chapter is about the motion of such objects.)

2.02 Identify that the position of a particle is its location as read on a scaled axis, such as an x axis.

2.03 Apply the relationship between a particle's displacement and its initial and final positions.

2.04 Apply the relationship between a particle's average velocity, its displacement, and the time interval for that displacement.

2.05 Apply the relationship between a particle's average speed, the total distance it moves, and the time interval for the motion.

2.06 Given a graph of a particle's position versus time, determine the average velocity between any two particular times.

Key Ideas

- The position x of a particle on an x axis locates the particle with respect to the origin, or zero point, of the axis.
- The position is either positive or negative, according to which side of the origin the particle is on, or zero if the particle is at the origin. The positive direction on an axis is the direction of increasing positive numbers; the opposite direction is the negative direction on the axis.
- The displacement Δx of a particle is the change in its position:

$$\Delta x = x_2 - x_1.$$

- Displacement is a vector quantity. It is positive if the particle has moved in the positive direction of the x axis and negative if the particle has moved in the negative direction.
- When a particle has moved from position x_1 to position x_2 during a time interval $\Delta t = t_2 - t_1$, its average velocity during that interval is

$$v_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{x_2 - x_1}{t_2 - t_1}.$$

- The algebraic sign of v_{avg} indicates the direction of motion (v_{avg} is a vector quantity). Average velocity does not depend on the actual distance a particle moves, but instead depends on its original and final positions.
- On a graph of x versus t, the average velocity for a time interval Δt is the slope of the straight line connecting the points on the curve that represent the two ends of the interval.
- The average speed s_{avg} of a particle during a time interval Δt depends on the total distance the particle moves in that time interval:

$$s_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\text{total distance}}{\Delta t}.$$

What Is Physics?

One purpose of physics is to study the motion of objects—how fast they move, for example, and how far they move in a given amount of time. NASCAR engineers are fanatical about this aspect of physics as they determine the performance of their cars before and during a race. Geologists use this physics to measure tectonic-plate motion as they attempt to predict earthquakes. Medical researchers need this physics to map the blood flow through a patient when diagnosing a partially closed artery, and motorists use it to determine how they might slow sufficiently when their radar detector sounds a warning. There are countless other examples. In this chapter, we study the basic physics of motion where the object (race car, tectonic plate, blood cell, or any other object) moves along a single axis. Such motion is called *one-dimensional motion.*

CHAPTER 42

Nuclear Physics

42-1 DISCOVERING THE NUCLEUS

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

42.01 Explain the general arrangement for Rutherford scattering and what was learned from it.

42.02 In a Rutherford scattering arrangement, apply the relationship between the projectile's initial kinetic energy and the distance of its closest approach to the target nucleus.

Key Ideas

- The positive charge of an atom is concentrated in the central nucleus rather than being spread through the volume of the atom. This structure was proposed in 1910 by Ernest Rutherford of England after he conducted experiments with what we now call Rutherford scattering. Alpha particles (positively charged particles consisting of two protons and two neutrons) are directed through a thin metal foil to be scattered by the (positive) nuclei within the atoms.
- The total energy (kinetic energy plus electric potential energy) of the system of alpha particle and target nucleus is conserved as the alpha particle approaches the nucleus.

What Is Physics?

We now turn to what lies at the center of an atom—the nucleus. For the last 90 years, a principal goal of physics has been to work out the quantum physics of nuclei, and, for almost as long, a principal goal of some types of engineering has been to apply that quantum physics with applications ranging from radiation therapy in the war on cancer to detectors of radon gas in basements.

Before we get to such applications and the quantum physics of nuclei, let's first discuss how physicists discovered that an atom has a nucleus. As obvious as that fact is today, it initially came as an incredible surprise.

Discovering the Nucleus

In the first years of the 20th century, not much was known about the structure of atoms beyond the fact that they contain electrons. The electron had been discovered (by J. J. Thomson) in 1897, and its mass was unknown in those early days. Thus, it was not possible even to say how many negatively charged electrons a given atom contained. Scientists reasoned that because atoms were electrically neutral, they must also contain some positive charge, but nobody knew what form this compensating positive charge took. One popular model was that the positive and negative charges were spread uniformly in a sphere.

In 1911 Ernest Rutherford proposed that the positive charge of the atom is densely concentrated at the center of the atom, forming its **nucleus,** and that, furthermore, the nucleus is responsible for most of the mass of the atom. Rutherford's proposal was no mere conjecture but was based firmly on the results of an experiment suggested by him and carried out by his collaborators, Hans Geiger (of Geiger counter fame) and Ernest Marsden, a 20-year-old student who had not yet earned his bachelor's degree.

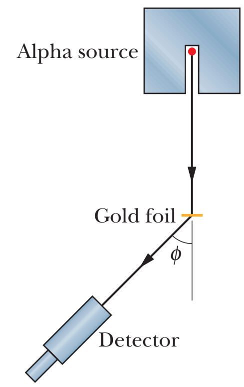


Figure 42-1 An arrangement (top view) used in Rutherford's laboratory in 1911–1913 to study the scattering of α particles by thin metal foils. The detector can be rotated to various values of the scattering angle ϕ. The alpha source was radon gas, a decay product of radium. With this simple "tabletop" apparatus, the atomic nucleus was discovered.

In Rutherford's day it was known that certain elements, called **radioactive,** transform into other elements spontaneously, emitting particles in the process. One such element is radon, which emits alpha (α) particles that have an energy of about 5.5 MeV. We now know that these particles are helium nuclei.

Rutherford's idea was to direct energetic alpha particles at a thin target foil and measure the extent to which they were deflected as they passed through the foil. Alpha particles, which are about 7300 times more massive than electrons, have a charge of $+2e$.

Figure 42-1 shows the experimental arrangement of Geiger and Marsden. Their alpha source was a thin-walled glass tube of radon gas. The experiment involves counting the number of alpha particles that are deflected through various scattering angles ϕ.

Figure 42-2 shows their results. Note especially that the vertical scale is logarithmic. We see that most of the particles are scattered through rather small angles, but—and this was the big surprise—a very small fraction of them are scattered through very large angles, approaching 180°. In Rutherford's words: "It was quite the most incredible event that ever happened to me in my life. It was almost as incredible as if you had fired a 15-inch shell at a piece of tissue paper and it [the shell] came back and hit you."

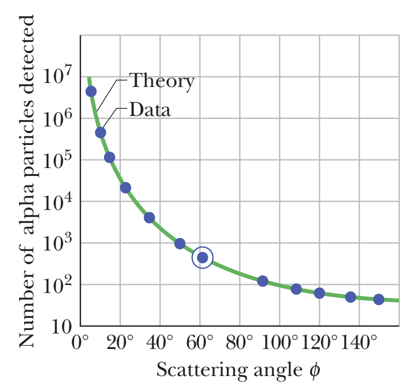


Figure 42-2 The dots are alpha-particle scattering data for a gold foil, obtained by Geiger and Marsden using the apparatus of Fig. 42-1. The solid curve is the theoretical prediction, based on the assumption that the atom has a small, massive, positively charged nucleus. The data have been adjusted to fit the theoretical curve at the experimental point that is enclosed in a circle.

Why was Rutherford so surprised? At the time of these experiments, most physicists believed in the so-called plum pudding model of the atom, which had been advanced by J. J. Thomson. In this view the positive charge of the atom was thought to be spread out through the entire volume of the atom. The electrons (the "plums") were thought to vibrate about fixed points within this sphere of positive charge (the "pudding").

The maximum deflecting force that could act on an alpha particle as it passed through such a large positive sphere of charge would be far too small to deflect the alpha particle by even as much as 1°. (The expected deflection has been compared to what you would observe if you fired a bullet through a sack of snowballs.) The electrons in the atom would also have very little effect on the massive, energetic alpha particle. They would, in fact, be themselves strongly deflected, much as a swarm of gnats would be brushed aside by a stone thrown through them.

Rutherford saw that, to deflect the alpha particle backward, there must be a large force; this force could be provided if the positive charge, instead of being spread throughout the atom, were concentrated tightly at its center. Then the incoming alpha particle could get very close to the positive charge without penetrating it; such a close encounter would result in a large deflecting force.

Figure 42-3 shows possible paths taken by typical alpha particles as they pass through the atoms of the target foil. As we see, most are either undeflected or only slightly deflected, but a few (those whose incoming paths pass, by chance, very close to a nucleus) are deflected through large angles. From an analysis of the data, Rutherford concluded that the radius of the nucleus must be smaller than the radius of an atom by a factor of about 10^4. In other words, the atom is mostly empty space.

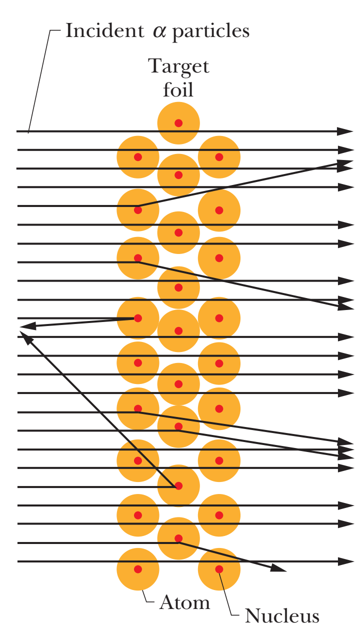


Figure 42-3 The angle through which an incident alpha particle is scattered depends on how close the particle's path lies to an atomic nucleus. Large deflections result only from very close encounters.

Sample Problem 42.01 Rutherford scattering of an alpha particle by a gold nucleus

An alpha particle with kinetic energy K_i = 5.30 MeV happens, by chance, to be headed directly toward the nucleus of a neutral gold atom (Fig. 42-4*a*). What is its *distance of closest approach d* (least center-to-center separation) to the nucleus? Assume that the atom remains stationary.

KEY IDEAS

(1) Throughout the motion, the total mechanical energy E of the particle–atom system is conserved. (2) In addition to the kinetic energy, that total energy includes electric potential energy U as given by Eq. 24-46 ($U = q_1q_2/4\pi\varepsilon_0 r$).

Calculations: The alpha particle has a charge of $+2e$ because it contains two protons. The target nucleus has a charge of $q_{\text{Au}} = +79e$ because it contains 79 protons. However, that nuclear charge is surrounded by an electron "cloud" with a charge of $q_e = -79e$, and thus the alpha particle initially "sees" a neutral atom with a net charge of $q_{\text{atom}} = 0$. The electric force on the particle is zero and the initial electric potential energy of the particle–atom system is $U_i = 0$.

Once the alpha particle enters the atom, we say that it passes through the electron cloud surrounding the nucleus. That cloud then acts as a closed conducting spherical shell and, by Gauss' law, has no effect on the (now internal) charged alpha particle. Then the alpha particle "sees" only the nuclear charge q_{Au}. Because q_α and q_{Au} are both positively charged, a repulsive electric force acts on the alpha particle, slowing it, and the particle–atom system has a potential energy

$$U = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0}\frac{q_\alpha q_{\text{Au}}}{r}$$

that depends on the center-to-center separation r of the incoming particle and the target nucleus (Fig. 42-4*b*).

As the repulsive force slows the alpha particle, energy is transferred from kinetic energy to electric potential energy. The transfer is complete when the alpha particle momentarily stops at the distance of closest approach d to the target nucleus (Fig. 42-4*c*). Just then the kinetic energy is $K_f = 0$ and the particle–atom system has the electric potential energy

$$U_f = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0}\frac{q_\alpha q_{\text{Au}}}{d}.$$

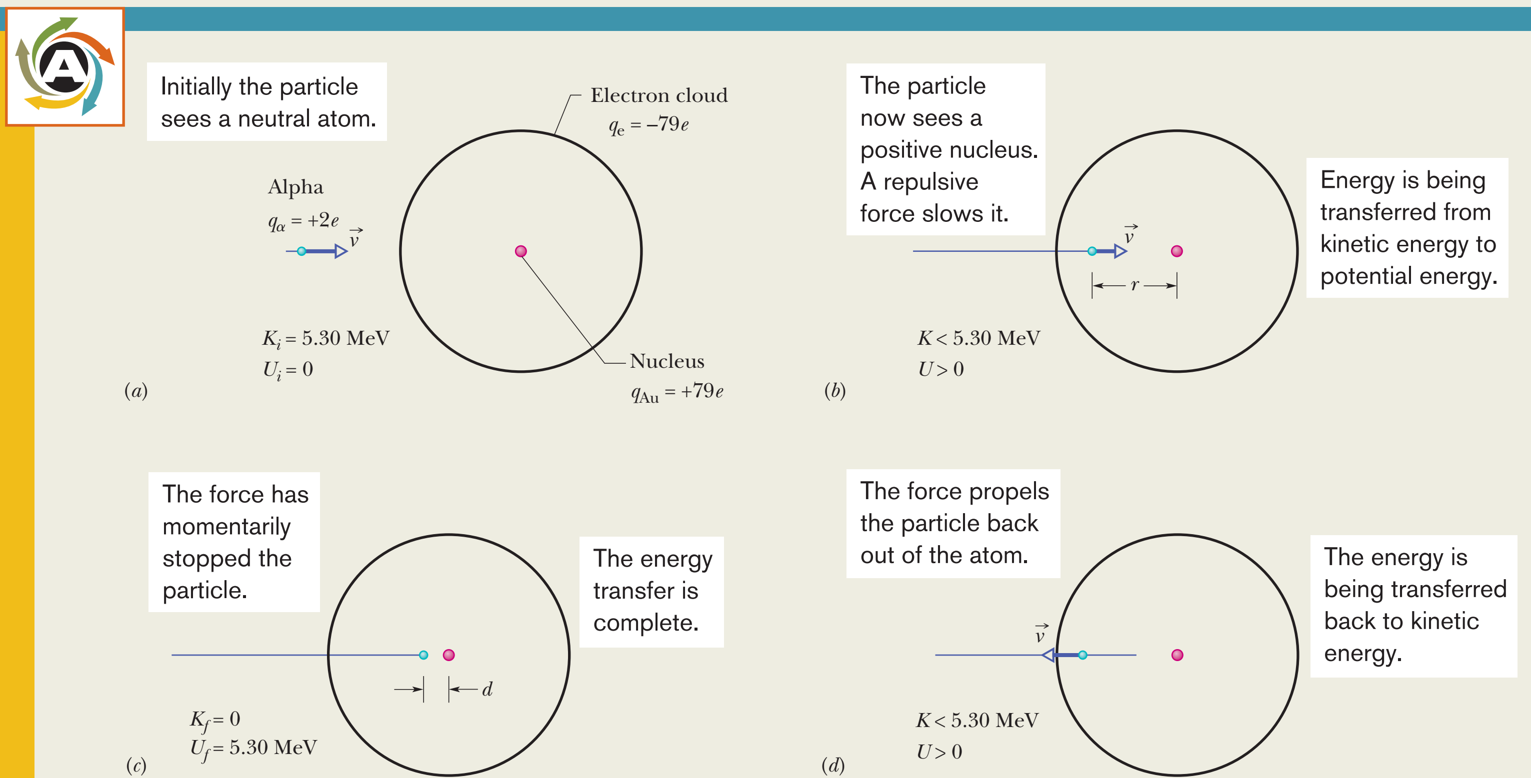


Figure 42-4 An alpha particle (*a*) approaches and (*b*) then enters a gold atom, headed toward the nucleus. The alpha particle (*c*) comes to a stop at the point of closest approach and (*d*) is propelled back out of the atom.

To find d, we conserve the total mechanical energy between the initial state i and this later state f, writing

$$K_i + U_i = K_f + U_f$$

and
$$K_i + 0 = 0 + \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0}\frac{q_\alpha q_{\text{Au}}}{d}.$$

(We are assuming that the alpha particle is not affected by the force holding the nucleus together, which acts over only a short distance.) Solving for d and then substituting for the charges and initial kinetic energy lead to

$$d = \frac{(2e)(79e)}{4\pi\varepsilon_0 K_\alpha}$$
$$= \frac{(2 \times 79)(1.60 \times 10^{-19}\ \text{C})^2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0(5.30\ \text{MeV})(1.60 \times 10^{-13}\ \text{J/MeV})}$$
$$= 4.29 \times 10^{-14}\ \text{m}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

This distance is considerably larger than the sum of the radii of the gold nucleus and the alpha particle. Thus, this alpha particle reverses its motion (Fig. 42-4d) without ever actually "touching" the gold nucleus.

42-2 SOME NUCLEAR PROPERTIES

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

42.03 Identify nuclides, atomic number (or proton number), neutron number, mass number, nucleon, isotope, disintegration, neutron excess, isobar, zone of stable nuclei, and island of stability, and explain the symbols used for nuclei (such as ^{197}Au).

42.04 Sketch a graph of proton number versus neutron number and identify the approximate location of the stable nuclei, the proton-rich nuclei, and the neutron-rich nuclei.

42.05 For spherical nuclei, apply the relationship between radius and mass number and calculate the nuclear density.

42.06 Work with masses in atomic mass units, relate the mass number and the approximate nuclear mass, and convert between mass units and energy.

42.07 Calculate mass excess.

42.08 For a given nucleus, calculate the binding energy ΔE_{be} and the binding energy per nucleon ΔE_{ben}, and explain the meaning of each term.

42.09 Sketch a graph of the binding energy per nucleon versus mass number, indicating the nuclei that are the most tightly bound, those that can undergo fission with a release of energy, and those that can undergo fusion with a release of energy.

42.10 Identify the force that holds nucleons together.

Key Ideas

- Different types of nuclei are called nuclides. Each is characterized by an atomic number Z (the number of protons), a neutron number N, and a mass number A (the total number of nucleons—protons and neutrons). Thus, $A = Z + N$. A nuclide is represented with a symbol such as ^{197}Au or $^{197}_{79}$Au, where the chemical symbol carries a superscript with the value of A and (possibly) a subscript with the value of Z.
- Nuclides with the same atomic number but different neutron numbers are isotopes of one another.
- Nuclei have a mean radius r given by
$$r = r_0 A^{1/3}$$
where $r_0 \approx 1.2$ fm.
- Atomic masses are often reported in terms of mass excess
$$\Delta = M - A,$$
where M is the actual mass of an atom in atomic mass units and A is the mass number for that atom's nucleus.
- The binding energy of a nucleus is the difference
$$\Delta E_{\text{be}} = \Sigma(mc^2) - Mc^2,$$
where $\Sigma(mc^2)$ is the total mass energy of the individual protons and neutrons. The binding energy of a nucleus is the amount of energy needed to break the nucleus into its constituent parts (and is *not* an energy that resides in the nucleus).
- The binding energy per nucleon is
$$\Delta E_{\text{ben}} = \frac{\Delta E_{\text{be}}}{A}.$$
- The energy equivalent of one mass unit (u) is 931.494 013 MeV.
- A plot of the binding energy per nucleon ΔE_{ben} versus mass number A shows that middle-mass nuclides are the most stable and that energy can be released both by fission of high-mass nuclei and by fusion of low-mass nuclei.

Some Nuclear Properties

Table 42-1 shows some properties of a few atomic nuclei. When we are interested primarily in their properties as specific nuclear species (rather than as parts of atoms), we call these particles **nuclides.**

Some Nuclear Terminology

Nuclei are made up of protons and neutrons. The number of protons in a nucleus (called the **atomic number** or **proton number** of the nucleus) is represented by the symbol Z; the number of neutrons (the **neutron number**) is represented by the symbol N. The total number of neutrons and protons in a nucleus is called its **mass number** A; thus

$$A = Z + N. \tag{42-1}$$

Neutrons and protons, when considered collectively as members of a nucleus, are called **nucleons.**

We represent nuclides with symbols such as those displayed in the first column of Table 42-1. Consider ^{197}Au, for example. The superscript 197 is the mass number A. The chemical symbol Au tells us that this element is gold, whose atomic number is 79. Sometimes the atomic number is explicitly shown as a subscript, as in $^{197}_{79}$Au. From Eq. 42-1, the neutron number of this nuclide is the difference between the mass number and the atomic number, namely, $197 - 79$, or 118.

Nuclides with the same atomic number Z but different neutron numbers N are called **isotopes** of one another. The element gold has 36 isotopes, ranging from ^{173}Au to ^{204}Au. Only one of them (^{197}Au) is stable; the remaining 35 are radioactive. Such **radionuclides** undergo **decay** (or **disintegration**) by emitting a particle and thereby transforming to a different nuclide.

Organizing the Nuclides

The neutral atoms of all isotopes of an element (all with the same Z) have the same number of electrons and the same chemical properties, and they fit into the same box in the periodic table of the elements. The *nuclear* properties of the isotopes of a given element, however, are very different from one isotope to another. Thus, the periodic table is of limited use to the nuclear physicist, the nuclear chemist, or the nuclear engineer.

Table 42-1 Some Properties of Selected Nuclides

Nuclide	Z	N	A	Stability[a]	Mass[b] (u)	Spin[c]	Binding Energy (MeV/nucleon)
^{1}H	1	0	1	99.985%	1.007 825	$\frac{1}{2}$	—
^{7}Li	3	4	7	92.5%	7.016 004	$\frac{3}{2}$	5.60
^{31}P	15	16	31	100%	30.973 762	$\frac{1}{2}$	8.48
^{84}Kr	36	48	84	57.0%	83.911 507	0	8.72
^{120}Sn	50	70	120	32.4%	119.902 197	0	8.51
^{157}Gd	64	93	157	15.7%	156.923 957	$\frac{3}{2}$	8.21
^{197}Au	79	118	197	100%	196.966 552	$\frac{3}{2}$	7.91
^{227}Ac	89	138	227	21.8 y	227.027 747	$\frac{3}{2}$	7.65
^{239}Pu	94	145	239	24 100 y	239.052 157	$\frac{1}{2}$	7.56

[a]For stable nuclides, the **isotopic abundance** is given; this is the fraction of atoms of this type found in a typical sample of the element. For radioactive nuclides, the half-life is given.

[b]Following standard practice, the reported mass is that of the neutral atom, not that of the bare nucleus.

[c]Spin angular momentum in units of $\hbar$.

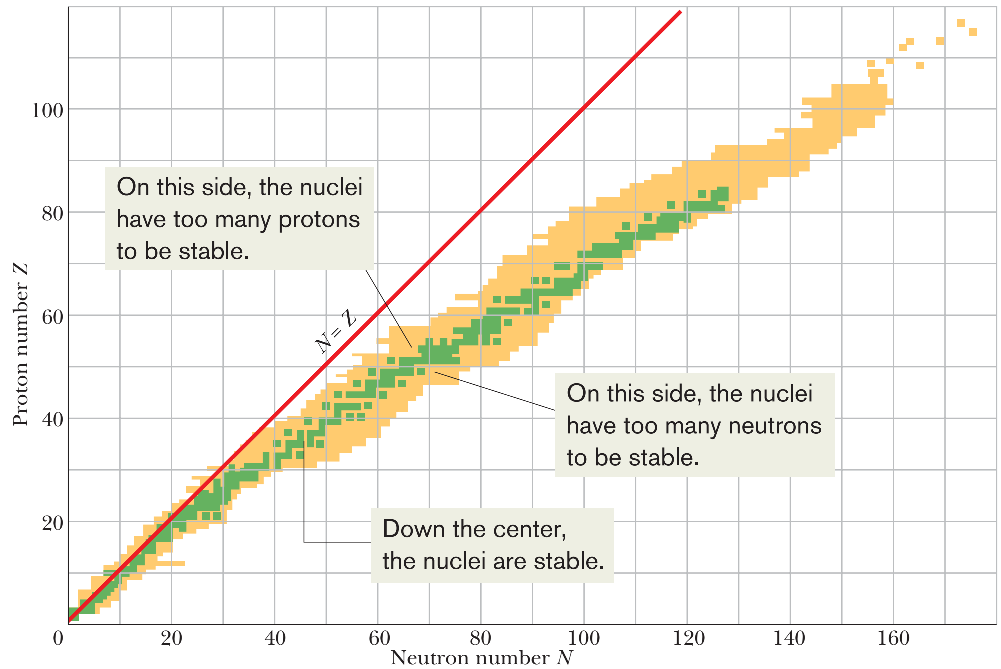


Figure 42-5 A plot of the known nuclides. The green shading identifies the band of stable nuclides, the beige shading the radionuclides. Low-mass, stable nuclides have essentially equal numbers of neutrons and protons, but more massive nuclides have an increasing excess of neutrons. The figure shows that there are no stable nuclides with $Z > 83$ (bismuth).

We organize the nuclides on a **nuclidic chart** like that in Fig. 42-5, in which a nuclide is represented by plotting its proton number against its neutron number. The stable nuclides in this figure are represented by the green, the radionuclides by the beige. As you can see, the radionuclides tend to lie on either side of—and at the upper end of—a well-defined band of stable nuclides. Note too that light stable nuclides tend to lie close to the line $N = Z$, which means that they have about the same numbers of neutrons and protons. Heavier nuclides, however, tend to have many more neutrons than protons. As an example, we saw that ^{197}Au has 118 neutrons and only 79 protons, a *neutron excess* of 39.

Nuclidic charts are available as wall charts, in which each small box on the chart is filled with data about the nuclide it represents. Figure 42-6 shows a section of such a chart, centered on ^{197}Au. Relative abundances (usually, as found on Earth) are shown for stable nuclides, and half-lives (a measure of decay rate) are shown for radionuclides. The sloping line points out a line of **isobars**—nuclides of the same mass number, $A = 198$ in this case.

In recent years, nuclides with atomic numbers as high as $Z = 118$ ($A = 294$) have been found in laboratory experiments (no elements with Z greater than 92 occur naturally). Although large nuclides generally should be highly unstable and last only a very brief time, certain supermassive nuclides are relatively stable, with fairly long lifetimes. These stable supermassive nuclides and other predicted ones form an *island of stability* at high values of Z and N on a nuclidic chart like Fig. 42-5.

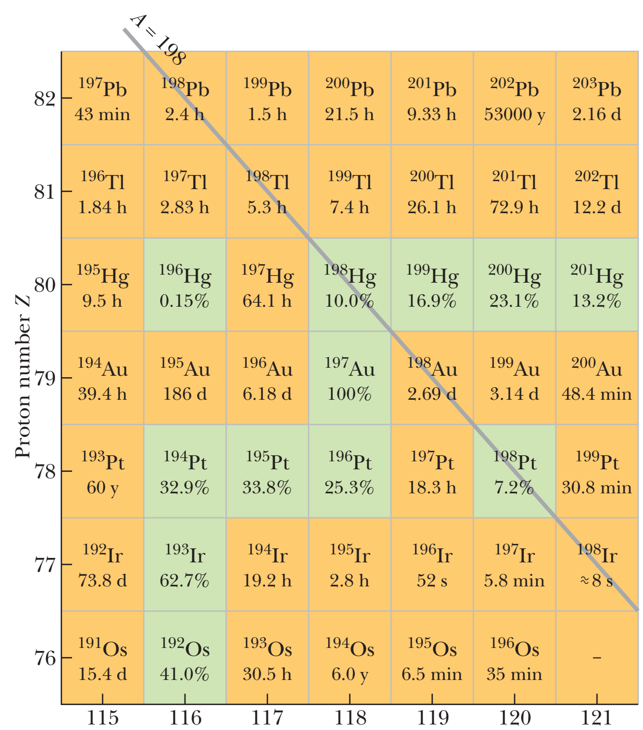


Figure 42-6 An enlarged and detailed section of the nuclidic chart of Fig. 42-5, centered on ^{197}Au. Green squares represent stable nuclides, for which relative isotopic abundances are given. Beige squares represent radionuclides, for which half-lives are given. Isobaric lines of constant mass number A slope as shown by the example line for $A = 198$.

Checkpoint 1

Based on Fig. 42-5, which of the following nuclides do you conclude are not likely to be detected: ^{52}Fe ($Z = 26$), ^{90}As ($Z = 33$), ^{158}Nd ($Z = 60$), ^{175}Lu ($Z = 71$), ^{208}Pb ($Z = 82$)?

Nuclear Radii

A convenient unit for measuring distances on the scale of nuclei is the *femtometer* ($= 10^{-15}$ m). This unit is often called the *fermi;* the two names share the same abbreviation. Thus,

$$1 \text{ femtometer} = 1 \text{ fermi} = 1 \text{ fm} = 10^{-15} \text{ m}. \tag{42-2}$$

We can learn about the size and structure of nuclei by bombarding them with a beam of high-energy electrons and observing how the nuclei deflect the incident electrons. The electrons must be energetic enough (at least 200 MeV) to have de Broglie wavelengths that are smaller than the nuclear structures they are to probe.

The nucleus, like the atom, is not a solid object with a well-defined surface. Furthermore, although most nuclides are spherical, some are notably ellipsoidal. Nevertheless, electron-scattering experiments (as well as experiments of other kinds) allow us to assign to each nuclide an effective radius given by

$$r = r_0 A^{1/3}, \tag{42-3}$$

in which A is the mass number and $r_0 \approx 1.2$ fm. We see that the volume of a nucleus, which is proportional to r^3, is directly proportional to the mass number A and is independent of the separate values of Z and N. That is, we can treat most nuclei as being a sphere with a volume that depends on the number of nucleons, regardless of their type.

Equation 42-3 does not apply to *halo nuclides,* which are neutron-rich nuclides that were first produced in laboratories in the 1980s. These nuclides are larger than predicted by Eq. 42-3, because some of the neutrons form a *halo* around a spherical core of the protons and the rest of the neutrons. Lithium isotopes give an example. When a neutron is added to ^{8}Li to form ^{9}Li, neither of which are halo nuclides, the effective radius increases by about 4%. However, when two neutrons are added to ^{9}Li to form the neutron-rich isotope ^{11}Li (the largest of the lithium isotopes), they do not join that existing nucleus but instead form a halo around it, increasing the effective radius by about 30%. Apparently this halo configuration involves less energy than a core containing all 11 nucleons. (In this chapter we shall generally assume that Eq. 42-3 applies.)

Atomic Masses

Atomic masses are now measured to great precision, but usually nuclear masses are not directly measurable because stripping off all the electrons from an atom is difficult. As we briefly discussed in Module 37-6, atomic masses are often reported in *atomic mass units,* a system in which the atomic mass of neutral ^{12}C is defined to be exactly 12 u.

Precise atomic masses are available in tables on the web and are usually provided in homework problems. However, sometimes we need only an approximation of the mass of either a nucleus alone or a neutral atom. The mass number A of a nuclide gives such an approximate mass in atomic mass units. For example, the approximate mass of both the nucleus and the neutral atom for ^{197}Au is 197 u, which is close to the actual atomic mass of 196.966 552 u.

As we saw in Module 37-6,

$$1 \text{ u} = 1.660\,538\,86 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}. \tag{42-4}$$

We also saw that if the total mass of the participants in a nuclear reaction changes by an amount Δm, there is an energy release or absorption given by Eq. 37-50 ($Q = -\Delta m\, c^2$). As we shall now see, nuclear energies are often reported in multiples of 1 MeV. Thus, a convenient conversion between mass units and energy units is provided by Eq. 37-46:

$$c^2 = 931.494\,013 \text{ MeV/u}. \tag{42-5}$$

Scientists and engineers working with atomic masses often prefer to report the mass of an atom by means of the atom's *mass excess* Δ, defined as

$$\Delta = M - A \qquad \text{(mass excess)}, \tag{42-6}$$

where M is the actual mass of the atom in atomic mass units and A is the mass number for that atom's nucleus.

Nuclear Binding Energies

The mass M of a nucleus is *less* than the total mass Σm of its individual protons and neutrons. That means that the mass energy Mc^2 of a nucleus is *less* than the total mass energy $\Sigma(mc^2)$ of its individual protons and neutrons. The difference between these two energies is called the **binding energy** of the nucleus:

$$\Delta E_{\text{be}} = \Sigma(mc^2) - Mc^2 \qquad \text{(binding energy)}. \tag{42-7}$$

Caution: Binding energy is not an energy that resides in the nucleus. Rather, it is a *difference* in mass energy between a nucleus and its individual nucleons: If we were able to separate a nucleus into its nucleons, we would have to transfer a total energy equal to ΔE_{be} to those particles during the separating process. Although we cannot actually tear apart a nucleus in this way, the nuclear binding energy is still a convenient measure of how well a nucleus is held together, in the sense that it measures how difficult the nucleus would be to take apart.

A better measure is the **binding energy per nucleon** ΔE_{ben}, which is the ratio of the binding energy ΔE_{be} of a nucleus to the number A of nucleons in that nucleus:

$$\Delta E_{\text{ben}} = \frac{\Delta E_{\text{be}}}{A} \qquad \text{(binding energy per nucleon)}. \tag{42-8}$$

We can think of the binding energy per nucleon as the average energy needed to separate a nucleus into its individual nucleons. *A greater binding energy per nucleon means a more tightly bound nucleus.*

Figure 42-7 is a plot of the binding energy per nucleon ΔE_{ben} versus mass number A for a large number of nuclei. Those high on the plot are very tightly

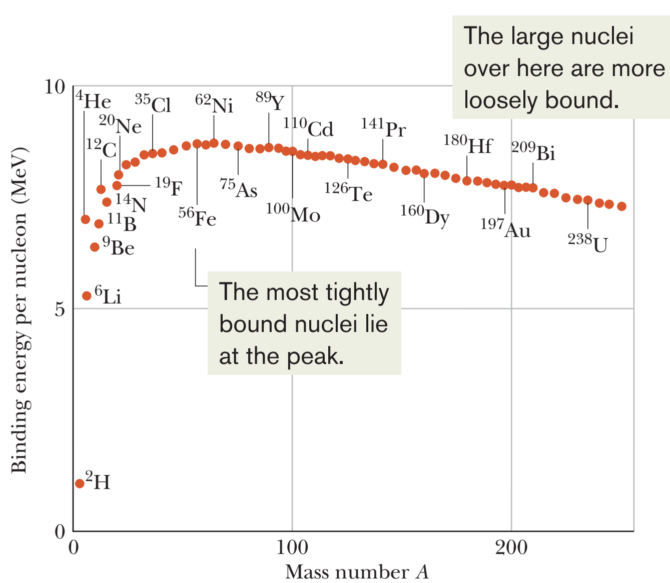


Figure 42-7 The binding energy per nucleon for some representative nuclides. The nickel nuclide ^{62}Ni has the highest binding energy per nucleon (about 8.794 60 MeV/nucleon) of any known stable nuclide. Note that the alpha particle (^{4}He) has a higher binding energy per nucleon than its neighbors in the periodic table and thus is also particularly stable.

bound; that is, we would have to supply a great amount of energy per nucleon to break apart one of those nuclei. The nuclei that are lower on the plot, at the left and right sides, are less tightly bound, and less energy per nucleon would be required to break them apart.

These simple statements about Fig. 42-7 have profound consequences. The nucleons in a nucleus on the right side of the plot would be more tightly bound if that nucleus were to split into two nuclei that lie near the top of the plot. Such a process, called **fission,** occurs naturally with large (high mass number A) nuclei such as uranium, which can undergo fission spontaneously (that is, without an external cause or source of energy). The process can also occur in nuclear weapons, in which many uranium or plutonium nuclei are made to fission all at once, to create an explosion.

The nucleons in any pair of nuclei on the left side of the plot would be more tightly bound if the pair were to combine to form a single nucleus that lies near the top of the plot. Such a process, called **fusion,** occurs naturally in stars. Were this not true, the Sun would not shine and thus life could not exist on Earth. As we shall discuss in the next chapter, fusion is also the basis of thermonuclear weapons (with an explosive release of energy) and anticipated power plants (with a sustained and controlled release of energy).

Nuclear Energy Levels

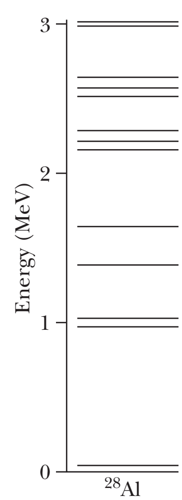


Figure 42-8 Energy levels for the nuclide ^{28}Al, deduced from nuclear reaction experiments.

The energy of nuclei, like that of atoms, is quantized. That is, nuclei can exist only in discrete quantum states, each with a well-defined energy. Figure 42-8 shows some of these energy levels for ^{28}Al, a typical low-mass nuclide. Note that the energy scale is in millions of electron-volts, rather than the electron-volts used for atoms. When a nucleus makes a transition from one level to a level of lower energy, the emitted photon is typically in the gamma-ray region of the electromagnetic spectrum.

Nuclear Spin and Magnetism

Many nuclides have an intrinsic *nuclear angular momentum,* or spin, and an associated intrinsic *nuclear magnetic moment*. Although nuclear angular momenta are roughly of the same magnitude as the angular momenta of atomic electrons, nuclear magnetic moments are much smaller than typical atomic magnetic moments.

The Nuclear Force

The force that controls the motions of atomic electrons is the familiar electromagnetic force. To bind the nucleus together, however, there must be a strong attractive nuclear force of a totally different kind, strong enough to overcome the repulsive force between the (positively charged) nuclear protons and to bind both protons and neutrons into the tiny nuclear volume. The nuclear force must also be of short range because its influence does not extend very far beyond the nuclear "surface."

The present view is that the nuclear force that binds neutrons and protons in the nucleus is not a fundamental force of nature but is a secondary, or "spillover," effect of the **strong force** that binds quarks together to form neutrons and protons. In much the same way, the attractive force between certain neutral molecules is a spillover effect of the Coulomb electric force that acts within each molecule to bind it together.

Sample Problem 42.02 Binding energy per nucleon

What is the binding energy per nucleon for ^{120}Sn?

KEY IDEAS

1. We can find the binding energy per nucleon ΔE_{ben} if we first find the binding energy ΔE_{be} and then divide by the number of nucleons A in the nucleus, according to Eq. 42-8 ($\Delta E_{ben} = \Delta E_{be}/A$).
2. We can find ΔE_{be} by finding the difference between the mass energy Mc^2 of the nucleus and the total mass energy $\Sigma(mc^2)$ of the individual nucleons that make up the nucleus, according to Eq. 42-7 ($\Delta E_{be} = \Sigma(mc^2) - Mc^2$).

Calculations: From Table 42-1, we see that a ^{120}Sn nucleus consists of 50 protons ($Z = 50$) and 70 neutrons ($N = A - Z = 120 - 50 = 70$). Thus, we need to imagine a ^{120}Sn nucleus being separated into its 50 protons and 70 neutrons,

$$(^{120}\text{Sn nucleus}) \longrightarrow 50\begin{pmatrix}\text{separate}\\\text{protons}\end{pmatrix} + 70\begin{pmatrix}\text{separate}\\\text{neutrons}\end{pmatrix}, \tag{42-9}$$

and then compute the resulting change in mass energy.

For that computation, we need the masses of a ^{120}Sn nucleus, a proton, and a neutron. However, because the mass of a neutral atom (nucleus *plus* electrons) is much easier to measure than the mass of a bare nucleus, calculations of binding energies are traditionally done with atomic masses. Thus, let's modify Eq. 42-9 so that it has a neutral ^{120}Sn atom on the left side. To do that, we include 50 electrons on the left side (to match the 50 protons in the ^{120}Sn nucleus). We must also add 50 electrons on the right side to balance Eq. 42-9. Those 50 electrons can be combined with the 50 protons, to form 50 neutral hydrogen atoms. We then have

$$(^{120}\text{Sn atom}) \longrightarrow 50\begin{pmatrix}\text{separate}\\\text{H atoms}\end{pmatrix} + 70\begin{pmatrix}\text{separate}\\\text{neutrons}\end{pmatrix}. \tag{42-10}$$

From the mass column of Table 42-1, the mass M_{Sn} of a ^{120}Sn atom is 119.902 197 u and the mass m_H of a hydrogen atom is 1.007 825 u; the mass m_n of a neutron is 1.008 665 u. Thus, Eq. 42-7 yields

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta E_{be} &= \Sigma(mc^2) - Mc^2\\ &= 50(m_Hc^2) + 70(m_nc^2) - M_{Sn}c^2\\ &= 50(1.007\,825\text{ u})c^2 + 70(1.008\,665\text{ u})c^2\\ &\quad - (119.902\,197\text{ u})c^2\\ &= (1.095\,603\text{ u})c^2\\ &= (1.095\,603\text{ u})(931.494\,013\text{ MeV/u})\\ &= 1020.5\text{ MeV},\end{aligned}$$

where Eq. 42-5 ($c^2 = 931.494\,013$ MeV/u) provides an easy unit conversion. Note that using atomic masses instead of nuclear masses does not affect the result because the mass of the 50 electrons in the ^{120}Sn atom subtracts out from the mass of the electrons in the 50 hydrogen atoms.

Now Eq. 42-8 gives us the binding energy per nucleon as

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta E_{ben} &= \frac{\Delta E_{be}}{A} = \frac{1020.5\text{ MeV}}{120}\\ &= 8.50\text{ MeV/nucleon.} \qquad \text{(Answer)}\end{aligned}$$

Sample Problem 42.03 Density of nuclear matter

We can think of all nuclides as made up of a neutron–proton mixture that we can call *nuclear matter.* What is the density of nuclear matter?

KEY IDEA

We can find the (average) density ρ of a nucleus by dividing its total mass by its volume.

Calculations: Let m represent the mass of a nucleon (either a proton or a neutron, because those particles have about the same mass). Then the mass of a nucleus containing A nucleons is Am. Next, we assume the nucleus is spherical with radius r. Then its volume is $\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$, and we can write the density of the nucleus as

$$\rho = \frac{Am}{\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3}.$$

The radius r is given by Eq. 42-3 ($r = r_0A^{1/3}$), where r_0 is 1.2 fm ($= 1.2 \times 10^{-15}$ m). Substituting for r then leads to

$$\rho = \frac{Am}{\frac{4}{3}\pi r_0^3 A} = \frac{m}{\frac{4}{3}\pi r_0^3}.$$

Note that A has canceled out; thus, this equation for density ρ applies to any nucleus that can be treated as spherical with a radius given by Eq. 42-3. Using 1.67×10^{-27} kg for the mass m of a nucleon, we then have

$$\rho = \frac{1.67 \times 10^{-27}\text{ kg}}{\frac{4}{3}\pi(1.2 \times 10^{-15}\text{ m})^3} \approx 2 \times 10^{17}\text{ kg/m}^3. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

This is about 2×10^{14} times the density of water and is the density of neutron stars, which contain only neutrons.

42-3 RADIOACTIVE DECAY

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

42.11 Explain what is meant by radioactive decay and identify that it is a random process.

42.12 Identify disintegration constant (or decay constant) λ.

42.13 Identify that, at any given instant, the rate dN/dt at which radioactive nuclei decay is proportional to the number N of them still present then.

42.14 Apply the relationship that gives the number N of radioactive nuclei as a function of time.

42.15 Apply the relationship that gives the decay rate R of radioactive nuclei as a function of time.

42.16 For any given time, apply the relationship between the decay rate R and the remaining number N of radioactive nuclei.

42.17 Identify activity.

42.18 Distinguish Becquerel (Bq), curie (Ci), and counts per unit time.

42.19 Distinguish half-life $T_{1/2}$ and mean life τ.

42.20 Apply the relationship between half-life $T_{1/2}$, mean life τ, and disintegration constant λ.

42.21 Identify that in any nuclear process, including radioactive decay, the charge and the number of nucleons are conserved.

Key Ideas

- Most nuclides spontaneously decay at a rate $R = dN/dt$ that is proportional to the number N of radioactive atoms present. The proportionality constant is the disintegration constant λ.
- The number of radioactive nuclei is given as a function of time by
$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t},$$
where N_0 is the number at time $t = 0$.
- The rate at which the nuclei decay is given as a function of time by
$$R = R_0 e^{-\lambda t},$$
where R_0 is the rate at time $t = 0$.
- The half-life $T_{1/2}$ and the mean life τ are measures of how quickly radioactive nuclei decay and are related by
$$T_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda} = \tau \ln 2.$$

Radioactive Decay

As Fig. 42-5 shows, most nuclides are radioactive. They each spontaneously (randomly) emit a particle and transform into a different nuclide. Thus these decays reveal that the laws for subatomic processes are statistical. For example, in a 1 mg sample of uranium metal, with 2.5×10^{18} atoms of the very long-lived radionuclide ^{238}U, only about 12 of the nuclei will decay in a given second by emitting an alpha particle and transforming into a nucleus of ^{234}Th. However,

> There is absolutely no way to predict whether any given nucleus in a radioactive sample will be among the small number of nuclei that decay during any given second. All have the same chance.

Although we cannot predict which nuclei in a sample will decay, we can say that if a sample contains N radioactive nuclei, then the rate ($= -dN/dt$) at which nuclei will decay is proportional to N:

$$-\frac{dN}{dt} = \lambda N, \tag{42-11}$$

in which λ, the **disintegration constant** (or **decay constant**) has a characteristic value for every radionuclide. Its SI unit is the inverse second (s^{-1}).

To find N as a function of time t, we first rearrange Eq. 42-11 as

$$\frac{dN}{N} = -\lambda\, dt, \tag{42-12}$$

and then integrate both sides, obtaining

$$\int_{N_0}^{N} \frac{dN}{N} = -\lambda \int_{t_0}^{t} dt,$$

or

$$\ln N - \ln N_0 = -\lambda(t - t_0). \tag{42-13}$$

Here N_0 is the number of radioactive nuclei in the sample at some arbitrary initial time t_0. Setting $t_0 = 0$ and rearranging Eq. 42-13 give us

$$\ln \frac{N}{N_0} = -\lambda t. \tag{42-14}$$

Taking the exponential of both sides (the exponential function is the antifunction of the natural logarithm) leads to

$$\frac{N}{N_0} = e^{-\lambda t}$$

or $$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t} \quad \text{(radioactive decay)}, \tag{42-15}$$

in which N_0 is the number of radioactive nuclei in the sample at $t = 0$ and N is the number remaining at any subsequent time t. Note that lightbulbs (for one example) follow no such exponential decay law. If we life-test 1000 bulbs, we expect that they will all "decay" (that is, burn out) at more or less the same time. The decay of radionuclides follows quite a different law.

We are often more interested in the decay rate R $(= -dN/dt)$ than in N itself. Differentiating Eq. 42-15, we find

$$R = -\frac{dN}{dt} = \lambda N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

or $$R = R_0 e^{-\lambda t} \quad \text{(radioactive decay)}, \tag{42-16}$$

an alternative form of the law of radioactive decay (Eq. 42-15). Here R_0 is the decay rate at time $t = 0$ and R is the rate at any subsequent time t. We can now rewrite Eq. 42-11 in terms of the decay rate R of the sample as

$$R = \lambda N, \tag{42-17}$$

where R and the number of radioactive nuclei N that have not yet undergone decay must be evaluated at the same instant.

The total decay rate R of a sample of one or more radionuclides is called the **activity** of that sample. The SI unit for activity is the **becquerel,** named for Henri Becquerel, the discoverer of radioactivity:

$$1 \text{ becquerel} = 1 \text{ Bq} = 1 \text{ decay per second}.$$

An older unit, the **curie,** is still in common use:

$$1 \text{ curie} = 1 \text{ Ci} = 3.7 \times 10^{10} \text{ Bq}.$$

Often a radioactive sample will be placed near a detector that does not record all the disintegrations that occur in the sample. The reading of the detector under these circumstances is proportional to (and smaller than) the true activity of the sample. Such proportional activity measurements are reported not in becquerel units but simply in counts per unit time.

Lifetimes. There are two common time measures of how long any given type of radionuclides lasts. One measure is the **half-life** $T_{1/2}$ of a radionuclide, which is the time at which both N and R have been reduced to one-half their initial values. The other measure is the **mean** (or **average**) **life** τ, which is the time at which both N and R have been reduced to e^{-1} of their initial values.

To relate $T_{1/2}$ to the disintegration constant λ, we put $R = \frac{1}{2}R_0$ in Eq. 42-16 and substitute $T_{1/2}$ for t. We obtain

$$\tfrac{1}{2}R_0 = R_0 e^{-\lambda T_{1/2}}.$$

Taking the natural logarithm of both sides and solving for $T_{1/2}$, we find

$$T_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda}.$$

Similarly, to relate τ to λ, we put $R = e^{-1}R_0$ in Eq. 42-16, substitute τ for t, and solve for τ, finding

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\lambda}.$$

We summarize these results with the following:

$$T_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda} = \tau \ln 2. \tag{42-18}$$

Checkpoint 2

The nuclide ^{131}I is radioactive, with a half-life of 8.04 days. At noon on January 1, the activity of a certain sample is 600 Bq. Using the concept of half-life, without written calculation, determine whether the activity at noon on January 24 will be a little less than 200 Bq, a little more than 200 Bq, a little less than 75 Bq, or a little more than 75 Bq.

Sample Problem 42.04 Finding the disintegration constant and half-life from a graph

The table that follows shows some measurements of the decay rate of a sample of ^{128}I, a radionuclide often used medically as a tracer to measure the rate at which iodine is absorbed by the thyroid gland.

Time (min)	R (counts/s)	Time (min)	R (counts/s)
4	392.2	132	10.9
36	161.4	164	4.56
68	65.5	196	1.86
100	26.8	218	1.00

Find the disintegration constant λ and the half-life $T_{1/2}$ for this radionuclide.

KEY IDEAS

The disintegration constant λ determines the exponential rate at which the decay rate R decreases with time t (as indicated by Eq. 42-16, $R = R_0 e^{-\lambda t}$). Therefore, we should be able to determine λ by plotting the measurements of R against the measurement times t. However, obtaining λ from a plot of R versus t is difficult because R decreases exponentially with t, according to Eq. 42-16. A neat solution is to transform Eq. 42-16 into a linear function of t, so that we can easily find λ. To do so, we take the natural logarithms of both sides of Eq. 42-16.

Calculations: We obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \ln R &= \ln(R_0 e^{-\lambda t}) = \ln R_0 + \ln(e^{-\lambda t}) \\ &= \ln R_0 - \lambda t. \end{aligned} \tag{42-19}$$

Because Eq. 42-19 is of the form $y = b + mx$, with b and m constants, it is a linear equation giving the quantity $\ln R$ as a function of t. Thus, if we plot $\ln R$ (instead of R) versus t, we should get a straight line. Further, the slope of the line should be equal to $-\lambda$.

Figure 42-9 shows a plot of $\ln R$ versus time t for the given measurements. The slope of the straight line that fits through the plotted points is

$$\text{slope} = \frac{0 - 6.2}{225 \text{ min} - 0} = -0.0276 \text{ min}^{-1}.$$

Thus, $$-\lambda = -0.0276 \text{ min}^{-1}$$

or $$\lambda = 0.0276 \text{ min}^{-1} \approx 1.7 \text{ h}^{-1}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

The time for the decay rate R to decrease by 1/2 is related to the disintegration constant λ via Eq. 42-18 ($T_{1/2} = (\ln 2)/\lambda$). From that equation, we find

$$T_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda} = \frac{\ln 2}{0.0276 \text{ min}^{-1}} \approx 25 \text{ min}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

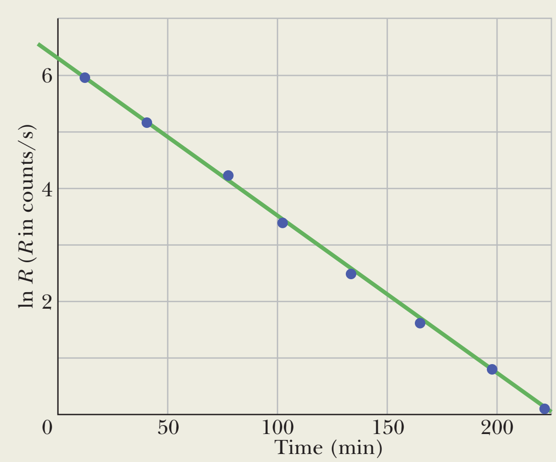


Figure 42-9 A semilogarithmic plot of the decay of a sample of ^{128}I, based on the data in the table.

Additional examples, video, and practice available at *WileyPLUS*

Sample Problem 42.05 Radioactivity of the potassium in a banana

Of the 600 mg of potassium in a large banana, 0.0117% is radioactive ^{40}K, which has a half-life $T_{1/2}$ of 1.25×10^9 y. What is the activity of the banana?

KEY IDEAS

(1) We can relate the activity R to the disintegration constant λ with Eq. 42-17, but let's write it as $R = \lambda N_{40}$, where N_{40} is the number of ^{40}K nuclei (and thus atoms) in the banana. (2) We can relate the disintegration constant to the known half-life $T_{1/2}$ with Eq. 42-18 ($T_{1/2} = (\ln 2)/\lambda$).

Calculations: Combining Eqs. 42-18 and 42-17 yields

$$R = \frac{N_{40} \ln 2}{T_{1/2}}. \tag{42-20}$$

We know that N_{40} is 0.0117% of the total number N of potassium atoms in the banana. We can find an expression for N by combining two equations that give the number of moles n of potassium in the banana. From Eq. 19-2, $n = N/N_A$, where N_A is Avogadro's number (6.02×10^{23} mol^{-1}). From Eq. 19-3, $n = M_{sam}/M$, where M_{sam} is the sample mass (here the given 600 mg of potassium) and M is the molar mass of potassium. Combining those two equations to eliminate n, we can write

$$N_{40} = (1.17 \times 10^{-4}) \frac{M_{sam} N_A}{M}. \tag{42-21}$$

From Appendix F, we see that the molar mass of potassium is 39.102 g/mol. Equation 42-21 then yields

$$N_{40} = (1.17 \times 10^{-4}) \frac{(600 \times 10^{-3}\ \text{g})(6.02 \times 10^{23}\ \text{mol}^{-1})}{39.102\ \text{g/mol}}$$
$$= 1.081 \times 10^{18}.$$

Substituting this value for N_{40} and the given half-life of 1.25×10^9 y for $T_{1/2}$ into Eq. 42-20 leads to

$$R = \frac{(1.081 \times 10^{18})(\ln 2)}{(1.25 \times 10^9\ \text{y})(3.16 \times 10^7\ \text{s/y})}$$
$$= 18.96\ \text{Bq} \approx 19.0\ \text{Bq}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

This is about 0.51 nCi. Your body always has about 160 g of potassium. If you repeat our calculation here, you will find that the ^{40}K component of that everyday amount has an activity of 5.06×10^3 Bq (or 0.14 μCi). So, eating a banana adds less than 1% to the radiation your body receives daily from radioactive potassium.

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42-4 ALPHA DECAY

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

42.22 Identify alpha particle and alpha decay.

42.23 For a given alpha decay, calculate the mass change and the Q of the reaction.

42.24 Determine the change in atomic number Z and mass number A of a nucleus undergoing alpha decay.

42.25 In terms of the potential barrier, explain how an alpha particle can escape from a nucleus with less energy than the barrier height.

Key Idea

- Some nuclides decay by emitting an alpha particle (a helium nucleus, ^{4}He). Such decay is inhibited by a potential energy barrier that must be penetrated by tunneling.

Alpha Decay

When a nucleus undergoes **alpha decay,** it transforms to a different nuclide by emitting an alpha particle (a helium nucleus, ^{4}He). For example, when uranium ^{238}U undergoes alpha decay, it transforms to thorium ^{234}Th:

$$^{238}\text{U} \rightarrow {}^{234}\text{Th} + {}^4\text{He}. \tag{42-22}$$

This alpha decay of ^{238}U can occur spontaneously (without an external source of energy) because the total mass of the decay products ^{234}Th and ^{4}He is less than the mass of the original ^{238}U. Thus, the total mass energy of the decay

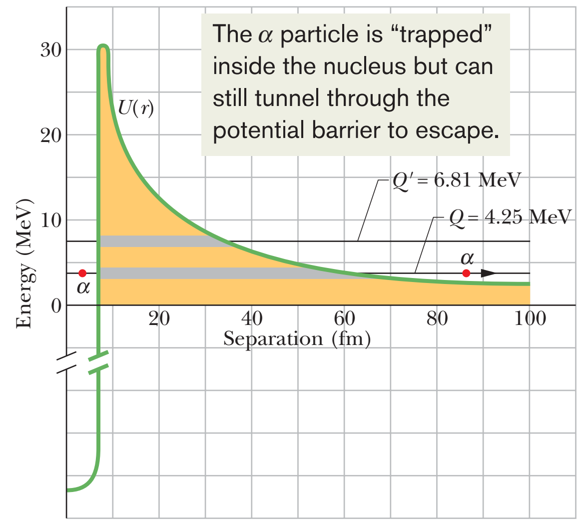

Figure 42-10 A potential energy function for the emission of an alpha particle by ^{238}U. The horizontal black line marked $Q = 4.25$ MeV shows the disintegration energy for the process. The thick gray portion of this line represents separations r that are classically forbidden to the alpha particle. The alpha particle is represented by a dot, both inside this potential energy barrier (at the left) and outside it (at the right), after the particle has tunneled through. The horizontal black line marked $Q' = 6.81$ MeV shows the disintegration energy for the alpha decay of ^{228}U. (Both isotopes have the same potential energy function because they have the same nuclear charge.)

products is less than the mass energy of the original nuclide. As defined by Eq. 37-50 ($Q = -\Delta M\ c^2$), in such a process the difference between the initial mass energy and the total final mass energy is called the Q of the process.

For a nuclear decay, we say that the difference in mass energy is the decay's *disintegration energy* Q. The Q for the decay in Eq. 42-22 is 4.25 MeV—that amount of energy is said to be released by the alpha decay of ^{238}U, with the energy transferred from mass energy to the kinetic energy of the two products.

The half-life of ^{238}U for this decay process is 4.5×10^9 y. Why so long? If ^{238}U can decay in this way, why doesn't every ^{238}U nuclide in a sample of ^{238}U atoms simply decay at once? To answer the questions, we must examine the process of alpha decay.

We choose a model in which the alpha particle is imagined to exist (already formed) inside the nucleus before it escapes from the nucleus. Figure 42-10 shows the approximate potential energy $U(r)$ of the system consisting of the alpha particle and the residual ^{234}Th nucleus, as a function of their separation r. This energy is a combination of (1) the potential energy associated with the (attractive) strong nuclear force that acts in the nuclear interior and (2) a Coulomb potential associated with the (repulsive) electric force that acts between the two particles before and after the decay has occurred.

The horizontal black line marked $Q = 4.25$ MeV shows the disintegration energy for the process. If we assume that this represents the total energy of the alpha particle during the decay process, then the part of the $U(r)$ curve above this line constitutes a potential energy barrier like that in Fig. 38-17. This barrier cannot be surmounted. If the alpha particle were able to be at some separation r within the barrier, its potential energy U would exceed its total energy E. This would mean, classically, that its kinetic energy K (which equals $E - U$) would be negative, an impossible situation.

Tunneling. We can see now why the alpha particle is not immediately emitted from the ^{238}U nucleus. That nucleus is surrounded by an impressive potential barrier, occupying—if you think of it in three dimensions—the volume lying between two spherical shells (of radii about 8 and 60 fm). This argument is so convincing that we now change our last question and ask: Since the particle seems permanently trapped inside the nucleus by the barrier, how can the ^{238}U nucleus *ever* emit an alpha particle? The answer is that, as you learned in Module 38-9, there is a finite probability that a particle can tunnel through an energy barrier that is classically insurmountable. In fact, alpha decay occurs as a result of barrier tunneling.

The very long half-life of ^{238}U tells us that the barrier is apparently not very "leaky." If we imagine that an already-formed alpha particle is rattling back and forth inside the nucleus, it would arrive at the inner surface of the barrier about 10^{38} times before it would succeed in tunneling through the barrier. This is about 10^{21} times per second for about 4×10^9 years (the age of Earth)! We, of course, are waiting on the outside, able to count only the alpha particles that *do* manage to escape without being able to tell what's going on inside the nucleus.

We can test this explanation of alpha decay by examining other alpha emitters. For an extreme contrast, consider the alpha decay of another uranium isotope, ^{228}U, which has a disintegration energy Q' of 6.81 MeV, about 60% higher than that of ^{238}U. (The value of Q' is also shown as a horizontal black line in Fig. 42-10.) Recall from Module 38-9 that the transmission coefficient of a barrier is very sensitive to small changes in the total energy of the particle seeking to penetrate it. Thus, we expect alpha decay to occur more readily for this nuclide than for ^{238}U. Indeed it does. As Table 42-2 shows, its half-life is only 9.1 min! An increase in Q by a factor of only 1.6 produces a decrease in half-life (that is, in the effectiveness of the barrier) by a factor of 3×10^{14}. This is sensitivity indeed.

Table 42-2 Two Alpha Emitters Compared

Radionuclide	Q	Half-Life
^{238}U	4.25 MeV	4.5×10^9 y
^{228}U	6.81 MeV	9.1 min

Sample Problem 42.06 Q value in an alpha decay, using masses

We are given the following atomic masses:

^{238}U	238.050 79 u	^{4}He	4.002 60 u
^{234}Th	234.043 63 u	^{1}H	1.007 83 u
^{237}Pa	237.051 21 u		

Here Pa is the symbol for the element protactinium ($Z = 91$).

(a) Calculate the energy released during the alpha decay of ^{238}U. The decay process is

$$^{238}\text{U} \rightarrow {}^{234}\text{Th} + {}^{4}\text{He}.$$

Note, incidentally, how nuclear charge is conserved in this equation: The atomic numbers of thorium (90) and helium (2) add up to the atomic number of uranium (92). The number of nucleons is also conserved: 238 = 234 + 4.

KEY IDEA

The energy released in the decay is the disintegration energy Q, which we can calculate from the change in mass ΔM due to the ^{238}U decay.

Calculation: To do this, we use Eq. 37-50,

$$Q = M_i c^2 - M_f c^2, \tag{42-23}$$

where the initial mass M_i is that of ^{238}U and the final mass M_f is the sum of the ^{234}Th and ^{4}He masses. Using the atomic masses given in the problem statement, Eq. 42-23 becomes

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= (238.050\,79\text{ u})c^2 - (234.043\,63\text{ u} + 4.002\,60\text{ u})c^2 \\ &= (0.004\,56\text{ u})c^2 = (0.004\,56\text{ u})(931.494\,013\text{ MeV/u}) \\ &= 4.25\text{ MeV}. \qquad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

Note that using atomic masses instead of nuclear masses does not affect the result because the total mass of the electrons in the products subtracts out from the mass of the nucleons + electrons in the original ^{238}U.

(b) Show that ^{238}U cannot spontaneously emit a proton; that is, protons do not leak out of the nucleus in spite of the proton–proton repulsion within the nucleus.

Solution: If this happened, the decay process would be

$$^{238}\text{U} \rightarrow {}^{237}\text{Pa} + {}^{1}\text{H}.$$

(You should verify that both nuclear charge and the number of nucleons are conserved in this process.) Using the same Key Idea as in part (a) and proceeding as we did there, we would find that the mass of the two decay products

$$237.051\,21\text{ u} + 1.007\,83\text{ u}$$

would *exceed* the mass of ^{238}U by $\Delta m = 0.008\,25$ u, with disintegration energy

$$Q = -7.68\text{ MeV}.$$

The minus sign indicates that we must *add* 7.68 MeV to a ^{238}U nucleus before it will emit a proton; it will certainly not do so spontaneously.

42-5 BETA DECAY

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

42.26 Identify the two types of beta particles and the two types of beta decay.

42.27 Identify neutrino.

42.28 Explain why the beta particles in beta decays are emitted with a range of energies.

42.29 For a given beta decay, calculate the mass change and the Q of the reaction.

42.30 Determine the change in the atomic number Z of a nucleus undergoing a beta decay and identify that the mass number A does not change.

Key Ideas

- In beta decay, either an electron or a positron is emitted by a nucleus, along with a neutrino.
- The emitted particles share the available disintegration energy. Sometimes the neutrino gets most of the energy and sometimes the electron or positron gets most of it.

Beta Decay

A nucleus that decays spontaneously by emitting an electron or a positron (a positively charged particle with the mass of an electron) is said to undergo **beta decay.** Like alpha decay, this is a spontaneous process, with a definite disintegration energy and half-life. Again like alpha decay, beta decay is a statistical process, governed by Eqs. 42-15 and 42-16. In *beta-minus* (β^-) decay, an electron is emitted by a nucleus, as in the decay

$$^{32}\text{P} \rightarrow {}^{32}\text{S} + \text{e}^- + \nu \qquad (T_{1/2} = 14.3 \text{ d}). \tag{42-24}$$

In *beta-plus* (β^+) decay, a positron is emitted by a nucleus, as in the decay

$$^{64}\text{Cu} \rightarrow {}^{64}\text{Ni} + \text{e}^+ + \nu \qquad (T_{1/2} = 12.7 \text{ h}). \tag{42-25}$$

The symbol ν represents a **neutrino,** a neutral particle which has a very small mass, that is emitted from the nucleus along with the electron or positron during the decay process. Neutrinos interact only very weakly with matter and—for that reason—are so extremely difficult to detect that their presence long went unnoticed.*

Both charge and nucleon number are conserved in the above two processes. In the decay of Eq. 42-24, for example, we can write for charge conservation

$$(+15e) = (+16e) + (-e) + (0),$$

because ^{32}P has 15 protons, ^{32}S has 16 protons, and the neutrino ν has zero charge. Similarly, for nucleon conservation, we can write

$$(32) = (32) + (0) + (0),$$

because ^{32}P and ^{32}S each have 32 nucleons and neither the electron nor the neutrino is a nucleon.

It may seem surprising that nuclei can emit electrons, positrons, and neutrinos, since we have said that nuclei are made up of neutrons and protons only. However, we saw earlier that atoms emit photons, and we certainly do not say that atoms "contain" photons. We say that the photons are created during the emission process.

*Beta decay also includes *electron capture,* in which a nucleus decays by absorbing one of its atomic electrons, emitting a neutrino in the process. We do not consider that process here. Also, the neutral particle emitted in the decay process of Eq. 42-24 is actually an *antineutrino,* a distinction we shall not make in this introductory treatment.

It is the same with the electrons, positrons, and neutrinos emitted from nuclei during beta decay. They are created during the emission process. For beta-minus decay, a neutron transforms into a proton within the nucleus according to

$$n \rightarrow p + e^- + \nu. \tag{42-26}$$

For beta-plus decay, a proton transforms into a neutron via

$$p \rightarrow n + e^+ + \nu. \tag{42-27}$$

These processes show why the mass number A of a nuclide undergoing beta decay does not change; one of its constituent nucleons simply changes its character according to Eq. 42-26 or 42-27.

In both alpha decay and beta decay, the same amount of energy is released in every individual decay of a particular radionuclide. In the alpha decay of a particular radionuclide, every emitted alpha particle has the same sharply defined kinetic energy. However, in the beta-minus decay of Eq. 42-26 with electron emission, the disintegration energy Q is shared—in varying proportions—between the emitted electron and neutrino. Sometimes the electron gets nearly all the energy, sometimes the neutrino does. In every case, however, the sum of the electron's energy and the neutrino's energy gives the same value Q. A similar sharing of energy, with a sum equal to Q, occurs in beta-plus decay (Eq. 42-27).

Thus, in beta decay the energy of the emitted electrons or positrons may range from near zero up to a certain maximum K_{max}. Figure 42-11 shows the distribution of positron energies for the beta decay of ^{64}Cu (see Eq. 42-25). The maximum positron energy K_{max} must equal the disintegration energy Q because the neutrino has approximately zero energy when the positron has K_{max}:

$$Q = K_{max}. \tag{42-28}$$

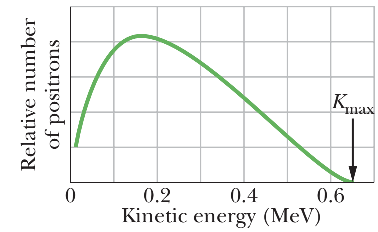

Figure 42-11 The distribution of the kinetic energies of positrons emitted in the beta decay of ^{64}Cu. The maximum kinetic energy of the distribution (K_{max}) is 0.653 MeV. In all ^{64}Cu decay events, this energy is shared between the positron and the neutrino, in varying proportions. The *most probable* energy for an emitted positron is about 0.15 MeV.

The Neutrino

Wolfgang Pauli first suggested the existence of neutrinos in 1930. His neutrino hypothesis not only permitted an understanding of the energy distribution of electrons or positrons in beta decay but also solved another early beta-decay puzzle involving "missing" angular momentum.

The neutrino is a truly elusive particle; the mean free path of an energetic neutrino in water has been calculated as no less than several thousand light-years. At the same time, neutrinos left over from the big bang that presumably marked the creation of the universe are the most abundant particles of physics. Billions of them pass through our bodies every second, leaving no trace.

In spite of their elusive character, neutrinos have been detected in the laboratory. This was first done in 1953 by F. Reines and C. L. Cowan, using neutrinos generated in a high-power nuclear reactor. (In 1995, Reines received a Nobel Prize for this work.) In spite of the difficulties of detection, experimental neutrino physics is now a well-developed branch of experimental physics, with avid practitioners at laboratories throughout the world.

The Sun emits neutrinos copiously from the nuclear furnace at its core, and at night these messengers from the center of the Sun come up at us from below, Earth being almost totally transparent to them. In February 1987, light from an exploding star in the Large Magellanic Cloud (a nearby galaxy) reached Earth after having traveled for 170 000 years. Enormous numbers of neutrinos were generated in this explosion, and about 10 of them were picked up by a sensitive neutrino detector in Japan; Fig. 42-12 shows a record of their passage.

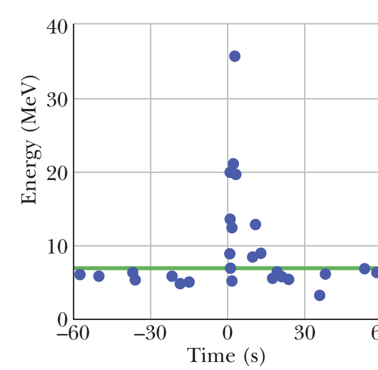

Figure 42-12 A burst of neutrinos from the supernova SN 1987A, which occurred at (relative) time 0, stands out from the usual *background* of neutrinos. (For neutrinos, 10 is a "burst.") The particles were detected by an elaborate detector housed deep in a mine in Japan. The supernova was visible only in the Southern Hemisphere; so the neutrinos had to penetrate Earth (a trifling barrier for them) to reach the detector.

Radioactivity and the Nuclidic Chart

We can increase the amount of information obtainable from the nuclidic chart of Fig. 42-5 by including a third axis showing the mass excess Δ expressed in the

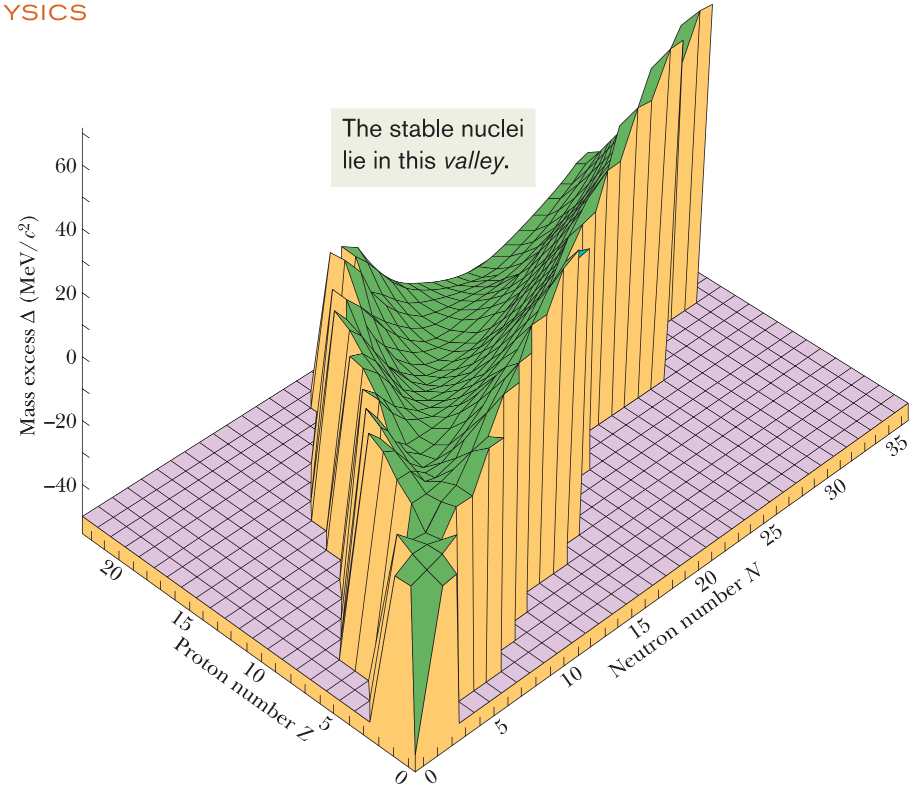

Figure 42-13 A portion of the valley of the nuclides, showing only the nuclides of low mass. Deuterium, tritium, and helium lie at the near end of the plot, with helium at the high point. The valley stretches away from us, with the plot stopping at about $Z = 22$ and $N = 35$. Nuclides with large values of A, which would be plotted much beyond the valley, can decay into the valley by repeated alpha emissions and by fission (splitting of a nuclide).

unit MeV/c^2. The inclusion of such an axis gives Fig. 42-13, which reveals the degree of nuclear stability of the nuclides. For the low-mass nuclides, we find a "valley of the nuclides," with the stability band of Fig. 42-5 running along its bottom. Nuclides on the proton-rich side of the valley decay into it by emitting positrons, and those on the neutron-rich side do so by emitting electrons.

Checkpoint 3

^{238}U decays to ^{234}Th by the emission of an alpha particle. There follows a chain of further radioactive decays, either by alpha decay or by beta decay. Eventually a stable nuclide is reached and, after that, no further radioactive decay is possible. Which of the following stable nuclides is the end product of the ^{238}U radioactive decay chain: ^{206}Pb, ^{207}Pb, ^{208}Pb, or ^{209}Pb? (*Hint:* You can decide by considering the changes in mass number A for the two types of decay.)

Sample Problem 42.07 Q value in a beta decay, using masses

Calculate the disintegration energy Q for the beta decay of ^{32}P, as described by Eq. 42-24. The needed atomic masses are 31.973 91 u for ^{32}P and 31.972 07 u for ^{32}S.

KEY IDEA

The disintegration energy Q for the beta decay is the amount by which the mass energy is changed by the decay.

Calculations: Q is given by Eq. 37-50 ($Q = -\Delta M\ c^2$). However, we must be careful to distinguish between nuclear masses (which we do not know) and atomic masses (which we do know). Let the boldface symbols $\mathbf{m}_P$ and $\mathbf{m}_S$ represent the nuclear masses of ^{32}P and ^{32}S, and let the italic symbols m_P and m_S represent their atomic masses. Then we can write the change in mass for the decay of Eq. 42-24 as

$$\Delta m = (\mathbf{m}_S + m_e) - \mathbf{m}_P,$$

in which m_e is the mass of the electron. If we add and subtract $15m_e$ on the right side of this equation, we obtain

$$\Delta m = (\mathbf{m}_S + 16m_e) - (\mathbf{m}_P + 15m_e).$$

The quantities in parentheses are the atomic masses of ^{32}S and ^{32}P; so

$$\Delta m = m_S - m_P.$$

We thus see that if we subtract only the atomic masses, the mass of the emitted electron is automatically taken into account. (This procedure will not work for positron emission.)

The disintegration energy for the ^{32}P decay is then

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= -\Delta m\, c^2 \\ &= -(31.972\,07 \text{ u} - 31.973\,91 \text{ u})(931.494\,013 \text{ MeV/u}) \\ &= 1.71 \text{ MeV}. \qquad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

Experimentally, this calculated quantity proves to be equal to K_{max}, the maximum energy the emitted electrons can have. Although 1.71 MeV is released every time a ^{32}P nucleus decays, in essentially every case the electron carries away less energy than this. The neutrino gets all the rest, carrying it stealthily out of the laboratory.

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42-6 RADIOACTIVE DATING

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

42.31 Apply the equations for radioactive decay to determine the age of rocks and archaeological materials.

42.32 Explain how radiocarbon dating can be used to date the age of biological samples.

Key Idea

- Naturally occurring radioactive nuclides provide a means for estimating the dates of historic and prehistoric events. For example, the ages of organic materials can often be found by measuring their ^{14}C content, and rock samples can be dated using the radioactive ^{40}K.

Radioactive Dating

If you know the half-life of a given radionuclide, you can in principle use the decay of that radionuclide as a clock to measure time intervals. The decay of very long-lived nuclides, for example, can be used to measure the age of rocks—that is, the time that has elapsed since they were formed. Such measurements for rocks from Earth and the Moon, and for meteorites, yield a consistent maximum age of about 4.5×10^9 y for these bodies.

The radionuclide ^{40}K, for example, decays to ^{40}Ar, a stable isotope of the noble gas argon. The half-life for this decay is 1.25×10^9 y. A measurement of the ratio of ^{40}K to ^{40}Ar, as found in the rock in question, can be used to calculate the age of that rock. Other long-lived decays, such as that of ^{235}U to ^{207}Pb (involving a number of intermediate stages of unstable nuclei), can be used to verify this calculation.

For measuring shorter time intervals, in the range of historical interest, radiocarbon dating has proved invaluable. The radionuclide ^{14}C (with $T_{1/2} = 5730$ y) is produced at a constant rate in the upper atmosphere as atmospheric nitrogen is bombarded by cosmic rays. This radiocarbon mixes with the carbon that is normally present in the atmosphere (as CO_2) so that there is about one atom of ^{14}C for every 10^{13} atoms of ordinary stable ^{12}C. Through biological activity such as photosynthesis and breathing, the atoms of atmospheric carbon trade places randomly, one atom at a time, with the atoms of carbon in every living thing, including broccoli, mushrooms, penguins, and humans. Eventually an exchange equilibrium is reached at which the carbon atoms of every living thing contain a fixed small fraction of the radioactive nuclide ^{14}C.

This equilibrium persists as long as the organism is alive. When the organism dies, the exchange with the atmosphere stops and the amount of radiocarbon trapped in the organism, since it is no longer being replenished, dwindles away with a half-life of 5730 y. By measuring the amount of radiocarbon per gram of organic matter, it is possible to measure the time that has elapsed since the organism died. Charcoal from ancient campfires, the Dead Sea scrolls (actually, the cloth used to plug the jars holding the scrolls), and many prehistoric artifacts have been dated in this way.

Top photo: George Rockwin/Bruce Coleman, Inc./Photoshot Holdings Ltd. Inset photo: www.BibleLandPictures.com/Alamy

A fragment of the Dead Sea scrolls and the caves from which the scrolls were recovered.

Sample Problem 42.08 Radioactive dating of a moon rock

In a Moon rock sample, the ratio of the number of (stable) ^{40}Ar atoms present to the number of (radioactive) ^{40}K atoms is 10.3. Assume that all the argon atoms were produced by the decay of potassium atoms, with a half-life of 1.25×10^9 y. How old is the rock?

KEY IDEAS

(1) If N_0 potassium atoms were present at the time the rock was formed by solidification from a molten form, the number of potassium atoms now remaining at the time of analysis is

$$N_K = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}, \tag{42-29}$$

in which t is the age of the rock. (2) For every potassium atom that decays, an argon atom is produced. Thus, the number of argon atoms present at the time of the analysis is

$$N_{Ar} = N_0 - N_K. \tag{42-30}$$

Calculations: We cannot measure N_0; so let's eliminate it from Eqs. 42-29 and 42-30. We find, after some algebra, that

$$\lambda t = \ln\left(1 + \frac{N_{Ar}}{N_K}\right), \tag{42-31}$$

in which N_{Ar}/N_K *can* be measured. Solving for t and using Eq. 42-18 to replace λ with $(\ln 2)/T_{1/2}$ yield

$$t = \frac{T_{1/2} \ln(1 + N_{Ar}/N_K)}{\ln 2} = \frac{(1.25 \times 10^9 \text{ y})[\ln(1 + 10.3)]}{\ln 2} = 4.37 \times 10^9 \text{ y}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

Lesser ages may be found for other lunar or terrestrial rock samples, but no substantially greater ones. Thus, the oldest rocks were formed soon after the solar system formed, and the solar system must be about 4 billion years old.

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42-7 MEASURING RADIATION DOSAGE

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

42.33 Identify absorbed dose, dose equivalent, and the associated units.

42.34 Calculate absorbed dose and dose equivalent.

Key Ideas

- The Becquerel (1 Bq = 1 decay per second) measures the activity of a source.
- The amount of energy actually absorbed is measured in grays, with 1 Gy corresponding to 1 J/kg.
- The estimated biological effect of the absorbed energy is the dose equivalent and is measured in sieverts.

Measuring Radiation Dosage

The effect of radiation such as gamma rays, electrons, and alpha particles on living tissue (particularly our own) is a matter of public interest. Such radiation is found in nature in cosmic rays (from astronomical sources) and in the emissions by radioactive elements in Earth's crust. Radiation associated with some human activities, such as using x rays and radionuclides in medicine and in industry, also contributes.

Our task here is not to explore the various sources of radiation but simply to describe the units in which the properties and effects of such radiations are expressed. We have already discussed the *activity* of a radioactive source. There are two remaining quantities of interest.

1. *Absorbed Dose.* This is a measure of the radiation dose (as energy per unit mass) actually absorbed by a specific object, such as a patient's hand or chest. Its SI unit is the **gray** (Gy). An older unit, the **rad** (from **r**adiation **a**bsorbed

dose) is still in common use. The terms are defined and related as follows:

$$1 \text{ Gy} = 1 \text{ J/kg} = 100 \text{ rad}. \tag{42-32}$$

A typical dose-related statement is: "A whole-body, short-term gamma-ray dose of 3 Gy (= 300 rad) will cause death in 50% of the population exposed to it." Thankfully, our present average absorbed dose per year, from sources of both natural and human origin, is only about 2 mGy (= 0.2 rad).

2. *Dose Equivalent.* Although different types of radiation (gamma rays and neutrons, say) may deliver the same amount of energy to the body, they do not have the same biological effect. The dose equivalent allows us to express the biological effect by multiplying the absorbed dose (in grays or rads) by a numerical **RBE** factor (from **r**elative **b**iological **e**ffectiveness). For x rays and electrons, for example, RBE = 1; for slow neutrons, RBE = 5; for alpha particles, RBE = 10; and so on. Personnel-monitoring devices such as film badges register the dose equivalent.

The SI unit of dose equivalent is the **sievert** (Sv). An earlier unit, the **rem,** is still in common use. Their relationship is

$$1 \text{ Sv} = 100 \text{ rem}. \tag{42-33}$$

An example of the correct use of these terms is: "The recommendation of the National Council on Radiation Protection is that no individual who is (nonoccupationally) exposed to radiation should receive a dose equivalent greater than 5 mSv (= 0.5 rem) in any one year." This includes radiation of all kinds; of course the appropriate RBE factor must be used for each kind.

42-8 NUCLEAR MODELS

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

42.35 Distinguish the collective model and the independent model, and explain the combined model.

42.36 Identify compound nucleus.

42.37 Identify magic numbers.

Key Ideas

- The collective model of nuclear structure assumes that nucleons collide constantly with one another and that relatively long-lived compound nuclei are formed when a projectile is captured. The formation and eventual decay of a compound nucleus are totally independent events.
- The independent particle model of nuclear structure assumes that each nucleon moves, essentially without collision, in a quantized state within the nucleus. The model predicts nucleon levels and magic nucleon numbers associated with closed shells of nucleons.
- The combined model assumes that extra nucleons occupy quantized states outside a central core of closed shells.

Nuclear Models

Nuclei are more complicated than atoms. For atoms, the basic force law (Coulomb's law) is simple in form and there is a natural force center, the nucleus. For nuclei, the force law is complicated and cannot, in fact, be written down explicitly in full detail. Furthermore, the nucleus—a jumble of protons and neutrons—has no natural force center to simplify the calculations.

In the absence of a comprehensive nuclear *theory,* we turn to the construction of nuclear *models.* A nuclear model is simply a way of looking at the nucleus that gives a physical insight into as wide a range of its properties as possible. The usefulness of a model is tested by its ability to provide predictions that can be verified experimentally in the laboratory.

Two models of the nucleus have proved useful. Although based on assumptions that seem flatly to exclude each other, each accounts very well for a selected group of nuclear properties. After describing them separately, we shall see how these two models may be combined to form a single coherent picture of the atomic nucleus.

The Collective Model

In the *collective model,* formulated by Niels Bohr, the nucleons, moving around within the nucleus at random, are imagined to interact strongly with each other, like the molecules in a drop of liquid. A given nucleon collides frequently with other nucleons in the nuclear interior, its mean free path as it moves about being substantially less than the nuclear radius.

The collective model permits us to correlate many facts about nuclear masses and binding energies; it is useful (as you will see later) in explaining nuclear fission. It is also useful for understanding a large class of nuclear reactions.

Consider, for example, a generalized nuclear reaction of the form

$$X + a \rightarrow C \rightarrow Y + b. \tag{42-34}$$

We imagine that projectile a enters target nucleus X, forming a **compound nucleus** C and conveying to it a certain amount of excitation energy. The projectile, perhaps a neutron, is at once caught up by the random motions that characterize the nuclear interior. It quickly loses its identity—so to speak—and the excitation energy it carried into the nucleus is quickly shared with all the other nucleons in C.

The quasi-stable state represented by C in Eq. 42-34 may have a mean life of 10^{-16} s before it decays to Y and b. By nuclear standards, this is a very long time, being about one million times longer than the time required for a nucleon with a few million electron-volts of energy to travel across a nucleus.

The central feature of this compound-nucleus concept is that the formation of the compound nucleus and its eventual decay are totally independent events. At the time of its decay, the compound nucleus has "forgotten" how it was formed. Hence, its mode of decay is not influenced by its mode of formation. As an example, Fig. 42-14 shows three possible ways in which the compound nucleus ^{20}Ne might be formed and three in which it might decay. Any of the three formation modes can lead to any of the three decay modes.

The Independent Particle Model

In the collective model, we assume that the nucleons move around at random and bump into one another frequently. The *independent particle model,* however, is based on just the opposite assumption—namely, that each nucleon remains in a well-defined quantum state within the nucleus and makes hardly any collisions at all! The nucleus, unlike the atom, has no fixed center of charge; we assume in this model that each nucleon moves in a potential well that is determined by the smeared-out (time-averaged) motions of all the other nucleons.

A nucleon in a nucleus, like an electron in an atom, has a set of quantum numbers that defines its state of motion. Also, nucleons obey the Pauli exclusion principle, just as electrons do; that is, no two nucleons in a nucleus may occupy the same quantum state at the same time. In this regard, the neutrons and the protons are treated separately, each particle type with its own set of quantum states.

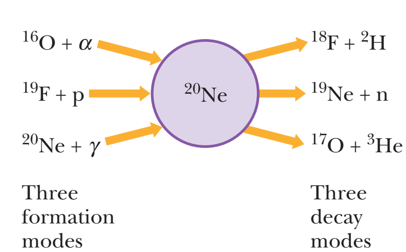

Figure 42-14 The formation modes and the decay modes of the compound nucleus ^{20}Ne.

The fact that nucleons obey the Pauli exclusion principle helps us to understand the relative stability of nucleon states. If two nucleons within the nucleus are to collide, the energy of each of them after the collision must correspond to the energy of an *unoccupied* state. If no such state is available, the collision simply cannot occur. Thus, any given nucleon experiencing repeated "frustrated collision opportunities" will maintain its state of motion long enough to give meaning to the statement that it exists in a quantum state with a well-defined energy.

In the atomic realm, the repetitions of physical and chemical properties that we find in the periodic table are associated with a property of atomic electrons—namely, they arrange themselves in shells that have a special stability when fully occupied. We can take the atomic numbers of the noble gases,

$$2,\ 10,\ 18,\ 36,\ 54,\ 86, \ldots,$$

as *magic electron numbers* that mark the completion (or closure) of such shells.

Nuclei also show such closed-shell effects, associated with certain **magic nucleon numbers:**

$$2,\ 8,\ 20,\ 28, 50, 82, 126, \ldots.$$

Any nuclide whose proton number Z or neutron number N has one of these values turns out to have a special stability that may be made apparent in a variety of ways.

Examples of "magic" nuclides are ^{18}O ($Z = 8$), ^{40}Ca ($Z = 20, N = 20$), ^{92}Mo ($N = 50$), and ^{208}Pb ($Z = 82, N = 126$). Both ^{40}Ca and ^{208}Pb are said to be "doubly magic" because they contain both filled shells of protons *and* filled shells of neutrons.

The magic number 2 shows up in the exceptional stability of the alpha particle (^{4}He), which, with $Z = N = 2$, is doubly magic. For example, on the binding energy curve of Fig. 42-7, the binding energy per nucleon for this nuclide stands well above those of its periodic-table neighbors hydrogen, lithium, and beryllium. The neutrons and protons making up the alpha particle are so tightly bound to one another, in fact, that it is impossible to add another proton or neutron to it; there is no stable nuclide with $A = 5$.

The central idea of a closed shell is that a single particle outside a closed shell can be relatively easily removed, but considerably more energy must be expended to remove a particle from the shell itself. The sodium atom, for example, has one (valence) electron outside a closed electron shell. Only about 5 eV is required to strip the valence electron away from a sodium atom; however, to remove a *second* electron (which must be plucked out of a closed shell) requires 22 eV. As a nuclear case, consider ^{121}Sb ($Z = 51$), which contains a single proton outside a closed shell of 50 protons. To remove this lone proton requires 5.8 MeV; to remove a *second* proton, however, requires an energy of 11 MeV. There is much additional experimental evidence that the nucleons in a nucleus form closed shells and that these shells exhibit stable properties.

We have seen that quantum theory can account beautifully for the magic electron numbers—that is, for the populations of the subshells into which atomic electrons are grouped. It turns out that, under certain assumptions, quantum theory can account equally well for the magic nucleon numbers! The 1963 Nobel Prize in physics was, in fact, awarded to Maria Mayer and Hans Jensen "for their discoveries concerning nuclear shell structure."

A Combined Model

Consider a nucleus in which a small number of neutrons (or protons) exist outside a core of closed shells that contains magic numbers of neutrons or protons. The outside nucleons occupy quantized states in a potential well established by the central core, thus preserving the central feature of the independent-particle model. These outside nucleons also interact with the core, deforming it and setting up "tidal wave" motions of rotation or vibration within it. These collective motions of the core preserve the central feature of the collective model. Such a model of nuclear structure thus succeeds in combining the seemingly irreconcilable points of view of the collective and independent-particle models. It has been remarkably successful in explaining observed nuclear properties.

Sample Problem 42.09 Lifetime of a compound nucleus made by neutron capture

Consider the neutron capture reaction

$$^{109}\text{Ag} + \text{n} \rightarrow {}^{110}\text{Ag} \rightarrow {}^{110}\text{Ag} + \gamma, \tag{42-35}$$

in which a compound nucleus (^{110}Ag) is formed. Figure 42-15 shows the relative rate at which such events take place, plotted against the energy of the incoming neutron. Find the mean lifetime of this compound nucleus by using the uncertainty principle in the form

$$\Delta E \cdot \Delta t \approx \hbar. \tag{42-36}$$

Here ΔE is a measure of the uncertainty with which the energy of a state can be defined. The quantity Δt is a measure of the time available to measure this energy. In fact, here Δt is just t_{avg}, the average life of the compound nucleus before it decays to its ground state.

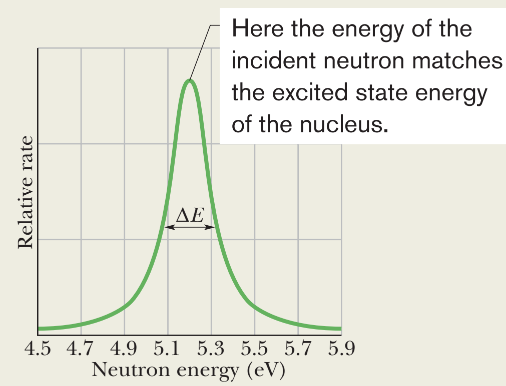

Figure 42-15 A plot of the relative number of reaction events of the type described by Eq. 42-35 as a function of the energy of the incident neutron. The half-width ΔE of the resonance peak is about 0.20 eV.

Reasoning: We see that the relative reaction rate peaks sharply at a neutron energy of about 5.2 eV. This suggests that we are dealing with a single excited energy level of the compound nucleus ^{110}Ag. When the available energy (of the incoming neutron) just matches the energy of this level above the ^{110}Ag ground state, we have "resonance" and the reaction of Eq. 42-35 really "goes."

However, the resonance peak is not infinitely sharp but has an approximate half-width (ΔE in the figure) of about 0.20 eV. We can account for this resonance-peak width by saying that the excited level is not sharply defined in energy but has an energy uncertainty ΔE of about 0.20 eV.

Calculation: Substituting that uncertainty of 0.20 eV into Eq. 42-36 gives us

$$\Delta t = t_{\text{avg}} \approx \frac{\hbar}{\Delta E} \approx \frac{(4.14 \times 10^{-15}\ \text{eV}\cdot\text{s})/2\pi}{0.20\ \text{eV}}$$
$$\approx 3 \times 10^{-15}\ \text{s}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

This is several hundred times greater than the time a 5.2 eV neutron takes to cross the diameter of a ^{109}Ag nucleus. Therefore, the neutron is spending this time of 3×10^{-15} s *as part of* the nucleus.

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Review & Summary

The Nuclides Approximately 2000 **nuclides** are known to exist. Each is characterized by an **atomic number** Z (the number of protons), a **neutron number** N, and a **mass number** A (the total number of **nucleons**—protons and neutrons). Thus, $A = Z + N$. Nuclides with the same atomic number but different neutron numbers are **isotopes** of one another. Nuclei have a mean radius r given by

$$r = r_0 A^{1/3}, \tag{42-3}$$

where $r_0 \approx 1.2$ fm.

Mass and Binding Energy Atomic masses are often reported in terms of *mass excess*

$$\Delta = M - A \quad \text{(mass excess)}, \tag{42-6}$$

where M is the actual mass of an atom in atomic mass units and A is the mass number for that atom's nucleus. The **binding energy** of a nucleus is the difference

$$\Delta E_{\text{be}} = \Sigma(mc^2) - Mc^2 \quad \text{(binding energy)}, \tag{42-7}$$

where $\Sigma(mc^2)$ is the total mass energy of the *individual* protons and neutrons. The **binding energy per nucleon** is

$$\Delta E_{\text{ben}} = \frac{\Delta E_{\text{be}}}{A} \quad \text{(binding energy per nucleon).} \qquad (42\text{-}8)$$

Mass–Energy Exchanges The energy equivalent of one mass unit (u) is 931.494 013 MeV. The binding energy curve shows that middle-mass nuclides are the most stable and that energy can be released both by fission of high-mass nuclei and by fusion of low-mass nuclei.

The Nuclear Force Nuclei are held together by an attractive force acting among the nucleons, part of the **strong force** acting between the quarks that make up the nucleons.

Radioactive Decay Most known nuclides are radioactive; they spontaneously decay at a rate R $(= -dN/dt)$ that is proportional to the number N of radioactive atoms present, the proportionality constant being the **disintegration constant** λ. This leads to the law of exponential decay:

$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}, \qquad R = \lambda N = R_0 e^{-\lambda t} \quad \text{(radioactive decay).} \qquad (42\text{-}15, 42\text{-}17, 42\text{-}16)$$

The **half-life** $T_{1/2} = (\ln 2)/\lambda$ of a radioactive nuclide is the time required for the decay rate R (or the number N) in a sample to drop to half its initial value.

Alpha Decay Some nuclides decay by emitting an alpha particle (a helium nucleus, ^{4}He). Such decay is inhibited by a potential energy barrier that cannot be penetrated according to classical physics but is subject to tunneling according to quantum physics. The barrier penetrability, and thus the half-life for alpha decay, is very sensitive to the energy of the emitted alpha particle.

Beta Decay In **beta decay** either an electron or a positron is emitted by a nucleus, along with a neutrino. The emitted particles share the available disintegration energy. The electrons and positrons emitted in beta decay have a continuous spectrum of energies from near zero up to a limit $K_{\max}$ $(= Q = -\Delta m\, c^2)$.

Radioactive Dating Naturally occurring radioactive nuclides provide a means for estimating the dates of historic and prehistoric events. For example, the ages of organic materials can often be found by measuring their ^{14}C content; rock samples can be dated using the radioactive isotope ^{40}K.

Radiation Dosage Three units are used to describe exposure to ionizing radiation. The **becquerel** (1 Bq = 1 decay per second) measures the **activity** of a source. The amount of energy actually absorbed is measured in **grays,** with 1 Gy corresponding to 1 J/kg. The estimated biological effect of the absorbed energy is measured in **sieverts;** a dose equivalent of 1 Sv causes the same biological effect regardless of the radiation type by which it was acquired.

Nuclear Models The **collective** model of nuclear structure assumes that nucleons collide constantly with one another and that relatively long-lived **compound nuclei** are formed when a projectile is captured. The formation and eventual decay of a compound nucleus are totally independent events.

The **independent particle** model of nuclear structure assumes that each nucleon moves, essentially without collisions, in a quantized state within the nucleus. The model predicts nucleon levels and **magic nucleon numbers** (2, 8, 20, 28, 50, 82, and 126) associated with closed shells of nucleons; nuclides with any of these numbers of neutrons or protons are particularly stable.

The **combined** model, in which extra nucleons occupy quantized states outside a central core of closed shells, is highly successful in predicting many nuclear properties.

Questions

1 The radionuclide ^{196}Ir decays by emitting an electron. (a) Into which square in Fig. 42-6 is it transformed? (b) Do further decays then occur?

2 Is the mass excess of an alpha particle (use a straightedge on Fig. 42-13) greater than or less than the particle's total binding energy (use the binding energy per nucleon from Fig. 42-7)?

3 At $t = 0$, a sample of radionuclide A has the same decay rate as a sample of radionuclide B has at $t = 30$ min. The disintegration constants are λ_A and λ_B, with $\lambda_A < \lambda_B$. Will the two samples ever have (simultaneously) the same decay rate? (*Hint:* Sketch a graph of their activities.)

4 A certain nuclide is said to be particularly stable. Does its binding energy per nucleon lie slightly above or slightly below the binding energy curve of Fig. 42-7?

5 Suppose the alpha particle in a Rutherford scattering experiment is replaced with a proton of the same initial kinetic energy and also headed directly toward the nucleus of the gold atom. (a) Will the distance from the center of the nucleus at which the proton stops be greater than, less than, or the same as that of the alpha particle? (b) If, instead, we switch the target to a nucleus with a larger value of Z, is the stopping distance of the alpha particle greater than, less than, or the same as with the gold target?

6 Figure 42-16 gives the activities of three radioactive samples versus time. Rank the samples according to their (a) half-life and (b) disintegration constant, greatest first. (*Hint:* For (a), use a straightedge on the graph.)

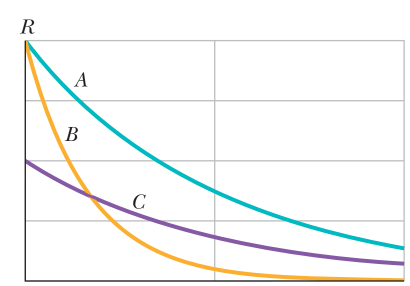


Figure 42-16 Question 6.

7 The nuclide ^{244}Pu ($Z = 94$) is an alpha-emitter. Into which of the following nuclides does it decay: ^{240}Np ($Z = 93$), ^{240}U ($Z = 92$), ^{248}Cm ($Z = 96$), or ^{244}Am ($Z = 95$)?

8 The radionuclide ^{49}Sc has a half-life of 57.0 min. At $t = 0$, the counting rate of a sample of it is 6000 counts/min above the general background activity, which is 30 counts/min. Without computation, determine whether the counting rate of the sample will be about equal to the background rate in 3 h, 7 h, 10 h, or a time much longer than 10 h.

9 At $t = 0$ we begin to observe two identical radioactive nuclei that have a half-life of 5 min. At $t = 1$ min, one of the nuclei decays. Does that event increase or decrease the chance that the second nucleus will decay in the next 4 min, or is there no effect on the second nucleus? (Are the events cause and effect, or random?)

10 Figure 42-17 shows the curve for the binding energy per nucleon ΔE_{ben} versus mass number A. Three isotopes are indicated. Rank them according to the energy required to remove a nucleon from the isotope, greatest first.

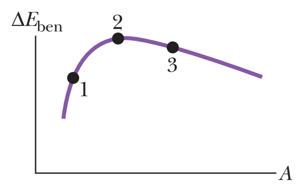


Figure 42-17 Question 10.

11 At $t = 0$, a sample of radionuclide A has twice the decay rate as a sample of radionuclide B. The disintegration constants are λ_A and λ_B, with $\lambda_A > \lambda_B$. Will the two samples ever have (simultaneously) the same decay rate?

12 Figure 42-18 is a plot of mass number A versus charge number Z. The location of a certain nucleus is represented by a dot. Which of the arrows extending from the dot would best represent the transition were the nucleus to undergo (a) a β^- decay and (b) an α decay?

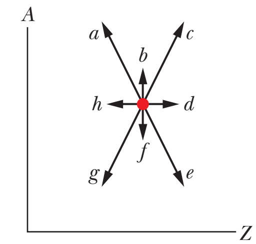


Figure 42-18 Question 12.

13 (a) Which of the following nuclides are magic: ^{122}Sn, ^{132}Sn, ^{98}Cd, ^{198}Au, ^{208}Pb? (b) Which, if any, are doubly magic?

14 If the mass of a radioactive sample is doubled, do (a) the activity of the sample and (b) the disintegration constant of the sample increase, decrease, or remain the same?

15 The magic nucleon numbers for nuclei are given in Module 42-8 as 2, 8, 20, 28, 50, 82, and 126. Are nuclides magic (that is, especially stable) when (a) only the mass number A, (b) only the atomic number Z, (c) only the neutron number N, or (d) either Z or N (or both) is equal to one of these numbers? Pick all correct phrases.

Problems

GO Tutoring problem available (at instructor's discretion) in *WileyPLUS* and WebAssign
SSM Worked-out solution available in Student Solutions Manual
• – ••• Number of dots indicates level of problem difficulty
Additional information available in *The Flying Circus of Physics* and at flyingcircusofphysics.com
WWW Worked-out solution is at
ILW Interactive solution is at
http://www.wiley.com/college/halliday

Module 42-1 Discovering the Nucleus

•1 A ^{7}Li nucleus with a kinetic energy of 3.00 MeV is sent toward a ^{232}Th nucleus. What is the least center-to-center separation between the two nuclei, assuming that the (more massive) ^{232}Th nucleus does not move?

•2 Calculate the distance of closest approach for a head-on collision between a 5.30 MeV alpha particle and a copper nucleus.

••3 A 10.2 MeV Li nucleus is shot directly at the center of a Ds nucleus. At what center-to-center distance does the Li momentarily stop, assuming the Ds does not move?

••4 GO In a Rutherford scattering experiment, assume that an incident alpha particle (radius 1.80 fm) is headed directly toward a target gold nucleus (radius 6.23 fm). What energy must the alpha particle have to just barely "touch" the gold nucleus?

••5 GO When an alpha particle collides elastically with a nucleus, the nucleus recoils. Suppose a 5.00 MeV alpha particle has a head-on elastic collision with a gold nucleus that is initially at rest. What is the kinetic energy of (a) the recoiling nucleus and (b) the rebounding alpha particle?

Module 42-2 Some Nuclear Properties

•6 The strong neutron excess (defined as $N - Z$) of high-mass nuclei is illustrated by noting that most high-mass nuclides could never fission into two stable nuclei without neutrons being left over. For example, consider the spontaneous fission of a ^{235}U nucleus into two stable *daughter nuclei* with atomic numbers 39 and 53. From Appendix F, determine the name of the (a) first and (b) second daughter nucleus. From Fig. 42-5, approximately how many neutrons are in the (c) first and (d) second? (e) Approximately how many neutrons are left over?

•7 What is the nuclear mass density ρ_m of (a) the fairly low-mass nuclide ^{55}Mn and (b) the fairly high-mass nuclide ^{209}Bi? (c) Compare the two answers, with an explanation. What is the nuclear charge density ρ_q of (d) ^{55}Mn and (e) ^{209}Bi? (f) Compare the two answers, with an explanation.

•8 (a) Show that the mass M of an atom is given approximately by $M_{app} = Am_p$, where A is the mass number and m_p is the proton mass. For (b) ^{1}H, (c) ^{31}P, (d) ^{120}Sn, (e) ^{197}Au, and (f) ^{239}Pu, use Table 42-1 to find the percentage deviation between M_{app} and M:

$$\text{percentage deviation} = \frac{M_{app} - M}{M}100.$$

(g) Is a value of M_{app} accurate enough to be used in a calculation of a nuclear binding energy?

•9 The nuclide ^{14}C contains (a) how many protons and (b) how many neutrons?

•10 What is the mass excess Δ_1 of ^{1}H (actual mass is 1.007 825 u) in (a) atomic mass units and (b) MeV/c^2? What is the mass excess Δ_n of a neutron (actual mass is 1.008 665 u) in (c) atomic mass units and (d) MeV/c^2? What is the mass excess Δ_{120} of ^{120}Sn (actual mass is 119.902 197 u) in (e) atomic mass units and (f) MeV/c^2?

•11 SSM Nuclear radii may be measured by scattering high-energy (high speed) electrons from nuclei. (a) What is the de Broglie wavelength for 200 MeV electrons? (b) Are these electrons suitable probes for this purpose?

•12 The electric potential energy of a uniform sphere of charge q and radius r is given by

$$U = \frac{3q^2}{20\pi\varepsilon_0 r}.$$

(a) Does the energy represent a tendency for the sphere to bind together or blow apart? The nuclide ^{239}Pu is spherical with radius 6.64 fm. For this nuclide, what are (b) the electric potential energy U according to the equation, (c) the electric potential energy per proton, and (d) the electric potential energy per nucleon? The binding energy per nucleon is 7.56 MeV. (e) Why is the nuclide bound so well when the answers to (c) and (d) are large and positive?

•13 A neutron star is a stellar object whose density is about that of nuclear matter, 2×10^{17} kg/m^3. Suppose that the Sun were to collapse and become such a star without losing any of its present mass. What would be its radius?

••14 GO What is the binding energy per nucleon of the americium isotope $^{244}_{95}$Am? Here are some atomic masses and the neutron mass.

$^{244}_{95}$Am	244.064 279 u	^{1}H	1.007 825 u
n	1.008 665 u		

••15 (a) Show that the energy associated with the strong force between nucleons in a nucleus is proportional to A, the mass number of the nucleus in question. (b) Show that the energy associated with the Coulomb force between protons in a nucleus is proportional to $Z(Z - 1)$. (c) Show that, as we move to larger and larger nuclei (see Fig. 42-5), the importance of the Coulomb force increases more rapidly than does that of the strong force.

••16 GO What is the binding energy per nucleon of the europium isotope $^{152}_{63}$Eu? Here are some atomic masses and the neutron mass.

$^{152}_{63}$Eu	151.921 742 u	^{1}H	1.007 825 u
n	1.008 665 u		

••17 Because the neutron has no charge, its mass must be found in some way other than by using a mass spectrometer. When a neutron and a proton meet (assume both to be almost stationary), they combine and form a deuteron, emitting a gamma ray whose energy is 2.2233 MeV. The masses of the proton and the deuteron are 1.007 276 467 u and 2.013 553 212 u, respectively. Find the mass of the neutron from these data.

••18 GO What is the binding energy per nucleon of the rutherfordium isotope $^{259}_{104}$Rf? Here are some atomic masses and the neutron mass.

$^{259}_{104}$Rf	259.105 63 u	^{1}H	1.007 825 u
n	1.008 665 u		

••19 A periodic table might list the average atomic mass of magnesium as being 24.312 u, which is the result of *weighting* the atomic masses of the magnesium isotopes according to their natural abundances on Earth. The three isotopes and their masses are ^{24}Mg (23.985 04 u), ^{25}Mg (24.985 84 u), and ^{26}Mg (25.982 59 u). The natural abundance of ^{24}Mg is 78.99% by mass (that is, 78.99% of the mass of a naturally occurring sample of magnesium is due to the presence of ^{24}Mg). What is the abundance of (a) ^{25}Mg and (b) ^{26}Mg?

••20 What is the binding energy per nucleon of ^{262}Bh? The mass of the atom is 262.1231 u.

••21 SSM WWW (a) Show that the total binding energy E_{be} of a given nuclide is

$$E_{be} = Z\Delta_H + N\Delta_n - \Delta,$$

where Δ_H is the mass excess of ^{1}H, Δ_n is the mass excess of a neutron, and Δ is the mass excess of the given nuclide. (b) Using this method, calculate the binding energy per nucleon for ^{197}Au. Compare your result with the value listed in Table 42-1. The needed mass excesses, rounded to three significant figures, are $\Delta_H = +7.29$ MeV, $\Delta_n = +8.07$ MeV, and $\Delta_{197} = -31.2$ MeV. Note the economy of calculation that results when mass excesses are used in place of the actual masses.

••22 GO An α particle (^{4}He nucleus) is to be taken apart in the following steps. Give the energy (work) required for each step: (a) remove a proton, (b) remove a neutron, and (c) separate the remaining proton and neutron. For an α particle, what are (d) the total binding energy and (e) the binding energy per nucleon? (f) Does either match an answer to (a), (b), or (c)? Here are some atomic masses and the neutron mass.

^{4}He	4.002 60 u	^{2}H	2.014 10 u
^{3}H	3.016 05 u	^{1}H	1.007 83 u
n	1.008 67 u		

••23 SSM Verify the binding energy per nucleon given in Table 42-1 for the plutonium isotope ^{239}Pu. The mass of the neutral atom is 239.052 16 u.

••24 A penny has a mass of 3.0 g. Calculate the energy that would be required to separate all the neutrons and protons in this coin from one another. For simplicity, assume that the penny is made entirely of ^{63}Cu atoms (of mass 62.929 60 u). The masses of the proton-plus-electron and the neutron are 1.007 83 u and 1.008 66 u, respectively.

Module 42-3 Radioactive Decay

•25 Cancer cells are more vulnerable to x and gamma radiation than are healthy cells. In the past, the standard source for radiation therapy was radioactive ^{60}Co, which decays, with a half-life of 5.27 y, into an excited nuclear state of ^{60}Ni. That nickel isotope then immediately emits two gamma-ray photons, each with an approximate energy of 1.2 MeV. How many radioactive ^{60}Co nuclei are present in a 6000 Ci source of the type used in hospitals? (Energetic particles from linear accelerators are now used in radiation therapy.)

•26 The half-life of a radioactive isotope is 140 d. How many days would it take for the decay rate of a sample of this isotope to fall to one-fourth of its initial value?

•27 A radioactive nuclide has a half-life of 30.0 y. What fraction of an initially pure sample of this nuclide will remain undecayed at the end of (a) 60.0 y and (b) 90.0 y?

•28 The plutonium isotope ^{239}Pu is produced as a by-product in nuclear reactors and hence is accumulating in our environment. It is radioactive, decaying with a half-life of 2.41×10^4 y. (a) How many nuclei of Pu constitute a chemically lethal dose of 2.00 mg? (b) What is the decay rate of this amount?

•29 SSM WWW A radioactive isotope of mercury, ^{197}Hg, decays to gold, ^{197}Au, with a disintegration constant of 0.0108 h^{-1}. (a) Calculate the half-life of the ^{197}Hg. What fraction of a sample will remain at the end of (b) three half-lives and (c) 10.0 days?

•30 The half-life of a particular radioactive isotope is 6.5 h. If there are initially 48×10^{19} atoms of this isotope, how many remain at the end of 26 h?

•31 Consider an initially pure 3.4 g sample of ^{67}Ga, an isotope that has a half-life of 78 h. (a) What is its initial decay rate? (b) What is its decay rate 48 h later?

•32 When aboveground nuclear tests were conducted, the explosions shot radioactive dust into the upper atmosphere. Global air circulations then spread the dust worldwide before it settled out on ground and water. One such test was conducted in October 1976. What fraction of the ^{90}Sr produced by that explosion still existed in October 2006? The half-life of ^{90}Sr is 29 y.

••33 The air in some caves includes a significant amount of radon gas, which can lead to lung cancer if breathed over a prolonged time. In British caves, the air in the cave with the greatest amount of the gas has an activity per volume of 1.55×10^5 Bq/m^3. Suppose that you spend two full days exploring (and sleeping in) that cave. Approximately how many ^{222}Rn atoms would you take in and out of your lungs during your two-day stay? The radionuclide ^{222}Rn in radon gas has a half-life of 3.82 days. You need to estimate your lung capacity and average breathing rate.

••34 Calculate the mass of a sample of (initially pure) ^{40}K that has an initial decay rate of 1.70×10^5 disintegrations/s. The isotope has a half-life of 1.28×10^9 y.

••35 SSM A certain radionuclide is being manufactured in a cyclotron at a constant rate R. It is also decaying with disintegration constant λ. Assume that the production process has been going on for a time that is much longer than the half-life of the radionuclide. (a) Show that the number of radioactive nuclei present after such time remains constant and is given by $N = R/\lambda$. (b) Now show that this result holds no matter how many radioactive nuclei were present initially. The nuclide is said to be in *secular equilibrium* with its source; in this state its decay rate is just equal to its production rate.

••36 Plutonium isotope ^{239}Pu decays by alpha decay with a half-life of 24 100 y. How many milligrams of helium are produced by an initially pure 12.0 g sample of ^{239}Pu at the end of 20 000 y? (Consider only the helium produced directly by the plutonium and not by any by-products of the decay process.)

••37 The radionuclide ^{64}Cu has a half-life of 12.7 h. If a sample contains 5.50 g of initially pure ^{64}Cu at $t = 0$, how much of it will decay between $t = 14.0$ h and $t = 16.0$ h?

••38 A dose of 8.60 μCi of a radioactive isotope is injected into a patient. The isotope has a half-life of 3.0 h. How many of the isotope parents are injected?

••39 The radionuclide ^{56}Mn has a half-life of 2.58 h and is produced in a cyclotron by bombarding a manganese target with deuterons. The target contains only the stable manganese isotope ^{55}Mn, and the manganese–deuteron reaction that produces ^{56}Mn is

$$^{55}\text{Mn} + \text{d} \rightarrow {}^{56}\text{Mn} + \text{p}.$$

If the bombardment lasts much longer than the half-life of ^{56}Mn, the activity of the ^{56}Mn produced in the target reaches a final value of 8.88×10^{10} Bq. (a) At what rate is ^{56}Mn being produced? (b) How many ^{56}Mn nuclei are then in the target? (c) What is their total mass?

••40 A source contains two phosphorus radionuclides, ^{32}P ($T_{1/2}$ = 14.3 d) and ^{33}P ($T_{1/2}$ = 25.3 d). Initially, 10.0% of the decays come from ^{33}P. How long must one wait until 90.0% do so?

••41 A 1.00 g sample of samarium emits alpha particles at a rate of 120 particles/s. The responsible isotope is ^{147}Sm, whose natural abundance in bulk samarium is 15.0%. Calculate the half-life.

••42 What is the activity of a 20 ng sample of ^{92}Kr, which has a half-life of 1.84 s?

••43 GO A radioactive sample intended for irradiation of a hospital patient is prepared at a nearby laboratory. The sample has a half-life of 83.61 h. What should its initial activity be if its activity is to be 7.4×10^8 Bq when it is used to irradiate the patient 24 h later?

••44 GO Figure 42-19 shows the decay of parents in a radioactive sample. The axes are scaled by $N_s = 2.00 \times 10^6$ and $t_s = 10.0$ s. What is the activity of the sample at $t = 27.0$ s?

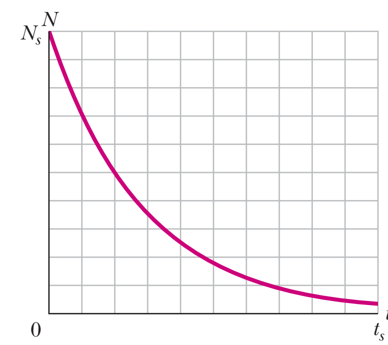


Figure 42-19 Problem 44.

••45 In 1992, Swiss police arrested two men who were attempting to smuggle osmium out of Eastern Europe for a clandestine sale. However, by error, the smugglers had picked up ^{137}Cs. Reportedly, each smuggler was carrying a 1.0 g sample of ^{137}Cs *in a pocket*! In (a) bequerels and (b) curies, what was the activity of each sample? The isotope ^{137}Cs has a half-life of 30.2 y. (The activities of radioisotopes commonly used in hospitals range up to a few millicuries.)

••46 The radioactive nuclide ^{99}Tc can be injected into a patient's bloodstream in order to monitor the blood flow, measure the blood volume, or find a tumor, among other goals. The nuclide is produced in a hospital by a "cow" containing ^{99}Mo, a radioactive nuclide that decays to ^{99}Tc with a half-life of 67 h. Once a day, the cow is "milked" for its ^{99}Tc, which is produced in an excited state by the ^{99}Mo; the ^{99}Tc de-excites to its lowest energy state by emitting a gamma-ray photon, which is recorded by detectors placed around the patient. The de-excitation has a half-life of 6.0 h. (a) By what process does ^{99}Mo decay to ^{99}Tc? (b) If a patient is injected with an 8.2×10^7 Bq sample of ^{99}Tc, how many gamma-ray photons are initially produced within the patient each second? (c) If the emission rate of gamma-ray photons from a small tumor that has collected ^{99}Tc is 38 per second at a certain time, how many excited-state ^{99}Tc are located in the tumor at that time?

••47 SSM After long effort, in 1902 Marie and Pierre Curie succeeded in separating from uranium ore the first substantial quantity of radium, one decigram of pure $RaCl_2$. The radium was the radioactive isotope ^{226}Ra, which has a half-life of 1600 y. (a) How many radium nuclei had the Curies isolated? (b) What was the decay rate of their sample, in disintegrations per second?

Module 42-4 Alpha Decay

•48 How much energy is released when a ^{238}U nucleus decays by emitting (a) an alpha particle and (b) a sequence of neutron, proton, neutron, proton? (c) Convince yourself both by reasoned argument and by direct calculation that the difference between these two numbers is just the total binding energy of the alpha particle. (d) Find that binding energy. Some needed atomic and particle masses are

^{238}U	238.050 79 u	^{234}Th	234.043 63 u
^{237}U	237.048 73 u	^{4}He	4.002 60 u
^{236}Pa	236.048 91 u	^{1}H	1.007 83 u
^{235}Pa	235.045 44 u	n	1.008 66 u

•49 SSM Generally, more massive nuclides tend to be more unstable to alpha decay. For example, the most stable isotope of uranium, ^{238}U, has an alpha decay half-life of 4.5×10^9 y. The most stable isotope of plutonium is ^{244}Pu with an 8.0×10^7 y half-life, and for curium we have ^{248}Cm and 3.4×10^5 y. When half of an original sample of ^{238}U has decayed, what fraction of the original sample of (a) plutonium and (b) curium is left?

••50 Large radionuclides emit an alpha particle rather than other combinations of nucleons because the alpha particle has such a stable, tightly bound structure. To confirm this statement, calculate the disintegration energies for these hypothetical decay processes and discuss the meaning of your findings:

(a) $^{235}\text{U} \rightarrow {}^{232}\text{Th} + {}^{3}\text{He}$, (b) $^{235}\text{U} \rightarrow {}^{231}\text{Th} + {}^{4}\text{He}$,
(c) $^{235}\text{U} \rightarrow {}^{230}\text{Th} + {}^{5}\text{He}$.

The needed atomic masses are

^{232}Th	232.0381 u	^{3}He	3.0160 u
^{231}Th	231.0363 u	^{4}He	4.0026 u
^{230}Th	230.0331 u	^{5}He	5.0122 u
^{235}U	235.0429 u		

••51 A ^{238}U nucleus emits a 4.196 MeV alpha particle. Calculate the disintegration energy Q for this process, taking the recoil energy of the residual ^{234}Th nucleus into account.

••52 Under certain rare circumstances, a nucleus can decay by emitting a particle more massive than an alpha particle. Consider the decays

$$^{223}\text{Ra} \rightarrow {}^{209}\text{Pb} + {}^{14}\text{C} \quad \text{and} \quad {}^{223}\text{Ra} \rightarrow {}^{219}\text{Rn} + {}^{4}\text{He}.$$

Calculate the Q value for the (a) first and (b) second decay and determine that both are energetically possible. (c) The Coulomb barrier height for alpha-particle emission is 30.0 MeV. What is the barrier height for ^{14}C emission? (Be careful about the nuclear radii.) The needed atomic masses are

^{223}Ra	223.018 50 u	^{14}C	14.003 24 u
^{209}Pb	208.981 07 u	^{4}He	4.002 60 u
^{219}Rn	219.009 48 u		

Module 42-5 Beta Decay

•53 SSM The cesium isotope ^{137}Cs is present in the fallout from aboveground detonations of nuclear bombs. Because it decays with a slow (30.2 y) half-life into ^{137}Ba, releasing considerable energy in the process, it is of environmental concern. The atomic masses of the Cs and Ba are 136.9071 and 136.9058 u, respectively; calculate the total energy released in such a decay.

•54 Some radionuclides decay by capturing one of their own atomic electrons, a K-shell electron, say. An example is

$$^{49}\text{V} + \text{e}^- \rightarrow {}^{49}\text{Ti} + \nu, \qquad T_{1/2} = 331 \text{ d}.$$

Show that the disintegration energy Q for this process is given by

$$Q = (m_\text{V} - m_\text{Ti})c^2 - E_K,$$

where m_V and m_Ti are the atomic masses of ^{49}V and ^{49}Ti, respectively, and E_K is the binding energy of the vanadium K-shell electron. (*Hint:* Put $\mathbf{m}_\text{V}$ and $\mathbf{m}_\text{Ti}$ as the corresponding nuclear masses and then add in enough electrons to use the atomic masses.)

•55 A free neutron decays according to Eq. 42-26. If the neutron–hydrogen atom mass difference is 840 μu, what is the maximum kinetic energy K_{max} possible for the electron produced in a neutron decay?

•56 An electron is emitted from a middle-mass nuclide ($A = 150$, say) with a kinetic energy of 1.0 MeV. (a) What is its de Broglie wavelength? (b) Calculate the radius of the emitting nucleus. (c) Can such an electron be confined as a standing wave in a "box" of such dimensions? (d) Can you use these numbers to disprove the (abandoned) argument that electrons actually exist in nuclei?

••57 GO The radionuclide ^{11}C decays according to

$$^{11}\text{C} \rightarrow {}^{11}\text{B} + \text{e}^+ + \nu, \qquad T_{1/2} = 20.3 \text{ min}.$$

The maximum energy of the emitted positrons is 0.960 MeV. (a) Show that the disintegration energy Q for this process is given by

$$Q = (m_\text{C} - m_\text{B} - 2m_\text{e})c^2,$$

where m_C and m_B are the atomic masses of ^{11}C and ^{11}B, respectively, and m_e is the mass of a positron. (b) Given the mass values $m_\text{C} = 11.011\,434$ u, $m_\text{B} = 11.009\,305$ u, and $m_\text{e} = 0.000\,548\,6$ u, calculate Q and compare it with the maximum energy of the emitted positron given above. (*Hint:* Let $\mathbf{m}_\text{C}$ and $\mathbf{m}_\text{B}$ be the nuclear masses and then add in enough electrons to use the atomic masses.)

••58 Two radioactive materials that alpha decay, ^{238}U and ^{232}Th, and one that beta decays, ^{40}K, are sufficiently abundant in granite to contribute significantly to the heating of Earth through the decay energy produced. The alpha-decay isotopes give rise to decay chains that stop when stable lead isotopes are formed. The isotope ^{40}K has a single beta decay. (Assume this is the only possible decay of that isotope.) Here is the information:

Parent	Decay Mode	Half-Life (y)	Stable End Point	Q (MeV)	f (ppm)
^{238}U	α	4.47×10^9	^{206}Pb	51.7	4
^{232}Th	α	1.41×10^{10}	^{208}Pb	42.7	13
^{40}K	β	1.28×10^9	^{40}Ca	1.31	4

In the table Q is the *total* energy released in the decay of one parent nucleus to the *final* stable end point and f is the abundance of the isotope in kilograms per kilogram of granite; ppm means parts per million. (a) Show that these materials produce energy as heat at the rate of 1.0×10^{-9} W for each kilogram of granite. (b) Assuming that there is 2.7×10^{22} kg of granite in a 20-km-thick spherical shell at the surface of Earth, estimate the power of this decay process over all of Earth. Compare this power with the total solar power intercepted by Earth, 1.7×10^{17} W.

•••59 SSM WWW The radionuclide ^{32}P decays to ^{32}S as described by Eq. 42-24. In a particular decay event, a 1.71 MeV electron is emitted, the maximum possible value. What is the kinetic energy of the recoiling ^{32}S atom in this event? (*Hint:* For the electron it is necessary to use the relativistic expressions for kinetic energy and linear momentum. The ^{32}S atom is nonrelativistic.)

Module 42-6 Radioactive Dating

•60 A 5.00 g charcoal sample from an ancient fire pit has a ^{14}C activity of 63.0 disintegrations/min. A living tree has a ^{14}C activity of 15.3 disintegrations/min per 1.00 g. The half-life of ^{14}C is 5730 y. How old is the charcoal sample?

•61 The isotope ^{238}U decays to ^{206}Pb with a half-life of 4.47×10^9 y. Although the decay occurs in many individual steps, the first step has by far the longest half-life; therefore, one can often consider the decay to go directly to lead. That is,

$$^{238}\text{U} \rightarrow {}^{206}\text{Pb} + \text{various decay products.}$$

A rock is found to contain 4.20 mg of ^{238}U and 2.135 mg of ^{206}Pb. Assume that the rock contained no lead at formation, so all the lead now present arose from the decay of uranium. How many atoms of (a) ^{238}U and (b) ^{206}Pb does the rock now contain? (c) How many atoms of ^{238}U did the rock contain at formation? (d) What is the age of the rock?

••62 A particular rock is thought to be 260 million years old. If it contains 3.70 mg of ^{238}U, how much ^{206}Pb should it contain? See Problem 61.

••63 GO A rock recovered from far underground is found to contain 0.86 mg of ^{238}U, 0.15 mg of ^{206}Pb, and 1.6 mg of ^{40}Ar. How much ^{40}K will it likely contain? Assume that ^{40}K decays to only ^{40}Ar with a half-life of 1.25×10^9 y. Also assume that ^{238}U has a half-life of 4.47×10^9 y.

•••64 GO The isotope ^{40}K can decay to either ^{40}Ca or ^{40}Ar; assume both decays have a half-life of 1.26×10^9 y. The ratio of the Ca produced to the Ar produced is 8.54/1 = 8.54. A sample originally had only ^{40}K. It now has equal amounts of ^{40}K and ^{40}Ar; that is, the ratio of K to Ar is 1/1 = 1. How old is the sample? (*Hint:* Work this like other radioactive-dating problems, except that this decay has two products.)

Module 42-7 Measuring Radiation Dosage

•65 SSM The nuclide ^{198}Au, with a half-life of 2.70 d, is used in cancer therapy. What mass of this nuclide is required to produce an activity of 250 Ci?

•66 A radiation detector records 8700 counts in 1.00 min. Assuming that the detector records all decays, what is the activity of the radiation source in (a) becquerels and (b) curies?

•67 An organic sample of mass 4.00 kg absorbs 2.00 mJ via slow neutron radiation (RBE = 5). What is the dose equivalent (mSv)?

••68 A 75 kg person receives a whole-body radiation dose of 2.4×10^{-4} Gy, delivered by alpha particles for which the RBE factor is 12. Calculate (a) the absorbed energy in joules and the dose equivalent in (b) sieverts and (c) rem.

••69 An 85 kg worker at a breeder reactor plant accidentally ingests 2.5 mg of ^{239}Pu dust. This isotope has a half-life of 24 100 y, decaying by alpha decay. The energy of the emitted alpha particles is 5.2 MeV, with an RBE factor of 13. Assume that the plutonium resides in the worker's body for 12 h (it is eliminated naturally by the digestive system rather than being absorbed by any of the internal organs) and that 95% of the emitted alpha particles are stopped within the body. Calculate (a) the number of plutonium atoms ingested, (b) the number that decay during the 12 h, (c) the energy absorbed by the body, (d) the resulting physical dose in grays, and (e) the dose equivalent in sieverts.

Module 42-8 Nuclear Models

•70 A typical kinetic energy for a nucleon in a middle-mass nucleus may be taken as 5.00 MeV. To what effective nuclear temperature does this correspond, based on the assumptions of the collective model of nuclear structure?

•71 A measurement of the energy E of an intermediate nucleus must be made within the mean lifetime Δt of the nucleus and necessarily carries an uncertainty ΔE according to the uncertainty principle

$$\Delta E \cdot \Delta t = \hbar.$$

(a) What is the uncertainty ΔE in the energy for an intermediate nucleus if the nucleus has a mean lifetime of 10^{-22} s? (b) Is the nucleus a compound nucleus?

•72 In the following list of nuclides, identify (a) those with filled nucleon shells, (b) those with one nucleon outside a filled shell, and (c) those with one vacancy in an otherwise filled shell: ^{13}C, ^{18}O, ^{40}K, ^{49}Ti, ^{60}Ni, ^{91}Zr, ^{92}Mo, ^{121}Sb, ^{143}Nd, ^{144}Sm, ^{205}Tl, and ^{207}Pb.

••73 SSM Consider the three formation processes shown for the compound nucleus ^{20}Ne in Fig. 42-14. Here are some of the atomic and particle masses:

^{20}Ne	19.992 44 u	α	4.002 60 u
^{19}F	18.998 40 u	p	1.007 83 u
^{16}O	15.994 91 u		

What energy must (a) the alpha particle, (b) the proton, and (c) the γ-ray photon have to provide 25.0 MeV of excitation energy to the compound nucleus?

Additional Problems

74 GO In a certain rock, the ratio of lead atoms to uranium atoms is 0.300. Assume that uranium has a half-life of 4.47×10^9 y and that the rock had no lead atoms when it formed. How old is the rock?

75 SSM A certain stable nuclide, after absorbing a neutron, emits an electron, and the new nuclide splits spontaneously into two alpha particles. Identify the nuclide.

76 A typical chest x-ray radiation dose is 250 μSv, delivered by x rays with an RBE factor of 0.85. Assuming that the mass of the exposed tissue is one-half the patient's mass of 88 kg, calculate the energy absorbed in joules.

77 SSM How many years are needed to reduce the activity of ^{14}C to 0.020 of its original activity? The half-life of ^{14}C is 5730 y.

78 GO Radioactive element *AA* can decay to either element *BB* or element *CC*. The decay depends on chance, but the ratio of the resulting number of *BB* atoms to the resulting number of *CC* atoms is always 2/1. The decay has a half-life of 8.00 days. We start with a sample of pure *AA*. How long must we wait until the number of *CC* atoms is 1.50 times the number of *AA* atoms?

79 GO SSM One of the dangers of radioactive fallout from a nuclear bomb is its ^{90}Sr, which decays with a 29-year half-life. Because it has chemical properties much like those of calcium, the strontium, if ingested by a cow, becomes concentrated in the cow's milk. Some of the ^{90}Sr ends up in the bones of whoever drinks the milk. The energetic electrons emitted in the beta decay of ^{90}Sr damage the bone marrow and thus impair the production of red blood cells. A 1 megaton bomb produces approximately 400 g of ^{90}Sr. If the fallout spreads uniformly over a 2000 km^2 area, what ground area would hold an amount of radioactivity equal to the "allowed" limit for one person, which is 74 000 counts/s?

80 Because of the 1986 explosion and fire in a reactor at the Chernobyl nuclear power plant in northern Ukraine, part of Ukraine is contaminated with ^{137}Cs, which undergoes beta-minus decay with a half-life of 30.2 y. In 1996, the total activity of this contamination over an area of 2.6×10^5 km^2 was estimated to be 1×10^{16} Bq. Assume that the ^{137}Cs is uniformly spread over that area and that the beta-decay electrons travel either directly upward or directly downward. How many beta-decay electrons would you intercept were you to lie on the ground in that area for 1 h (a) in 1996 and (b) today? (You need to estimate your cross-sectional area that intercepts those electrons.)

81 Figure 42-20 shows part of the decay scheme of ^{237}Np on a plot of mass number A versus proton number Z; five lines that represent either alpha decay or beta-minus decay connect dots that represent isotopes. What is the isotope at the end of the five decays (as marked with a question mark in Fig. 42-20)?

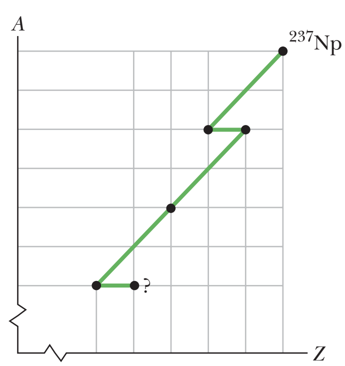


Figure 42-20 Problem 81.

82 After a brief neutron irradiation of silver, two isotopes are present: ^{108}Ag ($T_{1/2}$ = 2.42 min) with an initial decay rate of 3.1×10^5/s, and ^{110}Ag ($T_{1/2}$ = 24.6 s) with an initial decay rate of 4.1×10^6/s. Make a semilog plot similar to Fig. 42-9 showing the total combined decay rate of the two isotopes as a function of time from $t = 0$ until $t = 10$ min. We used Fig. 42-9 to illustrate the extraction of the half-life for simple (one isotope) decays. Given only your plot of total decay rate for the two-isotope system here, suggest a way to analyze it in order to find the half-lives of both isotopes.

83 Because a nucleon is confined to a nucleus, we can take the uncertainty in its position to be approximately the nuclear radius r. Use the uncertainty principle to determine the uncertainty Δp in the linear momentum of the nucleon. Using the approximation $p \approx \Delta p$ and the fact that the nucleon is nonrelativistic, calculate the kinetic energy of the nucleon in a nucleus with $A = 100$.

84 A radium source contains 1.00 mg of ^{226}Ra, which decays with a half-life of 1600 y to produce ^{222}Rn, a noble gas. This radon isotope in turn decays by alpha emission with a half-life of 3.82 d. If this process continues for a time much longer than the half-life of ^{222}Rn, the ^{222}Rn decay rate reaches a limiting value that matches the rate at which ^{222}Rn is being produced, which is approximately constant because of the relatively long half-life of ^{226}Ra. For the source under this limiting condition, what are (a) the activity of ^{226}Ra, (b) the activity of ^{222}Rn, and (c) the total mass of ^{222}Rn?

85 Make a nuclidic chart similar to Fig. 42-6 for the 25 nuclides $^{118-122}$Te, $^{117-121}$Sb, $^{116-120}$Sn, $^{115-119}$In, and $^{114-118}$Cd. Draw in and label (a) all isobaric (constant A) lines and (b) all lines of constant neutron excess, defined as $N - Z$.

86 GO A projectile alpha particle is headed directly toward a target aluminum nucleus. Both objects are assumed to be spheres. What energy is required of the alpha particle if it is to momentarily stop just as its "surface" touches the "surface" of the aluminum nucleus? Assume that the target nucleus remains stationary.

87 Consider a ^{238}U nucleus to be made up of an alpha particle (^{4}He) and a residual nucleus (^{234}Th). Plot the electrostatic potential energy $U(r)$, where r is the distance between these particles. Cover the approximate range 10 fm $< r <$ 100 fm and compare your plot with that of Fig. 42-10.

88 Characteristic nuclear time is a useful but loosely defined quantity, taken to be the time required for a nucleon with a few million electron-volts of kinetic energy to travel a distance equal to the diameter of a middle-mass nuclide. What is the order of magnitude of this quantity? Consider 5 MeV neutrons traversing a nuclear diameter of ^{197}Au; use Eq. 42-3.

89 What is the likely mass number of a spherical nucleus with a radius of 3.6 fm as measured by electron-scattering methods?

90 Using a nuclidic chart, write the symbols for (a) all stable isotopes with $Z = 60$, (b) all radioactive nuclides with $N = 60$, and (c) all nuclides with $A = 60$.

91 If the unit for atomic mass were defined so that the mass of ^{1}H were exactly 1.000 000 u, what would be the mass of (a) ^{12}C (actual mass 12.000 000 u) and (b) ^{238}U (actual mass 238.050 785 u)?

92 High-mass radionuclides, which may be either alpha or beta emitters, belong to one of four decay chains, depending on whether their mass number A is of the form $4n$, $4n + 1$, $4n + 2$, or $4n + 3$, where n is a positive integer. (a) Justify this statement and show that if a nuclide belongs to one of these families, all its decay products belong to the same family. Classify the following nuclides as to family: (b) ^{235}U, (c) ^{236}U, (d) ^{238}U, (e) ^{239}Pu, (f) ^{240}Pu, (g) ^{245}Cm, (h) ^{246}Cm, (i) ^{249}Cf, and (j) ^{253}Fm.

93 Find the disintegration energy Q for the decay of ^{49}V by K-electron capture (see Problem 54). The needed data are m_V = 48.948 52 u, m_{Ti} = 48.947 87 u, and E_K = 5.47 keV.

94 Locate the nuclides displayed in Table 42-1 on the nuclidic chart of Fig. 42-5. Verify that they lie in the stability zone.

95 The radionuclide ^{32}P ($T_{1/2}$ = 14.28 d) is often used as a tracer to follow the course of biochemical reactions involving phosphorus. (a) If the counting rate in a particular experimental setup is initially 3050 counts/s, how much time will the rate take to fall to 170 counts/s? (b) A solution containing ^{32}P is fed to the root system of an experimental tomato plant, and the ^{32}P activity in a leaf is measured 3.48 days later. By what factor must this reading be multiplied to correct for the decay that has occurred since the experiment began?

96 At the end of World War II, Dutch authorities arrested Dutch artist Hans van Meegeren for treason because, during the war, he had sold a masterpiece painting to the Nazi Hermann Goering. The painting, *Christ and His Disciples at Emmaus* by Dutch master Johannes Vermeer (1632–1675), had been discovered in 1937 by van Meegeren, after it had been lost for almost 300 years. Soon after the discovery, art experts proclaimed that *Emmaus* was possibly the best Vermeer ever seen. Selling such a Dutch national treasure to the enemy was unthinkable treason.

However, shortly after being imprisoned, van Meegeren suddenly announced that he, not Vermeer, had painted *Emmaus*. He explained that he had carefully mimicked Vermeer's style, using a 300-year-old canvas and Vermeer's choice of pigments; he had then signed Vermeer's name to the work and baked the painting to give it an authentically old look.

Was van Meegeren lying to avoid a conviction of treason, hoping to be convicted of only the lesser crime of fraud? To art experts, *Emmaus* certainly looked like a Vermeer but, at the time of van Meegeren's trial in 1947, there was no scientific way to answer the question. However, in 1968 Bernard Keisch of Carnegie-Mellon University was able to answer the question with newly developed techniques of radioactive analysis.

Specifically, he analyzed a small sample of white lead-bearing pigment removed from *Emmaus*. This pigment is refined from lead ore, in which the lead is produced by a long radioactive decay series that starts with unstable ^{238}U and ends with stable ^{206}Pb. To follow the spirit of Keisch's analysis, focus on the following abbreviated portion of that decay series, in which intermediate, relatively short-lived radionuclides have been omitted:

$$^{230}\text{Th} \xrightarrow[75.4\text{ ky}]{} {}^{226}\text{Ra} \xrightarrow[1.60\text{ ky}]{} {}^{210}\text{Pb} \xrightarrow[22.6\text{ ky}]{} {}^{206}\text{Pb}.$$

The longer and more important half-lives in this portion of the decay series are indicated.

(a) Show that in a sample of lead ore, the rate at which the number of ^{210}Pb nuclei changes is given by

$$\frac{dN_{210}}{dt} = \lambda_{226}N_{226} - \lambda_{210}N_{210},$$

where N_{210} and N_{226} are the numbers of ^{210}Pb nuclei and ^{226}Ra nuclei in the sample and λ_{210} and λ_{226} are the corresponding disintegration constants.

Because the decay series has been active for billions of years and because the half-life of ^{210}Pb is much less than that of ^{226}Ra, the nuclides ^{226}Ra and ^{210}Pb are in *equilibrium*; that is, the numbers of these nuclides (and thus their concentrations) in the sample do not change. (b) What is the ratio R_{226}/R_{210} of the activities of these nuclides in the sample of lead ore? (c) What is the ratio N_{226}/N_{210} of their numbers?

When lead pigment is refined from the ore, most of the ^{226}Ra is eliminated. Assume that only 1.00% remains. Just after the pigment is produced, what are the ratios (d) R_{226}/R_{210} and (e) N_{226}/N_{210}?

Keisch realized that with time the ratio R_{226}/R_{210} of the pigment would gradually change from the value in freshly refined pigment back to the value in the ore, as equilibrium between the ^{210}Pb and the remaining ^{226}Ra is established in the pigment. If *Emmaus* were painted by Vermeer and the sample of pigment taken from it were 300 years old when examined in 1968, the ratio would be close to the answer of (b). If *Emmaus* were painted by van Meegeren in the 1930s and the sample were only about 30 years old, the ratio would be close to the answer of (d). Keisch found a ratio of 0.09. (f) Is *Emmaus* a Vermeer?

97 From data presented in the first few paragraphs of Module 42-3, find (a) the disintegration constant λ and (b) the half-life of ^{238}U.

CHAPTER 43

Energy from the Nucleus

43-1 NUCLEAR FISSION

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

43.01 Distinguish atomic and nuclear burning, noting that in both processes energy is produced because of a reduction of mass.

43.02 Define the fission process.

43.03 Describe the process of a thermal neutron causing a ^{235}U nucleus to undergo fission, and explain the role of the intermediate compound nucleus.

43.04 For the absorption of a thermal neutron, calculate the change in the system's mass and the energy put into the resulting oscillation of the intermediate compound nucleus.

43.05 For a given fission process, calculate the Q value in terms of the binding energy per nucleon.

43.06 Explain the Bohr–Wheeler model for nuclear fission, including the energy barrier.

43.07 Explain why thermal neutrons cannot cause ^{238}U to undergo fission.

43.08 Identify the approximate amount of energy (MeV) in the fission of any high-mass nucleus to two middle-mass nuclei.

43.09 Relate the rate at which nuclei fission and the rate at which energy is released.

Key Ideas

- Nuclear processes are about a million times more effective, per unit mass, than chemical processes in transforming mass into other forms of energy.
- If a thermal neutron is captured by a ^{235}U nucleus, the resulting ^{236}U can undergo fission, producing two intermediate-mass nuclei and one or more neutrons.
- The energy released in such a fission event is $Q \approx 200$ MeV.
- Fission can be understood in terms of the collective model, in which a nucleus is likened to a charged liquid drop carrying a certain excitation energy.
- A potential barrier must be tunneled through if fission is to occur. Fissionability depends on the relationship between the barrier height E_b and the excitation energy E_n transferred to the nucleus in the neutron capture.

What Is Physics?

Let's now turn to a central concern of physics and certain types of engineering: Can we get useful energy from nuclear sources, as people have done for thousands of years from atomic sources by burning materials like wood and coal? As you already know, the answer is yes, but there are major differences between the two energy sources. When we get energy from wood and coal by burning them, we are tinkering with atoms of carbon and oxygen, rearranging their outer *electrons* into more stable combinations. When we get energy from uranium in a nuclear reactor, we are again burning a fuel, but now we are tinkering with the uranium nucleus, rearranging its *nucleons* into more stable combinations.

Electrons are held in atoms by the electromagnetic Coulomb force, and it takes only a few electron-volts to pull one of them out. On the other hand, nucleons are held in nuclei by the strong force, and it takes a few *million* electron-volts to pull one of *them* out. This factor of a few million is reflected in the fact that we can extract a few million times more energy from a kilogram of uranium than we can from a kilogram of coal.

Table 43-1 Energy Released by 1 kg of Matter

Form of Matter	Process	Time[a]
Water	A 50 m waterfall	5 s
Coal	Burning	8 h
Enriched UO_2	Fission in a reactor	690 y
^{235}U	Complete fission	3×10^4 y
Hot deuterium gas	Complete fusion	3×10^4 y
Matter and antimatter	Complete annihilation	3×10^7 y

[a]This column shows the time interval for which the generated energy could power a 100 W lightbulb.

In both atomic and nuclear burning, the release of energy is accompanied by a decrease in mass, according to the equation $Q = -\Delta m\, c^2$. The central difference between burning uranium and burning coal is that, in the former case, a much larger fraction of the available mass (again, by a factor of a few million) is consumed.

The different processes that can be used for atomic or nuclear burning provide different levels of power, or rates at which the energy is delivered. In the nuclear case, we can burn a kilogram of uranium explosively in a bomb or slowly in a power reactor. In the atomic case, we might consider exploding a stick of dynamite or digesting a jelly doughnut.

Table 43-1 shows how much energy can be extracted from 1 kg of matter by doing various things to it. Instead of reporting the energy directly, the table shows how long the extracted energy could operate a 100 W lightbulb. Only processes in the first three rows of the table have actually been carried out; the remaining three represent theoretical limits that may not be attainable in practice. The bottom row, the total mutual annihilation of matter and antimatter, is an ultimate energy production goal. In that process, *all* the mass energy is transferred to other forms of energy.

The comparisons of Table 43-1 are computed on a per-unit-mass basis. Kilogram for kilogram, you get several million times more energy from uranium than you do from coal or from falling water. On the other hand, there is a lot of coal in Earth's crust, and water is easily backed up behind a dam.

Nuclear Fission: The Basic Process

In 1932 English physicist James Chadwick discovered the neutron. A few years later Enrico Fermi in Rome found that when various elements are bombarded by neutrons, new radioactive elements are produced. Fermi had predicted that the neutron, being uncharged, would be a useful nuclear projectile; unlike the proton or the alpha particle, it experiences no repulsive Coulomb force when it nears a nuclear surface. Even *thermal neutrons,* which are slowly moving neutrons in thermal equilibrium with the surrounding matter at room temperature, with a kinetic energy of only about 0.04 eV, are useful projectiles in nuclear studies.

In the late 1930s physicist Lise Meitner and chemists Otto Hahn and Fritz Strassmann, working in Berlin and following up on the work of Fermi and his co-workers, bombarded solutions of uranium salts with such thermal neutrons. They found that after the bombardment a number of new radionuclides were present. In 1939 one of the radionuclides produced in this way was positively identified, by repeated tests, as barium. But how, Hahn and Strassmann wondered, could this middle-mass element ($Z = 56$) be produced by bombarding uranium ($Z = 92$) with neutrons?

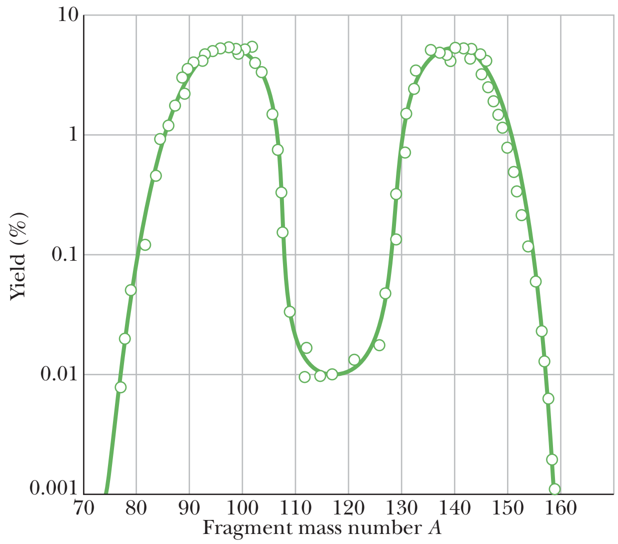


Figure 43-1 The distribution by mass number of the fragments that are found when many fission events of ^{235}U are examined. Note that the vertical scale is logarithmic.

The puzzle was solved within a few weeks by Meitner and her nephew Otto Frisch. They suggested the mechanism by which a uranium nucleus, having absorbed a thermal neutron, could split, with the release of energy, into two roughly equal parts, one of which might well be barium. Frisch named the process **fission.**

Meitner's central role in the discovery of fission was not fully recognized until recent historical research brought it to light. She did not share in the Nobel Prize in chemistry that was awarded to Otto Hahn in 1944. However, in 1997 Meitner was (finally) honored by having an element named after her: meitnerium (symbol Mt, $Z = 109$).

A Closer Look at Fission

Figure 43-1 shows the distribution by mass number of the fragments produced when ^{235}U is bombarded with thermal neutrons. The most probable mass numbers, occurring in about 7% of the events, are centered around $A \approx 95$ and $A \approx 140$. Curiously, the "double-peaked" character of Fig. 43-1 is still not understood.

In a typical ^{235}U fission event, a ^{235}U nucleus absorbs a thermal neutron, producing a compound nucleus ^{236}U in a highly excited state. It is *this* nucleus that actually undergoes fission, splitting into two fragments. These fragments—between them—rapidly emit two neutrons, leaving (in a typical case) ^{140}Xe ($Z = 54$) and ^{94}Sr ($Z = 38$) as fission fragments. Thus, the stepwise fission equation for this event is

$$^{235}\mathrm{U} + \mathrm{n} \rightarrow {}^{236}\mathrm{U} \rightarrow {}^{140}\mathrm{Xe} + {}^{94}\mathrm{Sr} + 2\mathrm{n}. \tag{43-1}$$

Note that during the formation and fission of the compound nucleus, there is conservation of the number of protons and of the number of neutrons involved in the process (and thus conservation of their total number and the net charge).

In Eq. 43-1, the fragments ^{140}Xe and ^{94}Sr are both highly unstable, undergoing beta decay (with the conversion of a neutron to a proton and the emission of an electron and a neutrino) until each reaches a stable end product. For xenon, the decay chain is

$$\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c}
 & ^{140}\mathrm{Xe} \rightarrow & ^{140}\mathrm{Cs} \rightarrow & ^{140}\mathrm{Ba} \rightarrow & ^{140}\mathrm{La} \rightarrow & ^{140}\mathrm{Ce} \\
T_{1/2} & 14\ \mathrm{s} & 64\ \mathrm{s} & 13\ \mathrm{d} & 40\ \mathrm{h} & \text{Stable} \\
\hline
Z & 54 & 55 & 56 & 57 & 58
\end{array} \tag{43-2}$$

For strontium, it is

$$
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
 & {}^{94}\text{Sr} \;\rightarrow & {}^{94}\text{Y} \;\rightarrow & {}^{94}\text{Zr} \\
T_{1/2} & 75\text{ s} & 19\text{ min} & \text{Stable} \\
\hline
Z & 38 & 39 & 40
\end{array}
\qquad (43\text{-}3)
$$

As we should expect from Module 42-5, the mass numbers (140 and 94) of the fragments remain unchanged during these beta-decay processes and the atomic numbers (initially 54 and 38) increase by unity at each step.

Inspection of the stability band on the nuclidic chart of Fig. 42-5 shows why the fission fragments are unstable. The nuclide ^{236}U, which is the fissioning nucleus in the reaction of Eq. 43-1, has 92 protons and 236 − 92, or 144, neutrons, for a neutron/proton ratio of about 1.6. The primary fragments formed immediately after the fission reaction have about this same neutron/proton ratio. However, stable nuclides in the middle-mass region have smaller neutron/proton ratios, in the range of 1.3 to 1.4. The primary fragments are thus *neutron rich* (they have too many neutrons) and will eject a few neutrons, two in the case of the reaction of Eq. 43-1. The fragments that remain are still too neutron rich to be stable. Beta decay offers a mechanism for getting rid of the excess neutrons—namely, by changing them into protons within the nucleus.

We can estimate the energy released by the fission of a high-mass nuclide by examining the total binding energy per nucleon ΔE_{ben} before and after the fission. The idea is that fission can occur because the total mass energy will decrease; that is, ΔE_{ben} will *increase* so that the products of the fission are *more* tightly bound. Thus, the energy Q released by the fission is

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix}\text{total final}\\ \text{binding energy}\end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix}\text{initial}\\ \text{binding energy}\end{pmatrix}. \qquad (43\text{-}4)$$

For our estimate, let us assume that fission transforms an initial high-mass nucleus to two middle-mass nuclei with the same number of nucleons. Then we have

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix}\text{final}\\ \Delta E_{\text{ben}}\end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix}\text{final number}\\ \text{of nucleons}\end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix}\text{initial}\\ \Delta E_{\text{ben}}\end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix}\text{initial number}\\ \text{of nucleons}\end{pmatrix}. \qquad (43\text{-}5)$$

From Fig. 42-7, we see that for a high-mass nuclide ($A \approx 240$), the binding energy per nucleon is about 7.6 MeV/nucleon. For middle-mass nuclides ($A \approx 120$), it is about 8.5 MeV/nucleon. Thus, the energy released by fission of a high-mass nuclide to two middle-mass nuclides is

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= \left(8.5\,\frac{\text{MeV}}{\text{nucleon}}\right)(2\text{ nuclei})\left(120\,\frac{\text{nucleons}}{\text{nucleus}}\right) \\ &\quad - \left(7.6\,\frac{\text{MeV}}{\text{nucleon}}\right)(240\text{ nucleons}) \approx 200\text{ MeV}. \end{aligned} \qquad (43\text{-}6)$$

Checkpoint 1

A generic fission event is

$$^{235}\text{U} + \text{n} \rightarrow X + Y + 2\text{n}.$$

Which of the following pairs *cannot* represent X and Y: (a) ^{141}Xe and ^{93}Sr; (b) ^{139}Cs and ^{95}Rb; (c) ^{156}Nd and ^{79}Ge; (d) ^{121}In and ^{113}Ru?

A Model for Nuclear Fission

Soon after the discovery of fission, Niels Bohr and John Wheeler used the collective model of the nucleus (Module 42-8), based on the analogy between a nucleus and a charged liquid drop, to explain the main nuclear features. Figure 43-2 suggests how the fission process proceeds from this point of view. When a high-mass nucleus—let us say ^{235}U—absorbs a slow (thermal) neutron, as in Fig. 43-2*a*, that neutron falls into the potential well associated with the strong forces that act in the nuclear interior. The neutron's potential energy is then transformed into internal excitation energy of the nucleus, as Fig. 43-2*b* suggests. The amount of excitation energy that a slow neutron carries into a nucleus is equal to the binding energy E_n of the neutron in that nucleus, which is the change in mass energy of the neutron–nucleus system due to the neutron's capture.

Figures 43-2*c* and *d* show that the nucleus, behaving like an energetically oscillating charged liquid drop, will sooner or later develop a short "neck" and will begin to separate into two charged "globs." Two competing forces then act on the globs: Because they are positively charged, the electric force attempts to separate them. Because they hold protons and neutrons, the strong force attempts to pull them together. If the electric repulsion drives them far enough apart to break the neck, the two fragments, each still carrying some residual excitation energy, will fly apart (Figs. 43-2*e* and *f*). Fission has occurred.

This model gave a good qualitative picture of the fission process. What remained to be seen, however, was whether it could answer a hard question: Why are some high-mass nuclides (^{235}U and ^{239}Pu, say) readily fissionable by thermal neutrons when other, equally massive nuclides (^{238}U and ^{243}Am, say) are not?

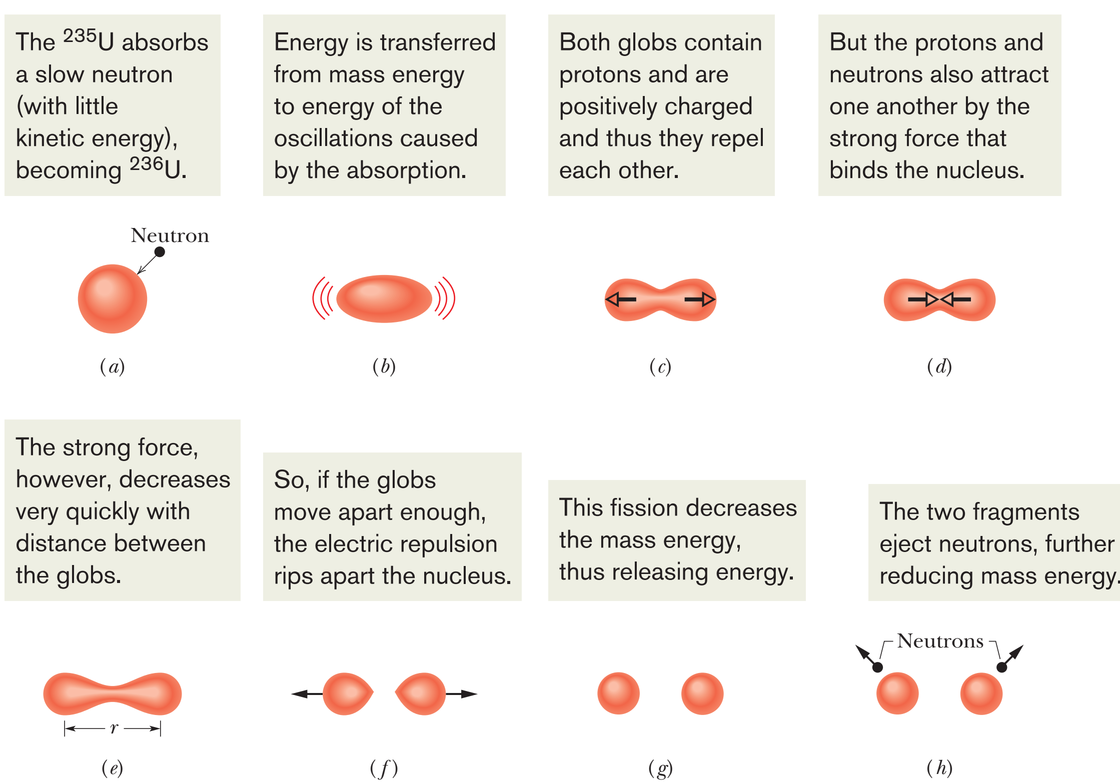


Figure 43-2 The stages of a typical fission process, according to the collective model of Bohr and Wheeler.

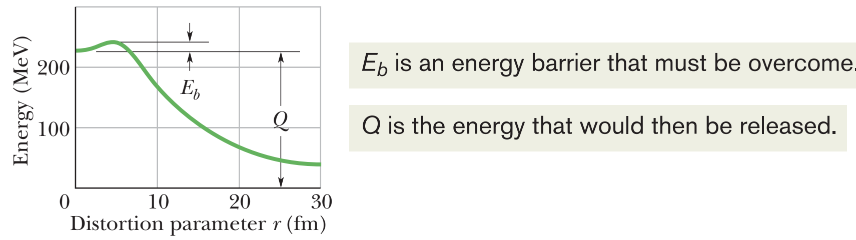


Figure 43-3 The potential energy at various stages in the fission process, as predicted from the collective model of Bohr and Wheeler. The Q of the reaction (about 200 MeV) and the fission barrier height E_b are both indicated.

Bohr and Wheeler were able to answer this question. Figure 43-3 shows a graph of the potential energy of the fissioning nucleus at various stages, derived from their model for the fission process. This energy is plotted against the *distortion parameter* r, which is a rough measure of the extent to which the oscillating nucleus departs from a spherical shape. When the fragments are far apart, this parameter is simply the distance between their centers (Fig. 43-2*e*).

The energy difference between the initial state ($r = 0$) and the final state ($r = \infty$) of the fissioning nucleus—that is, the disintegration energy Q—is labeled in Fig. 43-3. The central feature of that figure, however, is that the potential energy curve passes through a maximum at a certain value of r. Thus, there is a *potential barrier* of height E_b that must be surmounted (or tunneled through) before fission can occur. This reminds us of alpha decay (Fig. 42-10), which is also a process that is inhibited by a potential barrier.

We see then that fission will occur only if the absorbed neutron provides an excitation energy E_n great enough to overcome the barrier. This energy E_n need not be *quite* as great as the barrier height E_b because of the possibility of quantum-physics tunneling.

Table 43-2 shows, for four high-mass nuclides, this test of whether capture of a thermal neutron can cause fissioning. For each nuclide, the table shows both the barrier height E_b of the nucleus that is formed by the neutron capture and the excitation energy E_n due to the capture. The values of E_b are calculated from the theory of Bohr and Wheeler. The values of E_n are calculated from the change in mass energy due to the neutron capture.

For an example of the calculation of E_n, we can go to the first line in the table, which represents the neutron capture process

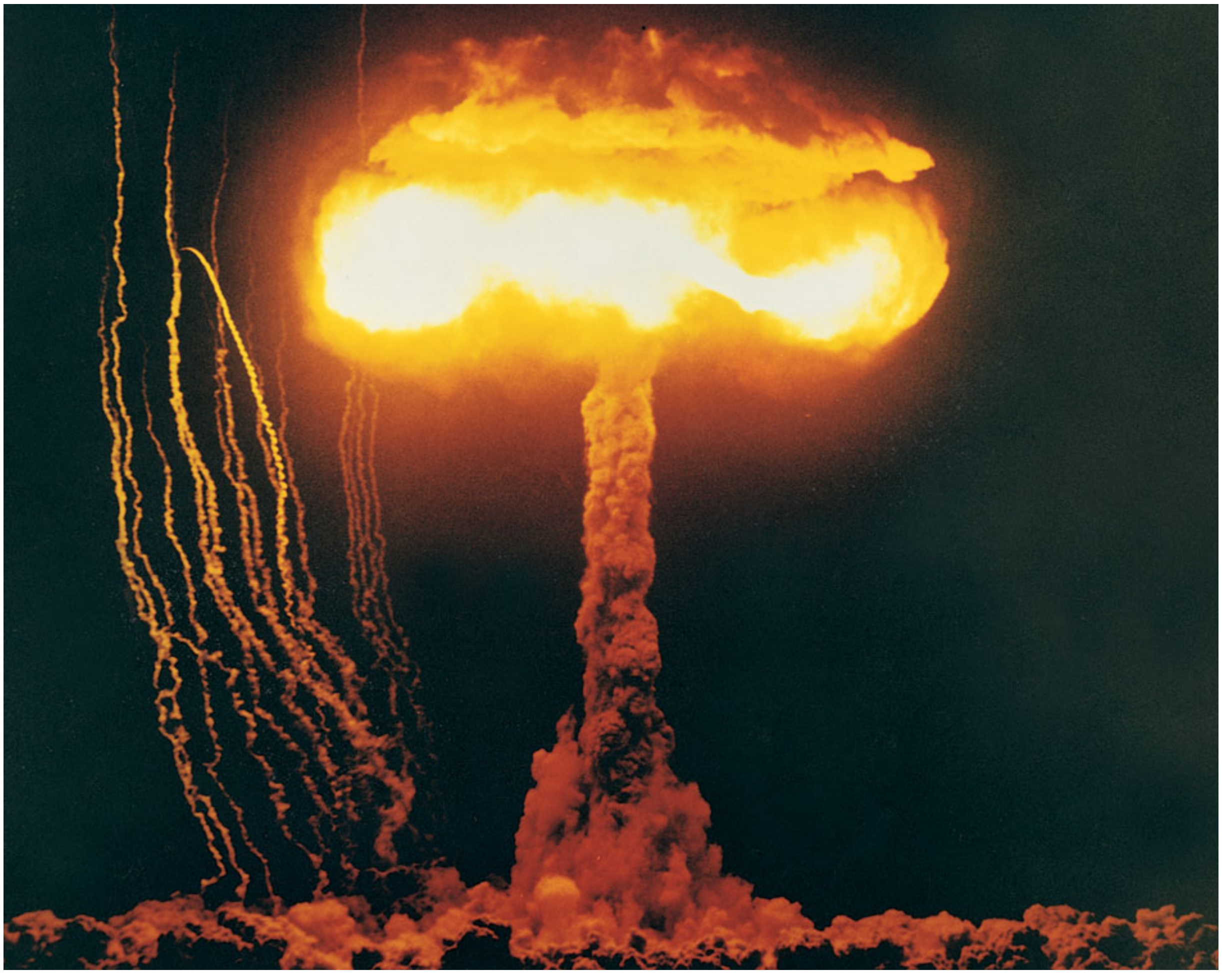
$$^{235}\mathrm{U} + \mathrm{n} \rightarrow {}^{236}\mathrm{U}.$$

The masses involved are 235.043 922 u for ^{235}U, 1.008 665 u for the neutron, and 236.045 562 u for ^{236}U. It is easy to show that, because of the neutron capture, the mass decreases by 7.025×10^{-3} u. Thus, energy is transferred from mass energy to excitation energy E_n. Multiplying the change in mass by c^2 (= 931.494 013 MeV/u) gives us $E_n = 6.5$ MeV, which is listed on the first line of the table.

The first and third results in Table 43-2 are historically profound because they are the reasons the two atomic bombs used in World War II contained ^{235}U (first bomb) and ^{239}Pu (second bomb). That is, for ^{235}U and ^{239}Pu, $E_n > E_b$. This means that fission by absorption of a thermal neutron is predicted to occur for these nuclides. For the other two nuclides in Table 43-2 (^{238}U and ^{243}Am), we have $E_n < E_b$; thus,

Table 43-2 **Test of the Fissionability of Four Nuclides**

Target Nuclide	Nuclide Being Fissioned	E_n (MeV)	E_b (MeV)	Fission by Thermal Neutrons?
^{235}U	^{236}U	6.5	5.2	Yes
^{238}U	^{239}U	4.8	5.7	No
^{239}Pu	^{240}Pu	6.4	4.8	Yes
^{243}Am	^{244}Am	5.5	5.8	No



Courtesy U.S. Department of Energy

Figure 43-4 This image has transfixed the world since World War II. When Robert Oppenheimer, the head of the scientific team that developed the atomic bomb, witnessed the first atomic explosion, he quoted from a sacred Hindu text: "Now I am become Death, the destroyer of worlds."

there is not enough energy from a thermal neutron for the excited nucleus to surmount the barrier or to tunnel through it effectively. Instead of fissioning, the nucleus gets rid of its excitation energy by emitting a gamma-ray photon.

The nuclides ^{238}U and ^{243}Am *can* be made to fission, however, if they absorb a substantially energetic (rather than a thermal) neutron. A ^{238}U nucleus, for example, might fission if it happens to absorb a neutron of at least 1.3 MeV in a so-called *fast fission* process ("fast" because the neutron is fast).

The two atomic bombs used in World War II depended on the ability of thermal neutrons to cause many high-mass nuclides in the cores of the bombs to fission nearly all at once. The process is initiated by a neutron emitter such as beryllium. After its emitted thermal neutrons cause the fission of the first set of ^{235}U, each fission releases more thermal neutrons, which cause more ^{235}U to fission and release thermal neutrons. This **chain reaction** would rapidly spread through the ^{235}U in the bomb, resulting in an explosive and devastating output of energy. Researchers knew that ^{235}U would work, but they had refined only enough for one bomb from uranium ore, which consists mainly of ^{238}U, which thermal neutrons will not fission. As the first bomb was being deployed, a ^{239}Pu bomb was tested successfully in New Mexico (Fig. 43-4), so the next deployed bomb contained ^{239}Pu rather than ^{235}U.

Sample Problem 43.01 Q value in a fission of uranium-235

Find the disintegration energy Q for the fission event of Eq. 43-1, taking into account the decay of the fission fragments as displayed in Eqs. 43-2 and 43-3. Some needed atomic and particle masses are

^{235}U	235.0439 u	^{140}Ce	139.9054 u
n	1.008 66 u	^{94}Zr	93.9063 u

KEY IDEAS

(1) The disintegration energy Q is the energy transferred from mass energy to kinetic energy of the decay products. (2) $Q = -\Delta m\, c^2$, where Δm is the change in mass.

Calculations: Because we are to include the decay of the fission fragments, we combine Eqs. 43-1, 43-2, and 43-3 to write the overall transformation as

$$^{235}\text{U} \rightarrow {}^{140}\text{Ce} + {}^{94}\text{Zr} + \text{n}. \tag{43-7}$$

Only the single neutron appears here because the initiating neutron on the left side of Eq. 43-1 cancels one of the two neutrons on the right of that equation. The mass difference for the reaction of Eq. 43-7 is

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta m &= (139.9054\text{ u} + 93.9063\text{ u} + 1.008\,66\text{ u}) \\ &\quad - (235.0439\text{ u}) \\ &= -0.223\,54\text{ u},\end{aligned}$$

and the corresponding disintegration energy is

$$\begin{aligned}Q &= -\Delta m\, c^2 = -(-0.223\,54\text{ u})(931.494\,013\text{ MeV/u}) \\ &= 208\text{ MeV}, \qquad \text{(Answer)}\end{aligned}$$

which is in good agreement with our estimate of Eq. 43-6.

If the fission event takes place in a bulk solid, most of this disintegration energy, which first goes into kinetic energy of the decay products, appears eventually as an increase in the internal energy of that body, revealing itself as a rise in temperature. Five or six percent or so of the disintegration energy, however, is associated with neutrinos that are emitted during the beta decay of the primary fission fragments. This energy is carried out of the system and is lost.

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43-2 THE NUCLEAR REACTOR

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

43.10 Define chain reaction.
43.11 Explain the neutron leakage problem, the neutron energy problem, and the neutron capture problem.
43.12 Identify the multiplication factor and apply it to relate the number of neutrons and power output after a given number of cycles to the initial number of neutrons and power output.
43.13 Distinguish subcritical, critical, and supercritical.
43.14 Describe the control over the response time.
43.15 Give a general description of a complete generation.

Key Idea

- A nuclear reactor uses a controlled chain reaction of fission events to generate electrical power.

The Nuclear Reactor

For large-scale energy release due to fission, one fission event must trigger others, so that the process spreads throughout the nuclear fuel like flame through a log. The fact that more neutrons are produced in fission than are consumed raises the possibility of just such a chain reaction, with each neutron that is produced potentially triggering another fission. The reaction can be either rapid (as in a nuclear bomb) or controlled (as in a nuclear reactor).

Suppose that we wish to design a reactor based on the fission of ^{235}U by thermal neutrons. Natural uranium contains 0.7% of this isotope, the remaining 99.3% being ^{238}U, which is not fissionable by thermal neutrons. Let us give ourselves an edge by artificially *enriching* the uranium fuel so that it contains perhaps 3% ^{235}U. Three difficulties still stand in the way of a working reactor.

1. *The Neutron Leakage Problem.* Some of the neutrons produced by fission will leak out of the reactor and so not be part of the chain reaction. Leakage is a surface effect; its magnitude is proportional to the square of a typical reactor dimension (the surface area of a cube of edge length a is $6a^2$). Neutron production, however, occurs throughout the volume of the fuel and is thus proportional to the cube of a typical dimension (the volume of the same cube is a^3). We can make the fraction of neutrons lost by leakage as small as we wish by making the reactor core large enough, thereby reducing the surface-to-volume ratio ($= 6/a$ for a cube).
2. *The Neutron Energy Problem.* The neutrons produced by fission are fast, with kinetic energies of about 2 MeV. However, fission is induced most effectively by thermal neutrons. The fast neutrons can be slowed down by mixing the uranium fuel with a substance—called a **moderator**—that has two properties: It is effective in slowing down neutrons via elastic collisions, and it does not remove neutrons from the core by absorbing them so that they do not result in fission. Most power reactors in North America use water as a moderator; the hydrogen nuclei (protons) in the water are the effective component. We saw in Chapter 9 that if a moving particle has a head-on elastic collision with a stationary particle, the moving particle loses *all* its kinetic energy if the two particles have the same mass. Thus, protons form an effective moderator because they have approximately the same mass as the fast neutrons whose speed we wish to reduce.
3. *The Neutron Capture Problem.* As the fast (2 MeV) neutrons generated by fission are slowed down in the moderator to thermal energies (about 0.04 eV), they must pass through a critical energy interval (from 1 to 100 eV) in which they are particularly susceptible to nonfission capture by ^{238}U nuclei. Such *resonance capture,* which results in the emission of a gamma ray, removes the neutron from the fission chain. To minimize such nonfission capture, the uranium fuel and the moderator are not intimately mixed but rather are placed in different regions of the reactor volume.

   In a typical reactor, the uranium fuel is in the form of uranium oxide pellets, which are inserted end to end into long, hollow metal tubes. The liquid moderator surrounds bundles of these **fuel rods,** forming the reactor **core.** This geometric arrangement increases the probability that a fast neutron, produced in a fuel rod, will find itself in the moderator when it passes through the critical energy interval. Once the neutron has reached thermal energies, it may *still* be captured in ways that do not result in fission (called *thermal capture*). However, it is much more likely that the thermal neutron will wander back into a fuel rod and produce a fission event.

Figure 43-5 shows the neutron balance in a typical power reactor operating at constant power. Let us trace a sample of 1000 thermal neutrons through one complete cycle, or *generation,* in the reactor core. They produce 1330 neutrons by fission in the ^{235}U fuel and 40 neutrons by fast fission in ^{238}U, which gives 370 neutrons more than the original 1000, all of them fast.

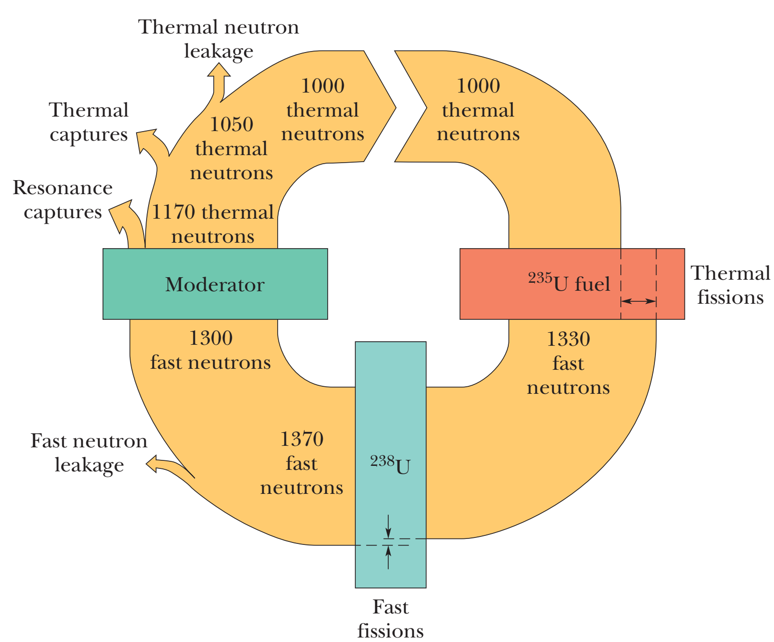


Figure 43-5 Neutron bookkeeping in a reactor. A generation of 1000 thermal neutrons interacts with the ^{235}U fuel, the ^{238}U matrix, and the moderator. They produce 1370 neutrons by fission, but 370 of these are lost by nonfission capture or by leakage, meaning that 1000 thermal neutrons are left to form the next generation. The figure is drawn for a reactor running at a steady power level.

When the reactor is operating at a steady power level, exactly the same number of neutrons (370) is then lost by leakage from the core and by nonfission capture, leaving 1000 thermal neutrons to start the next generation. In this cycle, of course, each of the 370 neutrons produced by fission events represents a deposit of energy in the reactor core, heating up the core.

The *multiplication factor* k—an important reactor parameter—is the ratio of the number of neutrons present at the conclusion of a particular generation to the number present at the beginning of that generation. In Fig. 43-5, the multiplication factor is 1000/1000, or exactly unity. For $k = 1$, the operation of the reactor is said to be exactly *critical,* which is what we wish it to be for steady-power operation. Reactors are actually designed so that they are inherently *supercritical* ($k > 1$); the multiplication factor is then adjusted to critical operation ($k = 1$) by inserting **control rods** into the reactor core. These rods, containing a material such as cadmium that absorbs neutrons readily, can be inserted farther to reduce the operating power level and withdrawn to increase the power level or to compensate for the tendency of reactors to go *subcritical* as (neutron-absorbing) fission products build up in the core during continued operation.

If you pulled out one of the control rods rapidly, how fast would the reactor power level increase? This *response time* is controlled by the fascinating circumstance that a small fraction of the neutrons generated by fission do not escape promptly from the newly formed fission fragments but are emitted from these fragments later, as the fragments decay by beta emission. Of the 370 "new" neutrons produced in Fig. 43-5, for example, perhaps 16 are delayed, being emitted from fragments following beta decays whose half-lives range from 0.2 to 55 s. These delayed neutrons are few in number, but they serve the essential purpose of slowing the reactor response time to match practical mechanical reaction times.

Figure 43-6 shows the broad outlines of an electrical power plant based on a *pressurized-water reactor* (PWR), a type in common use in North America. In such a reactor, water is used both as the moderator and as the heat transfer medium. In the *primary loop,* water is circulated through the reactor vessel and

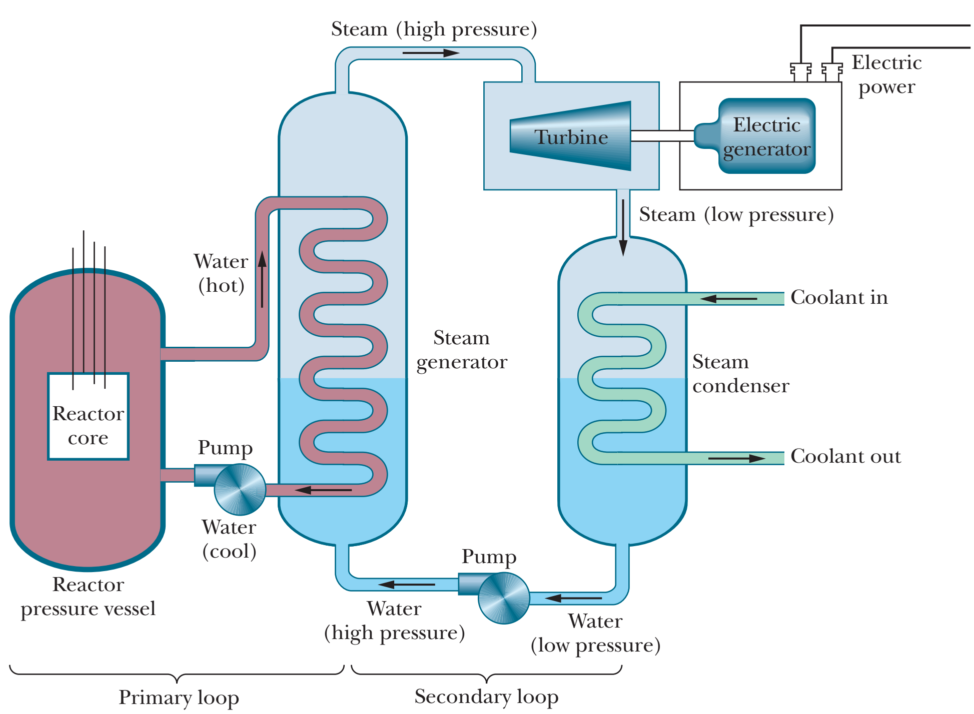


Figure 43-6 A simplified layout of a nuclear power plant, based on a pressurized-water reactor. Many features are omitted—among them the arrangement for cooling the reactor core in case of an emergency.

transfers energy at high temperature and pressure (possibly 600 K and 150 atm) from the hot reactor core to the steam generator, which is part of the *secondary loop*. In the steam generator, evaporation provides high-pressure steam to operate the turbine that drives the electric generator. To complete the secondary loop, low-pressure steam from the turbine is cooled and condensed to water and forced back into the steam generator by a pump. To give some idea of scale, a typical reactor vessel for a 1000 MW (electric) plant may be 12 m high and weigh 4 MN. Water flows through the primary loop at a rate of about 1 ML/min.

An unavoidable feature of reactor operation is the accumulation of radioactive wastes, including both fission products and heavy *transuranic* nuclides such as plutonium and americium. One measure of their radioactivity is the rate at which they release energy in thermal form. Figure 43-7 shows the thermal power generated by such wastes from one year's operation of a typical large nuclear plant. Note that both scales are logarithmic. Most "spent" fuel rods from power reactor operation are stored on site, immersed in water; permanent secure storage facilities for reactor waste have yet to be completed. Much weapons-derived radioactive waste accumulated during World War II and in subsequent years is also still in on-site storage.

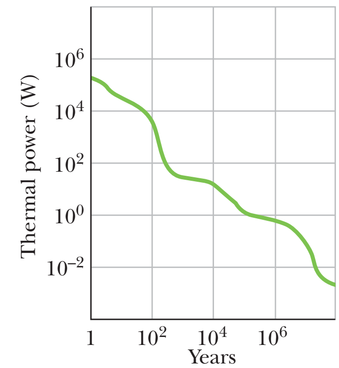


Figure 43-7 The thermal power released by the radioactive wastes from one year's operation of a typical large nuclear power plant, shown as a function of time. The curve is the superposition of the effects of many radionuclides, with a wide variety of half-lives. Note that both scales are logarithmic.

Sample Problem 43.02 Nuclear reactor: efficiency, fission rate, consumption rate

A large electric generating station is powered by a pressurized-water nuclear reactor. The thermal power produced in the reactor core is 3400 MW, and 1100 MW of electricity is generated by the station. The *fuel charge* is 8.60×10^4 kg of uranium, in the form of uranium oxide, distributed among 5.70×10^4 fuel rods. The uranium is enriched to 3.0% ^{235}U.

(a) What is the station's efficiency?

KEY IDEA

The efficiency for this power plant or any other energy device is given by this: Efficiency is the ratio of the output power (rate at which useful energy is provided) to the input power (rate at which energy must be supplied).

Calculation: Here the efficiency (eff) is

$$\text{eff} = \frac{\text{useful output}}{\text{energy input}} = \frac{1100 \text{ MW (electric)}}{3400 \text{ MW (thermal)}}$$
$$= 0.32, \text{ or } 32\%. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

The efficiency—as for all power plants—is controlled by the second law of thermodynamics. To run this plant, energy at the rate of 3400 MW − 1100 MW, or 2300 MW, must be discharged as thermal energy to the environment.

(b) At what rate R do fission events occur in the reactor core?

KEY IDEAS

1. The fission events provide the input power P of 3400 MW ($= 3.4 \times 10^9$ J/s).
2. From Eq. 43-6, the energy Q released by each event is about 200 MeV.

Calculation: For steady-state operation (P is constant), we find

$$R = \frac{P}{Q} = \left(\frac{3.4 \times 10^9 \text{ J/s}}{200 \text{ MeV/fission}}\right)\left(\frac{1 \text{ MeV}}{1.60 \times 10^{-13} \text{ J}}\right)$$
$$= 1.06 \times 10^{20} \text{ fissions/s}$$
$$\approx 1.1 \times 10^{20} \text{ fissions/s.} \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

(c) At what rate (in kilograms per day) is the ^{235}U fuel disappearing? Assume conditions at start-up.

KEY IDEA

^{235}U disappears due to two processes: (1) the fission process with the rate calculated in part (b) and (2) the nonfission capture of neutrons at about one-fourth that rate.

Calculations: The total rate at which the number of atoms of ^{235}U decreases is

$$(1 + 0.25)(1.06 \times 10^{20} \text{ atoms/s}) = 1.33 \times 10^{20} \text{ atoms/s.}$$

We want the corresponding decrease in the mass of the ^{235}U fuel. We start with the mass of each ^{235}U atom. We cannot use the molar mass for uranium listed in Appendix F because that molar mass is for ^{238}U, the most common uranium isotope. Instead, we shall assume that the mass of each ^{235}U atom in atomic mass units is equal to the mass number A. Thus, the mass of each ^{235}U atom is 235 u ($= 3.90 \times 10^{-25}$ kg). Then the rate at which the ^{235}U fuel disappears is

$$\frac{dM}{dt} = (1.33 \times 10^{20} \text{ atoms/s})(3.90 \times 10^{-25} \text{ kg/atom})$$
$$= 5.19 \times 10^{-5} \text{ kg/s} \approx 4.5 \text{ kg/d.} \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

(d) At this rate of fuel consumption, how long would the fuel supply of ^{235}U last?

Calculation: At start-up, we know that the total mass of ^{235}U is 3.0% of the 8.60×10^4 kg of uranium oxide. So, the time T required to consume this total mass of ^{235}U at the steady rate of 4.5 kg/d is

$$T = \frac{(0.030)(8.60 \times 10^4 \text{ kg})}{4.5 \text{ kg/d}} \approx 570 \text{ d.} \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

In practice, the fuel rods must be replaced (usually in batches) before their ^{235}U content is entirely consumed.

(e) At what rate is mass being converted to other forms of energy by the fission of ^{235}U in the reactor core?

KEY IDEA

The conversion of mass energy to other forms of energy is linked only to the fissioning that produces the input power (3400 MW) and not to the nonfission capture of neutrons (although both these processes affect the rate at which ^{235}U is consumed).

Calculation: From Einstein's relation $E = mc^2$, we can write

$$\frac{dm}{dt} = \frac{dE/dt}{c^2} = \frac{3.4 \times 10^9 \text{ W}}{(3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})^2} \qquad (43\text{-}8)$$

$$= 3.8 \times 10^{-8} \text{ kg/s} = 3.3 \text{ g/d.} \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

We see that the mass conversion rate is about the mass of one common coin per day, considerably less (by about three orders of magnitude) than the fuel consumption rate calculated in (c).

43-3 A NATURAL NUCLEAR REACTOR

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

43.16 Describe the evidence that a natural nuclear reactor operated in Gabon, West Africa, about 2 billion years ago.

43.17 Explain why a deposit of uranium ore could go critical in the past but not today.

Key Idea

- A natural nuclear reactor occurred in West Africa about two billion years ago.

A Natural Nuclear Reactor

On December 2, 1942, when their reactor first became operational (Fig. 43-8), Enrico Fermi and his associates had every right to assume that they had put into operation the first fission reactor that had ever existed on this planet. About 30 years later it was discovered that, if they did in fact think that, they were wrong.

Some two billion years ago, in a uranium deposit recently mined in Gabon, West Africa, a natural fission reactor apparently went into operation and ran for perhaps several hundred thousand years before shutting down. We can test whether this could actually have happened by considering two questions:

1. *Was There Enough Fuel?* The fuel for a uranium-based fission reactor must be the easily fissionable isotope ^{235}U, which, as noted earlier, constitutes only 0.72% of natural uranium. This isotopic ratio has been measured for terrestrial samples, in Moon rocks, and in meteorites; in all cases the abundance values are the same. The clue to the discovery in West Africa was that the uranium in that deposit was deficient in ^{235}U, some samples having abundances as low as 0.44%. Investigation led to the speculation that this deficit in ^{235}U could be accounted for if, at some earlier time, the ^{235}U was partially consumed by the operation of a natural fission reactor.

   The serious problem remains that, with an isotopic abundance of only 0.72%, a reactor can be assembled (as Fermi and his team learned) only after thoughtful design and with scrupulous attention to detail. There seems no chance that a nuclear reactor could go critical "naturally."

However, things were different in the distant past. Both ^{235}U and ^{238}U are radioactive, with half-lives of 7.04×10^8 y and 44.7×10^8 y, respectively. Thus, the half-life of the readily fissionable ^{235}U is about 6.4 times shorter than that of ^{238}U. Because ^{235}U decays faster, there was more of it, relative to ^{238}U, in the past. Two billion years ago, in fact, this abundance was not 0.72%, as it is now, but 3.8%. This abundance happens to be just about the abundance to which natural uranium is artificially enriched to serve as fuel in modern power reactors.

Gary Sheehan, *Birth of the Atomic Age*, 1957. Reproduced courtesy Chicago Historical Society.

Figure 43-8 A painting of the first nuclear reactor, assembled during World War II on a squash court at the University of Chicago by a team headed by Enrico Fermi. This reactor was built of lumps of uranium embedded in blocks of graphite.

With this readily fissionable fuel available, the presence of a natural reactor (provided certain other conditions are met) is less surprising. The fuel was there. Two billion years ago, incidentally, the highest order of life-form to have evolved was the blue-green alga.

2. *What Is the Evidence?* The mere depletion of ^{235}U in an ore deposit does not prove the existence of a natural fission reactor. One looks for more convincing evidence.

If there was a reactor, there must now be fission products. Of the 30 or so elements whose stable isotopes are produced in a reactor, some must still remain. Study of their isotopic abundances could provide the evidence we need.

Of the several elements investigated, the case of neodymium is spectacularly convincing. Figure 43-9*a* shows the isotopic abundances of the seven stable neodymium isotopes as they are normally found in nature. Figure 43-9*b* shows these abundances as they appear among the ultimate stable fission products of the fission of ^{235}U. The clear differences are not surprising, considering the totally different origins of the two sets of isotopes. Note particularly that ^{142}Nd, the dominant isotope in the natural element, is absent from the fission products.

The big question is: What do the neodymium isotopes found in the uranium ore body in West Africa look like? If a natural reactor operated there, we would expect to find isotopes from *both* sources (that is, natural isotopes as well as fission-produced isotopes). Figure 43-9*c* shows the abundances after dual-source and other corrections have been made to the data. Comparison of Figs. 43-9*b* and *c* indicates that there was indeed a natural fission reactor at work.

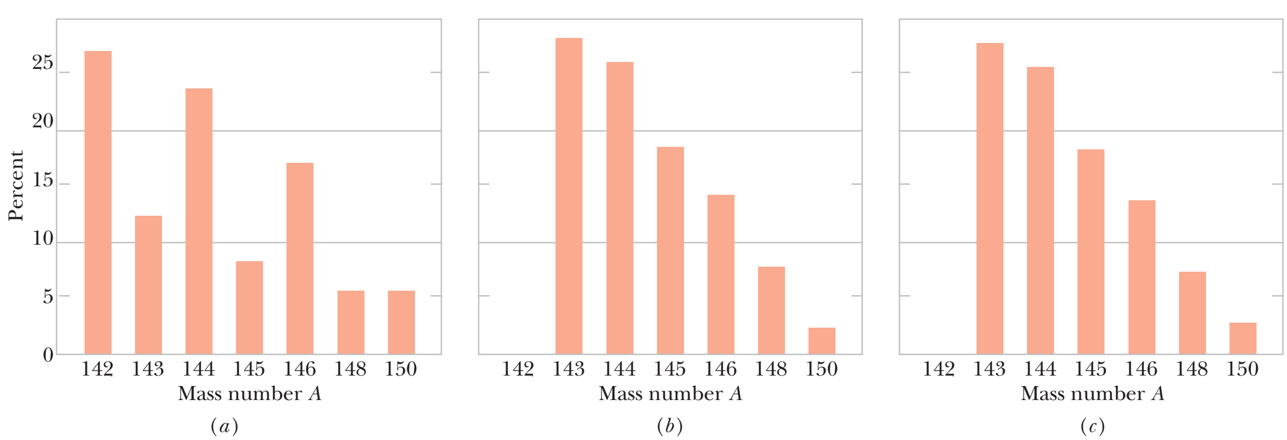


Figure 43-9 The distribution by mass number of the isotopes of neodymium as they occur in (*a*) natural terrestrial deposits of the ores of this element and (*b*) the spent fuel of a power reactor. (*c*) The distribution (after several corrections) found for neodymium from the uranium mine in Gabon, West Africa. Note that (*b*) and (*c*) are virtually identical and are quite different from (*a*).

43-4 THERMONUCLEAR FUSION: THE BASIC PROCESS

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

43.18 Define thermonuclear fusion, explaining why the nuclei must be at a high temperature to fuse.

43.19 For nuclei, apply the relationship between their kinetic energy and their temperature.

43.20 Explain the two reasons why fusion of two nuclei can occur even when the kinetic energy associated with their most probable speed is insufficient to overcome their energy barrier.

Key Ideas

- The release of energy by fusion of two light nuclei is inhibited by their mutual Coulomb barrier (due to the electric repulsion between the two collections of protons).
- Fusion can occur in bulk matter only if the temperature is high enough (that is, if the particle energy is high enough) for appreciable barrier tunneling to occur.

Thermonuclear Fusion: The Basic Process

The binding energy curve of Fig. 42-7 shows that energy can be released if two light nuclei combine to form a single larger nucleus, a process called nuclear **fusion.** That process is hindered by the Coulomb repulsion that acts to prevent the two positively charged particles from getting close enough to be within range of their attractive nuclear forces and thus "fusing." The range of the nuclear force is short, hardly beyond the nuclear "surface," but the range of the repulsive Coulomb force is long and that force thus forms an energy barrier. The height of this *Coulomb barrier* depends on the charges and the radii of the two interacting nuclei. For two protons ($Z = 1$), the barrier height is 400 keV. For more highly charged particles, of course, the barrier is correspondingly higher.

To generate useful amounts of energy, nuclear fusion must occur in bulk matter. The best hope for bringing this about is to raise the temperature of the material until the particles have enough energy—due to their thermal motions alone—to penetrate the Coulomb barrier. We call this process **thermonuclear fusion.**

In thermonuclear studies, temperatures are reported in terms of the kinetic energy K of interacting particles via the relation

$$K = kT, \tag{43-9}$$

in which K is the kinetic energy corresponding to the *most probable speed* of the interacting particles, k is the Boltzmann constant, and the temperature T is in kelvins. Thus, rather than saying, "The temperature at the center of the Sun is 1.5×10^7 K," it is more common to say, "The temperature at the center of the Sun is 1.3 keV."

Room temperature corresponds to $K \approx 0.03$ eV; a particle with only this amount of energy could not hope to overcome a barrier as high as, say, 400 keV. Even at the center of the Sun, where $kT = 1.3$ keV, the outlook for thermonuclear fusion does not seem promising at first glance. Yet we know that thermonuclear fusion not only occurs in the core of the Sun but is the dominant feature of that body and of all other stars.

The puzzle is solved when we realize two facts: (1) The energy calculated with Eq. 43-9 is that of the particles with the *most probable* speed, as defined in Module 19-6; there is a long tail of particles with much higher speeds and, correspondingly, much higher energies. (2) The barrier heights that we have calculated represent the *peaks* of the barriers. Barrier tunneling can occur at energies considerably below those peaks, as we saw with alpha decay in Module 42-4.

Figure 43-10 sums things up. The curve marked $n(K)$ in this figure is a Maxwell distribution curve for the protons in the Sun's core, drawn to correspond to the Sun's central temperature. This curve differs from the Maxwell distribution curve given in Fig. 19-8 in that here the curve is drawn in terms of energy and not of speed. Specifically, for any kinetic energy K, the expression $n(K)\,dK$ gives the probability that a proton will have a kinetic energy lying between the values K and $K + dK$. The value of kT in the core of the Sun is indicated by the vertical line in the figure; note that many of the Sun's core protons have energies greater than this value.

The curve marked $p(K)$ in Fig. 43-10 is the probability of barrier penetration by two colliding protons. The two curves in Fig. 43-10 suggest that there is a particular proton energy at which proton–proton fusion events occur at a maximum rate. At energies much above this value, the barrier is transparent enough but too few protons have these energies, and so the fusion reaction cannot be sustained. At energies much below this value, plenty of protons have these energies but the Coulomb barrier is too formidable.

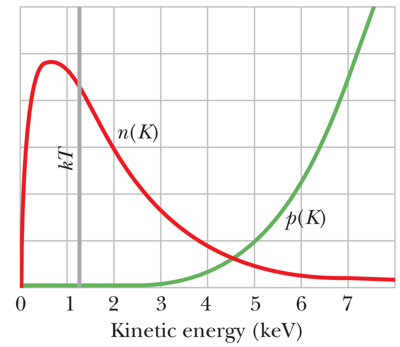


Figure 43-10 The curve marked $n(K)$ gives the number density per unit energy for protons at the center of the Sun. The curve marked $p(K)$ gives the probability of barrier penetration (and hence fusion) for proton–proton collisions at the Sun's core temperature. The vertical line marks the value of kT at this temperature. Note that the two curves are drawn to (separate) arbitrary vertical scales.

Checkpoint 2

Which of these potential fusion reactions will *not* result in the net release of energy: (a) $^6Li + {}^6Li$, (b) $^4He + {}^4He$, (c) $^{12}C + {}^{12}C$, (d) $^{20}Ne + {}^{20}Ne$, (e) $^{35}Cl + {}^{35}Cl$, and (f) $^{14}N + {}^{35}Cl$? (*Hint:* Consult the curve of Fig. 42-7.)

Sample Problem 43.03 Fusion in a gas of protons, and the required temperature

Assume a proton is a sphere of radius $R \approx 1$ fm. Two protons are fired at each other with the same kinetic energy K.

(a) What must K be if the particles are brought to rest by their mutual Coulomb repulsion when they are just "touching" each other? We can take this value of K as a representative measure of the height of the Coulomb barrier.

KEY IDEAS

The mechanical energy E of the two-proton system is conserved as the protons move toward each other and momentarily stop. In particular, the initial mechanical energy E_i is equal to the mechanical energy E_f when they stop. The initial energy E_i consists only of the total kinetic energy $2K$ of the two protons. When the protons stop, energy E_f consists only of the electric potential energy U of the system, as given by Eq. 24-46 ($U = q_1q_2/4\pi\varepsilon_0 r$).

Calculations: Here the distance r between the protons when they stop is their center-to-center distance $2R$, and their charges q_1 and q_2 are both e. Then we can write the conservation of energy $E_i = E_f$ as

$$2K = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0}\frac{e^2}{2R}.$$

This yields, with known values,

$$K = \frac{e^2}{16\pi\varepsilon_0 R} = \frac{(1.60\times10^{-19}\ \text{C})^2}{(16\pi)(8.85\times10^{-12}\ \text{F/m})(1\times10^{-15}\ \text{m})}$$
$$= 5.75\times10^{-14}\ \text{J} = 360\ \text{keV} \approx 400\ \text{keV}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

(b) At what temperature would a proton in a gas of protons have the average kinetic energy calculated in (a) and thus have energy equal to the height of the Coulomb barrier?

KEY IDEA

If we treat the proton gas as an ideal gas, then from Eq. 19-24, the average energy of the protons is $K_{avg} = \frac{3}{2}kT$, where k is the Boltzmann constant.

Calculation: Solving that equation for T and using the result of (a) yield

$$T = \frac{2K_{avg}}{3k} = \frac{(2)(5.75\times10^{-14}\ \text{J})}{(3)(1.38\times10^{-23}\ \text{J/K})}$$
$$\approx 3\times10^9\ \text{K}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

The temperature of the core of the Sun is only about 1.5×10^7 K; thus fusion in the Sun's core must involve protons whose energies are *far* above the average energy.

43-5 THERMONUCLEAR FUSION IN THE SUN AND OTHER STARS

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

43.21 Explain the proton–proton cycle for the Sun.

43.22 Explain the stages after the Sun has consumed its hydrogen.

43.23 Explain the probable source of the elements that are more massive than hydrogen and helium.

Key Ideas

- The Sun's energy arises mainly from the thermonuclear burning of hydrogen to form helium by the proton–proton cycle.
- Elements up to $A \approx 56$ (the peak of the binding energy curve) can be built up by other fusion processes once the hydrogen fuel supply of a star has been exhausted.

Thermonuclear Fusion in the Sun and Other Stars

The Sun has been radiating energy at the rate of 3.9×10^{26} W for several billion years. Where does all this energy come from? It does not come from chemical burning. (Even if the Sun were made of coal and had its own oxygen, burning the coal would last only 1000 y.) It also does not come from the Sun shrinking, transferring gravitational potential energy to thermal energy. (Its lifetime would be short by a factor of at least 500.) That leaves only thermonuclear fusion. The Sun, as you will see, burns not coal but hydrogen, and in a nuclear furnace, not an atomic or chemical one.

The fusion reaction in the Sun is a multistep process in which hydrogen is burned to form helium, hydrogen being the "fuel" and helium the "ashes." Figure 43-11 shows the **proton–proton** (p-p) **cycle** by which this occurs.

The p-p cycle starts with the collision of two protons ($^1H + {}^1H$) to form a deuteron (^2H), with the simultaneous creation of a positron (e^+) and a neutrino (ν). The positron immediately annihilates with any nearby electron (e^-), their mass energy appearing as two gamma-ray photons (γ) as in Module 21-3.

A pair of such events is shown in the top row of Fig. 43-11. These events are actually extremely rare. In fact, only once in about 10^{26} proton–proton collisions is a deuteron formed; in the vast majority of cases, the two protons simply rebound elastically from each other. It is the slowness of this "bottleneck" process that regulates the rate of energy production and keeps the Sun from exploding. In spite of this slowness, there are so very many protons in the huge and dense volume of the Sun's core that deuterium is produced in just this way at the rate of 10^{12} kg/s.

Once a deuteron has been produced, it quickly collides with another proton and forms a ^3He nucleus, as the middle row of Fig. 43-11 shows. Two such ^3He nuclei may eventually (within 10^5 y; there is plenty of time) find each other, forming an alpha particle (^4He) and two protons, as the bottom row in the figure shows.

Overall, we see from Fig. 43-11 that the p-p cycle amounts to the combination of four protons and two electrons to form an alpha particle, two neutrinos, and

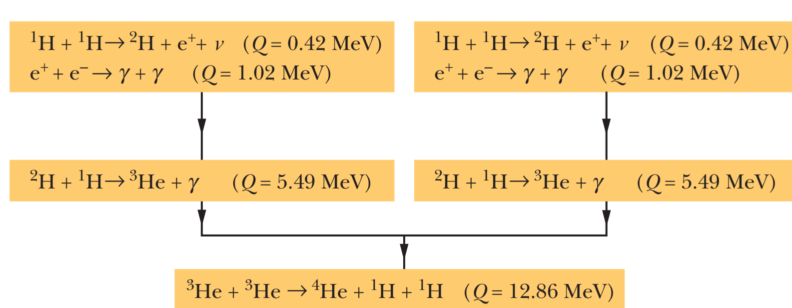


Figure 43-11 The proton–proton mechanism that accounts for energy production in the Sun. In this process, protons fuse to form an alpha particle (^4He), with a net energy release of 26.7 MeV for each event.

six gamma-ray photons. That is,

$$4\,{}^1\text{H} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow {}^4\text{He} + 2\nu + 6\gamma. \tag{43-10}$$

Let us now add two electrons to each side of Eq. 43-10, obtaining

$$(4\,{}^1\text{H} + 4\text{e}^-) \rightarrow ({}^4\text{He} + 2\text{e}^-) + 2\nu + 6\gamma. \tag{43-11}$$

The quantities in the two sets of parentheses then represent *atoms* (not bare nuclei) of hydrogen and of helium. That allows us to compute the energy release in the overall reaction of Eq. 43-10 (and Eq. 43-11) as

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= -\Delta m\, c^2 \\ &= -[4.002\,603\text{ u} - (4)(1.007\,825\text{ u})][931.5\text{ MeV/u}] \\ &= 26.7\text{ MeV}, \end{aligned}$$

in which 4.002 603 u is the mass of a helium atom and 1.007 825 u is the mass of a hydrogen atom. Neutrinos have a negligibly small mass, and gamma-ray photons have no mass; thus, they do not enter into the calculation of the disintegration energy.

This same value of Q follows (as it must) from adding up the Q values for the separate steps of the proton–proton cycle in Fig. 43-11. Thus,

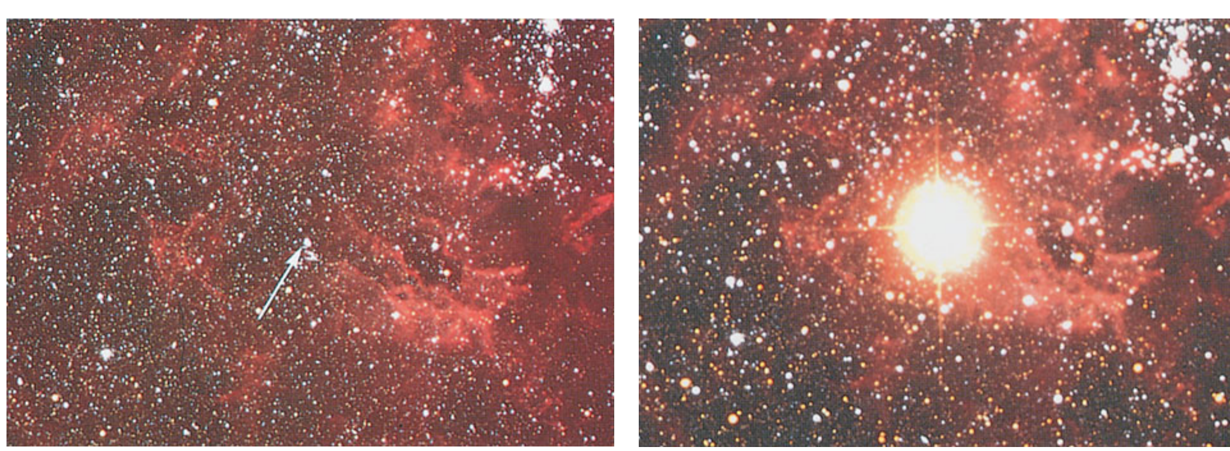
$$\begin{aligned} Q &= (2)(0.42\text{ MeV}) + (2)(1.02\text{ MeV}) + (2)(5.49\text{ MeV}) + 12.86\text{ MeV} \\ &= 26.7\text{ MeV}. \end{aligned}$$

About 0.5 MeV of this energy is carried out of the Sun by the two neutrinos indicated in Eqs. 43-10 and 43-11; the rest (= 26.2 MeV) is deposited in the core of the Sun as thermal energy. That thermal energy is then gradually transported to the Sun's surface, where it is radiated away from the Sun as electromagnetic waves, including visible light.

Hydrogen burning has been going on in the Sun for about 5×10^9 y, and calculations show that there is enough hydrogen left to keep the Sun going for about the same length of time into the future. In 5 billion years, however, the Sun's core, which by that time will be largely helium, will begin to cool and the Sun will start to collapse under its own gravity. This will raise the core temperature and cause the outer envelope to expand, turning the Sun into what is called a *red giant.*

If the core temperature increases to about 10^8 K again, energy can be produced through fusion once more—this time by burning helium to make carbon. As a star evolves further and becomes still hotter, other elements can be formed by other fusion reactions. However, elements more massive than those near the peak of the binding energy curve of Fig. 42-7 cannot be produced by further fusion processes.

Elements with mass numbers beyond the peak are thought to be formed by neutron capture during cataclysmic stellar explosions that we call *supernovas* (Fig. 43-12).



(*a*) (*b*) Courtesy Anglo Australian Telescope Board

Figure 43-12 (*a*) The star known as Sanduleak, as it appeared until 1987. (*b*) We then began to intercept light from the star's supernova, designated SN1987a; the explosion was 100 million times brighter than our Sun and could be seen with the unaided eye even through it was outside our Galaxy.

In such an event the outer shell of the star is blown outward into space, where it mixes with the tenuous medium that fills the space between the stars. It is from this medium, continually enriched by debris from stellar explosions, that new stars form, by condensation under the influence of the gravitational force.

The abundance on Earth of elements heavier than hydrogen and helium suggests that our solar system has condensed out of interstellar material that contained the remnants of such explosions. Thus, all the elements around us—including those in our own bodies—were manufactured in the interiors of stars that no longer exist. As one scientist put it: "In truth, we are the children of the stars."

Sample Problem 43.04 Consumption rate of hydrogen in the Sun

At what rate dm/dt is hydrogen being consumed in the core of the Sun by the p-p cycle of Fig. 43-11?

KEY IDEA

The rate dE/dt at which energy is produced by hydrogen (proton) consumption within the Sun is equal to the rate P at which energy is radiated by the Sun:

$$P = \frac{dE}{dt}.$$

Calculations: To bring the mass consumption rate dm/dt into the power equation, we can rewrite it as

$$P = \frac{dE}{dt} = \frac{dE}{dm}\frac{dm}{dt} \approx \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta m}\frac{dm}{dt}, \qquad (43\text{-}12)$$

where ΔE is the energy produced when protons of mass Δm are consumed. From our discussion in this module, we know that 26.2 MeV ($= 4.20 \times 10^{-12}$ J) of thermal energy is produced when four protons are consumed. That is, $\Delta E = 4.20 \times 10^{-12}$ J for a mass consumption of $\Delta m = 4(1.67 \times 10^{-27}\text{ kg})$. Substituting these data into Eq. 43-12 and using the power P of the Sun given in Appendix C, we find that

$$\frac{dm}{dt} = \frac{\Delta m}{\Delta E}P = \frac{4(1.67 \times 10^{-27}\text{ kg})}{4.20 \times 10^{-12}\text{ J}}(3.90 \times 10^{26}\text{ W})$$

$$= 6.2 \times 10^{11}\text{ kg/s}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

Thus, a huge amount of hydrogen is consumed by the Sun every second. However, you need not worry too much about the Sun running out of hydrogen, because its mass of 2×10^{30} kg will keep it burning for a long, long time.

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43-6 CONTROLLED THERMONUCLEAR FUSION

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

43.24 Give the three requirements for a thermonuclear reactor.

43.25 Define Lawson's criterion.

43.26 Give general descriptions of the magnetic confinement approach and the inertial confinement approach.

Key Ideas

- Controlled thermonuclear fusion for energy generation has not yet been achieved. The d-d and d-t reactions are the most promising mechanisms.
- A successful fusion reactor must satisfy Lawson's criterion,

$$n\tau > 10^{20}\text{ s/m}^3,$$

and must have a suitably high plasma temperature T.
- In a tokamak, the plasma is confined by a magnetic field.
- In laser fusion, inertial confinement is used.

Controlled Thermonuclear Fusion

The first thermonuclear reaction on Earth occurred at Eniwetok Atoll on November 1, 1952, when the United States exploded a fusion device, generating an energy release equivalent to 10 million tons of TNT. The high temperatures and densities needed to initiate the reaction were provided by using a fission bomb as a trigger.

A sustained and controllable source of fusion power—a fusion reactor as part of, say, an electric generating plant—is considerably more difficult to achieve. That goal is nonetheless being pursued vigorously in many countries around the world, because many people look to the fusion reactor as the power source of the future, at least for the generation of electricity.

The p-p scheme displayed in Fig. 43-11 is not suitable for an Earth-bound fusion reactor because it is hopelessly slow. The process succeeds in the Sun only because of the enormous density of protons in the center of the Sun. The most attractive reactions for terrestrial use appear to be two deuteron–deuteron (d-d) reactions,

$$^2\text{H} + {}^2\text{H} \rightarrow {}^3\text{He} + \text{n} \qquad (Q = +3.27\ \text{MeV}), \tag{43-13}$$

$$^2\text{H} + {}^2\text{H} \rightarrow {}^3\text{H} + {}^1\text{H} \qquad (Q = +4.03\ \text{MeV}), \tag{43-14}$$

and the deuteron–triton (d-t) reaction

$$^2\text{H} + {}^3\text{H} \rightarrow {}^4\text{He} + \text{n} \qquad (Q = +17.59\ \text{MeV}). \tag{43-15}$$

(The nucleus of the hydrogen isotope ^{3}H (tritium) is called the *triton* and has a half-life of 12.3 y.) Deuterium, the source of deuterons for these reactions, has an isotopic abundance of only 1 part in 6700 but is available in unlimited quantities as a component of seawater. Proponents of power from the nucleus have described our ultimate power choice—after we have burned up all our fossil fuels—as either "burning rocks" (fission of uranium extracted from ores) or "burning water" (fusion of deuterium extracted from water).

There are three requirements for a successful thermonuclear reactor:

1. *A High Particle Density n.* The number density of interacting particles (the number of, say, deuterons per unit volume) must be great enough to ensure that the d-d collision rate is high enough. At the high temperatures required, the deuterium would be completely ionized, forming an electrically neutral **plasma** (ionized gas) of deuterons and electrons.
2. *A High Plasma Temperature T.* The plasma must be hot. Otherwise the colliding deuterons will not be energetic enough to penetrate the Coulomb barrier that tends to keep them apart. A plasma ion temperature of 35 keV, corresponding to 4×10^8 K, has been achieved in the laboratory. This is about 30 times higher than the Sun's central temperature.
3. *A Long Confinement Time τ.* A major problem is containing the hot plasma long enough to maintain it at a density and a temperature sufficiently high to ensure the fusion of enough of the fuel. Because it is clear that no solid container can withstand the high temperatures that are necessary, clever confining techniques are called for; we shall shortly discuss two of them.

It can be shown that, for the successful operation of a thermonuclear reactor using the d-t reaction, it is necessary to have

$$n\tau > 10^{20}\ \text{s/m}^3. \tag{43-16}$$

This condition, known as **Lawson's criterion,** tells us that we have a choice between confining a lot of particles for a short time or fewer particles for a longer time. Also, the plasma temperature must be high enough.

Two approaches to controlled nuclear power generation are currently under study. Although neither approach has yet been successful, both are being pursued because of their promise and because of the potential importance of controlled fusion to solving the world's energy problems.

Magnetic Confinement

One avenue to controlled fusion is to contain the fusing material in a very strong magnetic field—hence the name **magnetic confinement.** In one version of this approach, a suitably shaped magnetic field is used to confine the hot plasma in an evacuated doughnut-shaped chamber called a **tokamak** (the name is an abbreviation consisting of parts of three Russian words). The magnetic forces acting on

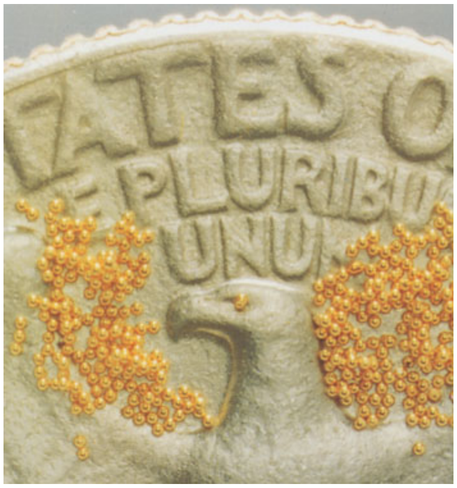

Figure 43-13 The small spheres on the quarter are deuterium–tritium fuel pellets, designed to be used in a laser fusion chamber.

Courtesy Los Alamos National Laboratory, New Mexico

the charged particles that make up the hot plasma keep the plasma from touching the walls of the chamber.

The plasma is heated by inducing a current in it and by bombarding it with an externally accelerated beam of particles. The first goal of this approach is to achieve **breakeven,** which occurs when the Lawson criterion is met or exceeded. The ultimate goal is **ignition,** which corresponds to a self-sustaining thermonuclear reaction and a net generation of energy.

Inertial Confinement

A second approach, called **inertial confinement,** involves "zapping" a solid fuel pellet from all sides with intense laser beams, evaporating some material from the surface of the pellet. This boiled-off material causes an inward-moving shock wave that compresses the core of the pellet, increasing both its particle density and its temperature. The process is called inertial confinement because (a) the fuel is *confined* to the pellet and (b) the particles do not escape from the heated pellet during the very short zapping interval because of their *inertia* (their mass).

Laser fusion, using the inertial confinement approach, is being investigated in many laboratories in the United States and elsewhere. At the Lawrence Livermore Laboratory, for example, deuterium–tritium fuel pellets, each smaller than a grain of sand (Fig. 43-13), are to be zapped by 10 synchronized high-power laser pulses symmetrically arranged around the pellet. The laser pulses are designed to deliver, in total, some 200 kJ of energy to each fuel pellet in less than a nanosecond. This is a delivered power of about 2×10^{14} W during the pulse, which is roughly 100 times the total installed (sustained) electrical power generating capacity of the world!

Sample Problem 43.05 Laser fusion: number of particles and Lawson's criterion

Suppose a fuel pellet in a laser fusion device contains equal numbers of deuterium and tritium atoms (and no other material). The density $d = 200$ kg/m^3 of the pellet is increased by a factor of 10^3 by the action of the laser pulses.

(a) How many particles per unit volume (both deuterons and tritons) does the pellet contain in its compressed state? The molar mass M_d of deuterium atoms is 2.0×10^{-3} kg/mol, and the molar mass M_t of tritium atoms is 3.0×10^{-3} kg/mol.

KEY IDEA

For a system consisting of only one type of particle, we can write the (mass) density (the mass per unit volume) of the system in terms of the particle masses and number density (the number of particles per unit volume):

$$\begin{pmatrix}\text{density,}\\ \text{kg/m}^3\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\text{number density,}\\ \text{m}^{-3}\end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix}\text{particle mass,}\\ \text{kg}\end{pmatrix}. \quad (43\text{-}17)$$

Let n be the total number of particles per unit volume in the compressed pellet. Then, because we know that the device contains equal numbers of deuterium and tritium atoms, the number of deuterium atoms per unit volume is $n/2$, and the number of tritium atoms per unit volume is also $n/2$.

Calculations: We can extend Eq. 43-17 to the system consisting of the two types of particles by writing the density d^* of the compressed pellet as the sum of the individual densities:

$$d^* = \frac{n}{2} m_d + \frac{n}{2} m_t, \tag{43-18}$$

where m_d and m_t are the masses of a deuterium atom and a tritium atom, respectively. We can replace those masses with the given molar masses by substituting

$$m_d = \frac{M_d}{N_A} \quad \text{and} \quad m_t = \frac{M_t}{N_A},$$

where N_A is Avogadro's number. After making those replacements and substituting $1000d$ for the compressed density d^*, we solve Eq. 43-18 for the particle number density n to obtain

$$n = \frac{2000 d N_A}{M_d + M_t},$$

which gives us

$$n = \frac{(2000)(200\ \text{kg/m}^3)(6.02 \times 10^{23}\ \text{mol}^{-1})}{2.0 \times 10^{-3}\ \text{kg/mol} + 3.0 \times 10^{-3}\ \text{kg/mol}}$$
$$= 4.8 \times 10^{31}\ \text{m}^{-3}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

(b) According to Lawson's criterion, how long must the pellet maintain this particle density if breakeven operation is to take place at a suitably high temperature?

KEY IDEA

If breakeven operation is to occur, the compressed density must be maintained for a time period τ given by Eq. 43-16 ($n\tau > 10^{20}$ s/m^3).

Calculation: We can now write

$$\tau > \frac{10^{20}\ \text{s/m}^3}{4.8 \times 10^{31}\ \text{m}^{-3}} \approx 10^{-12}\ \text{s}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

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Review & Summary

Energy from the Nucleus Nuclear processes are about a million times more effective, per unit mass, than chemical processes in transforming mass into other forms of energy.

Nuclear Fission Equation 43-1 shows a **fission** of ^{236}U induced by thermal neutrons bombarding ^{235}U. Equations 43-2 and 43-3 show the beta-decay chains of the primary fragments. The energy released in such a fission event is $Q \approx 200$ MeV.

Fission can be understood in terms of the collective model, in which a nucleus is likened to a charged liquid drop carrying a certain excitation energy. A potential barrier must be tunneled through if fission is to occur. The ability of a nucleus to undergo fission depends on the relationship between the barrier height E_b and the excitation energy E_n.

The neutrons released during fission make possible a fission **chain reaction.** Figure 43-5 shows the neutron balance for one cycle of a typical reactor. Figure 43-6 suggests the layout of a complete nuclear power plant.

Nuclear Fusion The release of energy by the **fusion** of two light nuclei is inhibited by their mutual Coulomb barrier (due to the electric repulsion between the two collections of protons). Fusion can occur in bulk matter only if the temperature is high enough (that is, if the particle energy is high enough) for appreciable barrier tunneling to occur.

The Sun's energy arises mainly from the thermonuclear burning of hydrogen to form helium by the **proton–proton cycle** outlined in Fig. 43-11. Elements up to $A \approx 56$ (the peak of the binding energy curve) can be built up by other fusion processes once the hydrogen fuel supply of a star has been exhausted. Fusion of more massive elements requires an input of energy and thus cannot be the source of a star's energy output.

Controlled Fusion Controlled **thermonuclear fusion** for energy generation has not yet been achieved. The d-d and d-t reactions are the most promising mechanisms. A successful fusion reactor must satisfy **Lawson's criterion,**

$$n\tau > 10^{20}\ \text{s/m}^3, \tag{43-16}$$

and must have a suitably high plasma temperature T.

In a **tokamak** the plasma is confined by a magnetic field. In **laser fusion** inertial confinement is used.

Questions

1 In the fission process

$$^{235}\text{U} + \text{n} \rightarrow {}^{132}\text{Sn} + {}^{\square}_{\square}\square + 3\text{n},$$

what number goes in (a) the elevated box (the superscript) and (b) the descended box (the value of Z)?

2 If a fusion process requires an absorption of energy, does the average binding energy per nucleon increase or decrease?

3 Suppose a ^{238}U nucleus "swallows" a neutron and then decays not by fission but by beta-minus decay, in which it emits an electron and a neutrino. Which nuclide remains after this decay: ^{239}Pu, ^{238}Np, ^{239}Np, or ^{238}Pa?

4 Do the initial fragments formed by fission have more protons than neutrons, more neutrons than protons, or about the same number of each?

5 For the fission reaction

$$^{235}\text{U} + \text{n} \rightarrow \text{X} + \text{Y} + 2\text{n},$$

rank the following possibilities for X (or Y), most likely first: ^{152}Nd, ^{140}I, ^{128}In, ^{115}Pd, ^{105}Mo. (*Hint:* See Fig. 43-1.)

6 To make the newly discovered, very large elements of the periodic table, researchers shoot a medium-size nucleus at a large nucleus. Sometimes a projectile nucleus and a target nucleus fuse to form one of the very large elements. In such a fusion, is the mass of the product greater than or less than the sum of the masses of the projectile and target nuclei?

7 If we split a nucleus into two smaller nuclei, with a release of energy, has the average binding energy per nucleon increased or decreased?

8 Which of these elements is *not* "cooked up" by thermonuclear fusion processes in stellar interiors: carbon, silicon, chromium, bromine?

9 Lawson's criterion for the d-t reaction (Eq. 43-16) is $n\tau > 10^{20}$ s/m^3. For the d-d reaction, do you expect the number on the right-hand side to be the same, smaller, or larger?

10 About 2% of the energy generated in the Sun's core by the p-p reaction is carried out of the Sun by neutrinos. Is the energy associated with this neutrino flux equal to, greater than, or less than the energy radiated from the Sun's surface as electromagnetic radiation?

11 A nuclear reactor is operating at a certain power level, with its multiplication factor k adjusted to unity. If the control rods are used to reduce the power output of the reactor to 25% of its former value, is the multiplication factor now a little less than unity, substantially less than unity, or still equal to unity?

12 Pick the most likely member of each pair to be one of the initial fragments formed by a fission event: (a) ^{93}Sr or ^{93}Ru, (b) ^{140}Gd or ^{140}I, (c) ^{155}Nd or ^{155}Lu. (*Hint:* See Fig. 42-5 and the periodic table, and consider the neutron abundance.)

Problems

GO Tutoring problem available (at instructor's discretion) in *WileyPLUS* and WebAssign
SSM Worked-out solution available in Student Solutions Manual
• – ••• Number of dots indicates level of problem difficulty
Additional information available in *The Flying Circus of Physics* and at flyingcircusofphysics.com
WWW Worked-out solution is at
ILW Interactive solution is at
http://www.wiley.com/college/halliday

Module 43-1 Nuclear Fission

•1 The isotope ^{235}U decays by alpha emission with a half-life of 7.0×10^8 y. It also decays (rarely) by spontaneous fission, and if the alpha decay did not occur, its half-life due to spontaneous fission alone would be 3.0×10^{17} y. (a) At what rate do spontaneous fission decays occur in 1.0 g of ^{235}U? (b) How many ^{235}U alpha-decay events are there for every spontaneous fission event?

•2 The nuclide ^{238}Np requires 4.2 MeV for fission. To remove a neutron from this nuclide requires an energy expenditure of 5.0 MeV. Is ^{237}Np fissionable by thermal neutrons?

•3 GO A thermal neutron (with approximately zero kinetic energy) is absorbed by a ^{238}U nucleus. How much energy is transferred from mass energy to the resulting oscillation of the nucleus? Here are some atomic masses and the neutron mass.

^{237}U	237.048 723 u	^{238}U	238.050 782 u
^{239}U	239.054 287 u	^{240}U	240.056 585 u
n	1.008 664 u		

•4 The fission properties of the plutonium isotope ^{239}Pu are very similar to those of ^{235}U. The average energy released per fission is 180 MeV. How much energy, in MeV, is released if all the atoms in 1.00 kg of pure ^{239}Pu undergo fission?

•5 During the Cold War, the Premier of the Soviet Union threatened the United States with 2.0 megaton ^{239}Pu warheads. (Each would have yielded the equivalent of an explosion of 2.0 megatons of TNT, where 1 megaton of TNT releases 2.6×10^{28} MeV of energy.) If the plutonium that actually fissioned had been 8.00% of the total mass of the plutonium in such a warhead, what was that total mass?

•6 (a)–(d) Complete the following table, which refers to the generalized fission reaction $^{235}\text{U} + \text{n} \rightarrow \text{X} + \text{Y} + b\text{n}$.

X	Y	b
^{140}Xe	(a)	1
^{139}I	(b)	2
(c)	^{100}Zr	2
^{141}Cs	^{92}Rb	(d)

•7 At what rate must ^{235}U nuclei undergo fission by neutron bombardment to generate energy at the rate of 1.0 W? Assume that $Q = 200$ MeV.

•8 (a) Calculate the disintegration energy Q for the fission of the molybdenum isotope ^{98}Mo into two equal parts. The masses you will need are 97.905 41 u for ^{98}Mo and 48.950 02 u for ^{49}Sc. (b) If Q turns out to be positive, discuss why this process does not occur spontaneously.

•9 (a) How many atoms are contained in 1.0 kg of pure ^{235}U? (b) How much energy, in joules, is released by the complete fissioning of 1.0 kg of ^{235}U? Assume $Q = 200$ MeV. (c) For how long would this energy light a 100 W lamp?

•10 GO Calculate the energy released in the fission reaction

$$^{235}\text{U} + \text{n} \rightarrow {}^{141}\text{Cs} + {}^{93}\text{Rb} + 2\text{n}.$$

Here are some atomic and particle masses.

^{235}U	235.043 92 u	^{93}Rb	92.921 57 u
^{141}Cs	140.919 63 u	n	1.008 66 u

•11 GO Calculate the disintegration energy Q for the fission of ^{52}Cr into two equal fragments. The masses you will need are

^{52}Cr 51.940 51 u ^{26}Mg 25.982 59 u.

••12 GO Consider the fission of ^{238}U by fast neutrons. In one fission event, no neutrons are emitted and the final stable end products, after the beta decay of the primary fission fragments, are ^{140}Ce and ^{99}Ru. (a) What is the total of the beta-decay events in the two beta-decay chains? (b) Calculate Q for this fission process. The relevant atomic and particle masses are

^{238}U	238.050 79 u	^{140}Ce	139.905 43 u
n	1.008 66 u	^{99}Ru	98.905 94 u

••13 GO Assume that immediately after the fission of ^{236}U according to Eq. 43-1, the resulting ^{140}Xe and ^{94}Sr nuclei are just touching at their surfaces. (a) Assuming the nuclei to be spherical, calculate the electric potential energy associated with the repulsion between the two fragments. (*Hint:* Use Eq. 42-3 to calculate the radii of the fragments.) (b) Compare this energy with the energy released in a typical fission event.

••14 A ^{236}U nucleus undergoes fission and breaks into two middle-mass fragments, ^{140}Xe and ^{96}Sr. (a) By what percentage does the surface area of the fission products differ from that of the original ^{236}U nucleus? (b) By what percentage does the volume change? (c) By what percentage does the electric potential energy change? The electric potential energy of a uniformly charged sphere of radius r and charge Q is given by

$$U = \frac{3}{5}\left(\frac{Q^2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0 r}\right).$$

••15 SSM A 66 kiloton atomic bomb is fueled with pure ^{235}U (Fig. 43-14), 4.0% of which actually undergoes fission. (a) What is the mass of the uranium in the bomb? (It is not 66 kilotons—that is the amount of released energy specified in terms of the mass of TNT required to produce the same amount of energy.) (b) How many primary fission fragments are produced? (c) How many fission neutrons generated are released to the environment? (On average, each fission produces 2.5 neutrons.)

Courtesy Martin Marietta Energy Systems/U.S. Department of Energy

Figure 43-14 Problem 15. A "button" of ^{235}U ready to be recast and machined for a warhead.

••16 In an atomic bomb, energy release is due to the uncontrolled fission of plutonium ^{239}Pu (or ^{235}U). The bomb's rating is the magnitude of the released energy, specified in terms of the mass of TNT required to produce the same energy release. One megaton of TNT releases 2.6×10^{28} MeV of energy. (a) Calculate the rating, in tons of TNT, of an atomic bomb containing 95.0 kg of ^{239}Pu, of which 2.5 kg actually undergoes fission. (See Problem 4.) (b) Why is the other 92.5 kg of ^{239}Pu needed if it does not fission?

••17 SSM WWW In a particular fission event in which ^{235}U is fissioned by slow neutrons, no neutron is emitted and one of the primary fission fragments is ^{83}Ge. (a) What is the other fragment? The disintegration energy is $Q = 170$ MeV. How much of this energy goes to (b) the ^{83}Ge fragment and (c) the other fragment? Just after the fission, what is the speed of (d) the ^{83}Ge fragment and (e) the other fragment?

Module 43-2 The Nuclear Reactor

•18 A 200 MW fission reactor consumes half its fuel in 3.00 y. How much ^{235}U did it contain initially? Assume that all the energy generated arises from the fission of ^{235}U and that this nuclide is consumed only by the fission process.

••19 The neutron generation time t_{gen} in a reactor is the average time needed for a fast neutron emitted in one fission event to be slowed to thermal energies by the moderator and then initiate another fission event. Suppose the power output of a reactor at time $t = 0$ is P_0. Show that the power output a time t later is $P(t)$, where $P(t) = P_0 k^{t/t_{gen}}$ and k is the multiplication factor. For constant power output, $k = 1$.

••20 A reactor operates at 400 MW with a neutron generation time (see Problem 19) of 30.0 ms. If its power increases for 5.00 min with a multiplication factor of 1.0003, what is the power output at the end of the 5.00 min?

••21 The thermal energy generated when radiation from radionuclides is absorbed in matter can serve as the basis for a small power source for use in satellites, remote weather stations, and other isolated locations. Such radionuclides are manufactured in abundance in nuclear reactors and may be separated chemically from the spent fuel. One suitable radionuclide is ^{238}Pu ($T_{1/2} = 87.7$ y), which is an alpha emitter with $Q = 5.50$ MeV. At what rate is thermal energy generated in 1.00 kg of this material?

••22 The neutron generation time t_{gen} (see Problem 19) in a particular reactor is 1.0 ms. If the reactor is operating at a power level of 500 MW, about how many free neutrons are present in the reactor at any moment?

••23 SSM WWW The neutron generation time (see Problem 19) of a particular reactor is 1.3 ms. The reactor is generating energy at the rate of 1200.0 MW. To perform certain maintenance checks, the power level must temporarily be reduced to 350.00 MW. It is desired that the transition to the reduced power level take 2.6000 s. To what (constant) value should the multiplication factor be set to effect the transition in the desired time?

••24 (See Problem 21.) Among the many fission products that may be extracted chemically from the spent fuel of a nuclear reactor is ^{90}Sr ($T_{1/2} = 29$ y). This isotope is produced in typical large reactors at the rate of about 18 kg/y. By its radioactivity, the isotope generates thermal energy at the rate of 0.93 W/g. (a) Calculate the effective disintegration energy Q_{eff} associated with the decay of a ^{90}Sr nucleus. (This energy Q_{eff} includes contributions from the decay of the ^{90}Sr daughter products in its decay chain but not from neutrinos, which escape totally from the sample.) (b) It is desired to construct a power source generating 150 W (electric power) to use in operating electronic equipment in an underwater acoustic beacon. If the power source is based on the thermal energy generated by ^{90}Sr and if the efficiency of the thermal–electric conversion process is 5.0%, how much ^{90}Sr is needed?

••25 SSM (a) A neutron of mass m_n and kinetic energy K makes a head-on elastic collision with a stationary atom of mass m. Show that the fractional kinetic energy loss of the neutron is given by

$$\frac{\Delta K}{K} = \frac{4m_n m}{(m + m_n)^2}.$$

Find $\Delta K/K$ for each of the following acting as the stationary atom: (b) hydrogen, (c) deuterium, (d) carbon, and (e) lead. (f) If $K = 1.00$ MeV initially, how many such head-on collisions would it take to reduce the neutron's kinetic energy to a thermal value (0.025 eV) if the stationary atoms it collides with are deuterium, a commonly used moderator? (In actual moderators, most collisions are not head-on.)

Module 43-3 A Natural Nuclear Reactor

•26 How long ago was the ratio ^{235}U/^{238}U in natural uranium deposits equal to 0.15?

•27 The natural fission reactor discussed in Module 43-3 is estimated to have generated 15 gigawatt-years of energy during its lifetime. (a) If the reactor lasted for 200 000 y, at what average power level did it operate? (b) How many kilograms of ^{235}U did it consume during its lifetime?

••28 Some uranium samples from the natural reactor site described in Module 43-3 were found to be slightly *enriched* in ^{235}U, rather than depleted. Account for this in terms of neutron absorption by the abundant isotope ^{238}U and the subsequent beta and alpha decay of its products.

••29 SSM The uranium ore mined today contains only 0.72% of fissionable ^{235}U, too little to make reactor fuel for thermal-neutron fission. For this reason, the mined ore must be enriched with ^{235}U. Both ^{235}U ($T_{1/2} = 7.0 \times 10^8$ y) and ^{238}U ($T_{1/2} = 4.5 \times 10^9$ y) are radioactive. How far back in time would natural uranium ore have been a practical reactor fuel, with a ^{235}U/^{238}U ratio of 3.0%?

Module 43-4 Thermonuclear Fusion: The Basic Process

•30 Verify that the fusion of 1.0 kg of deuterium by the reaction

$$^2\text{H} + {}^2\text{H} \rightarrow {}^3\text{He} + \text{n} \qquad (Q = +3.27\ \text{MeV})$$

could keep a 100 W lamp burning for 2.5×10^4 y.

•31 SSM Calculate the height of the Coulomb barrier for the head-on collision of two deuterons, with effective radius 2.1 fm.

••32 For overcoming the Coulomb barrier for fusion, methods other than heating the fusible material have been suggested. For example, if you were to use two particle accelerators to accelerate two beams of deuterons directly toward each other so as to collide head-on, (a) what voltage would each accelerator require in order for the colliding deuterons to overcome the Coulomb barrier? (b) Why do you suppose this method is not presently used?

••33 Calculate the Coulomb barrier height for two ^{7}Li nuclei that are fired at each other with the same initial kinetic energy K. (*Hint:* Use Eq. 42-3 to calculate the radii of the nuclei.)

••34 In Fig. 43-10, the equation for $n(K)$, the number density per unit energy for particles, is

$$n(K) = 1.13n\frac{K^{1/2}}{(kT)^{3/2}}e^{-K/kT},$$

where n is the total particle number density. At the center of the Sun, the temperature is 1.50×10^7 K and the average proton energy K_{avg} is 1.94 keV. Find the ratio of the proton number density at 5.00 keV to the number density at the average proton energy.

Module 43-5 Thermonuclear Fusion in the Sun and Other Stars

•35 Assume that the protons in a hot ball of protons each have a kinetic energy equal to kT, where k is the Boltzmann constant and T is the absolute temperature. If $T = 1 \times 10^7$ K, what (approximately) is the least separation any two protons can have?

•36 GO What is the Q of the following fusion process?

$$^2\text{H}_1 + {}^1\text{H}_1 \rightarrow {}^3\text{He}_2 + \text{photon}$$

Here are some atomic masses.

^{2}H$_1$	2.014 102 u	^{1}H$_1$	1.007 825 u
^{3}He$_2$	3.016 029 u		

•37 The Sun has mass 2.0×10^{30} kg and radiates energy at the rate 3.9×10^{26} W. (a) At what rate is its mass changing? (b) What fraction of its original mass has it lost in this way since it began to burn hydrogen, about 4.5×10^9 y ago?

•38 We have seen that Q for the overall proton–proton fusion cycle is 26.7 MeV. How can you relate this number to the Q values for the reactions that make up this cycle, as displayed in Fig. 43-11?

•39 GO Show that the energy released when three alpha particles fuse to form ^{12}C is 7.27 MeV. The atomic mass of ^{4}He is 4.0026 u, and that of ^{12}C is 12.0000 u.

••40 Calculate and compare the energy released by (a) the fusion of 1.0 kg of hydrogen deep within the Sun and (b) the fission of 1.0 kg of ^{235}U in a fission reactor.

••41 GO A star converts all its hydrogen to helium, achieving a 100% helium composition. Next it converts the helium to carbon via the triple-alpha process,

$$^4\text{He} + {}^4\text{He} + {}^4\text{He} \rightarrow {}^{12}\text{C} + 7.27\ \text{MeV}.$$

The mass of the star is 4.6×10^{32} kg, and it generates energy at the rate of 5.3×10^{30} W. How long will it take to convert all the helium to carbon at this rate?

••42 Verify the three Q values reported for the reactions given in Fig. 43-11. The needed atomic and particle masses are

^{1}H	1.007 825 u	^{4}He	4.002 603 u
^{2}H	2.014 102 u	$e^{\pm}$	0.000 548 6 u
^{3}He	3.016 029 u		

(*Hint:* Distinguish carefully between atomic and nuclear masses, and take the positrons properly into account.)

••43 Figure 43-15 shows an early proposal for a hydrogen bomb. The fusion fuel is deuterium, ^{2}H. The high temperature and particle density needed for fusion are provided by an atomic bomb "trig-

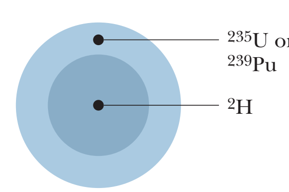


Figure 43-15 Problem 43.

ger" that involves a ^{235}U or ^{239}Pu fission fuel arranged to impress an imploding, compressive shock wave on the deuterium. The fusion reaction is

$$5\,^2H \rightarrow {}^3He + {}^4He + {}^1H + 2n.$$

(a) Calculate Q for the fusion reaction. For needed atomic masses, see Problem 42. (b) Calculate the rating (see Problem 16) of the fusion part of the bomb if it contains 500 kg of deuterium, 30.0% of which undergoes fusion.

••44 Assume that the core of the Sun has one-eighth of the Sun's mass and is compressed within a sphere whose radius is one-fourth of the solar radius. Assume further that the composition of the core is 35% hydrogen by mass and that essentially all the Sun's energy is generated there. If the Sun continues to burn hydrogen at the current rate of 6.2×10^{11} kg/s, how long will it be before the hydrogen is entirely consumed? The Sun's mass is 2.0×10^{30} kg.

••45 (a) Calculate the rate at which the Sun generates neutrinos. Assume that energy production is entirely by the proton–proton fusion cycle. (b) At what rate do solar neutrinos reach Earth?

••46 In certain stars the *carbon cycle* is more effective than the proton–proton cycle in generating energy. This carbon cycle is

$$\begin{aligned}
{}^{12}C + {}^1H &\rightarrow {}^{13}N + \gamma, & Q_1 &= 1.95\text{ MeV},\\
{}^{13}N &\rightarrow {}^{13}C + e^+ + \nu, & Q_2 &= 1.19,\\
{}^{13}C + {}^1H &\rightarrow {}^{14}N + \gamma, & Q_3 &= 7.55,\\
{}^{14}N + {}^1H &\rightarrow {}^{15}O + \gamma, & Q_4 &= 7.30,\\
{}^{15}O &\rightarrow {}^{15}N + e^+ + \nu, & Q_5 &= 1.73,\\
{}^{15}N + {}^1H &\rightarrow {}^{12}C + {}^4He, & Q_6 &= 4.97.
\end{aligned}$$

(a) Show that this cycle is exactly equivalent in its overall effects to the proton–proton cycle of Fig. 43-11. (b) Verify that the two cycles, as expected, have the same Q value.

••47 SSM WWW Coal burns according to the reaction $C + O_2 \rightarrow CO_2$. The heat of combustion is 3.3×10^7 J/kg of atomic carbon consumed. (a) Express this in terms of energy per carbon atom. (b) Express it in terms of energy per kilogram of the initial reactants, carbon and oxygen. (c) Suppose that the Sun (mass $= 2.0 \times 10^{30}$ kg) were made of carbon and oxygen in combustible proportions and that it continued to radiate energy at its present rate of 3.9×10^{26} W. How long would the Sun last?

Module 43-6 Controlled Thermonuclear Fusion

•48 Verify the Q values reported in Eqs. 43-13, 43-14, and 43-15. The needed masses are

^1H	1.007 825 u	^4He	4.002 603 u
^2H	2.014 102 u	n	1.008 665 u
^3H	3.016 049 u		

••49 Roughly 0.0150% of the mass of ordinary water is due to "heavy water," in which one of the two hydrogens in an H_2O molecule is replaced with deuterium, ^2H. How much average fusion power could be obtained if we "burned" all the ^2H in 1.00 liter of water in 1.00 day by somehow causing the deuterium to fuse via the reaction $^2H + {}^2H \rightarrow {}^3He + n$?

Additional Problems

50 The effective Q for the proton–proton cycle of Fig. 43-11 is 26.2 MeV. (a) Express this as energy per kilogram of hydrogen consumed. (b) The power of the Sun is 3.9×10^{26} W. If its energy derives from the proton–proton cycle, at what rate is it losing hydrogen? (c) At what rate is it losing mass? (d) Account for the difference in the results for (b) and (c). (e) The mass of the Sun is 2.0×10^{30} kg. If it loses mass at the constant rate calculated in (c), how long will it take to lose 0.10% of its mass?

51 Many fear that nuclear power reactor technology will increase the likelihood of nuclear war because reactors can be used not only to produce electrical energy but also, as a by-product through neutron capture with inexpensive ^{238}U, to make ^{239}Pu, which is a "fuel" for nuclear bombs. What simple series of reactions involving neutron capture and beta decay would yield this plutonium isotope?

52 In the deuteron–triton fusion reaction of Eq. 43-15, what is the kinetic energy of (a) the alpha particle and (b) the neutron? Neglect the relatively small kinetic energies of the two combining particles.

53 Verify that, as stated in Module 43-1, neutrons in equilibrium with matter at room temperature, 300 K, have an average kinetic energy of about 0.04 eV.

54 Verify that, as reported in Table 43-1, fissioning of the ^{235}U in 1.0 kg of UO_2 (enriched so that ^{235}U is 3.0% of the total uranium) could keep a 100 W lamp burning for 690 y.

55 At the center of the Sun, the density of the gas is 1.5×10^5 kg/m^3 and the composition is essentially 35% hydrogen by mass and 65% helium by mass. (a) What is the number density of protons there? (b) What is the ratio of that proton density to the density of particles in an ideal gas at standard temperature (0°C) and pressure (1.01×10^5 Pa)?

56 Expressions for the Maxwell speed distribution for molecules in a gas are given in Chapter 19. (a) Show that the *most probable energy* is given by

$$K_p = \tfrac{1}{2}kT.$$

Verify this result with the energy distribution curve of Fig. 43-10, for which $T = 1.5 \times 10^7$ K. (b) Show that the *most probable speed* is given by

$$v_p = \sqrt{\frac{2kT}{m}}.$$

Find its value for protons at $T = 1.5 \times 10^7$ K. (c) Show that the *energy corresponding to the most probable speed* (which is not the same as the most probable energy) is

$$K_{v,p} = kT.$$

Locate this quantity on the curve of Fig. 43-10.

57 The uncompressed radius of the fuel pellet of Sample Problem 43.05 is 20 μm. Suppose that the compressed fuel pellet "burns" with an efficiency of 10%—that is, only 10% of the deuterons and 10% of the tritons participate in the fusion reaction of Eq. 43-15. (a) How much energy is released in each such microexplosion of a pellet? (b) To how much TNT is each such pellet equivalent? The heat of combustion of TNT is 4.6 MJ/kg. (c) If a fusion reactor is constructed on the basis of 100 microexplosions per second, what power would be generated? (Part of this power would be used to operate the lasers.)

58 Assume that a plasma temperature of 1×10^8 K is reached in a laser-fusion device. (a) What is the most probable speed of a deuteron at that temperature? (b) How far would such a deuteron move in a confinement time of 1×10^{-12} s?

CHAPTER 44

Quarks, Leptons, and the Big Bang

44-1 GENERAL PROPERTIES OF ELEMENTARY PARTICLES

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

44.01 Identify that a great many different elementary particles exist or can be created and that nearly all of them are unstable.

44.02 For the decay of an unstable particle, apply the same decay equations as used for the radioactive decay of nuclei.

44.03 Identify spin as the intrinsic angular momentum of a particle.

44.04 Distinguish fermions from bosons, and identify which are required to obey the Pauli exclusion principle.

44.05 Distinguish leptons and hadrons, and then identify the two types of hadrons.

44.06 Distinguish particle from antiparticle, and identify that if they meet, they undergo annihilation and are transformed into photons or into other elementary particles.

44.07 Distinguish the strong force and the weak force.

44.08 To see if a given process for elementary particles is physically possible, apply the conservation laws for charge, linear momentum, spin angular momentum, and energy (including mass energy).

Key Ideas

- The term fundamental particles refers to the basic building blocks of matter. We can divide the particles into several broad categories.
- The terms particles and antiparticles originally referred to common particles (such as the electrons, protons, and neutrons in your body) and their antiparticle counterparts (the positrons, antiprotons, and antineutrons), but for most of the rarely detected particles, the distinction between particles and antiparticles is made largely to be consistent with experimental results.
- Fermions (such as the particles in your body) obey the Pauli exclusion principle; bosons do not.

What Is Physics?

Physicists often refer to the theories of relativity and quantum physics as "modern physics," to distinguish them from the theories of Newtonian mechanics and Maxwellian electromagnetism, which are lumped together as "classical physics." As the years go by, the word "modern" seems less and less appropriate for theories whose foundations were laid down in the opening years of the 20th century. After all, Einstein published his paper on the photoelectric effect and his first paper on special relativity in 1905, Bohr published his quantum model of the hydrogen atom in 1913, and Schrödinger published his matter wave equation in 1926. Nevertheless, the label of "modern physics" hangs on.

In this closing chapter we consider two lines of investigation that are truly "modern" but at the same time have the most ancient of roots. They center around two deceptively simple questions:

What is the universe made of?

How did the universe come to be the way it is?

Progress in answering these questions has been rapid in the last few decades.

Many new insights are based on experiments carried out with large particle accelerators. However, as they bang particles together at higher and higher energies using larger and larger accelerators, physicists come to realize that no conceivable Earth-bound accelerator can generate particles with energies great enough to test the ultimate theories of physics. There has been only one source of particles with these energies, and that was the universe itself within the first millisecond of its existence.

In this chapter you will encounter a host of new terms and a veritable flood of particles with names that you should not try to remember. If you are temporarily bewildered, you are sharing the bewilderment of the physicists who lived through these developments and who at times saw nothing but increasing complexity with little hope of understanding. If you stick with it, however, you will come to share the excitement physicists felt as marvelous new accelerators poured out new results, as the theorists put forth ideas each more daring than the last, and as clarity finally sprang from obscurity. The main message of this book is that, although we know a lot about the physics of the world, grand mysteries remain.

Particles, Particles, Particles

In the 1930s, there were many scientists who thought that the problem of the ultimate structure of matter was well on the way to being solved. The atom could be understood in terms of only three particles—the electron, the proton, and the neutron. Quantum physics accounted well for the structure of the atom and for radioactive alpha decay. The neutrino had been postulated and, although not yet observed, had been incorporated by Enrico Fermi into a successful theory of beta decay. There was hope that quantum theory applied to protons and neutrons would soon account for the structure of the nucleus. What else was there?

The euphoria did not last. The end of that same decade saw the beginning of a period of discovery of new particles that continues to this day. The new particles have names and symbols such as *muon* (μ), *pion* (π), *kaon* (K), and *sigma* (Σ). All the new particles are unstable; that is, they spontaneously transform into other types of particles according to the same functions of time that apply to unstable nuclei. Thus, if N_0 particles of any one type are present in a sample at time $t = 0$, the number N of those particles present at some later time t is given by Eq. 42-15,

$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}, \tag{44-1}$$

the rate of decay R, from an initial value of R_0, is given by Eq. 42-16,

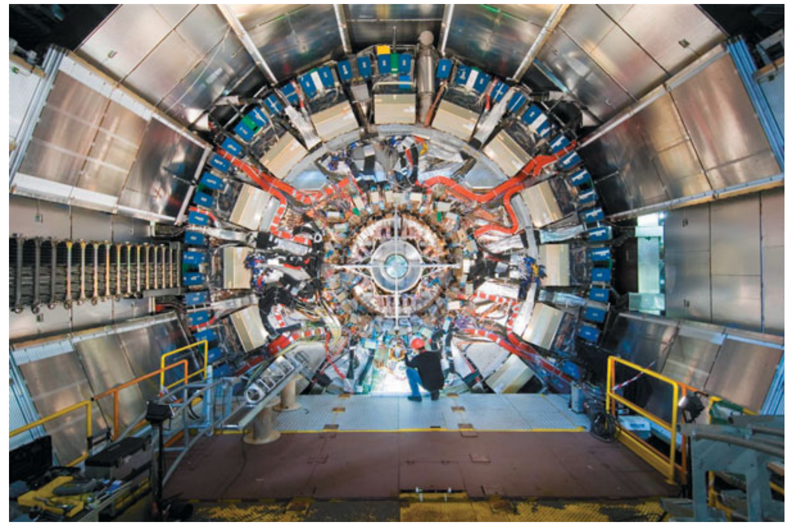
$$R = R_0 e^{-\lambda t}, \tag{44-2}$$

and the half-life $T_{1/2}$, decay constant λ, and mean life τ are related by Eq. 42-18,

$$T_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda} = \tau \ln 2. \tag{44-3}$$

The half-lives of the new particles range from about 10^{-6} s to 10^{-23} s. Indeed, some of the particles last so briefly that they cannot be detected directly but can only be inferred from indirect evidence.

These new particles have been commonly produced in head-on collisions between protons or electrons accelerated to high energies in accelerators at places like Brookhaven National Laboratory (on Long Island, New York), Fermilab (near Chicago), CERN (near Geneva, Switzerland), SLAC (at Stanford University in California), and DESY (near Hamburg, Germany). They have been discovered with particle detectors that have grown in sophistication until they rival the size and complexity of entire accelerators of only a few decades ago.



One of the detectors at the Large Hadron Collider at CERN, where the Standard Model of the elementary particles is being put to the test.

Today there are several hundred known particles. Naming them has strained the resources of the Greek alphabet, and most are known only by an assigned number in a periodically issued compilation. To make sense of this array of particles, we look for simple physical criteria by which we can place the particles in categories. The result is known as the **Standard Model** of particles. Although this model is continuously challenged by theorists, it remains our best scheme of understanding all the particles discovered to date.

To explore the Standard Model, we make the following three rough cuts among the known particles: fermion or boson, hadron or lepton, particle or antiparticle? Let's now look at the categories one by one.

Fermion or Boson?

All particles have an intrinsic angular momentum called **spin,** as we discussed for electrons, protons, and neutrons in Module 32-5. Generalizing the notation of that section, we can write the component of spin $\vec{S}$ in any direction (assume the component to be along a z axis) as

$$S_z = m_s\hbar \qquad \text{for } m_s = s, s-1, \ldots, -s, \tag{44-4}$$

in which $\hbar$ is $h/2\pi$, m_s is the *spin magnetic quantum number,* and s is the *spin quantum number.* This last can have either positive half-integer values $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \ldots)$ or nonnegative integer values $(0, 1, 2, \ldots)$. For example, an electron has the value $s = \frac{1}{2}$. Hence the spin of an electron (measured along any direction, such as the z direction) can have the values

$$S_z = \tfrac{1}{2}\hbar \quad \text{(spin up)}$$

or

$$S_z = -\tfrac{1}{2}\hbar \quad \text{(spin down)}.$$

Confusingly, the term *spin* is used in two ways: It properly means a particle's intrinsic angular momentum $\vec{S}$, but it is often used loosely to mean the particle's spin quantum number s. In the latter case, for example, an electron is said to be a spin-$\frac{1}{2}$ particle.

Particles with half-integer spin quantum numbers (like electrons) are called **fermions,** after Fermi, who (simultaneously with Paul Dirac) discovered the statistical laws that govern their behavior. Like electrons, protons and neutrons also have $s = \frac{1}{2}$ and are fermions.

Particles with zero or integer spin quantum numbers are called **bosons,** after Indian physicist Satyendra Nath Bose, who (simultaneously with Albert Einstein) discovered the governing statistical laws for *those* particles. Photons, which have $s = 1$, are bosons; you will soon meet other particles in this class.

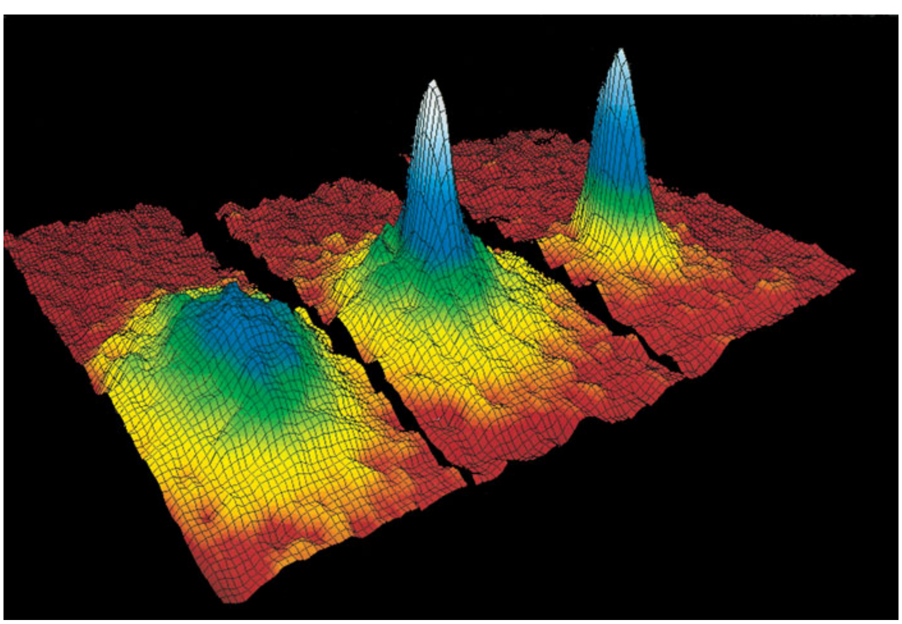
This may seem a trivial way to classify particles, but it is very important for this reason:

> Fermions obey the Pauli exclusion principle, which asserts that only a single particle can be assigned to a given quantum state. Bosons *do not* obey this principle. Any number of bosons can occupy a given quantum state.

We saw how important the Pauli exclusion principle is when we "built up" the atoms by assigning (spin-$\frac{1}{2}$) electrons to individual quantum states. Using that principle led to a full accounting of the structure and properties of atoms of different types and of solids such as metals and semiconductors.

Because bosons do *not* obey the Pauli principle, those particles tend to pile up in the quantum state of lowest energy. In 1995 a group in Boulder, Colorado, succeeded in producing a condensate of about 2000 rubidium-87 atoms—they are bosons—in a single quantum state of approximately zero energy.

For this to happen, the rubidium has to be a vapor with a temperature so low and a density so great that the de Broglie wavelengths of the individual atoms are greater than the average separation between the atoms. When this condition is met, the wave functions of the individual atoms overlap and the entire assembly becomes a single quantum system (one big atom) called a *Bose–Einstein condensate.* Figure 44-1 shows that, as the temperature of the rubidium vapor is lowered to about 1.70×10^{-7} K, the atoms do indeed "collapse" into a single sharply defined state corresponding to approximately zero speed.



Courtesy Michael Mathews

(*a*) (*b*) (*c*)

Figure 44-1 Three plots of the particle speed distribution in a vapor of rubidium-87 atoms. The temperature of the vapor is successively reduced from plot (a) to plot (c). Plot (c) shows a sharp peak centered around zero speed; that is, all the atoms are in the same quantum state. The achievement of such a Bose–Einstein condensate, often called the Holy Grail of atomic physics, was finally recorded in 1995.

Hadron or Lepton?

We can also classify particles in terms of the four fundamental forces that act on them. The *gravitational force* acts on *all* particles, but its effects at the level of subatomic particles are so weak that we need not consider that force (at least not in today's research). The *electromagnetic force* acts on all *electrically charged* particles; its effects are well known, and we can take them into account when we need to; we largely ignore this force in this chapter.

We are left with the *strong force,* which is the force that binds nucleons together, and the *weak force,* which is involved in beta decay and similar processes. The weak force acts on all particles, the strong force only on some.

We can, then, roughly classify particles on the basis of whether the strong force acts on them. Particles on which the strong force acts are called **hadrons.** Particles on which the strong force does *not* act, leaving the weak force and the electromagnetic force as the dominant forces, are called **leptons.** Protons, neutrons, and pions are hadrons; electrons and neutrinos are leptons.

We can make a further distinction among the hadrons because some of them are bosons (we call them **mesons**); the pion is an example. The other hadrons are fermions (we call them **baryons**); the proton is an example.

Particle or Antiparticle?

In 1928 Dirac predicted that the electron e^- should have a positively charged counterpart of the same mass and spin. The counterpart, the *positron* e^+, was discovered in cosmic radiation in 1932 by Carl Anderson. Physicists then gradually realized that *every* particle has a corresponding **antiparticle.** The members of such pairs have the same mass and spin but opposite signs of electric charge (if they are charged) and opposite signs of quantum numbers that we have not yet discussed.

At first, *particle* was used to refer to the common particles such as electrons, protons, and neutrons, and *antiparticle* referred to their rarely detected counterparts. Later, for the less common particles, the assignment of *particle* and *antiparticle* was made so as to be consistent with certain conservation laws that we shall discuss later in this chapter. (Confusingly, both particles and antiparticles are sometimes called particles when no distinction is needed.) We often, but not always, represent an antiparticle by putting a bar over the symbol for the particle. Thus, p is the symbol for the proton, and $\bar{p}$ (pronounced "p bar") is the symbol for the antiproton.

Annihilation. When a particle meets its antiparticle, the two can *annihilate* each other. That is, the particle and antiparticle disappear and their combined energies reappear in other forms. For an electron annihilating with a positron, this energy reappears as two gamma-ray photons:

$$e^- + e^+ \rightarrow \gamma + \gamma. \tag{44-5}$$

If the electron and positron are stationary when they annihilate, their total energy is their total mass energy, and that energy is then shared equally by the two photons. To conserve momentum and because photons cannot be stationary, the photons fly off in opposite directions.

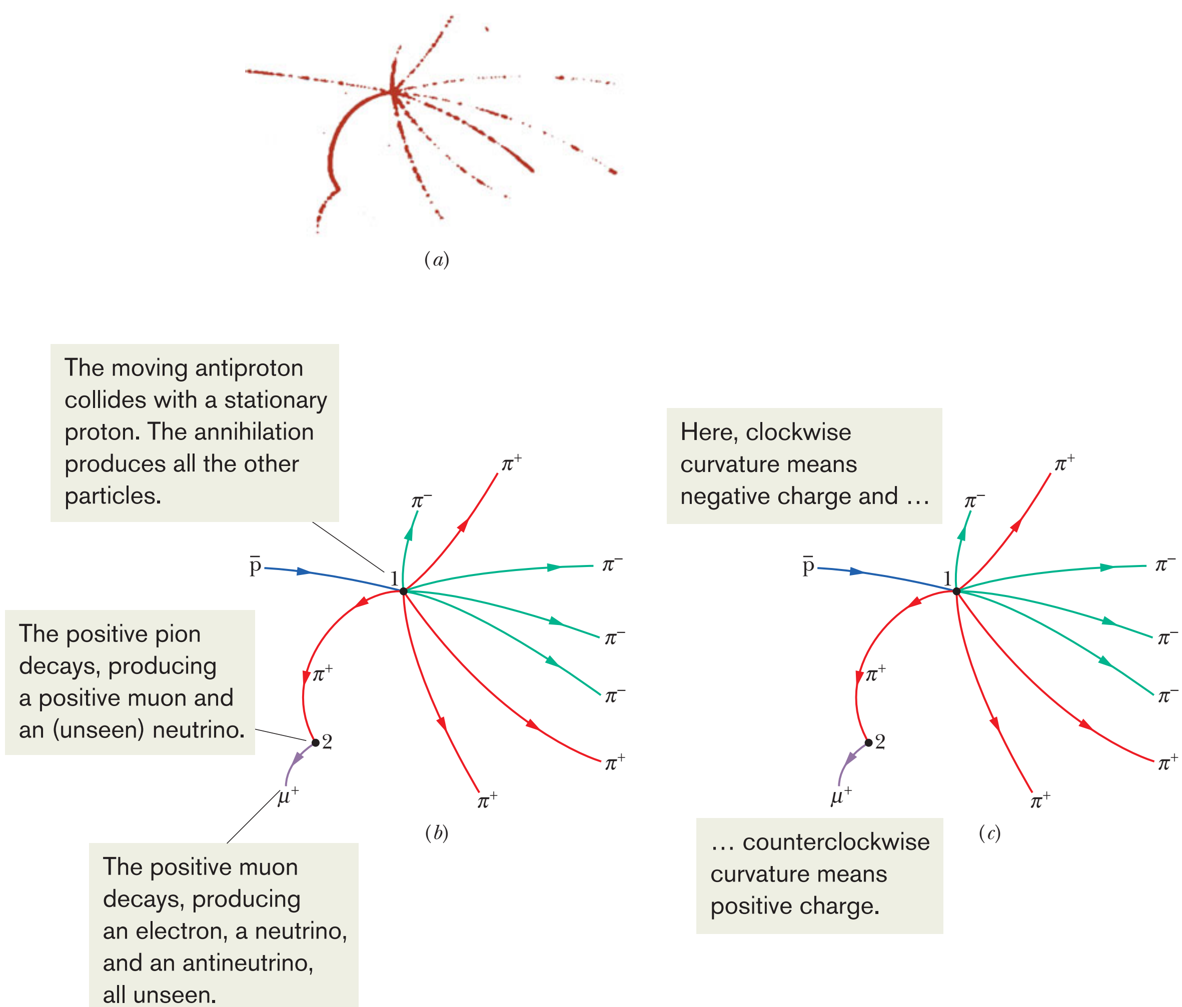
Antihydrogen atoms (each with an antiproton and positron instead of a proton and electron in a hydrogen atom) are now being manufactured and studied at CERN. The Standard Model predicts that a transition in an antihydrogen atom (say, between the first excited state and the ground state) is identical to the same transition in a hydrogen atom. Thus, any difference in the transitions would clearly signal that the Standard Model is erroneous; no difference has yet been spotted.

An assembly of antiparticles, such as an antihydrogen atom, is often called *antimatter* to distinguish it from an assembly of common particles (*matter*). (The terms can easily be confusing when the word "matter" is used to describe anything that has mass.) We can speculate that future scientists and engineers may construct objects of antimatter. However, no evidence suggests that nature has already done this on an astronomical scale because all stars and galaxies appear to consist largely of matter and not antimatter. This is a perplexing observation because it means that when the universe began, some feature biased the conditions toward matter and away from antimatter. (For example, electrons are common but positrons are not.) This bias is still not well understood.

An Interlude

Before pressing on with the task of classifying the particles, let us step aside for a moment and capture some of the spirit of particle research by analyzing a typical particle event—namely, that shown in the bubble-chamber photograph of Fig. 44-2*a*.

The tracks in this figure consist of bubbles formed along the paths of electrically charged particles as they move through a chamber filled with liquid hydrogen. We can identify the particle that makes a particular track by—among other means—measuring the relative spacing between the bubbles. The chamber lies in a uniform magnetic field that deflects the tracks of positively



Part (*a*): Courtesy Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory

Figure 44-2 (*a*) A bubble-chamber photograph of a series of events initiated by an antiproton that enters the chamber from the left. (*b*) The tracks redrawn and labeled for clarity. (*c*) The tracks are curved because a magnetic field present in the chamber exerts a deflecting force on each moving charged particle.

Table 44-1 The Particles or Antiparticles Involved in the Event of Fig. 44-2

Particle	Symbol	Charge q	Mass (MeV/c^2)	Spin Quantum Number s	Identity	Mean Life (s)	Antiparticle
Neutrino	ν	0	$\approx 1 \times 10^{-7}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	Lepton	Stable	$\bar{\nu}$
Electron	e^-	-1	0.511	$\frac{1}{2}$	Lepton	Stable	e^+
Muon	μ^-	-1	105.7	$\frac{1}{2}$	Lepton	2.2×10^{-6}	μ^+
Pion	π^+	$+1$	139.6	0	Meson	2.6×10^{-8}	π^-
Proton	p	$+1$	938.3	$\frac{1}{2}$	Baryon	Stable	$\bar{p}$

charged particles counterclockwise and the tracks of negatively charged particles clockwise. By measuring the radius of curvature of a track, we can calculate the momentum of the particle that made it. Table 44-1 shows some properties of the particles and antiparticles that participated in the event of Fig. 44-2*a*, including those that did not make tracks. Following common practice, we express the masses of the particles listed in Table 44-1—and in all other tables in this chapter—in the unit MeV/c^2. The reason for this notation is that the rest energy of a particle is needed more often than its mass. Thus, the mass of a proton is shown in Table 44-1 to be 938.3 MeV/c^2. To find the proton's rest energy, multiply this mass by c^2 to obtain 938.3 MeV.

The general tools used for the analysis of photographs like Fig. 44-2*a* are the laws of conservation of energy, linear momentum, angular momentum, and electric charge, along with other conservation laws that we have not yet discussed. Figure 44-2*a* is actually one of a stereo pair of photographs so that, in practice, these analyses are carried out in three dimensions.

The event of Fig. 44-2*a* is triggered by an energetic antiproton ($\bar{p}$) that, generated in an accelerator at the Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory, enters the chamber from the left. There are three separate subevents; one occurs at point 1 in Fig. 44-2*b*, the second occurs at point 2, and the third occurs out of the frame of the figure. Let's examine each:

1. *Proton–Antiproton Annihilation.* At point 1 in Fig. 44-2*b*, the initiating antiproton (blue track) slams into a proton of the liquid hydrogen in the chamber, and the result is mutual annihilation. We can tell that annihilation occurred while the incoming antiproton was in flight because most of the particles generated in the encounter move in the forward direction—that is, toward the right in Fig. 44-2. From the principle of conservation of linear momentum, the incoming antiproton must have had a forward momentum when it underwent annihilation. Further, because the particles are charged and moving through a magnetic field, the curvature of the paths reveal whether the particles are negatively charged (like the incident antiproton) or positively charged (Fig. 44-2*c*).

The total energy involved in the collision of the antiproton and the proton is the sum of the antiproton's kinetic energy and the two (identical) rest energies of those two particles (2×938.3 MeV, or 1876.6 MeV). This is enough energy to create a number of lighter particles and give them kinetic energy. In this case, the annihilation produces four positive pions (red tracks in Fig. 44-2*b*) and four negative pions (green tracks). (For simplicity, we assume that no gamma-ray photons, which would leave no tracks because they lack electric charge, are produced.) Thus we conclude that the annihilation process is

$$p + \bar{p} \rightarrow 4\pi^+ + 4\pi^-. \qquad (44\text{-}6)$$

We see from Table 44-1 that the positive pions (π^+) are *particles* and the negative pions (π^-) are *antiparticles*. The reaction of Eq. 44-6 is a *strong interac-*

tion (it involves the strong force) because all the particles involved are hadrons.

Let us check whether electric charge is conserved in the reaction. To do so, we can write the electric charge of a particle as qe, in which q is a **charge quantum number.** Then determining whether electric charge is conserved in a process amounts to determining whether the initial net charge quantum number is equal to the final net charge quantum number. In the process of Eq. 44-6, the initial net charge number is $1 + (-1)$, or 0, and the final net charge number is $4(1) + 4(-1)$, or 0. Thus, charge *is* conserved.

For the energy balance, note from above that the energy available from the p-$\bar{\text{p}}$ annihilation process is at least the sum of the proton and antiproton rest energies, 1876.6 MeV. The rest energy of a pion is 139.6 MeV, which means the rest energies of the eight pions amount to 8×139.6 MeV, or 1116.8 MeV. This leaves at least about 760 MeV to distribute among the eight pions as kinetic energy. Thus, the requirement of energy conservation is easily met.

2. *Pion Decay.* Pions are unstable particles and decay with a mean lifetime of 2.6×10^{-8} s. At point 2 in Fig. 44-2*b*, one of the positive pions comes to rest in the chamber and decays spontaneously into an antimuon μ^+ (purple track) and a neutrino ν:

$$\pi^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ + \nu. \tag{44-7}$$

The neutrino, being uncharged, leaves no track. Both the antimuon and the neutrino are leptons; that is, they are particles on which the strong force does not act. Thus, the decay process of Eq. 44-7, which is governed by the weak force, is described as a *weak interaction.*

Let's consider the energies in the decay. From Table 44-1, the rest energy of an antimuon is 105.7 MeV and the rest energy of a neutrino is approximately 0. Because the pion is at rest when it decays, its energy is just its rest energy, 139.6 MeV. Thus, an energy of 139.6 MeV − 105.7 MeV, or 33.9 MeV, is available to share between the antimuon and the neutrino as kinetic energy.

Let us check whether spin angular momentum is conserved in the process of Eq. 44-7. This amounts to determining whether the net component S_z of spin angular momentum along some arbitrary z axis can be conserved by the process. The spin quantum numbers s of the particles in the process are 0 for the pion π^+ and $\frac{1}{2}$ for both the antimuon μ^+ and the neutrino ν. Thus, for π^+, the component S_z must be $0\hbar$, and for μ^+ and ν, it can be either $+\frac{1}{2}\hbar$ or $-\frac{1}{2}\hbar$.

The net component S_z is conserved by the process of Eq. 44-7 if there is *any* way in which the initial S_z $(= 0\hbar)$ can be equal to the final net S_z. We see that if one of the products, either μ^+ or ν, has $S_z = +\frac{1}{2}\hbar$ and the other has $S_z = -\frac{1}{2}\hbar$, then their final net value is $0\hbar$. Thus, because S_z can be conserved, the decay process of Eq. 44-7 *can* occur.

From Eq. 44-7, we also see that the net charge is conserved by the process: before the process the net charge quantum number is +1, and after the process it is $+1 + 0 = +1$.

3. *Muon Decay.* Muons (whether μ^- or μ^+) are also unstable, decaying with a mean life of 2.2×10^{-6} s. Although the decay products are not shown in Fig. 44-2, the antimuon produced in the reaction of Eq. 44-7 comes to rest and decays spontaneously according to

$$\mu^+ \rightarrow \text{e}^+ + \nu + \bar{\nu}. \tag{44-8}$$

The rest energy of the antimuon is 105.7 MeV, and that of the positron is only 0.511 MeV, leaving 105.2 MeV to be shared as kinetic energy among the three particles produced in the decay process of Eq. 44-8.

You may wonder: Why *two* neutrinos in Eq. 44-8? Why not just one, as in the pion decay in Eq. 44-7? One answer is that the spin quantum numbers of the antimuon, the positron, and the neutrino are each $\frac{1}{2}$; with only one neutrino, the net component S_z of spin angular momentum could not be conserved in the antimuon decay of Eq. 44-8. In Module 44-2 we shall discuss another reason.

Sample Problem 44.01 Momentum and kinetic energy in a pion decay

A stationary positive pion can decay according to

$$\pi^+ \to \mu^+ + \nu.$$

What is the kinetic energy of the antimuon μ^+? What is the kinetic energy of the neutrino?

KEY IDEA

The pion decay process must conserve both total energy and total linear momentum.

Energy conservation: Let us first write the conservation of total energy (rest energy mc^2 plus kinetic energy K) for the decay process as

$$m_\pi c^2 + K_\pi = m_\mu c^2 + K_\mu + m_\nu c^2 + K_\nu.$$

Because the pion was stationary, its kinetic energy K_π is zero. Then, using the masses listed for m_π, m_μ, and m_ν in Table 44-1, we find

$$\begin{aligned} K_\mu + K_\nu &= m_\pi c^2 - m_\mu c^2 - m_\nu c^2 \\ &= 139.6 \text{ MeV} - 105.7 \text{ MeV} - 0 \\ &= 33.9 \text{ MeV}, \end{aligned} \tag{44-9}$$

where we have approximated m_ν as zero.

Momentum conservation: We cannot solve Eq. 44-9 for either K_μ or K_ν separately, and so let us next apply the principle of conservation of linear momentum to the decay process. Because the pion is stationary when it decays, that principle requires that the muon and neutrino move in opposite directions after the decay. Assume that their motion is along an axis. Then, for components along that axis, we can write the conservation of linear momentum for the decay as

$$p_\pi = p_\mu + p_\nu,$$

which, with $p_\pi = 0$, gives us

$$p_\mu = -p_\nu. \tag{44-10}$$

Relating p and K: We want to relate these momenta p_μ and $-p_\nu$ to the kinetic energies K_μ and K_ν so that we can solve for the kinetic energies. Because we have no reason to believe that classical physics can be applied, we use Eq. 37-54, the momentum–kinetic energy relation from special relativity:

$$(pc)^2 = K^2 + 2Kmc^2. \tag{44-11}$$

From Eq. 44-10, we know that

$$(p_\mu c)^2 = (p_\nu c)^2. \tag{44-12}$$

Substituting from Eq. 44-11 for each side of Eq. 44-12 yields

$$K_\mu^2 + 2K_\mu m_\mu c^2 = K_\nu^2 + 2K_\nu m_\nu c^2.$$

Approximating the neutrino mass to be $m_\nu = 0$, substituting $K_\nu = 33.9 \text{ MeV} - K_\mu$ from Eq. 44-9, and then solving for K_μ, we find

$$\begin{aligned} K_\mu &= \frac{(33.9 \text{ MeV})^2}{(2)(33.9 \text{ MeV} + m_\mu c^2)} \\ &= \frac{(33.9 \text{ MeV})^2}{(2)(33.9 \text{ MeV} + 105.7 \text{ MeV})} \\ &= 4.12 \text{ MeV}. \end{aligned} \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

The kinetic energy of the neutrino is then, from Eq. 44-9,

$$\begin{aligned} K_\nu &= 33.9 \text{ MeV} - K_\mu = 33.9 \text{ MeV} - 4.12 \text{ MeV} \\ &= 29.8 \text{ MeV}. \end{aligned} \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

We see that, although the magnitudes of the momenta of the two recoiling particles are the same, the neutrino gets the larger share (88%) of the kinetic energy.

Sample Problem 44.02 Q in a proton-pion reaction

The protons in the material filling a bubble chamber are bombarded with a beam of high-energy antiparticles known as negative pions. At collision points, a proton and a pion transform into a negative kaon and a positive sigma in this reaction:

$$\pi^- + \mathrm{p} \to \mathrm{K}^- + \Sigma^+.$$

The rest energies of these particles are

π^-	139.6 MeV	K^-	493.7 MeV
p	938.3 MeV	Σ^+	1189.4 MeV

What is the Q of the reaction?

KEY IDEA

The Q of a reaction is

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} \text{initial total} \\ \text{mass energy} \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \text{final total} \\ \text{mass energy} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Calculation: For the given reaction, we find

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= (m_\pi c^2 + m_\mathrm{p} c^2) - (m_\mathrm{K} c^2 + m_\Sigma c^2) \\ &= (139.6 \text{ MeV} + 938.3 \text{ MeV}) \\ &\quad -(493.7 \text{ MeV} + 1189.4 \text{ MeV}) \\ &= -605 \text{ MeV}. \end{aligned} \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

The minus sign means that the reaction is *endothermic;* that is, the incoming pion (π^-) must have a kinetic energy greater than a certain threshold value if the reaction is to occur. The threshold energy is actually greater than 605 MeV because linear momentum must be conserved. (The incoming pion has momentum.) This means that the kaon (K^-) and the sigma (Σ^+) not only must be created but also must be given some kinetic energy. A relativistic calculation whose details are beyond our scope shows that the threshold energy for the reaction is 907 MeV.

44-2 LEPTONS, HADRONS, AND STRANGENESS

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

44.09 Identify that there are six leptons (with an antiparticle each) in three families, with a different type of neutrino in each family.

44.10 To see if a given process for elementary particles is physically possible, determine whether it conserves lepton number and whether it conserves the individual family lepton numbers.

44.11 Identify that there is a quantum number called baryon number associated with the baryons.

44.12 To see if a given process for elementary particles is physically possible, determine whether the process conserves baryon number.

44.13 Identify that there is a quantum number called strangeness associated with some of the baryons and mesons.

44.14 Identify that strangeness must be conserved in an interaction involving the strong force, but this conservation law can be broken for other interactions.

44.15 Describe the eightfold-way patterns.

Key Ideas

- We can classify particles and their antiparticles into two main types: leptons and hadrons. The latter consists of mesons and baryons.
- Three of the leptons (the electron, muon, and tau) have electric charge equal to $-1e$. There are also three uncharged neutrinos (also leptons), one corresponding to each of the charged leptons. The antiparticles for the charged leptons have positive charge.
- To explain the possible and impossible reactions of these particles, each is assigned a lepton quantum number, which must be conserved in a reaction.
- The leptons have half-integer spin quantum numbers and are thus fermions, which obey the Pauli exclusion principle.
- Baryons, including protons and neutrons, are hadrons with half-integer spin quantum numbers and thus are also fermions.
- Mesons are hadrons with integer spin quantum numbers and thus are bosons, which do not obey the Pauli exclusion principle.
- To explain the possible and impossible reactions of these particles, baryons are assigned a baryon quantum number, which must be conserved in a reaction.
- Baryons are also assigned a strangeness quantum number, but it is conserved only in reactions involving the strong force.

The Leptons

In this module, we discuss some of the particles of one of our classification schemes: lepton or hadron. We begin with the leptons, those particles on which the strong force does *not* act. So far, we have encountered the familiar electron and the neutrino that accompanies it in beta decay. The muon, whose decay is described in Eq. 44-8, is another member of this family. Physicists gradually learned that the neutrino that appears in Eq. 44-7, associated with the production of a muon, is *not the same particle* as the neutrino produced in beta decay, associated with the appearance of an electron. We call the former the **muon neutrino** (symbol ν_μ) and the latter the **electron neutrino** (symbol ν_e) when it is necessary to distinguish between them.

Table 44-2 The Leptons[a]

Family	Particle	Symbol	Mass (MeV/c^2)	Charge q	Antiparticle
Electron	Electron	e^-	0.511	-1	e^+
	Electron neutrino[b]	ν_e	$\approx 1 \times 10^{-7}$	0	$\bar{\nu}_e$
Muon	Muon	μ^-	105.7	-1	μ^+
	Muon neutrino[b]	ν_μ	$\approx 1 \times 10^{-7}$	0	$\bar{\nu}_\mu$
Tau	Tau	τ^-	1777	-1	τ^+
	Tau neutrino[b]	ν_τ	$\approx 1 \times 10^{-7}$	0	$\bar{\nu}_\tau$

[a]All leptons have spin quantum numbers of $\frac{1}{2}$ and are thus fermions.
[b]The neutrino masses have not been well determined. Also, because of neutrino oscillations, we might not be able to associate a particular mass with a particular neutrino.

These two types of neutrino are known to be different particles because, if a beam of muon neutrinos (produced from pion decay as in Eq. 44-7) strikes a solid target, *only muons*—and never electrons—are produced. On the other hand, if electron neutrinos (produced by the beta decay of fission products in a nuclear reactor) strike a solid target, *only electrons*—and never muons—are produced.

Another lepton, the **tau,** was discovered at SLAC in 1975; its discoverer, Martin Perl, shared the 1995 Nobel Prize in physics. The tau has its own associated neutrino, different still from the other two. Table 44-2 lists all the leptons (both particles and antiparticles); all have a spin quantum number s of $\frac{1}{2}$.

There are reasons for dividing the leptons into three families, each consisting of a particle (electron, muon, or tau), its associated neutrino, and the corresponding antiparticles. Furthermore, there are reasons to believe that there are *only* the three families of leptons shown in Table 44-2. Leptons have no internal structure and no measurable dimensions; they are believed to be truly pointlike fundamental particles when they interact with other particles or with electromagnetic waves.

The Conservation of Lepton Number

According to experiment, particle interactions involving leptons obey a conservation law for a quantum number called the **lepton number** L. Each (normal) particle in Table 44-2 is assigned $L = +1$, and each antiparticle is assigned $L = -1$. All other particles, which are not leptons, are assigned $L = 0$. Also according to experiment,

> In all particle interactions, the net lepton number is conserved.

This experimental fact is called the law of **conservation of lepton number.** We do not know *why* the law must be obeyed; we only know that this conservation law is part of the way our universe works.

There are actually three types of lepton number, one for each lepton family: the electron lepton number L_e, the muon lepton number L_μ, and the tau lepton number L_τ. In nearly all observed interactions, these three quantum numbers are separately conserved. An important exception involves the neutrinos. For reasons that we cannot explore here, the fact that neutrinos are not massless means that they can "oscillate" between different types as they travel long distances. Such oscillations were proposed to explain why only about a third of the expected number of electron neutrinos arrive at Earth from the proton-proton fusion mechanism in the Sun (Fig. 43-11). The rest change on the way. The oscillations, then, mean that the individual family lepton numbers are not conserved for neutrinos. In this book we shall not consider such violations and shall always conserve the individual family lepton numbers.

Let's illustrate such conservation by reconsidering the antimuon decay process shown in Eq. 44-8, which we now write more fully as

$$\mu^+ \rightarrow e^+ + \nu_e + \bar{\nu}_\mu. \tag{44-13}$$

Consider this first in terms of the muon family of leptons. The μ^+ is an antiparticle (see Table 44-2) and thus has the muon lepton number $L_\mu = -1$. The two particles e^+ and ν_e do not belong to the muon family and thus have $L_\mu = 0$. This leaves $\bar{\nu}_\mu$ on the right which, being an antiparticle, also has the muon lepton number $L_\mu = -1$. Thus, both sides of Eq. 44-13 have the same net muon lepton number—namely, $L_\mu = -1$; if they did not, the μ^+ would not decay by this process.

No members of the electron family appear on the left in Eq. 44-13; so there the net electron lepton number must be $L_e = 0$. On the right side of Eq. 44-13, the positron, being an antiparticle (again see Table 44-2), has the electron lepton number $L_e = -1$. The electron neutrino ν_e, being a particle, has the electron number $L_e = +1$. Thus, the net electron lepton number for these two particles on the right in Eq. 44-13 is also zero; the electron lepton number is also conserved in the process.

Because no members of the tau family appear on either side of Eq. 44-13, we must have $L_\tau = 0$ on each side. Thus, each of the lepton quantum numbers L_μ, L_e, and L_τ remains unchanged during the decay process of Eq. 44-13, their constant values being -1, 0, and 0, respectively.

Checkpoint 1

(a) The π^+ meson decays by the process $\pi^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ + \nu$. To what lepton family does the neutrino ν belong? (b) Is this neutrino a particle or an antiparticle? (c) What is its lepton number?

The Hadrons

We are now ready to consider hadrons (baryons and mesons), those particles whose interactions are governed by the strong force. We start by adding another conservation law to our list: conservation of baryon number.

To develop this conservation law, let us consider the proton decay process

$$p \rightarrow e^+ + \nu_e. \tag{44-14}$$

This process *never* happens. We should be glad that it does not because otherwise all protons in the universe would gradually change into positrons, with disastrous consequences for us. Yet this decay process does not violate the conservation laws involving energy, linear momentum, or lepton number.

We account for the apparent stability of the proton—and for the absence of many other processes that might otherwise occur—by introducing a new quantum number, the **baryon number** B, and a new conservation law, the **conservation of baryon number:**

> To every baryon we assign $B = +1$. To every antibaryon we assign $B = -1$. To all particles of other types we assign $B = 0$. A particle process cannot occur if it changes the net baryon number.

In the process of Eq. 44-14, the proton has a baryon number of $B = +1$ and the positron and neutrino both have a baryon number of $B = 0$. Thus, the process does not conserve baryon number and cannot occur.

Checkpoint 2

This mode of decay for a neutron is *not* observed:

$$n \rightarrow p + e^-.$$

Which of the following conservation laws does this process violate: (a) energy, (b) angular momentum, (c) linear momentum, (d) charge, (e) lepton number, (f) baryon number? The masses are $m_n = 939.6\ \mathrm{MeV}/c^2$, $m_p = 938.3\ \mathrm{MeV}/c^2$, and $m_e = 0.511\ \mathrm{MeV}/c^2$.

Still Another Conservation Law

Particles have intrinsic properties in addition to the ones we have listed so far: mass, charge, spin, lepton number, and baryon number. The first of these additional properties was discovered when researchers observed that certain new particles, such as the kaon (K) and the sigma (Σ), always seemed to be produced in pairs. It seemed impossible to produce only one of them at a time. Thus, if a beam of energetic pions interacts with the protons in a bubble chamber, the reaction

$$\pi^+ + p \rightarrow K^+ + \Sigma^+ \tag{44-15}$$

often occurs. The reaction

$$\pi^+ + p \rightarrow \pi^+ + \Sigma^+, \tag{44-16}$$

which violates no conservation law known in the early days of particle physics, never occurs.

It was eventually proposed (by Murray Gell-Mann in the United States and independently by K. Nishijima in Japan) that certain particles possess a new property, called **strangeness,** with its own quantum number S and its own conservation law. (Be careful not to confuse the symbol S here with the symbol for spin.) The name *strangeness* arises from the fact that, before the identities of these particles were pinned down, they were known as "strange particles," and the label stuck.

The proton, neutron, and pion have $S = 0$; that is, they are not "strange." It was proposed, however, that the K^+ particle has strangeness $S = +1$ and that Σ^+ has $S = -1$. In the reaction of Eq. 44-15, the net strangeness is initially zero and finally zero; thus, the reaction conserves strangeness. However, in the reaction shown in Eq. 44-16, the final net strangeness is -1; thus, that reaction does not conserve strangeness and cannot occur. Apparently, then, we must add one more conservation law to our list—the **conservation of strangeness:**

Strangeness is conserved in interactions involving the strong force.

Strange particles are produced only (rapidly) by strong interactions and only in pairs with a net strangeness of zero. They then decay (slowly) through weak interactions without conserving strangeness.

It may seem heavy-handed to invent a new property of particles just to account for a little puzzle like that posed by Eqs. 44-15 and 44-16. However, strangeness soon solved many other puzzles. Still, do not be misled by the whimsical name. Strangeness is no more mysterious a property of particles than is charge. Both are properties that particles may (or may not) have; each is described by an appropriate quantum number. Each obeys a conservation law. Still other properties of particles have been discovered and given even more whimsical names, such as *charm* and *bottomness,* but all are perfectly legitimate properties. Let us see, as an example, how the new property of strangeness "earns its keep" by leading us to uncover important regularities in the properties of the particles.

Table 44-3 Eight Spin-$\frac{1}{2}$ Baryons

Particle	Symbol	Mass (MeV/c^2)	Quantum Numbers: Charge q	Quantum Numbers: Strangeness S
Proton	p	938.3	+1	0
Neutron	n	939.6	0	0
Lambda	Λ^0	1115.6	0	−1
Sigma	Σ^+	1189.4	+1	−1
Sigma	Σ^0	1192.5	0	−1
Sigma	Σ^-	1197.3	−1	−1
Xi	Ξ^0	1314.9	0	−2
Xi	Ξ^-	1321.3	−1	−2

Table 44-4 Nine Spin-Zero Mesons[a]

Particle	Symbol	Mass (MeV/c^2)	Quantum Numbers: Charge q	Quantum Numbers: Strangeness S
Pion	π^0	135.0	0	0
Pion	π^+	139.6	+1	0
Pion	π^-	139.6	−1	0
Kaon	K^+	493.7	+1	+1
Kaon	K^-	493.7	−1	−1
Kaon	K^0	497.7	0	+1
Kaon	$\overline{K}^0$	497.7	0	−1
Eta	η	547.5	0	0
Eta prime	η'	957.8	0	0

[a]All mesons are bosons, having spins of 0, 1, 2, ... The ones listed here all have a spin of 0.

The Eightfold Way

There are eight baryons—the neutron and the proton among them—that have a spin quantum number of $\frac{1}{2}$. Table 44-3 shows some of their other properties. Figure 44-3*a* shows the fascinating pattern that emerges if we plot the strangeness of these baryons against their charge quantum number, using a sloping axis for the charge quantum numbers. Six of the eight form a hexagon with the two remaining baryons at its center.

Let us turn now from the hadrons called baryons to the hadrons called mesons. Nine with a spin of zero are listed in Table 44-4. If we plot them on a sloping strangeness–charge diagram, as in Fig. 44-3*b*, the same fascinating pattern emerges! These and related plots, called the **eightfold way** patterns,* were proposed independently in 1961 by Murray Gell-Mann at the California Institute of Technology and by Yuval Ne'eman at Imperial College, London. The two patterns of Fig. 44-3 are representative of a larger number of symmetrical patterns in which groups of baryons and mesons can be displayed.

The symmetry of the eightfold way pattern for the spin-$\frac{3}{2}$ baryons (not shown here) calls for ten particles arranged in a pattern like that of the tenpins in a bowling alley. However, when the pattern was first proposed, only nine such particles were known; the "headpin" was missing. In 1962, guided by theory and the symmetry of the pattern, Gell-Mann made a prediction in which he essentially said:

> *There exists a spin-$\frac{3}{2}$ baryon with a charge of −1, a strangeness of −3, and a rest energy of about 1680 MeV. If you look for this omega minus particle (as I propose to call it), I think you will find it.*

A team of physicists headed by Nicholas Samios of the Brookhaven National Laboratory took up the challenge and found the "missing" particle, confirming all its predicted properties. Nothing beats prompt experimental confirmation for building confidence in a theory!

The eightfold way patterns bear the same relationship to particle physics that the periodic table does to chemistry. In each case, there is a pattern of organization in which vacancies (missing particles or missing elements) stick out like sore thumbs, guiding experimenters in their searches. In the case of the periodic table, its very existence strongly suggests that the atoms of the elements are not fundamental particles but have an underlying structure.

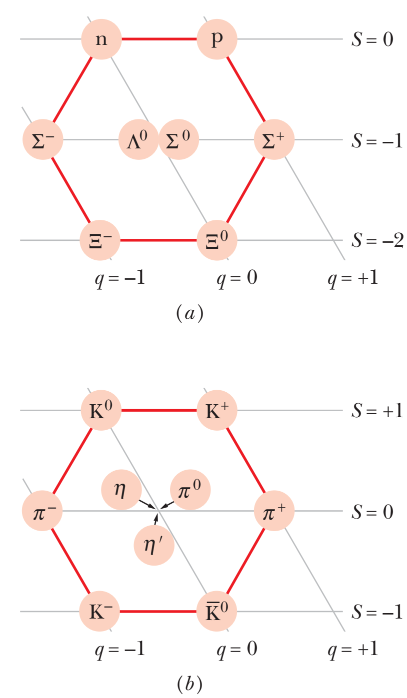


Figure 44-3 (*a*) The eightfold way pattern for the eight spin-$\frac{1}{2}$ baryons listed in Table 44-3. The particles are represented as disks on a strangeness–charge plot, using a sloping axis for the charge quantum number. (*b*) A similar pattern for the nine spin-zero mesons listed in Table 44-4.

*The name is a borrowing from Eastern mysticism. The "eight" refers to the eight quantum numbers (only a few of which we have defined here) that are involved in the symmetry-based theory that predicts the existence of the patterns.

Similarly, the eightfold way patterns strongly suggest that the mesons and the baryons must have an underlying structure, in terms of which their properties can be understood. That structure can be explained in terms of the *quark model,* which we now discuss.

Sample Problem 44.03 Proton decay: conservation of quantum numbers, energy, and momentum

Determine whether a stationary proton can decay according to the scheme

$$\mathrm{p} \rightarrow \pi^0 + \pi^+.$$

Properties of the proton and the π^+ pion are listed in Table 44-1. The π^0 pion has zero charge, zero spin, and a mass energy of 135.0 MeV.

KEY IDEA

We need to see whether the proposed decay violates any of the conservation laws we have discussed.

Electric charge: We see that the net charge quantum number is initially +1 and finally 0 + 1, or +1. Thus, charge is conserved by the decay. Lepton number is also conserved, because none of the three particles is a lepton and thus each lepton number is zero.

Linear momentum: Because the proton is stationary, with zero linear momentum, the two pions must merely move in opposite directions with equal magnitudes of linear momentum (so that their total linear momentum is also zero) to conserve linear momentum. The fact that linear momentum *can* be conserved means that the process does not violate the conservation of linear momentum.

Energy: Is there energy for the decay? Because the proton is stationary, that question amounts to asking whether the proton's mass energy is sufficient to produce the mass energies and kinetic energies of the pions. To answer, we evaluate the Q of the decay:

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= \begin{pmatrix}\text{initial total}\\ \text{mass energy}\end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix}\text{final total}\\ \text{mass energy}\end{pmatrix} \\ &= m_\mathrm{p}c^2 - (m_0c^2 + m_+c^2) \\ &= 938.3\ \text{MeV} - (135.0\ \text{MeV} + 139.6\ \text{MeV}) \\ &= 663.7\ \text{MeV}. \end{aligned}$$

The fact that Q is positive indicates that the initial mass energy exceeds the final mass energy. Thus, the proton *does* have enough mass energy to create the pair of pions.

Spin: Is spin angular momentum conserved by the decay? This amounts to determining whether the net component S_z of spin angular momentum along some arbitrary z axis can be conserved by the decay. The spin quantum numbers s of the particles in the process are $\frac{1}{2}$ for the proton and 0 for both pions. Thus, for the proton the component S_z can be either $+\frac{1}{2}\hbar$ or $-\frac{1}{2}\hbar$ and for each pion it is $0\hbar$. We see that there is no way that S_z can be conserved. Hence, spin angular momentum is not conserved, and the proposed decay of the proton cannot occur.

Baryon number: The decay also violates the conservation of baryon number: The proton has a baryon number of $B = +1$, and both pions have a baryon number of $B = 0$. Thus, nonconservation of baryon number is another reason the proposed decay cannot occur.

Sample Problem 44.04 Xi-minus decay: conservation of quantum numbers

A particle called xi-minus and having the symbol Ξ^- decays as follows:

$$\Xi^- \rightarrow \Lambda^0 + \pi^-.$$

The Λ^0 particle (called lambda-zero) and the π^- particle are both unstable. The following decay processes occur in *cascade* until only relatively stable products remain:

$$\Lambda^0 \rightarrow \mathrm{p} + \pi^- \qquad \pi^- \rightarrow \mu^- + \bar{\nu}_\mu$$
$$\mu^- \rightarrow \mathrm{e}^- + \nu_\mu + \bar{\nu}_\mathrm{e}.$$

(a) Is the Ξ^- particle a lepton or a hadron? If the latter, is it a baryon or a meson?

KEY IDEAS

(1) Only three families of leptons exist (Table 44-2) and none include the Ξ^- particle. Thus, the Ξ^- must be a hadron. (2) To answer the second question we need to determine the baryon number of the Ξ^- particle. If it is +1 or −1, then the Ξ^- is a baryon. If, instead, it is 0, then the Ξ^- is a meson.

Baryon number: To see, let us write the overall decay scheme, from the initial Ξ^- to the final relatively stable products, as

$$\Xi^- \rightarrow \mathrm{p} + 2(\mathrm{e}^- + \bar{\nu}_\mathrm{e}) + 2(\nu_\mu + \bar{\nu}_\mu). \tag{44-17}$$

On the right side, the proton has a baryon number of +1 and each electron and neutrino has a baryon number of 0. Thus, the net baryon number of the right side is +1. That must then be the baryon number of the lone Ξ^- particle on the left side. We conclude that the Ξ^- particle is a baryon.

(b) Does the decay process conserve the three lepton numbers?

KEY IDEA

Any process must separately conserve the net lepton number for each lepton family of Table 44-2.

Lepton number: Let us first consider the electron lepton number L_e, which is $+1$ for the electron e^-, -1 for the antielectron neutrino $\bar{\nu}_e$, and 0 for the other particles in the overall decay of Eq. 44-17. We see that the net L_e is 0 before the decay and $2[+1 + (-1)] + 2(0 + 0) = 0$ after the decay. Thus, the net electron lepton number *is* conserved. You can similarly show that the net muon lepton number and the net tau lepton number are also conserved.

(c) What can you say about the spin of the Ξ^- particle?

KEY IDEA

The overall decay scheme of Eq. 44-17 must conserve the net spin component S_z.

Spin: We can determine the spin component S_z of the Ξ^- particle on the left side of Eq. 44-17 by considering the S_z components of the nine particles on the right side. All nine of those particles are spin-$\frac{1}{2}$ particles and thus can have S_z of either $+\frac{1}{2}\hbar$ or $-\frac{1}{2}\hbar$. No matter how we choose between those two possible values of S_z, the net S_z for those nine particles must be a *half-integer* times $\hbar$. Thus, the Ξ^- particle must have S_z of a *half-integer* times $\hbar$, and that means that its spin quantum number s must be a half-integer. (It is $\frac{1}{2}$.)

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44-3 QUARKS AND MESSENGER PARTICLES

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

44.16 Identify that there are six quarks (with an antiparticle for each).

44.17 Identify that baryons contain three quarks (or antiquarks) and mesons contain a quark and an antiquark, and that many of these hadrons are excited states of the basic quark combinations.

44.18 For a given hadron, identify the quarks it contains, and vice versa.

44.19 Identify virtual particles.

44.20 Apply the relationship between the violation of energy by a virtual particle and the time interval allowed for that violation (an uncertainty principle written in terms of energy).

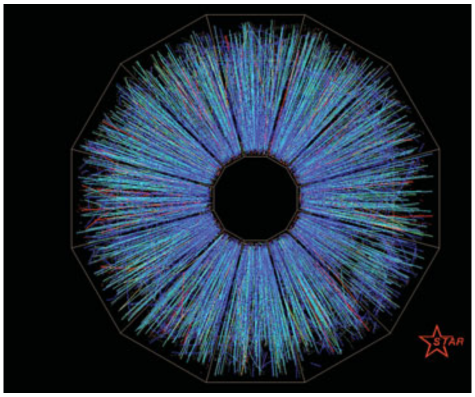
44.21 Identify the messenger particles for electromagnetic interactions, weak interactions, and strong interactions.

Key Ideas

- The six quarks (up, down, strange, charm, bottom, and top, in order of increasing mass) each have baryon number $+\frac{1}{3}$ and charge equal to either $+\frac{2}{3}$ or $-\frac{1}{3}$. The strange quark has strangeness -1, whereas the others all have strangeness 0. These four algebraic signs are reversed for the antiquarks.
- Leptons do not contain quarks and have no internal structure. Mesons contain one quark and one antiquark. Baryons contain three quarks or antiquarks. The quantum numbers of the quarks and antiquarks are assigned to be consistent with the quantum numbers of the mesons and baryons.
- Particles with electric charge interact through the electromagnetic force by exchanging virtual photons.
- Leptons can also interact with each other and with quarks through the weak force, via massive W and Z particles as messengers.
- Quarks primarily interact with each other through the color force, via gluons.
- The electromagnetic and weak forces are different manifestations of the same force, called the electroweak force.

The Quark Model

In 1964 Gell-Mann and George Zweig independently pointed out that the eightfold way patterns can be understood in a simple way if the mesons and the baryons are built up out of subunits that Gell-Mann called **quarks.** We deal first with three of them, called the *up quark* (symbol u), the *down quark* (symbol d), and the *strange quark* (symbol s). The names of the quarks, along with those assigned to three other quarks that we shall meet later, have no meaning other than



Courtesy Brookhaven National Laboratory

The violent head-on collision of two 30 GeV beams of gold atoms in the RHIC accelerator at the Brookhaven National Laboratory. In the moment of collision, a gas of individual quarks and gluons was created.

Table 44-5 The Quarks[a]

Particle	Symbol	Mass (MeV/c^2)	Quantum Numbers: Charge q	Strangeness S	Baryon Number B	Antiparticle
Up	u	5	$+\frac{2}{3}$	0	$+\frac{1}{3}$	$\bar{u}$
Down	d	10	$-\frac{1}{3}$	0	$+\frac{1}{3}$	$\bar{d}$
Charm	c	1500	$+\frac{2}{3}$	0	$+\frac{1}{3}$	$\bar{c}$
Strange	s	200	$-\frac{1}{3}$	−1	$+\frac{1}{3}$	$\bar{s}$
Top	t	175 000	$+\frac{2}{3}$	0	$+\frac{1}{3}$	$\bar{t}$
Bottom	b	4300	$-\frac{1}{3}$	0	$+\frac{1}{3}$	$\bar{b}$

[a] All quarks (including antiquarks) have spin $\frac{1}{2}$ and thus are fermions. The quantum numbers q, S, and B for each antiquark are the negatives of those for the corresponding quark.

as convenient labels. Collectively, these names are called the *quark flavors.* We could just as well call them vanilla, chocolate, and strawberry instead of up, down, and strange. Some properties of the quarks are displayed in Table 44-5.

The fractional charge quantum numbers of the quarks may jar you a little. However, withhold judgment until you see how neatly these fractional charges account for the observed integer charges of the mesons and the baryons. In all normal situations, whether here on Earth or in an astronomical process, quarks are always bound up together in twos or threes (and perhaps more) for reasons that are still not well understood. Such requirements are our normal rule for quark combinations.

An exciting exception to the normal rule occurred in experiments at the RHIC particle collider at the Brookhaven National Laboratory. At the spot where two high-energy beams of gold nuclei collided head-on, the kinetic energy of the particles was so large that it matched the kinetic energy of particles that were present soon after the beginning of the universe (as we discuss in Module 44-4). The protons and neutrons of the gold nuclei were ripped apart to form a momentary gas of individual quarks. (The gas also contained gluons, the particles that normally hold quarks together.) These experiments at RHIC may be the first time that quarks have been set free of one another since the universe began.

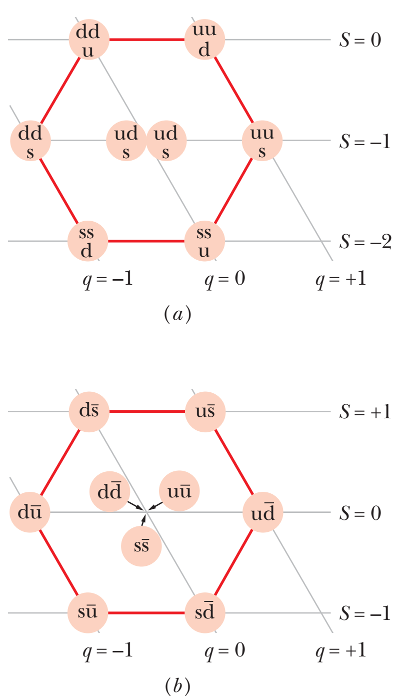


Figure 44-4 (*a*) The quark compositions of the eight spin-$\frac{1}{2}$ baryons plotted in Fig. 44-3*a*. (Although the two central baryons share the same quark structure, they are different particles. The sigma is an excited state of the lambda, decaying into the lambda by emission of a gamma-ray photon.) (*b*) The quark compositions of the nine spin-zero mesons plotted in Fig. 44-3*b*.

Quarks and Baryons

Each baryon is a combination of three quarks; some of the combinations are given in Fig. 44-4*a*. With regard to baryon number, we see that any three quarks (each with $B = +\frac{1}{3}$) yield a proper baryon (with $B = +1$).

Charges also work out, as we can see from three examples. The proton has a quark composition of uud, and so its charge quantum number is

$$q(\text{uud}) = \tfrac{2}{3} + \tfrac{2}{3} + (-\tfrac{1}{3}) = +1.$$

The neutron has a quark composition of udd, and its charge quantum number is therefore

$$q(\text{udd}) = \tfrac{2}{3} + (-\tfrac{1}{3}) + (-\tfrac{1}{3}) = 0.$$

The Σ^- (sigma-minus) particle has a quark composition of dds, and its charge quantum number is therefore

$$q(\text{dds}) = -\tfrac{1}{3} + (-\tfrac{1}{3}) + (-\tfrac{1}{3}) = -1.$$

The strangeness quantum numbers work out as well. You can check this by using Table 44-3 for the Σ^- strangeness number and Table 44-5 for the strangeness numbers of the dds quarks.

Note, however, that the mass of a proton, neutron, Σ^-, or any other baryon is *not* the sum of the masses of the constituent quarks. For example, the total mass of the three quarks in a proton is only 20 MeV/c^2, woefully less than the proton's mass of 938.3 MeV/c^2. Nearly all of the proton's mass is due to the internal energies of (1) the quark motion and (2) the fields that bind the quarks together. (Recall that mass is related to energy via Einstein's equation, which we can write as $m = E/c^2$.) Thus, because most of your mass is due to the protons and neutrons in your body, your mass (and therefore your weight on a bathroom scale) is primarily a measure of the energies of the quark motion and the quark-binding fields within you.

Quarks and Mesons

Mesons are quark–antiquark pairs; some of their compositions are given in Fig. 44-4*b*. The quark–antiquark model is consistent with the fact that mesons are not baryons; that is, mesons have a baryon number $B = 0$. The baryon number for a quark is $+\frac{1}{3}$ and for an antiquark is $-\frac{1}{3}$; thus, the combination of baryon numbers in a meson is zero.

Consider the meson π^+, which consists of an up quark u and an antidown quark $\bar{\mathrm{d}}$. We see from Table 44-5 that the charge quantum number of the up quark is $+\frac{2}{3}$ and that of the antidown quark is $+\frac{1}{3}$ (the sign is opposite that of the down quark). This adds nicely to a charge quantum number of +1 for the π^+ meson; that is,

$$q(\mathrm{u}\bar{\mathrm{d}}) = \tfrac{2}{3} + \tfrac{1}{3} = +1.$$

All the charge and strangeness quantum numbers of Fig. 44-4*b* agree with those of Table 44-4 and Fig. 44-3*b*. Convince yourself that all possible up, down, and strange quark–antiquark combinations are used. Everything fits.

Checkpoint 3

Is a combination of a down quark (d) and an antiup quark ($\bar{\mathrm{u}}$) called (a) a π^0 meson, (b) a proton, (c) a π^- meson, (d) a π^+ meson, or (e) a neutron?

A New Look at Beta Decay

Let us see how beta decay appears from the quark point of view. In Eq. 42-24, we presented a typical example of this process:

$$^{32}\mathrm{P} \rightarrow {}^{32}\mathrm{S} + \mathrm{e}^- + \nu.$$

After the neutron was discovered and Fermi had worked out his theory of beta decay, physicists came to view the fundamental beta-decay process as the changing of a neutron into a proton inside the nucleus, according to the scheme

$$\mathrm{n} \rightarrow \mathrm{p} + \mathrm{e}^- + \bar{\nu}_\mathrm{e},$$

in which the neutrino is identified more completely. Today we look deeper and see that a neutron (udd) can change into a proton (uud) by changing a down quark into an up quark. We now view the fundamental beta-decay process as

$$\mathrm{d} \rightarrow \mathrm{u} + \mathrm{e}^- + \bar{\nu}_\mathrm{e}.$$

Thus, as we come to know more and more about the fundamental nature of matter, we can examine familiar processes at deeper and deeper levels. We see too that the quark model not only helps us to understand the structure of particles but also clarifies their interactions.

Still More Quarks

There are other particles and other eightfold way patterns that we have not discussed. To account for them, it turns out that we need to postulate three more quarks, the *charm quark* c, the *top quark* t, and the *bottom quark* b. Thus, a total of six quarks exist, as listed in Table 44-5.

Note that three quarks are exceptionally massive, the most massive of them (top) being almost 190 times more massive than a proton. To generate particles that contain such quarks, with such large mass energies, we must go to higher and higher energies, which is the reason that these three quarks were not discovered earlier.

The first particle containing a charm quark to be observed was the J/ψ meson, whose quark structure is $c\bar{c}$. It was discovered simultaneously and independently in 1974 by groups headed by Samuel Ting at the Brookhaven National Laboratory and Burton Richter at Stanford University.

The top quark defied all efforts to generate it in the laboratory until 1995, when its existence was finally demonstrated in the Tevatron, a large particle accelerator at Fermilab. In this accelerator, protons and antiprotons, each with an energy of 0.9 TeV ($= 9 \times 10^{11}$ eV), were made to collide at the centers of two large particle detectors. In a very few cases, the colliding particles generated a top–antitop ($t\bar{t}$) quark pair, which *very* quickly decays into particles that can be detected and thus can be used to infer the existence of the top–antitop pair.

Look back for a moment at Table 44-5 (the quark family) and Table 44-2 (the lepton family) and notice the neat symmetry of these two "six-packs" of particles, each dividing naturally into three corresponding two-particle families. In terms of what we know today, the quarks and the leptons seem to be truly fundamental particles having no internal structure.

Sample Problem 44.05 Quark composition of a xi-minus particle

The Ξ^- (xi-minus) particle is a baryon with a spin quantum number s of $\frac{1}{2}$, a charge quantum number q of -1, and a strangeness quantum number S of -2. Also, it does not contain a bottom quark. What combination of quarks makes up Ξ^-?

Reasoning: Because the Ξ^- is a baryon, it must consist of three quarks (not two as for a meson).

Let us next consider the strangeness $S = -2$ of the Ξ^-. Only the strange quark s and the antistrange quark $\bar{s}$ have nonzero values of strangeness (see Table 44-5). Further, because only the strange quark s has a *negative* value of strangeness, Ξ^- must contain that quark. In fact, for Ξ^- to have a strangeness of -2, it must contain two strange quarks.

To determine the third quark, call it x, we can consider the other known properties of Ξ^-. Its charge quantum number q is -1, and the charge quantum number q of each strange quark is $-\frac{1}{3}$. Thus, the third quark x must have a charge quantum number of $-\frac{1}{3}$, so that we can have

$$q(\Xi^-) = q(\text{ssx}) = -\tfrac{1}{3} + (-\tfrac{1}{3}) + (-\tfrac{1}{3}) = -1.$$

Besides the strange quark, the only quarks with $q = -\frac{1}{3}$ are the down quark d and bottom quark b. Because the problem statement ruled out a bottom quark, the third quark must be a down quark. This conclusion is also consistent with the baryon quantum numbers:

$$B(\Xi^-) = B(\text{ssd}) = \tfrac{1}{3} + \tfrac{1}{3} + \tfrac{1}{3} = +1.$$

Thus, the quark composition of the Ξ^- particle is ssd.

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The Basic Forces and Messenger Particles

We turn now from cataloging the particles to considering the forces between them.

The Electromagnetic Force

At the atomic level, we say that two electrons exert electromagnetic forces on each other according to Coulomb's law. At a deeper level, this interaction is described by a highly successful theory called **quantum electrodynamics** (QED). From this point of view, we say that each electron senses the presence of the other by exchanging photons with it.

We cannot detect these photons because they are emitted by one electron and absorbed by the other a very short time later. Because of their undetectable existence, we call them **virtual photons.** Because they communicate between the two interacting charged particles, we sometimes call these photons *messenger particles.*

If a stationary electron emits a photon and remains itself unchanged, energy is not conserved. The principle of conservation of energy is saved, however, by an uncertainty principle written in the form

$$\Delta E \cdot \Delta t \approx \hbar. \tag{44-18}$$

Here we interpret this relation to mean that you can "overdraw" an amount of energy ΔE, violating conservation of energy, *provided* you "return" it within an interval Δt given by $\hbar/\Delta E$ so that the violation cannot be detected. The virtual photons do just that. When, say, electron A emits a virtual photon, the overdraw in energy is quickly set right when that electron receives a virtual photon from electron B, and the violation is hidden by the inherent uncertainty.

The Weak Force

A theory of the weak force, which acts on all particles, was developed by analogy with the theory of the electromagnetic force. The messenger particles that transmit the weak force between particles, however, are not (massless) photons but massive particles, identified by the symbols W and Z. The theory was so successful that it revealed the electromagnetic force and the weak force as being different aspects of a single **electroweak force.** This accomplishment is a logical extension of the work of Maxwell, who revealed the electric and magnetic forces as being different aspects of a single *electromagnetic* force.

The electroweak theory was specific in predicting the properties of the messenger particles. In addition to the massless photon, the messenger of the electromagnetic interactions, the theory gives us three messengers for the weak interactions:

Particle	Charge	Mass
W	$\pm e$	80.4 GeV/c^2
Z	0	91.2 GeV/c^2

Recall that the proton mass is only 0.938 GeV/c^2; these are massive particles! The 1979 Nobel Prize in physics was awarded to Sheldon Glashow, Steven Weinberg, and Abdus Salam for their electroweak theory. The theory was confirmed in 1983 by Carlo Rubbia and his group at CERN, and the 1984 Nobel Prize in physics went to Rubbia and Simon van der Meer for this brilliant experimental work.

Some notion of the complexity of particle physics in this day and age can be found by looking at an earlier particle physics experiment that led to the Nobel Prize in physics—the discovery of the neutron. This vitally important discovery was a "tabletop" experiment, employing particles emitted by naturally occurring radioactive materials as projectiles; it was reported in 1932 under the title "Possible Existence of a Neutron," the single author being James Chadwick.

The discovery of the W and Z messenger particles in 1983, by contrast, was carried out at a large particle accelerator, about 7 km in circumference and operating in the range of several hundred billion electron-volts. The principal particle detector alone weighed 20 MN. The experiment employed more than 130 physicists from 12 institutions in 8 countries, along with a large support staff.

The Strong Force

A theory of the strong force—that is, the force that acts between quarks to bind hadrons together—has also been developed. The messenger particles in this case are called **gluons** and, like the photon, they are predicted to be massless. The theory assumes that each "flavor" of quark comes in three varieties that, for convenience, have been labeled *red, yellow,* and *blue.* Thus, there are three up quarks, one of each color, and so on. The antiquarks also come in three colors, which we call *antired, antiyellow,* and *antiblue.* You must not think that quarks are actually colored, like tiny jelly beans. The names are labels of convenience, but (for once) they do have a certain formal justification, as you will see.

The force acting between quarks is called a **color force** and the underlying theory, by analogy with quantum electrodynamics (QED), is called **quantum chromodynamics** (QCD). Apparently, quarks can be assembled only in combinations that are *color-neutral.*

There are two ways to bring about color neutrality. In the theory of actual colors, red + yellow + blue yields white, which is color-neutral, and we use the same scheme in dealing with quarks. Thus we can assemble three quarks to form a baryon, provided one is a yellow quark, one is a red quark, and one is a blue quark. Antired + antiyellow + antiblue is also white, so that we can assemble three antiquarks (of the proper anticolors) to form an antibaryon. Finally, red + antired, or yellow + antiyellow, or blue + antiblue also yields white. Thus, we can assemble a quark–antiquark combination to form a meson. The color-neutral rule does not permit any other combination of quarks, and none are observed.

The color force not only acts to bind together quarks as baryons and mesons, but it also acts between such particles, in which case it has traditionally been called the strong force. Hence, not only does the color force bind together quarks to form protons and neutrons, but it also binds together the protons and neutrons to form nuclei.

The Higgs Field and Particle

The Standard Model of the fundamental particles consists of the theory for the electroweak interactions and the theory for the strong interactions. A key success in the model has been to demonstrate the existence of the four messenger particles in the electroweak interactions: the photon, and the Z and W particles. However, a key puzzle has involved the masses of those particles. Why is the photon massless while the Z and W particles are extremely massive?

In the 1960s, Peter Higgs and, independently, Robert Brout and François Englert suggested that the mass discrepancy is due to a field (now called the *Higgs field*) that permeates all of space and thus is a property of the vacuum. Without this field, the four messenger particles would be massless and indistinguishable—they would be *symmetric*. The Brout–Englert–Higgs theory demonstrates how the field breaks that symmetry, producing the electroweak messengers with one being massless. It also explains why all other particles, except for the gluon, have mass. The quantum of that field is the **Higgs boson**. Because of its pivotal role for all particles and because the theory behind its existence is compelling (even beautiful), intense searches for the Higgs boson were conducted on the Tevatron at Brookhaven and the Large Hadron Collider at CERN. In 2012, tantalizing experimental evidence was announced for the Higgs boson, at a mass of 125 GeV/c^2.

Einstein's Dream

The unification of the fundamental forces of nature into a single force—which occupied Einstein's attention for much of his later life—is very much a current focus of research. We have seen that the weak force has been successfully combined with electromagnetism so that they may be jointly viewed as aspects of a single *electroweak force.* Theories that attempt to add the strong force to this combination—called *grand unification theories* (GUTs)—are being pursued actively. Theories that seek to complete the job by adding gravity—sometimes called *theories of everything* (TOE)—are at a speculative stage at this time. *String theory* (in which particles are tiny oscillating loops) is one approach.

44-4 COSMOLOGY

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

44.22 Identify that the universe (all of spacetime) began with the big bang and has been expanding ever since.

44.23 Identify that all distant galaxies (and thus their stars, black holes, etc.), in all directions, are receding from us because of the expansion.

44.24 Apply Hubble's law to relate the recession speed v of a distant galaxy, its distance r from us, and the Hubble constant H.

44.25 Apply the Doppler equation for the red shift of light to relate the wavelength shift $\Delta\lambda$, the recession speed v, and the proper wavelength λ_0 of the emission.

44.26 Approximate the age of the universe using the Hubble constant.

44.27 Identify the cosmic background radiation and explain the importance of its detection.

44.28 Explain the evidence for the dark matter that apparently surrounds every galaxy.

44.29 Discuss the various stages of the universe from very soon after the big bang until atoms began to form.

44.30 Identify that the expansion of the universe is being accelerated by some unknown property dubbed dark energy.

44.31 Identify that the total energy of baryonic matter (protons and neutrons) is only a small part of the total energy of the universe.

Key Ideas

- The universe is expanding, which means that empty space is continuously appearing between us and any distant galaxy.
- The rate v at which a distance to a distant galaxy is increasing (the galaxy appears to be moving at speed v) is given by the Hubble law:

$$v = Hr,$$

where r is the current distance to the galaxy and H is the Hubble constant, which we take to be

$$H = 71.0 \text{ km/s} \cdot \text{Mpc} = 21.8 \text{ mm/s} \cdot \text{ly}.$$

- The expansion causes a red shift in the light we receive from distant galaxies. We can assume that the wavelength shift $\Delta\lambda$ is given (approximately) by the Doppler shift equation for light discussed in Module 37-5:

$$v = \frac{|\Delta\lambda|}{\lambda_0} c,$$

where λ_0 is the proper wavelength as measured in the frame of the light source (the galaxy).

- The expansion described by Hubble's law and the presence of ubiquitous background microwave radiation reveal that the universe began in a "big bang" 13.7 billion years ago.
- The rate of expansion is increasing due to a mysterious property of the vacuum called dark energy.
- Much of the energy of the universe is hidden in dark matter that apparently interacts with normal (baryonic) matter through the gravitational force.

A Pause for Reflection

Let us put what you have just learned in perspective. If all we are interested in is the structure of the world around us, we can get along nicely with the electron, the neutrino, the neutron, and the proton. As someone has said, we can operate "Spaceship Earth" quite well with just these particles. We can see a few of the more exotic particles by looking for them in the cosmic rays; however, to see most of them, we must build massive accelerators and look for them at great effort and expense.

The reason we must go to such effort is that—measured in energy terms—we live in a world of very low temperatures. Even at the center of the Sun, the value of kT is only about 1 keV. To produce the exotic particles, we must be able to accelerate protons or electrons to energies in the GeV and TeV range and higher.

Once upon a time the temperature everywhere *was* high enough to provide such energies. That time of extremely high temperatures occurred in the **big bang** beginning of the universe, when the universe (and both space and time) came into existence. Thus, one reason scientists study particles at high energies is to understand what the universe was like just after it began.

As we shall discuss shortly, *all* of space within the universe was initially tiny in extent, and the temperature of the particles within that space was incredibly high. With time, however, the universe expanded and cooled to lower temperatures, eventually to the size and temperature we see today.

Actually, the phrase "we see today" is complicated: When we look out into space, we are actually looking back in time because the light from the stars and galaxies has taken a long time to reach us. The most distant objects that we can detect are **quasars** (*qua*si*s*tell*ar* objects), which are the extremely bright cores of galaxies that are as much as 13×10^9 ly from us. Each such core contains a gigantic black hole; as material (gas and even stars) is pulled into one of those black holes, the material heats up and radiates a tremendous amount of light, enough for us to detect in spite of the huge distance. We therefore "see" a quasar not as it looks today but rather as it once was, when that light began its journey to us billions of years ago.

The Universe Is Expanding

As we saw in Module 37-5, it is possible to measure the relative speeds at which galaxies are approaching us or receding from us by measuring the shifts in the wavelength of the light they emit. If we look only at distant galaxies, beyond our immediate galactic neighbors, we find an astonishing fact: They are *all* moving away (receding) from us! In 1929 Edwin P. Hubble connected the recession speed v of a galaxy and its distance r from us—they are directly proportional:

$$v = Hr \quad \text{(Hubble's law)}, \tag{44-19}$$

in which H is called the **Hubble constant.** The value of H is usually measured in the unit kilometers per second-megaparsec (km/s·Mpc), where the megaparsec is a length unit commonly used in astrophysics and astronomy:

$$1 \text{ Mpc} = 3.084 \times 10^{19} \text{ km} = 3.260 \times 10^6 \text{ ly}. \tag{44-20}$$

The Hubble constant H has not had the same value since the universe began. Determining its current value is extremely difficult because doing so involves measurements of very distant galaxies. However, the Hubble constant is now known to be

$$H = 71.0 \text{ km/s} \cdot \text{Mpc} = 21.8 \text{ mm/s} \cdot \text{ly}. \tag{44-21}$$

We interpret the recession of the galaxies to mean that the universe is expanding, much as the raisins in what is to be a loaf of raisin bread grow farther apart as the dough expands. Observers on all other galaxies would find that distant galaxies were rushing away from them also, in accordance with Hubble's law. In keeping with our analogy, we can say that no raisin (galaxy) has a unique or preferred view.

Hubble's law is consistent with the hypothesis that the universe began with the big bang and has been expanding ever since. If we assume that the rate of expansion has been constant (that is, the value of H has been constant), then we can estimate the age T of the universe by using Eq. 44-19. Let us also assume that since the big bang, any given part of the universe (say, a galaxy) has been receding from our location at a speed v given by Eq. 44-19. Then the time required for the given part to recede a distance r is

$$T = \frac{r}{v} = \frac{r}{Hr} = \frac{1}{H} \quad \text{(estimated age of universe)}. \tag{44-22}$$

For the value of H in Eq. 44-21, T works out to be 13.8×10^9 y. Much more sophisticated studies of the expansion of the universe put T at 13.7×10^9 y.

Sample Problem 44.06 Using Hubble's law to relate distance and recessional speed

The wavelength shift in the light from a particular quasar indicates that the quasar has a recessional speed of 2.8×10^8 m/s (which is 93% of the speed of light). Approximately how far from us is the quasar?

KEY IDEA

We assume that the distance and speed are related by Hubble's law.

Calculation: From Eqs. 44-19 and 44-21, we find

$$r = \frac{v}{H} = \frac{2.8 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}}{21.8 \text{ mm/s} \cdot \text{ly}}(1000 \text{ mm/m})$$
$$= 12.8 \times 10^9 \text{ ly}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

This is only an approximation because the quasar has not always been receding from our location at the same speed v; that is, H has not had its current value throughout the time during which the universe has been expanding.

Sample Problem 44.07 Using Hubble's law to relate distance and Doppler shift

A particular emission line detected in the light from a galaxy has a detected wavelength $\lambda_{det} = 1.1\lambda$, where λ is the proper wavelength of the line. What is the galaxy's distance from us?

KEY IDEAS

(1) We assume that Hubble's law ($v = Hr$) applies to the recession of the galaxy. (2) We also assume that the astronomical Doppler shift of Eq. 37-36 ($v = c|\Delta\lambda|/\lambda$, for $v \ll c$) applies to the shift in wavelength due to the recession.

Calculations: We can then set the right side of these two equations equal to each other to write

$$Hr = \frac{c|\Delta\lambda|}{\lambda}, \quad (44\text{-}23)$$

which leads us to

$$r = \frac{c|\Delta\lambda|}{H\lambda}. \quad (44\text{-}24)$$

In this equation,

$$\Delta\lambda = \lambda_{det} - \lambda = 1.1\lambda - \lambda = 0.1\lambda.$$

Substituting this into Eq. 44-24 then gives us

$$r = \frac{c(0.1\lambda)}{H\lambda} = \frac{0.1c}{H}$$
$$= \frac{(0.1)(3.0 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})}{21.8 \text{ mm/s} \cdot \text{ly}}(1000 \text{ mm/m})$$
$$= 1.4 \times 10^9 \text{ ly}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

The Cosmic Background Radiation

In 1965 Arno Penzias and Robert Wilson, of what was then the Bell Telephone Laboratories, were testing a sensitive microwave receiver used for communications research. They discovered a faint background "hiss" that remained unchanged in intensity no matter where their antenna was pointed. It soon became clear that Penzias and Wilson were observing a **cosmic background radiation,** generated in the early universe and filling all space almost uniformly. Currently this radiation has a maximum intensity at a wavelength of 1.1 mm, which lies in the microwave region of electromagnetic radiation (or light, for short). The wavelength distribution of this radiation matches the wavelength distribution of light that would be emitted by a laboratory enclosure with walls at a temperature of 2.7 K. Thus, for the cosmic background radiation, we say that the enclosure is the entire universe and that the universe is at an (average) temperature of 2.7 K. For their discovery of the cosmic background radiation, Penzias and Wilson were awarded the 1978 Nobel Prize in physics.

The cosmic background radiation is now known to be light that has been in flight across the universe since shortly after the universe began billions of years ago. When the universe was even younger, light could scarcely go any significant distance without being scattered by all the individual, high-speed particles along its path. If a light ray started from, say, point A, it would be scattered in so many directions that if you could have intercepted part of it, you would have not been able to tell that it originated at point A. However, after the particles began to form atoms, the scattering of light greatly decreased. A light ray from point A might then be able to travel for billions of years without being scattered. This light is the cosmic background radiation.

As soon as the nature of the radiation was recognized, researchers wondered, "Can we use this incoming radiation to distinguish the points at which it originated, so that we then can produce an image of the early universe, back when atoms first formed and light scattering largely ceased?" The answer is yes, and that image is coming up in a moment.

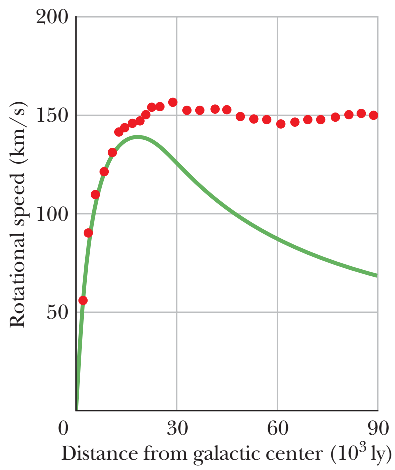


Figure 44-5 The rotational speed of stars in a typical galaxy as a function of their distance from the galactic center. The theoretical solid curve shows that if a galaxy contained only the mass that is visible, the observed rotational speed would drop off with distance at large distances. The dots are the experimental data, which show that the rotational speed is approximately constant at large distances.

Dark Matter

At the Kitt Peak National Observatory in Arizona, Vera Rubin and her co-worker Kent Ford measured the rotational rates of a number of distant galaxies. They did so by measuring the Doppler shifts of bright clusters of stars located within each galaxy at various distances from the galactic center. As Fig. 44-5 shows, their results were surprising: The orbital speed of stars at the outer visible edge of the galaxy is about the same as that of stars close to the galactic center.

As the solid curve in Fig. 44-5 attests, that is not what we would expect to find if all the mass of the galaxy were represented by visible light. Nor is the pattern found by Rubin and Ford what we find in the solar system. For example, the orbital speed of Pluto (the "planet" most distant from the Sun) is only about one-tenth that of Mercury (the planet closest to the Sun).

The only explanation for the findings of Rubin and Ford that is consistent with Newtonian mechanics is that a typical galaxy contains much more matter than what we can actually see. In fact, the visible portion of a galaxy represents only about 5 to 10% of the total mass of the galaxy. In addition to these studies of galactic rotation, many other observations lead to the conclusion that the universe abounds in matter that we cannot see. This unseen matter is called **dark matter** because either it does not emit light or its light emission is too dim for us to detect.

Normal matter (such as stars, planets, dust, and molecules) is often called **baryonic matter** because its mass is primarily due to the combined mass of the protons and neutrons (baryons) it contains. (The much smaller mass of the electrons is neglected.) Some of the normal matter, such as burned-out stars and dim interstellar gas, is part of the dark matter in a galaxy.

However, according to various calculations, this dark normal matter is only a small part of the total dark matter. The rest is called **nonbaryonic dark matter** because it does not contain protons and neutrons. We know of only one member of this type of dark matter—the neutrinos. Although the mass of a neutrino is very small relative to the mass of a proton or neutron, the number of neutrinos in a galaxy is huge and thus the total mass of the neutrinos is large. Nevertheless, calculations indicate that not even the total mass of the neutrinos is enough to account for the total mass of the nonbaryonic dark matter. In spite of over a hundred years in which elementary particles have been detected and studied, the particles that make up the rest of this type of dark matter are undetected and their nature is unknown. Because we have no experience with them, they must interact only gravitationally with the common particles.

The Big Bang

In 1985, a physicist remarked at a scientific meeting:

> *It is as certain that the universe started with a big bang about 15 billion years ago as it is that the Earth goes around the Sun.*

This strong statement suggests the level of confidence in which the big bang theory, first advanced by Belgian physicist Georges Lemaître, is held by those who study these matters. However, you must not imagine that the big bang was like the explosion of some gigantic firecracker and that, in principle at least, you could have stood to one side and watched. There was no "one side" because the big bang represents the beginning of spacetime itself. From the point of view of our present universe, there is no position in space to which you can point and say, "The big bang happened there." It happened everywhere.

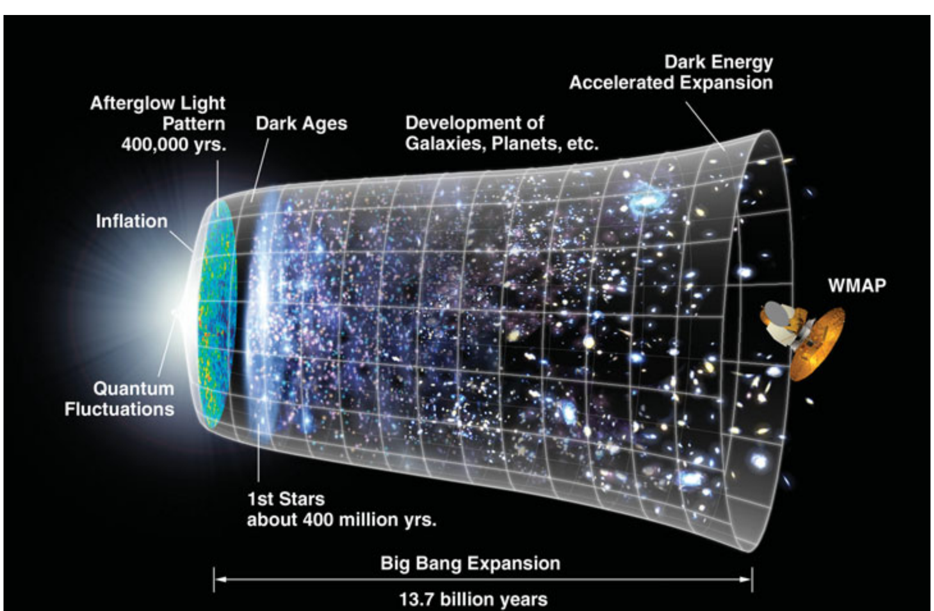
Moreover, there was no "before the big bang," because time *began* with that creation event. In this context, the word "before" loses its meaning. We can, however, conjecture about what went on during succeeding intervals of time after the big bang (Fig. 44-6).

$t \approx 10^{-43}$ **s.** This is the earliest time at which we can say anything meaningful about the development of the universe. It is at this moment that the concepts of space and time come to have their present meanings and the laws of physics as we know them become applicable. At this instant, the entire universe (that is, the *entire* spatial extent of the universe) is much smaller than a proton and its temperature is about 10^{32} K. Quantum fluctuations in the fabric of spacetime are the seeds that will eventually lead to the formation of galaxies, clusters of galaxies, and superclusters of galaxies.

$t \approx 10^{-34}$ **s.** By this moment the universe has undergone a tremendously rapid inflation, increasing in size by a factor of about 10^{30}, causing the formation of matter in a distribution set by the initial quantum fluctuations. The universe has become a hot soup of photons, quarks, and leptons at a temperature of about 10^{27} K, which is too hot for protons and neutrons to form.

$t \approx 10^{-4}$ **s.** Quarks can now combine to form protons and neutrons and their antiparticles. The universe has now cooled to such an extent by continued (but much slower) expansion that photons lack the energy needed to break up these new particles. Particles of matter and antimatter collide and annihilate each other. There is a slight excess of matter, which, failing to find annihilation partners, survives to form the world of matter that we know today.

$t \approx 1$ **min.** The universe has now cooled enough so that protons and neutrons, in colliding, can stick together to form the low-mass nuclei ^{2}H, ^{3}He, ^{4}He, and ^{7}Li. The predicted relative abundances of these nuclides are just what we observe in the universe today. Also, there is plenty of radiation present at $t \approx 1$ min,



Courtesy NASA

Figure 44-6 An illustration of the universe from the initial quantum fluctuations just after $t = 0$ (at the left) to the current accelerated expansion, 13.7×10^9 y later (at the right). Don't take the illustration literally—there is *no* such "external view" of the universe because there is *no* exterior to the universe.

but this light cannot travel far before it interacts with a nucleus. Thus the universe is opaque.

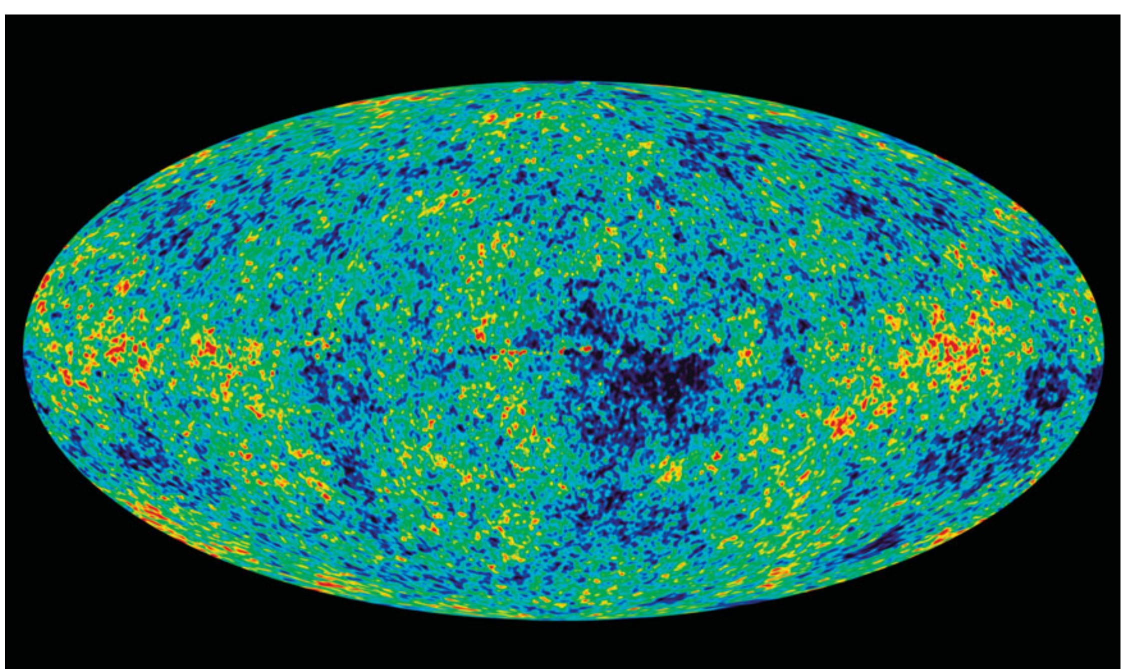
***t* ≈ 379 000 y.** The temperature has now fallen to 2970 K, and electrons can stick to bare nuclei when the two collide, forming atoms. Because light does not interact appreciably with (uncharged) particles, such as neutral atoms, the light is now free to travel great distances. This radiation forms the cosmic background radiation that we discussed earlier. Atoms of hydrogen and helium, under the influence of gravity, begin to clump together, eventually starting the formation of galaxies and stars, but until then, the universe is relatively dark (Fig. 44-6).

Early measurements suggested that the cosmic background radiation is uniform in all directions, implying that 379 000 y after the big bang all matter in the universe was uniformly distributed. This finding was most puzzling because matter in the present universe is not uniformly distributed, but instead is collected in galaxies, clusters of galaxies, and superclusters of galactic clusters. There are also vast *voids* in which there is relatively little matter, and there are regions so crowded with matter that they are called *walls.* If the big bang theory of the beginning of the universe is even approximately correct, the seeds for this nonuniform distribution of matter must have been in place before the universe was 379 000 y old and now should show up as a nonuniform distribution of the microwave background radiation.

In 1992, measurements made by NASA's Cosmic Background Explorer (COBE) satellite revealed that the background radiation is, in fact, not perfectly uniform. In 2003, measurements by NASA's Wilkinson Microwave Anisotropy Probe (WMAP) greatly increased our resolution of this nonuniformity. The resulting image (Fig. 44-7) is effectively a color-coded photograph of the universe when it was only 379 000 y old. As you can see from the variations in the colors, large-scale collecting of matter had already begun. Thus, the big bang theory and the theory of inflation at $t \approx 10^{-34}$ s are on the right track.

The Accelerated Expansion of the Universe

Recall from Module 13-8 the statement that mass causes curvature of space. Now that we have seen that mass is a form of energy, as given by Einstein's equa-



Courtesy WMAP Science Team/NASA

Figure 44-7 This color-coded image is effectively a photograph of the universe when it was only 379 000 y old, which was about 13.7×10^9 y ago. This is what you would have seen then as you looked away in all directions (the view has been condensed to this oval). Patches of light from collections of atoms stretch across the "sky," but galaxies, stars, and planets have not yet formed.

tion $E = mc^2$, we can generalize the statement: energy can cause curvature of space. This certainly happens to the space around the energy packed into a black hole and, more weakly, to the space around any other astronomical body, but is the space of the universe as a whole curved by the energy the universe contains?

The question was answered first by the 1992 COBE measurements of the cosmic background radiation. It was then answered more definitively by the 2003 WMAP measurements that produced the image in Fig. 44-7. The spots we see in that image are the original sources of the cosmic background radiation, and the angular distribution of the spots reveals the curvature of the universe through which the light has to travel to reach us. If adjacent spots subtend either more than 1° (Fig. 44-8*a*) or less than 1° (Fig. 44-8*b*) in the detector's view (or our view) into the universe, then the universe is curved. Analysis of the spot distribution in the WMAP image shows that the spots subtend about 1° (Fig. 44-8*c*), which means that the universe is *flat* (having no curvature). Thus, the initial curvature the universe presumably had when it began must have been flattened out by the rapid inflation the universe underwent at $t \approx 10^{-34}$ s.

This flatness poses a very difficult problem for physicists because it requires that the universe contain a certain amount of energy (as mass or otherwise). The trouble is that all estimations of the amount of energy in the universe (both in known forms and in the form of the unknown type of dark matter) fall dramatically short of the required amount.

One theory proposed about this missing energy gave it the gothic name of *dark energy* and predicted that it has the strange property of causing the expansion of the universe to accelerate. Until 1998, determining whether the expansion is, in fact, accelerating was very difficult because it requires measuring distances to very distant astronomical bodies where the acceleration might show up.

In 1998, however, advances in astronomical technology allowed astronomers to detect a certain type of supernovae at very great distances. More important, the astronomers could measure the duration of the burst of light from such a supernova. The duration reveals the brightness of the supernova that would be seen by an observer near the supernova. By measuring the brightness of the supernova as seen from Earth, astronomers could then determine the distance to the supernova. From the redshift of the light from the galaxy containing the supernova, astronomers could also determine how fast the galaxy is receding from us. Combining all this information, they could then calculate the expansion rate of the universe. The conclusion is that the expansion is indeed accelerating as predicted by the theory of dark energy (Fig. 44-6). However, we have no clue as to what this dark energy is.

Figure 44-9 gives our current state of knowledge about the energy in the universe. About 4% is associated with baryonic matter, which we understand fairly well. About 23% is associated with nonbaryonic dark matter, about which we have a few clues that might be fruitful. The rest, a whopping 73%, is associated with dark energy, about which we are clueless. There have been times in the history of physics, even in the 1990s, when pontiffs proclaimed that physics was nearly complete, that only details were left. In fact, we are nowhere near the end.

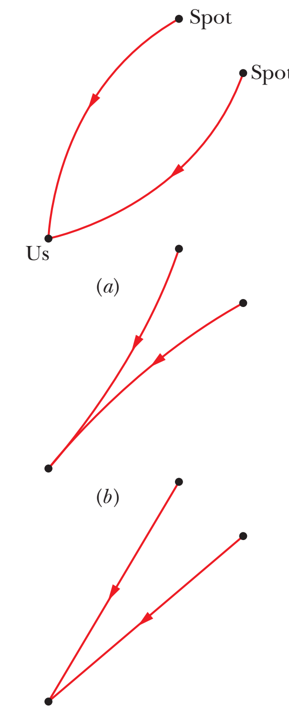


Figure 44-8 Light rays from two adjacent spots in our view of the cosmic background radiation would reach us at an angle (*a*) greater than 1° or (*b*) less than 1° if the space along the light-ray paths through the universe were curved. (*c*) An angle of 1° means that the space is not curved.

A Summing Up

In this closing paragraph, let's consider where we are headed as we accumulate knowledge about the universe more and more rapidly. What we have found is marvelous and profound, but it is also humbling in that each new step seems to reveal more clearly our own relative insignificance in the grand scheme of things. Thus, in roughly chronological order, we humans have come to realize that

Our Earth is not the center of the solar system.

Our Sun is but one star among many in our galaxy.

Our galaxy is but one of many, and our Sun is an insignificant star in it.

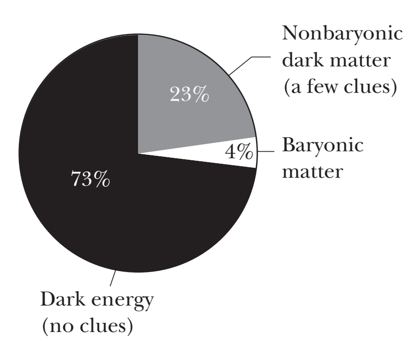


Figure 44-9 The distribution of energy (including mass) in the universe.

Our Earth has existed for perhaps only a third of the age of the universe and will surely disappear when our Sun burns up its fuel and becomes a red giant.

Our species has inhabited Earth for less than a million years—a blink in cosmological time.

Although our position in the universe may be insignificant, the laws of physics that we have discovered (uncovered?) seem to hold throughout the universe and—as far as we know—have held since the universe began and will continue to hold for all future time. At least, there is no evidence that other laws hold in other parts of the universe. Thus, until someone complains, we are entitled to stamp the laws of physics "Discovered on Earth." Much remains to be discovered. In the words of writer Eden Phillpotts, "*The universe is full of magical things, patiently waiting for our wits to grow sharper.*" That declaration allows us to answer one last time the question "What is physics?" that we have explored repeatedly in this book. Physics is the gateway to those magical things.

Review & Summary

Leptons and Quarks Current research supports the view that all matter is made of six kinds of **leptons** (Table 44-2), six kinds of **quarks** (Table 44-5), and 12 **antiparticles,** one corresponding to each lepton and each quark. All these particles have spin quantum numbers equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ and are thus **fermions** (particles with half-integer spin quantum numbers).

The Interactions Particles with electric charge interact through the electromagnetic force by exchanging **virtual photons.** Leptons can also interact with each other and with quarks through the **weak force,** via massive W and Z particles as messengers. In addition, quarks interact with each other through the **color force.** The electromagnetic and weak forces are different manifestations of the same force, called the **electroweak force.**

Leptons Three of the leptons (the **electron, muon,** and **tau**) have electric charge equal to $-1e$. There are also three uncharged **neutrinos** (also leptons), one corresponding to each of the charged leptons. The antiparticles for the charged leptons have positive charge.

Quarks The six quarks (up, down, strange, charm, bottom, and top, in order of increasing mass) each have baryon number $+\frac{1}{3}$ and charge equal to either $+\frac{2}{3}e$ or $-\frac{1}{3}e$. The strange quark has strangeness -1, whereas the others all have strangeness 0. These four algebraic signs are reversed for the antiquarks.

Hadrons: Baryons and Mesons Quarks combine into strongly interacting particles called **hadrons. Baryons** are hadrons with half-integer spin quantum numbers ($\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{3}{2}$). **Mesons** are hadrons with integer spin quantum numbers (0 or 1) and thus are **bosons.** Baryons are fermions. Mesons have baryon number equal to zero; baryons have baryon number equal to $+1$ or -1. **Quantum chromodynamics** predicts that the possible combinations of quarks are either a quark with an antiquark, three quarks, or three antiquarks (this prediction is consistent with experiment).

Expansion of the Universe Current evidence strongly suggests that the universe is expanding, with the distant galaxies moving away from us at a rate v given by **Hubble's law:**

$$v = Hr \quad \text{(Hubble's law).} \tag{44-19}$$

Here we take H, the **Hubble constant,** to have the value

$$H = 71.0\ \text{km/s}\cdot\text{Mpc} = 21.8\ \text{mm/s}\cdot\text{ly}. \tag{44-21}$$

The expansion described by Hubble's law and the presence of ubiquitous background microwave radiation reveal that the universe began in a "big bang" 13.7 billion years ago.

Questions

1 An electron cannot decay into two neutrinos. Which of the following conservation laws would be violated if it did: (a) energy, (b) angular momentum, (c) charge, (d) lepton number, (e) linear momentum, (f) baryon number?

2 Which of the eight pions in Fig. 44-2*b* has the least kinetic energy?

3 Figure 44-10 shows the paths of two particles circling in a uniform magnetic field. The particles have the same magnitude of charge but opposite signs. (a) Which path corresponds to the more massive particle? (b) If the magnetic field is directed into the plane of the page, is the more massive particle positively or negatively charged?

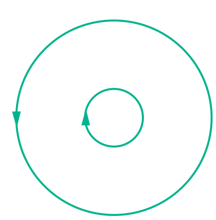


Figure 44-10 Question 3.

4 A proton has enough mass energy to decay into a shower made up of electrons, neutrinos, and their antiparticles. Which of the following conservation laws would necessarily be violated if it did: electron lepton number or baryon number?

5 A proton cannot decay into a neutron and a neutrino. Which of the following conservation laws would be violated if it did: (a) energy (assume the proton is stationary), (b) angular momentum, (c) charge, (d) lepton number, (e) linear momentum, (f) baryon number?

6 Does the proposed decay $\Lambda^0 \rightarrow p + K^-$ conserve (a) electric charge, (b) spin angular momentum, and (c) strangeness? (d) If the original particle is stationary, is there enough energy to create the decay products?

7 Not only particles such as electrons and protons but also entire atoms can be classified as fermions or bosons, depending on whether their overall spin quantum numbers are, respectively, half-integral or integral. Consider the helium isotopes ^{3}He and ^{4}He. Which of the following statements is correct? (a) Both are fermions. (b) Both are bosons. (c) ^{4}He is a fermion, and ^{3}He is a boson. (d) ^{3}He is a fermion, and ^{4}He is a boson. (The two helium electrons form a closed shell and play no role in this determination.)

8 Three cosmologists have each plotted a line on the Hubble-like graph of Fig. 44-11. If we calculate the corresponding age of the universe from the three plots, rank the plots according to that age, greatest first.

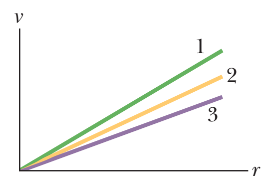


Figure 44-11 Question 8.

9 A Σ^+ particle has these quantum numbers: strangeness $S = -1$, charge $q = +1$, and spin $s = \frac{1}{2}$. Which of the following quark combinations produces it: (a) dds, (b) s$\bar{\text{s}}$, (c) uus, (d) ssu, or (e) uu$\bar{\text{s}}$?

10 As we have seen, the π^- meson has the quark structure d$\bar{\text{u}}$. Which of the following conservation laws would be violated if a π^- were formed, instead, from a d quark and a u quark: (a) energy, (b) angular momentum, (c) charge, (d) lepton number, (e) linear momentum, (f) baryon number?

11 Consider the neutrino whose symbol is $\bar{\nu}_\tau$. (a) Is it a quark, a lepton, a meson, or a baryon? (b) Is it a particle or an antiparticle? (c) Is it a boson or a fermion? (d) Is it stable against spontaneous decay?

Problems

GO Tutoring problem available (at instructor's discretion) in *WileyPLUS* and WebAssign
SSM Worked-out solution available in Student Solutions Manual
• – ••• Number of dots indicates level of problem difficulty
Additional information available in *The Flying Circus of Physics* and at flyingcircusofphysics.com
WWW Worked-out solution is at
ILW Interactive solution is at
http://www.wiley.com/college/halliday

Module 44-1 General Properties of Elementary Particles

•1 A positively charged pion decays by Eq. 44-7: $\pi^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ + \nu$. What must be the decay scheme of the negatively charged pion? (*Hint:* The π^- is the antiparticle of the π^+.)

•2 Certain theories predict that the proton is unstable, with a half-life of about 10^{32} years. Assuming that this is true, calculate the number of proton decays you would expect to occur in one year in the water of an Olympic-sized swimming pool holding 4.32×10^5 L of water.

•3 GO An electron and a positron undergo pair annihilation (Eq. 44-5). If they had approximately zero kinetic energy before the annihilation, what is the wavelength of each γ produced by the annihilation?

•4 A neutral pion initially at rest decays into two gamma rays: $\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma + \gamma$. Calculate the wavelength of the gamma rays. Why must they have the same wavelength?

•5 An electron and a positron are separated by distance r. Find the ratio of the gravitational force to the electric force between them. From the result, what can you conclude concerning the forces acting between particles detected in a bubble chamber? (Should gravitational interactions be considered?)

••6 (a) A stationary particle 1 decays into particles 2 and 3, which move off with equal but oppositely directed momenta. Show that the kinetic energy K_2 of particle 2 is given by

$$K_2 = \frac{1}{2E_1}[(E_1 - E_2)^2 - E_3^2],$$

where E_1, E_2, and E_3 are the rest energies of the particles. (b) A stationary positive pion π^+ (rest energy 139.6 MeV) can decay to an antimuon μ^+ (rest energy 105.7 MeV) and a neutrino ν (rest energy approximately 0). What is the resulting kinetic energy of the antimuon?

••7 The rest energy of many short-lived particles cannot be measured directly but must be inferred from the measured momenta and known rest energies of the decay products. Consider the ρ^0 meson, which decays by the reaction $\rho^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ + \pi^-$. Calculate the rest energy of the ρ^0 meson given that the oppositely directed momenta of the created pions each have magnitude 358.3 MeV/c. See Table 44-4 for the rest energies of the pions.

••8 GO A positive tau (τ^+, rest energy = 1777 MeV) is moving with 2200 MeV of kinetic energy in a circular path perpendicular to a uniform 1.20 T magnetic field. (a) Calculate the momentum of the tau in kilogram-meters per second. Relativistic effects must be considered. (b) Find the radius of the circular path.

••9 GO Observations of neutrinos emitted by the supernova SN1987a (Fig. 43-12*b*) place an upper limit of 20 eV on the rest energy of the electron neutrino. If the rest energy of the electron neutrino were, in fact, 20 eV, what would be the speed difference between light and a 1.5 MeV electron neutrino?

••10 GO A neutral pion has a rest energy of 135 MeV and a mean life of 8.3×10^{-17} s. If it is produced with an initial kinetic energy of 80 MeV and decays after one mean lifetime, what is the longest possible track this particle could leave in a bubble chamber? Use relativistic time dilation.

Module 44-2 Leptons, Hadrons, and Strangeness

•11 SSM WWW Which conservation law is violated in each of these proposed decays? Assume that the initial particle is stationary and the decay products have zero orbital angular momentum. (a) $\mu^- \rightarrow e^- + \nu_\mu$; (b) $\mu^- \rightarrow e^+ + \nu_e + \bar{\nu}_\mu$; (c) $\mu^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ + \nu_\mu$.

•12 The A_2^+ particle and its products decay according to the scheme

$$\begin{aligned} A_2^+ &\rightarrow \rho^0 + \pi^+, & \mu^+ &\rightarrow e^+ + \nu + \bar{\nu}, \\ \rho^0 &\rightarrow \pi^+ + \pi^-, & \pi^- &\rightarrow \mu^- + \bar{\nu}, \\ \pi^+ &\rightarrow \mu^+ + \nu, & \mu^- &\rightarrow e^- + \nu + \bar{\nu}. \end{aligned}$$

(a) What are the final stable decay products? From the evidence, (b) is the A_2^+ particle a fermion or a boson and (c) is it a meson or a baryon? (d) What is its baryon number?

•13 Show that if, instead of plotting strangeness S versus charge q

for the spin-$\frac{1}{2}$ baryons in Fig. 44-3*a* and for the spin-zero mesons in Fig. 44-3*b*, we plot the quantity $Y = B + S$ versus the quantity $T_z = q - \frac{1}{2}(B + S)$, we get the hexagonal patterns without using sloping axes. (The quantity Y is called *hypercharge,* and T_z is related to a quantity called *isospin.*)

•14 Calculate the disintegration energy of the reactions (a) $\pi^+ + p \rightarrow \Sigma^+ + K^+$ and (b) $K^- + p \rightarrow \Lambda^0 + \pi^0$.

•15 Which conservation law is violated in each of these proposed reactions and decays? (Assume that the products have zero orbital angular momentum.) (a) $\Lambda^0 \rightarrow p + K^-$; (b) $\Omega^- \rightarrow \Sigma^- + \pi^0$ ($S = -3, q = -1, m = 1672$ MeV/c^2, and $m_s = \frac{3}{2}$ for Ω^-); (c) $K^- + p \rightarrow \Lambda^0 + \pi^+$.

•16 Does the proposed reaction

$$p + \bar{p} \rightarrow \Lambda^0 + \Sigma^+ + e^-$$

conserve (a) charge, (b) baryon number, (c) electron lepton number, (d) spin angular momentum, (e) strangeness, and (f) muon lepton number?

•17 Does the proposed decay process

$$\Xi^- \rightarrow \pi^- + n + K^- + p$$

conserve (a) charge, (b) baryon number, (c) spin angular momentum, and (d) strangeness?

•18 By examining strangeness, determine which of the following decays or reactions proceed via the strong interaction: (a) $K^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ + \pi^-$; (b) $\Lambda^0 + p \rightarrow \Sigma^+ + n$; (c) $\Lambda^0 \rightarrow p + \pi^-$; (d) $K^- + p \rightarrow \Lambda^0 + \pi^0$.

•19 The reaction $\pi^+ + p \rightarrow p + p + \bar{n}$ proceeds via the strong interaction. By applying the conservation laws, deduce the (a) charge quantum number, (b) baryon number, and (c) strangeness of the antineutron.

•20 There are 10 baryons with spin $\frac{3}{2}$. Their symbols and quantum numbers for charge q and strangeness S are as follows:

	q	S		q	S
Δ^-	-1	0	Σ^{*0}	0	-1
Δ^0	0	0	Σ^{*+}	$+1$	-1
Δ^+	$+1$	0	Ξ^{*-}	-1	-2
Δ^{++}	$+2$	0	Ξ^{*0}	0	-2
Σ^{*-}	-1	-1	Ω^-	-1	-3

Make a charge–strangeness plot for these baryons, using the sloping coordinate system of Fig. 44-3. Compare your plot with this figure.

••21 Use the conservation laws and Tables 44-3 and 44-4 to identify particle x in each of the following reactions, which proceed by means of the strong interaction: (a) $p + p \rightarrow p + \Lambda^0 + x$; (b) $p + \bar{p} \rightarrow n + x$; (c) $\pi^- + p \rightarrow \Xi^0 + K^0 + x$.

••22 GO A 220 MeV Σ^- particle decays: $\Sigma^- \rightarrow \pi^- + n$. Calculate the total kinetic energy of the decay products.

••23 GO Consider the decay $\Lambda^0 \rightarrow p + \pi^-$ with the Λ^0 at rest. (a) Calculate the disintegration energy. What is the kinetic energy of (b) the proton and (c) the pion? (*Hint:* See Problem 6.)

••24 The spin-$\frac{3}{2}$ Σ^{*0} baryon (see table in Problem 24) has a rest energy of 1385 MeV (with an intrinsic uncertainty ignored here); the spin-$\frac{1}{2}$ Σ^0 baryon has a rest energy of 1192.5 MeV. If each of these particles has a kinetic energy of 1000 MeV, (a) which is moving faster and (b) by how much?

Module 44-3 Quarks and Messenger Particles

•25 The quark makeups of the proton and neutron are uud and udd, respectively. What are the quark makeups of (a) the antiproton and (b) the antineutron?

•26 From Tables 44-3 and 44-5, determine the identity of the baryon formed from quarks (a) ddu, (b) uus, and (c) ssd. Check your answers against the baryon octet shown in Fig. 44-3*a*.

•27 What is the quark makeup of $\overline{K}^0$?

•28 What quark combination is needed to form (a) Λ^0 and (b) Ξ^0?

•29 Which hadron in Tables 44-3 and 44-4 corresponds to the quark bundles (a) ssu and (b) dds?

•30 SSM WWW Using the up, down, and strange quarks only, construct, if possible, a baryon (a) with $q = +1$ and strangeness $S = -2$ and (b) with $q = +2$ and strangeness $S = 0$.

Module 44-4 Cosmology

•31 In the laboratory, one of the lines of sodium is emitted at a wavelength of 590.0 nm. In the light from a particular galaxy, however, this line is seen at a wavelength of 602.0 nm. Calculate the distance to the galaxy, assuming that Hubble's law holds and that the Doppler shift of Eq. 37-36 applies.

•32 Because of the cosmological expansion, a particular emission from a distant galaxy has a wavelength that is 2.00 times the wavelength that emission would have in a laboratory. Assuming that Hubble's law holds and that we can apply Doppler-shift calculations, what was the distance (ly) to that galaxy when the light was emitted?

•33 What is the observed wavelength of the 656.3 nm (first Balmer) line of hydrogen emitted by a galaxy at a distance of 2.40×10^8 ly? Assume that the Doppler shift of Eq. 37-36 and Hubble's law apply.

•34 An object is 1.5×10^4 ly from us and does not have any motion relative to us except for the motion due to the expansion of the universe. If the space between us and it expands according to Hubble's law, with $H = 21.8$ mm/s · ly, (a) how much extra distance (meters) will be between us and the object by this time next year and (b) what is the speed of the object away from us?

•35 If Hubble's law can be extrapolated to very large distances, at what distance would the apparent recessional speed become equal to the speed of light?

•36 What would the mass of the Sun have to be if Pluto (the outermost "planet" most of the time) were to have the same orbital speed that Mercury (the innermost planet) has now? Use data from Appendix C, express your answer in terms of the Sun's current mass M_S, and assume circular orbits.

•37 The wavelength at which a thermal radiator at temperature T radiates electromagnetic waves most intensely is given by Wien's law: $\lambda_{max} = (2898\ \mu\text{m} \cdot \text{K})/T$. (a) Show that the energy E of a photon corresponding to that wavelength can be computed from

$$E = (4.28 \times 10^{-10}\ \text{MeV/K})T.$$

(b) At what minimum temperature can this photon create an electron–positron pair (as discussed in Module 21-3)?

•38 Use Wien's law (see Problem 37) to answer the following questions: (a) The cosmic background radiation peaks in intensity at a wavelength of 1.1 mm. To what temperature does this correspond? (b) About 379 000 y after the big bang, the universe became transparent to electromagnetic radiation. Its temperature then was

2970 K. What was the wavelength at which the background radiation was then most intense?

••39 Will the universe continue to expand forever? To attack this question, assume that the theory of dark energy is in error and that the recessional speed v of a galaxy a distance r from us is determined only by the gravitational interaction of the matter that lies inside a sphere of radius r centered on us. If the total mass inside this sphere is M, the escape speed v_e from the sphere is $v_e = \sqrt{2GM/r}$ (Eq. 13-28). (a) Show that to prevent unlimited expansion, the average density ρ inside the sphere must be at least equal to

$$\rho = \frac{3H^2}{8\pi G}.$$

(b) Evaluate this "critical density" numerically; express your answer in terms of hydrogen atoms per cubic meter. Measurements of the actual density are difficult and are complicated by the presence of dark matter.

••40 Because the apparent recessional speeds of galaxies and quasars at great distances are close to the speed of light, the relativistic Doppler shift formula (Eq. 37-31) must be used. The shift is reported as fractional red shift $z = \Delta\lambda/\lambda_0$. (a) Show that, in terms of z, the recessional speed parameter $\beta = v/c$ is given by

$$\beta = \frac{z^2 + 2z}{z^2 + 2z + 2}.$$

(b) A quasar detected in 1987 has $z = 4.43$. Calculate its speed parameter. (c) Find the distance to the quasar, assuming that Hubble's law is valid to these distances.

••41 GO An electron jumps from $n = 3$ to $n = 2$ in a hydrogen atom in a distant galaxy, emitting light. If we detect that light at a wavelength of 3.00 mm, by what multiplication factor has the wavelength, and thus the universe, expanded since the light was emitted?

••42 Due to the presence everywhere of the cosmic background radiation, the minimum possible temperature of a gas in interstellar or intergalactic space is not 0 K but 2.7 K. This implies that a significant fraction of the molecules in space that can be in a low-level excited state may, in fact, be so. Subsequent de-excitation would lead to the emission of radiation that could be detected. Consider a (hypothetical) molecule with just one possible excited state. (a) What would the excitation energy have to be for 25% of the molecules to be in the excited state? (*Hint:* See Eq. 40-29.) (b) What would be the wavelength of the photon emitted in a transition back to the ground state?

••43 SSM Suppose that the radius of the Sun were increased to 5.90×10^{12} m (the average radius of the orbit of Pluto), that the density of this expanded Sun were uniform, and that the planets revolved within this tenuous object. (a) Calculate Earth's orbital speed in this new configuration. (b) What is the ratio of the orbital speed calculated in (a) to Earth's present orbital speed of 29.8 km/s? Assume that the radius of Earth's orbit remains unchanged. (c) What would be Earth's new period of revolution? (The Sun's mass remains unchanged.)

••44 Suppose that the matter (stars, gas, dust) of a particular galaxy, of total mass M, is distributed uniformly throughout a sphere of radius R. A star of mass m is revolving about the center of the galaxy in a circular orbit of radius $r < R$. (a) Show that the orbital speed v of the star is given by

$$v = r\sqrt{GM/R^3},$$

and therefore that the star's period T of revolution is

$$T = 2\pi\sqrt{R^3/GM},$$

independent of r. Ignore any resistive forces. (b) Next suppose that the galaxy's mass is concentrated near the galactic center, within a sphere of radius less than r. What expression then gives the star's orbital period?

Additional Problems

45 SSM There is no known meson with charge quantum number $q = +1$ and strangeness $S = -1$ or with $q = -1$ and $S = +1$. Explain why in terms of the quark model.

46 Figure 44-12 is a hypothetical plot of the recessional speeds v of galaxies against their distance r from us; the best-fit straight line through the data points is shown. From this plot determine the age of the universe, assuming that Hubble's law holds and that Hubble's constant has always had the same value.

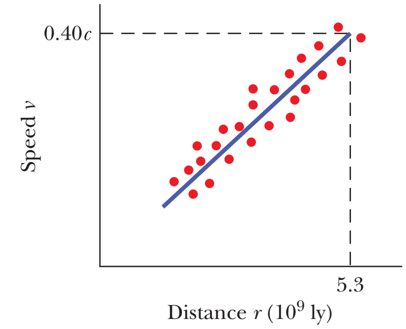


Figure 44-12 Problem 46.

47 SSM How much energy would be released if Earth were annihilated by collision with an anti-Earth?

48 *A particle game.* Figure 44-13 is a sketch of the tracks made by particles in a *fictional* cloud chamber experiment (with a uniform magnetic field directed perpendicular to the page), and Table 44-6 gives *fictional* quantum numbers associated with the particles making the tracks. Particle A entered the chamber at the lower left, leaving track 1 and decaying into three particles. Then the particle creating track 6 decayed into three other particles, and the particle creating

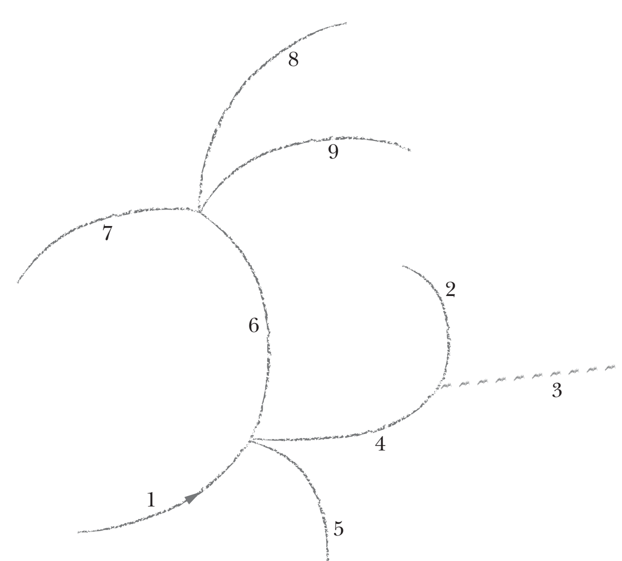


Figure 44-13 Problem 48.

Table 44-6 Problem 44-48

Particle	Charge	Whimsy	Seriousness	Cuteness
A	1	1	−2	−2
B	0	4	3	0
C	1	2	−3	−1
D	−1	−1	0	1
E	−1	0	−4	−2
F	1	0	0	0
G	−1	−1	1	−1
H	3	3	1	0
I	0	6	4	6
J	1	−6	−4	−6

track 4 decayed into two other particles, one of which was electrically uncharged—the path of that uncharged particle is represented by the dashed straight line because, being electrically neutral, it would not actually leave a track in a cloud chamber. The particle that created track 8 is known to have a seriousness quantum number of zero.

By conserving the fictional quantum numbers at each decay point and by noting the directions of curvature of the tracks, identify which particle goes with track (a) 1, (b) 2, (c) 3, (d) 4, (e) 5, (f) 6, (g) 7, (h) 8, and (i) 9. One of the listed particles is not formed; the others appear only once each.

49 Figure 44-14 shows part of the experimental arrangement in which antiprotons were discovered in the 1950s. A beam of 6.2 GeV protons emerged from a particle accelerator and collided with nuclei in a copper target. According to theoretical predictions at the time, collisions between protons in the beam and the protons and neutrons in those nuclei should produce antiprotons via the reactions

$$\mathrm{p} + \mathrm{p} \rightarrow \mathrm{p} + \mathrm{p} + \mathrm{p} + \bar{\mathrm{p}}$$

and

$$\mathrm{p} + \mathrm{n} \rightarrow \mathrm{p} + \mathrm{n} + \mathrm{p} + \bar{\mathrm{p}}.$$

However, even if these reactions did occur, they would be rare compared to the reactions

$$\mathrm{p} + \mathrm{p} \rightarrow \mathrm{p} + \mathrm{p} + \pi^+ + \pi^-$$

and

$$\mathrm{p} + \mathrm{n} \rightarrow \mathrm{p} + \mathrm{n} + \pi^+ + \pi^-.$$

Thus, most of the particles produced by the collisions between the 6.2 GeV protons and the copper target were pions.

To prove that antiprotons exist and were produced by some limited number of the collisions, particles leaving the target were sent into a series of magnetic fields and detectors as shown in Fig. 44-14. The first magnetic field (M1) curved the path of any charged particle passing through it; moreover, the field was arranged so that the only particles that emerged from it to reach the second magnetic field (Q1) had to be negatively charged (either a $\bar{\mathrm{p}}$ or a π^-) and have a momentum of 1.19 GeV/c. Field Q1 was a special type of magnetic field (a *quadrapole field*) that focused the particles reaching it into a beam, allowing them to pass through a hole in thick shielding to a *scintillation counter* S1. The passage of a charged particle through the counter triggered a signal, with each signal indicating the passage of either a 1.19 GeV/c π^- or (presumably) a 1.19 GeV/c $\bar{\mathrm{p}}$.

After being refocused by magnetic field Q2, the particles were directed by magnetic field M2 through a second scintillation counter S2 and then through two *Cerenkov counters* C1 and C2. These latter detectors can be manufactured so that they send a signal only when the particle passing through them is moving with a speed that falls within a certain range. In the experiment, a particle with a speed greater than 0.79c would trigger C1 and a particle with a speed between 0.75c and 0.78c would trigger C2.

There were then two ways to distinguish the predicted rare antiprotons from the abundant negative pions. Both ways involved the fact that the speed of a 1.19 GeV/c $\bar{\mathrm{p}}$ differs from that of a 1.19 GeV/c π^-: (1) According to calculations, a $\bar{\mathrm{p}}$ would trigger one of the Cerenkov counters and a π^- would trigger the other. (2) The time interval Δt between signals from S1 and S2, which were separated by 12 m, would have one value for a $\bar{\mathrm{p}}$ and another value for a π^-. Thus, if the correct Cerenkov counter were triggered and the time interval Δt had the correct value, the experiment would prove the existence of antiprotons.

What is the speed of (a) an antiproton with a momentum of 1.19 GeV/c and (b) a negative pion with that same momentum? (The speed of an antiproton through the Cerenkov detectors would actually be slightly less than calculated here because the antiproton would lose a little energy within the detectors.) Which Cerenkov detector was triggered by (c) an antiproton and (d) a negative pion? What time interval Δt indicated the passage of (e) an antiproton and (f) a negative pion? [Problem adapted from O. Chamberlain, E. Segrè, C. Wiegand, and T. Ypsilantis, "Observation of Antiprotons," *Physical Review,* Vol. 100, pp. 947–950 (1955).]

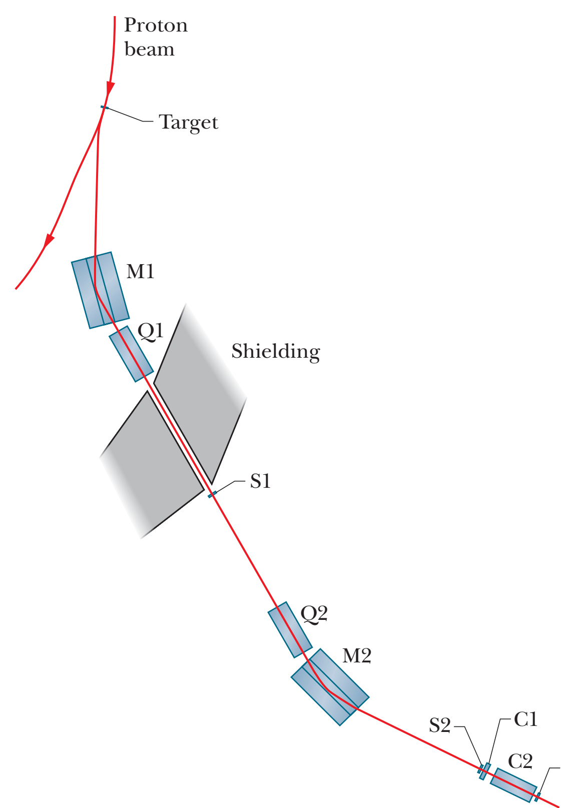


Figure 44-14 Problem 49.

50 Verify that the hypothetical proton decay scheme in Eq. 44-14 does not violate the conservation law of (a) charge, (b) energy, and (c) linear momentum. (d) How about angular momentum?

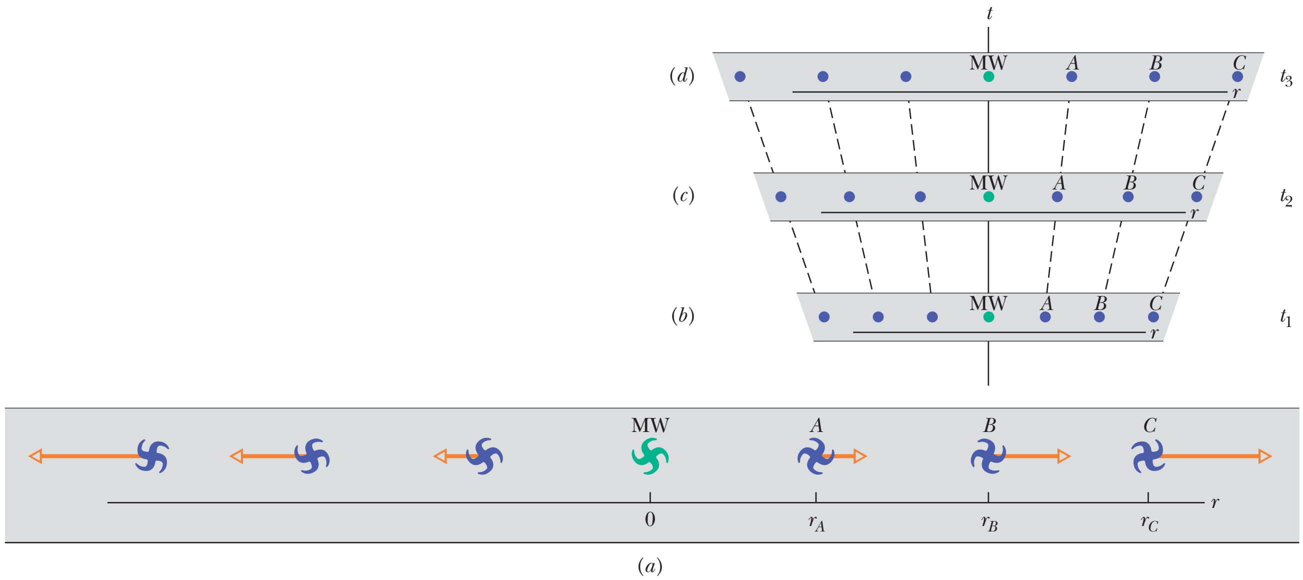


Figure 44-15 Problem 51.

51 SSM *Cosmological red shift*. The expansion of the universe is often represented with a drawing like Fig. 44-15*a*. In that figure, we are located at the symbol labeled MW (for the Milky Way galaxy), at the origin of an r axis that extends radially away from us in any direction. Other, very distant galaxies are also represented. Superimposed on their symbols are their velocity vectors as inferred from the red shift of the light reaching us from the galaxies. In accord with Hubble's law, the speed of each galaxy is proportional to its distance from us. Such drawings can be misleading because they imply (1) that the red shifts are due to the motions of galaxies relative to us, as they rush away from us through static (stationary) space, and (2) that we are at the center of all this motion.

Actually, the expansion of the universe and the increased separation of the galaxies are due not to an outward rush of the galaxies into pre-existing space but to an expansion of space itself throughout the universe. *Space is dynamic, not static*.

Figures 44-15*b*, *c*, and *d* show a different way of representing the universe and its expansion. Each part of the figure gives part of a one-dimensional section of the universe (along an r axis); the other two spatial dimensions of the universe are not shown. Each of the three parts of the figure shows the Milky Way and six other galaxies (represented by dots); the parts are positioned along a time axis, with time increasing upward. In part *b*, at the earliest time of the three parts, the Milky Way and the six other galaxies are represented as being relatively close to one another. As time progresses upward in the figures, space expands, causing the galaxies to move apart. Note that the figure parts are drawn relative to the Milky Way, and from that observation point all the other galaxies move away because of the expansion. However, there is nothing special about the Milky Way—the galaxies also move away from any other observation point we might have chosen.

Figures 44-16*a* and *b* focus on just the Milky Way galaxy and one of the other galaxies, galaxy A, at two particular times during the expansion. In part *a*, galaxy A is a distance r from the Milky Way and is emitting a light wave of wavelength λ. In part *b*, after a time interval Δt, that light wave is being detected at Earth. Let us represent the universe's expansion rate per unit length of space with α, which we assume to be constant during time interval Δt. Then during Δt, every unit length of space (say, every meter) expands by an amount $\alpha\ \Delta t$; hence, a distance r expands by $r\alpha\ \Delta t$. The light wave of Figs. 44.16*a* and *b* travels at speed c from galaxy A to Earth. (a) Show that

$$\Delta t = \frac{r}{c - r\alpha}.$$

The detected wavelength λ' of the light is greater than the emitted wavelength λ because space expanded during time interval Δt. This increase in wavelength is called the **cosmological red shift;** it is not a Doppler effect. (b) Show that the change in wavelength $\Delta\lambda$ $(=\lambda' - \lambda)$ is given by

$$\frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda} = \frac{r\alpha}{c - r\alpha}.$$

(c) Expand the right side of this equation using the binomial expansion (given in Appendix E). (d) If you retain only the first term

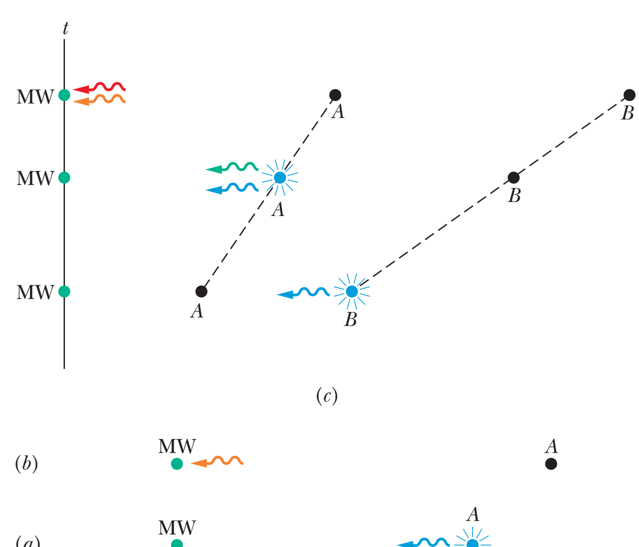


Figure 44-16 Problem 51.

of the expansion, what is the resulting equation for $\Delta\lambda/\lambda$?

If, instead, we assume that Fig. 44-15*a* applies and that $\Delta\lambda$ is due to a Doppler effect, then from Eq. 37-36 we have

$$\frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda} = \frac{v}{c},$$

where v is the radial velocity of galaxy *A* relative to Earth. (e) Using Hubble's law, compare this Doppler-effect result with the cosmological-expansion result of (d) and find a value for α. From this analysis you can see that the two results, derived with very different models about the red shift of the light we detect from distant galaxies, are compatible.

Suppose that the light we detect from galaxy *A* has a red shift of $\Delta\lambda/\lambda = 0.050$ and that the expansion rate of the universe has been constant at the current value given in the chapter. (f) Using the result of (b), find the distance between the galaxy and Earth when the light was emitted. Next, determine how long ago the light was emitted by the galaxy (g) by using the result of (a) and (h) by assuming that the red shift is a Doppler effect. (*Hint*: For (h), the time is just the distance at the time of emission divided by the speed of light, because if the red shift is just a Doppler effect, the distance does not change during the light's travel to us. Here the two models about the red shift of the light differ in their results.) (i) At the time of detection, what is the distance between Earth and galaxy *A*? (We make the assumption that galaxy *A* still exists; if it ceased to exist, humans would not know about its death until the last light emitted by the galaxy reached Earth.)

Now suppose that the light we detect from galaxy *B* (Fig. 44-16*c*) has a red shift of $\Delta\lambda/\lambda = 0.080$. (j) Using the result of (b), find the distance between galaxy *B* and Earth when the light was emitted. (k) Using the result of (a), find how long ago the light was emitted by galaxy *B*. (l) When the light that we detect from galaxy *A* was emitted, what was the distance between galaxy *A* and galaxy *B*?

52 Calculate the difference in mass, in kilograms, between the muon and pion of Sample Problem 44.01.

53 What is the quark formation that makes up (a) the xi-minus particle and (b) the anti-xi-minus particle? The particles have no charm, bottom, or top.

54 An electron and a positron, each with a kinetic energy of 2.500 MeV, annihilate, creating two photons that travel away in opposite directions. What is the frequency of each photon?

APPENDIX A

THE INTERNATIONAL SYSTEM OF UNITS (SI)*

Table 1 The SI Base Units

Quantity	Name	Symbol	Definition
length	meter	m	"... the length of the path traveled by light in vacuum in 1/299,792,458 of a second." (1983)
mass	kilogram	kg	"... this prototype [a certain platinum–iridium cylinder] shall henceforth be considered to be the unit of mass." (1889)
time	second	s	"... the duration of 9,192,631,770 periods of the radiation corresponding to the transition between the two hyperfine levels of the ground state of the cesium-133 atom." (1967)
electric current	ampere	A	"... that constant current which, if maintained in two straight parallel conductors of infinite length, of negligible circular cross section, and placed 1 meter apart in vacuum, would produce between these conductors a force equal to 2×10^{-7} newton per meter of length." (1946)
thermodynamic temperature	kelvin	K	"... the fraction 1/273.16 of the thermodynamic temperature of the triple point of water." (1967)
amount of substance	mole	mol	"... the amount of substance of a system which contains as many elementary entities as there are atoms in 0.012 kilogram of carbon-12." (1971)
luminous intensity	candela	cd	"... the luminous intensity, in a given direction, of a source that emits monochromatic radiation of frequency 540×10^{12} hertz and that has a radiant intensity in that direction of 1/683 watt per steradian." (1979)

*Adapted from "The International System of Units (SI)," National Bureau of Standards Special Publication 330, 1972 edition. The definitions above were adopted by the General Conference of Weights and Measures, an international body, on the dates shown. In this book we do not use the candela.

Table 2 Some SI Derived Units

Quantity	Name of Unit	Symbol	
area	square meter	m^2	
volume	cubic meter	m^3	
frequency	hertz	Hz	s^{-1}
mass density (density)	kilogram per cubic meter	kg/m^3	
speed, velocity	meter per second	m/s	
angular velocity	radian per second	rad/s	
acceleration	meter per second per second	m/s^2	
angular acceleration	radian per second per second	rad/s^2	
force	newton	N	$kg \cdot m/s^2$
pressure	pascal	Pa	N/m^2
work, energy, quantity of heat	joule	J	$N \cdot m$
power	watt	W	J/s
quantity of electric charge	coulomb	C	$A \cdot s$
potential difference, electromotive force	volt	V	W/A
electric field strength	volt per meter (or newton per coulomb)	V/m	N/C
electric resistance	ohm	Ω	V/A
capacitance	farad	F	$A \cdot s/V$
magnetic flux	weber	Wb	$V \cdot s$
inductance	henry	H	$V \cdot s/A$
magnetic flux density	tesla	T	Wb/m^2
magnetic field strength	ampere per meter	A/m	
entropy	joule per kelvin	J/K	
specific heat	joule per kilogram kelvin	$J/(kg \cdot K)$	
thermal conductivity	watt per meter kelvin	$W/(m \cdot K)$	
radiant intensity	watt per steradian	W/sr	

Table 3 The SI Supplementary Units

Quantity	Name of Unit	Symbol
plane angle	radian	rad
solid angle	steradian	sr

APPENDIX B

SOME FUNDAMENTAL CONSTANTS OF PHYSICS*

Constant	Symbol	Computational Value	Best (1998) Value	
			Value[a]	Uncertainty[b]
Speed of light in a vacuum	c	3.00×10^{8} m/s	2.997 924 58	exact
Elementary charge	e	1.60×10^{-19} C	1.602 176 487	0.025
Gravitational constant	G	6.67×10^{-11} $m^3/s^2 \cdot kg$	6.674 28	100
Universal gas constant	R	8.31 J/mol·K	8.314 472	1.7
Avogadro constant	N_A	6.02×10^{23} mol^{-1}	6.022 141 79	0.050
Boltzmann constant	k	1.38×10^{-23} J/K	1.380 650 4	1.7
Stefan–Boltzmann constant	σ	5.67×10^{-8} $W/m^2 \cdot K^4$	5.670 400	7.0
Molar volume of ideal gas at STP[d]	V_m	2.27×10^{-2} m^3/mol	2.271 098 1	1.7
Permittivity constant	ϵ_0	8.85×10^{-12} F/m	8.854 187 817 62	exact
Permeability constant	μ_0	1.26×10^{-6} H/m	1.256 637 061 43	exact
Planck constant	h	6.63×10^{-34} J·s	6.626 068 96	0.050
Electron mass[c]	m_e	9.11×10^{-31} kg	9.109 382 15	0.050
		5.49×10^{-4} u	5.485 799 094 3	4.2×10^{-4}
Proton mass[c]	m_p	1.67×10^{-27} kg	1.672 621 637	0.050
		1.0073 u	1.007 276 466 77	1.0×10^{-4}
Ratio of proton mass to electron mass	m_p/m_e	1840	1836.152 672 47	4.3×10^{-4}
Electron charge-to-mass ratio	e/m_e	1.76×10^{11} C/kg	1.758 820 150	0.025
Neutron mass[c]	m_n	1.68×10^{-27} kg	1.674 927 211	0.050
		1.0087 u	1.008 664 915 97	4.3×10^{-4}
Hydrogen atom mass[c]	$m_{^1H}$	1.0078 u	1.007 825 031 6	0.0005
Deuterium atom mass[c]	$m_{^2H}$	2.0136 u	2.013 553 212 724	3.9×10^{-5}
Helium atom mass[c]	$m_{^4He}$	4.0026 u	4.002 603 2	0.067
Muon mass	m_μ	1.88×10^{-28} kg	1.883 531 30	0.056
Electron magnetic moment	μ_e	9.28×10^{-24} J/T	9.284 763 77	0.025
Proton magnetic moment	μ_p	1.41×10^{-26} J/T	1.410 606 662	0.026
Bohr magneton	μ_B	9.27×10^{-24} J/T	9.274 009 15	0.025
Nuclear magneton	μ_N	5.05×10^{-27} J/T	5.050 783 24	0.025
Bohr radius	a	5.29×10^{-11} m	5.291 772 085 9	6.8×10^{-4}
Rydberg constant	R	1.10×10^{7} m^{-1}	1.097 373 156 852 7	6.6×10^{-6}
Electron Compton wavelength	λ_C	2.43×10^{-12} m	2.426 310 217 5	0.0014

[a]Values given in this column should be given the same unit and power of 10 as the computational value.
[b]Parts per million.
[c]Masses given in u are in unified atomic mass units, where $1\ u = 1.660\ 538\ 782 \times 10^{-27}$ kg.
[d]STP means standard temperature and pressure: 0°C and 1.0 atm (0.1 MPa).

*The values in this table were selected from the 1998 CODATA recommended values (www.physics.nist.gov).

APPENDIX C

SOME ASTRONOMICAL DATA

Some Distances from Earth

To the Moon*	3.82×10^{8} m	To the center of our galaxy	2.2×10^{20} m
To the Sun*	1.50×10^{11} m	To the Andromeda Galaxy	2.1×10^{22} m
To the nearest star (Proxima Centauri)	4.04×10^{16} m	To the edge of the observable universe	$\sim 10^{26}$ m

*Mean distance.

The Sun, Earth, and the Moon

Property	Unit	Sun		Earth	Moon
Mass	kg	1.99×10^{30}		5.98×10^{24}	7.36×10^{22}
Mean radius	m	6.96×10^{8}		6.37×10^{6}	1.74×10^{6}
Mean density	kg/m^3	1410		5520	3340
Free-fall acceleration at the surface	m/s^2	274		9.81	1.67
Escape velocity	km/s	618		11.2	2.38
Period of rotation[a]	—	37 d at poles[b]	26 d at equator[b]	23 h 56 min	27.3 d
Radiation power[c]	W	3.90×10^{26}			

[a]Measured with respect to the distant stars.
[b]The Sun, a ball of gas, does not rotate as a rigid body.
[c]Just outside Earth's atmosphere solar energy is received, assuming normal incidence, at the rate of 1340 W/m^2.

Some Properties of the Planets

	Mercury	Venus	Earth	Mars	Jupiter	Saturn	Uranus	Neptune	Pluto[d]
Mean distance from Sun, 10^6 km	57.9	108	150	228	778	1430	2870	4500	5900
Period of revolution, y	0.241	0.615	1.00	1.88	11.9	29.5	84.0	165	248
Period of rotation,[a] d	58.7	-243[b]	0.997	1.03	0.409	0.426	-0.451[b]	0.658	6.39
Orbital speed, km/s	47.9	35.0	29.8	24.1	13.1	9.64	6.81	5.43	4.74
Inclination of axis to orbit	$<28°$	$\approx 3°$	23.4°	25.0°	3.08°	26.7°	97.9°	29.6°	57.5°
Inclination of orbit to Earth's orbit	7.00°	3.39°		1.85°	1.30°	2.49°	0.77°	1.77°	17.2°
Eccentricity of orbit	0.206	0.0068	0.0167	0.0934	0.0485	0.0556	0.0472	0.0086	0.250
Equatorial diameter, km	4880	12 100	12 800	6790	143 000	120 000	51 800	49 500	2300
Mass (Earth = 1)	0.0558	0.815	1.000	0.107	318	95.1	14.5	17.2	0.002
Density (water = 1)	5.60	5.20	5.52	3.95	1.31	0.704	1.21	1.67	2.03
Surface value of g,[c] m/s^2	3.78	8.60	9.78	3.72	22.9	9.05	7.77	11.0	0.5
Escape velocity,[c] km/s	4.3	10.3	11.2	5.0	59.5	35.6	21.2	23.6	1.3
Known satellites	0	0	1	2	67 + ring	62 + rings	27 + rings	13 + rings	4

[a]Measured with respect to the distant stars.
[b]Venus and Uranus rotate opposite their orbital motion.
[c]Gravitational acceleration measured at the planet's equator.
[d]Pluto is now classified as a dwarf planet.

APPENDIX D

CONVERSION FACTORS

Conversion factors may be read directly from these tables. For example, 1 degree = 2.778×10^{-3} revolutions, so $16.7° = 16.7 \times 2.778 \times 10^{-3}$ rev. The SI units are fully capitalized. Adapted in part from G. Shortley and D. Williams, *Elements of Physics,* 1971, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

Plane Angle

	°	′	″	RADIAN	rev
1 degree =	1	60	3600	1.745×10^{-2}	2.778×10^{-3}
1 minute =	1.667×10^{-2}	1	60	2.909×10^{-4}	4.630×10^{-5}
1 second =	2.778×10^{-4}	1.667×10^{-2}	1	4.848×10^{-6}	7.716×10^{-7}
1 RADIAN =	57.30	3438	2.063×10^{5}	1	0.1592
1 revolution =	360	2.16×10^{4}	1.296×10^{6}	6.283	1

Solid Angle

1 sphere = 4π steradians = 12.57 steradians

Length

	cm	METER	km	in.	ft	mi
1 centimeter =	1	10^{-2}	10^{-5}	0.3937	3.281×10^{-2}	6.214×10^{-6}
1 METER =	100	1	10^{-3}	39.37	3.281	6.214×10^{-4}
1 kilometer =	10^{5}	1000	1	3.937×10^{4}	3281	0.6214
1 inch =	2.540	2.540×10^{-2}	2.540×10^{-5}	1	8.333×10^{-2}	1.578×10^{-5}
1 foot =	30.48	0.3048	3.048×10^{-4}	12	1	1.894×10^{-4}
1 mile =	1.609×10^{5}	1609	1.609	6.336×10^{4}	5280	1

1 angström = 10^{-10} m
1 nautical mile = 1852 m
= 1.151 miles = 6076 ft
1 fermi = 10^{-15} m
1 light-year = 9.461×10^{12} km
1 parsec = 3.084×10^{13} km
1 fathom = 6 ft
1 Bohr radius = 5.292×10^{-11} m
1 yard = 3 ft
1 rod = 16.5 ft
1 mil = 10^{-3} in.
1 nm = 10^{-9} m

Area

	$METER^2$	cm^2	ft^2	$in.^2$
1 SQUARE METER =	1	10^{4}	10.76	1550
1 square centimeter =	10^{-4}	1	1.076×10^{-3}	0.1550
1 square foot =	9.290×10^{-2}	929.0	1	144
1 square inch =	6.452×10^{-4}	6.452	6.944×10^{-3}	1

1 square mile = 2.788×10^{7} ft^2 = 640 acres
1 barn = 10^{-28} m^2
1 acre = 43 560 ft^2
1 hectare = 10^{4} m^2 = 2.471 acres

Volume

	METER^3	cm^3	L	ft^3	in.^{3}
1 CUBIC METER	$= 1$	10^6	1000	35.31	6.102×10^4
1 cubic centimeter	$= 10^{-6}$	1	1.000×10^{-3}	3.531×10^{-5}	6.102×10^{-2}
1 liter	$= 1.000 \times 10^{-3}$	1000	1	3.531×10^{-2}	61.02
1 cubic foot	$= 2.832 \times 10^{-2}$	2.832×10^4	28.32	1	1728
1 cubic inch	$= 1.639 \times 10^{-5}$	16.39	1.639×10^{-2}	5.787×10^{-4}	1

1 U.S. fluid gallon = 4 U.S. fluid quarts = 8 U.S. pints = 128 U.S. fluid ounces = 231 in.^{3}
1 British imperial gallon = 277.4 in.^{3} = 1.201 U.S. fluid gallons

Mass

Quantities in the colored areas are not mass units but are often used as such. For example, when we write 1 kg "=" 2.205 lb, this means that a kilogram is a *mass* that *weighs* 2.205 pounds at a location where g has the standard value of 9.80665 m/s^2.

	g	KILOGRAM	slug	u	oz	lb	ton
1 gram	$= 1$	0.001	6.852×10^{-5}	6.022×10^{23}	3.527×10^{-2}	2.205×10^{-3}	1.102×10^{-6}
1 KILOGRAM	$= 1000$	1	6.852×10^{-2}	6.022×10^{26}	35.27	2.205	1.102×10^{-3}
1 slug	$= 1.459 \times 10^4$	14.59	1	8.786×10^{27}	514.8	32.17	1.609×10^{-2}
1 atomic mass unit	$= 1.661 \times 10^{-24}$	1.661×10^{-27}	1.138×10^{-28}	1	5.857×10^{-26}	3.662×10^{-27}	1.830×10^{-30}
1 ounce	$= 28.35$	2.835×10^{-2}	1.943×10^{-3}	1.718×10^{25}	1	6.250×10^{-2}	3.125×10^{-5}
1 pound	$= 453.6$	0.4536	3.108×10^{-2}	2.732×10^{26}	16	1	0.0005
1 ton	$= 9.072 \times 10^5$	907.2	62.16	5.463×10^{29}	3.2×10^4	2000	1

1 metric ton = 1000 kg

Density

Quantities in the colored areas are weight densities and, as such, are dimensionally different from mass densities. See the note for the mass table.

	slug/ft^3	KILOGRAM/ METER^3	g/cm^3	lb/ft^3	lb/in.^{3}
1 slug per foot^3	$= 1$	515.4	0.5154	32.17	1.862×10^{-2}
1 KILOGRAM per METER^3	$= 1.940 \times 10^{-3}$	1	0.001	6.243×10^{-2}	3.613×10^{-5}
1 gram per centimeter^3	$= 1.940$	1000	1	62.43	3.613×10^{-2}
1 pound per foot^3	$= 3.108 \times 10^{-2}$	16.02	16.02×10^{-2}	1	5.787×10^{-4}
1 pound per inch^3	$= 53.71$	2.768×10^4	27.68	1728	1

Time

	y	d	h	min	SECOND
1 year	$= 1$	365.25	8.766×10^3	5.259×10^5	3.156×10^7
1 day	$= 2.738 \times 10^{-3}$	1	24	1440	8.640×10^4
1 hour	$= 1.141 \times 10^{-4}$	4.167×10^{-2}	1	60	3600
1 minute	$= 1.901 \times 10^{-6}$	6.944×10^{-4}	1.667×10^{-2}	1	60
1 SECOND	$= 3.169 \times 10^{-8}$	1.157×10^{-5}	2.778×10^{-4}	1.667×10^{-2}	1

Speed

	ft/s	km/h	METER/SECOND	mi/h	cm/s
1 foot per second =	1	1.097	0.3048	0.6818	30.48
1 kilometer per hour =	0.9113	1	0.2778	0.6214	27.78
1 METER per SECOND =	3.281	3.6	1	2.237	100
1 mile per hour =	1.467	1.609	0.4470	1	44.70
1 centimeter per second =	3.281×10^{-2}	3.6×10^{-2}	0.01	2.237×10^{-2}	1

1 knot = 1 nautical mi/h = 1.688 ft/s 1 mi/min = 88.00 ft/s = 60.00 mi/h

Force

Force units in the colored areas are now little used. To clarify: 1 gram-force (= 1 gf) is the force of gravity that would act on an object whose mass is 1 gram at a location where g has the standard value of 9.80665 m/s^2.

	dyne	NEWTON	lb	pdl	gf	kgf
1 dyne =	1	10^{-5}	2.248×10^{-6}	7.233×10^{-5}	1.020×10^{-3}	1.020×10^{-6}
1 NEWTON =	10^5	1	0.2248	7.233	102.0	0.1020
1 pound =	4.448×10^5	4.448	1	32.17	453.6	0.4536
1 poundal =	1.383×10^4	0.1383	3.108×10^{-2}	1	14.10	1.410×10^2
1 gram-force =	980.7	9.807×10^{-3}	2.205×10^{-3}	7.093×10^{-2}	1	0.001
1 kilogram-force =	9.807×10^5	9.807	2.205	70.93	1000	1

1 ton = 2000 lb

Pressure

	atm	dyne/cm^2	inch of water	cm Hg	PASCAL	lb/in.^{2}	lb/ft^2
1 atmosphere =	1	1.013×10^6	406.8	76	1.013×10^5	14.70	2116
1 dyne per centimeter^2 =	9.869×10^{-7}	1	4.015×10^{-4}	7.501×10^{-5}	0.1	1.405×10^{-5}	2.089×10^{-3}
1 inch of water[a] at 4°C =	2.458×10^{-3}	2491	1	0.1868	249.1	3.613×10^{-2}	5.202
1 centimeter of mercury[a] at 0°C =	1.316×10^{-2}	1.333×10^4	5.353	1	1333	0.1934	27.85
1 PASCAL =	9.869×10^{-6}	10	4.015×10^{-3}	7.501×10^{-4}	1	1.450×10^{-4}	2.089×10^{-2}
1 pound per inch^2 =	6.805×10^{-2}	6.895×10^4	27.68	5.171	6.895×10^3	1	144
1 pound per foot^2 =	4.725×10^{-4}	478.8	0.1922	3.591×10^{-2}	47.88	6.944×10^{-3}	1

[a]Where the acceleration of gravity has the standard value of 9.80665 m/s^2.

1 bar = 10^6 dyne/cm^2 = 0.1 MPa 1 millibar = 10^3 dyne/cm^2 = 10^2 Pa 1 torr = 1 mm Hg

Energy, Work, Heat

Quantities in the colored areas are not energy units but are included for convenience. They arise from the relativistic mass–energy equivalence formula $E = mc^2$ and represent the energy released if a kilogram or unified atomic mass unit (u) is completely converted to energy (bottom two rows) or the mass that would be completely converted to one unit of energy (rightmost two columns).

	Btu	erg	ft·lb	hp·h	JOULE	cal	kW·h	eV	MeV	kg	u
1 British thermal unit =	1	1.055×10^{10}	777.9	3.929×10^{-4}	1055	252.0	2.930×10^{-4}	6.585×10^{21}	6.585×10^{15}	1.174×10^{-14}	7.070×10^{12}
1 erg =	9.481×10^{-11}	1	7.376×10^{-8}	3.725×10^{-14}	10^{-7}	2.389×10^{-8}	2.778×10^{-14}	6.242×10^{11}	6.242×10^{5}	1.113×10^{-24}	670.2
1 foot-pound =	1.285×10^{-3}	1.356×10^{7}	1	5.051×10^{-7}	1.356	0.3238	3.766×10^{-7}	8.464×10^{18}	8.464×10^{12}	1.509×10^{-17}	9.037×10^{9}
1 horsepower-hour =	2545	2.685×10^{13}	1.980×10^{6}	1	2.685×10^{6}	6.413×10^{5}	0.7457	1.676×10^{25}	1.676×10^{19}	2.988×10^{-11}	1.799×10^{16}
1 JOULE =	9.481×10^{-4}	10^{7}	0.7376	3.725×10^{-7}	1	0.2389	2.778×10^{-7}	6.242×10^{18}	6.242×10^{12}	1.113×10^{-17}	6.702×10^{9}
1 calorie =	3.968×10^{-3}	4.1868×10^{7}	3.088	1.560×10^{-6}	4.1868	1	1.163×10^{-6}	2.613×10^{19}	2.613×10^{13}	4.660×10^{-17}	2.806×10^{10}
1 kilowatt-hour =	3413	3.600×10^{13}	2.655×10^{6}	1.341	3.600×10^{6}	8.600×10^{5}	1	2.247×10^{25}	2.247×10^{19}	4.007×10^{-11}	2.413×10^{16}
1 electron-volt =	1.519×10^{-22}	1.602×10^{-12}	1.182×10^{-19}	5.967×10^{-26}	1.602×10^{-19}	3.827×10^{-20}	4.450×10^{-26}	1	10^{-6}	1.783×10^{-36}	1.074×10^{-9}
1 million electron-volts =	1.519×10^{-16}	1.602×10^{-6}	1.182×10^{-13}	5.967×10^{-20}	1.602×10^{-13}	3.827×10^{-14}	4.450×10^{-20}	10^{-6}	1	1.783×10^{-30}	1.074×10^{-3}
1 kilogram =	8.521×10^{13}	8.987×10^{23}	6.629×10^{16}	3.348×10^{10}	8.987×10^{16}	2.146×10^{16}	2.497×10^{10}	5.610×10^{35}	5.610×10^{29}	1	6.022×10^{26}
1 unified atomic mass unit =	1.415×10^{-13}	1.492×10^{-3}	1.101×10^{-10}	5.559×10^{-17}	1.492×10^{-10}	3.564×10^{-11}	4.146×10^{-17}	9.320×10^{8}	932.0	1.661×10^{-27}	1

Power

	Btu/h	ft·lb/s	hp	cal/s	kW	WATT
1 British thermal unit per hour =	1	0.2161	3.929×10^{-4}	6.998×10^{-2}	2.930×10^{-4}	0.2930
1 foot-pound per second =	4.628	1	1.818×10^{-3}	0.3239	1.356×10^{-3}	1.356
1 horsepower =	2545	550	1	178.1	0.7457	745.7
1 calorie per second =	14.29	3.088	5.615×10^{-3}	1	4.186×10^{-3}	4.186
1 kilowatt =	3413	737.6	1.341	238.9	1	1000
1 WATT =	3.413	0.7376	1.341×10^{-3}	0.2389	0.001	1

Magnetic Field

	gauss	TESLA	milligauss
1 gauss =	1	10^{-4}	1000
1 TESLA =	10^{4}	1	10^{7}
1 milligauss =	0.001	10^{-7}	1

1 tesla = 1 weber/meter^2

Magnetic Flux

	maxwell	WEBER
1 maxwell =	1	10^{-8}
1 WEBER =	10^{8}	1

APPENDIX E

MATHEMATICAL FORMULAS

Geometry

Circle of radius r: circumference $= 2\pi r$; area $= \pi r^2$.

Sphere of radius r: area $= 4\pi r^2$; volume $= \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$.

Right circular cylinder of radius r and height h:
area $= 2\pi r^2 + 2\pi rh$; volume $= \pi r^2 h$.

Triangle of base a and altitude h: area $= \frac{1}{2}ah$.

Quadratic Formula

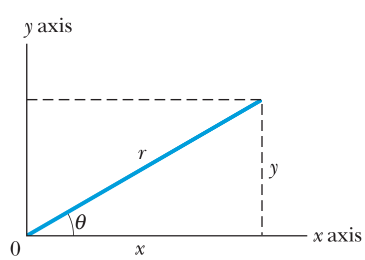
If $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$, then $x = \dfrac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$.

Trigonometric Functions of Angle θ

$\sin\theta = \dfrac{y}{r}$ $\quad\cos\theta = \dfrac{x}{r}$

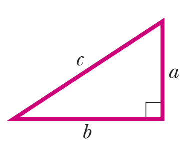
$\tan\theta = \dfrac{y}{x}$ $\quad\cot\theta = \dfrac{x}{y}$

$\sec\theta = \dfrac{r}{x}$ $\quad\csc\theta = \dfrac{r}{y}$



Pythagorean Theorem

In this right triangle,
$a^2 + b^2 = c^2$



Triangles

Angles are A, B, C

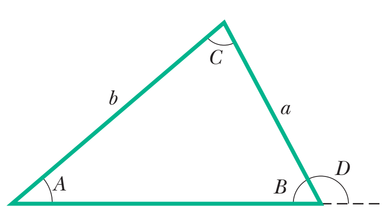
Opposite sides are a, b, c

Angles $A + B + C = 180°$

$\dfrac{\sin A}{a} = \dfrac{\sin B}{b} = \dfrac{\sin C}{c}$

$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab\cos C$

Exterior angle $D = A + C$



Mathematical Signs and Symbols

$=$ equals

$\approx$ equals approximately

$\sim$ is the order of magnitude of

$\neq$ is not equal to

$\equiv$ is identical to, is defined as

$>$ is greater than ($\gg$ is much greater than)

$<$ is less than ($\ll$ is much less than)

$\geq$ is greater than or equal to (or, is no less than)

$\leq$ is less than or equal to (or, is no more than)

$\pm$ plus or minus

$\propto$ is proportional to

Σ the sum of

x_{avg} the average value of x

Trigonometric Identities

$\sin(90° - \theta) = \cos\theta$

$\cos(90° - \theta) = \sin\theta$

$\sin\theta/\cos\theta = \tan\theta$

$\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta = 1$

$\sec^2\theta - \tan^2\theta = 1$

$\csc^2\theta - \cot^2\theta = 1$

$\sin 2\theta = 2\sin\theta\cos\theta$

$\cos 2\theta = \cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta = 2\cos^2\theta - 1 = 1 - 2\sin^2\theta$

$\sin(\alpha \pm \beta) = \sin\alpha\cos\beta \pm \cos\alpha\sin\beta$

$\cos(\alpha \pm \beta) = \cos\alpha\cos\beta \mp \sin\alpha\sin\beta$

$\tan(\alpha \pm \beta) = \dfrac{\tan\alpha \pm \tan\beta}{1 \mp \tan\alpha\tan\beta}$

$\sin\alpha \pm \sin\beta = 2\sin\frac{1}{2}(\alpha \pm \beta)\cos\frac{1}{2}(\alpha \mp \beta)$

$\cos\alpha + \cos\beta = 2\cos\frac{1}{2}(\alpha + \beta)\cos\frac{1}{2}(\alpha - \beta)$

$\cos\alpha - \cos\beta = -2\sin\frac{1}{2}(\alpha + \beta)\sin\frac{1}{2}(\alpha - \beta)$

Binomial Theorem

$$(1 + x)^n = 1 + \frac{nx}{1!} + \frac{n(n-1)x^2}{2!} + \cdots \qquad (x^2 < 1)$$

Exponential Expansion

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots$$

Logarithmic Expansion

$$\ln(1+x) = x - \tfrac{1}{2}x^2 + \tfrac{1}{3}x^3 - \cdots \qquad (|x| < 1)$$

Trigonometric Expansions (θ in radians)

$$\sin\theta = \theta - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^5}{5!} - \cdots$$

$$\cos\theta = 1 - \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + \frac{\theta^4}{4!} - \cdots$$

$$\tan\theta = \theta + \frac{\theta^3}{3} + \frac{2\theta^5}{15} + \cdots$$

Cramer's Rule

Two simultaneous equations in unknowns x and y,

$$a_1x + b_1y = c_1 \quad \text{and} \quad a_2x + b_2y = c_2,$$

have the solutions

$$x = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} c_1 & b_1 \\ c_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{c_1b_2 - c_2b_1}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1}$$

and

$$y = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & c_2 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{a_1c_2 - a_2c_1}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1}.$$

Products of Vectors

Let $\hat{\mathrm{i}}$, $\hat{\mathrm{j}}$, and $\hat{\mathrm{k}}$ be unit vectors in the x, y, and z directions. Then

$$\hat{\mathrm{i}}\cdot\hat{\mathrm{i}} = \hat{\mathrm{j}}\cdot\hat{\mathrm{j}} = \hat{\mathrm{k}}\cdot\hat{\mathrm{k}} = 1, \quad \hat{\mathrm{i}}\cdot\hat{\mathrm{j}} = \hat{\mathrm{j}}\cdot\hat{\mathrm{k}} = \hat{\mathrm{k}}\cdot\hat{\mathrm{i}} = 0,$$

$$\hat{\mathrm{i}}\times\hat{\mathrm{i}} = \hat{\mathrm{j}}\times\hat{\mathrm{j}} = \hat{\mathrm{k}}\times\hat{\mathrm{k}} = 0,$$

$$\hat{\mathrm{i}}\times\hat{\mathrm{j}} = \hat{\mathrm{k}}, \quad \hat{\mathrm{j}}\times\hat{\mathrm{k}} = \hat{\mathrm{i}}, \quad \hat{\mathrm{k}}\times\hat{\mathrm{i}} = \hat{\mathrm{j}}$$

Any vector $\vec{a}$ with components a_x, a_y, and a_z along the x, y, and z axes can be written as

$$\vec{a} = a_x\hat{\mathrm{i}} + a_y\hat{\mathrm{j}} + a_z\hat{\mathrm{k}}.$$

Let $\vec{a}$, $\vec{b}$, and $\vec{c}$ be arbitrary vectors with magnitudes a, b, and c. Then

$$\vec{a}\times(\vec{b}+\vec{c}) = (\vec{a}\times\vec{b}) + (\vec{a}\times\vec{c})$$

$$(s\vec{a})\times\vec{b} = \vec{a}\times(s\vec{b}) = s(\vec{a}\times\vec{b}) \qquad (s = \text{a scalar}).$$

Let θ be the smaller of the two angles between $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$. Then

$$\vec{a}\cdot\vec{b} = \vec{b}\cdot\vec{a} = a_xb_x + a_yb_y + a_zb_z = ab\cos\theta$$

$$\vec{a}\times\vec{b} = -\vec{b}\times\vec{a} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\mathrm{i}} & \hat{\mathrm{j}} & \hat{\mathrm{k}} \\ a_x & a_y & a_z \\ b_x & b_y & b_z \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \hat{\mathrm{i}}\begin{vmatrix} a_y & a_z \\ b_y & b_z \end{vmatrix} - \hat{\mathrm{j}}\begin{vmatrix} a_x & a_z \\ b_x & b_z \end{vmatrix} + \hat{\mathrm{k}}\begin{vmatrix} a_x & a_y \\ b_x & b_y \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (a_yb_z - b_ya_z)\hat{\mathrm{i}} + (a_zb_x - b_za_x)\hat{\mathrm{j}} + (a_xb_y - b_xa_y)\hat{\mathrm{k}}$$

$$|\vec{a}\times\vec{b}| = ab\sin\theta$$

$$\vec{a}\cdot(\vec{b}\times\vec{c}) = \vec{b}\cdot(\vec{c}\times\vec{a}) = \vec{c}\cdot(\vec{a}\times\vec{b})$$

$$\vec{a}\times(\vec{b}\times\vec{c}) = (\vec{a}\cdot\vec{c})\vec{b} - (\vec{a}\cdot\vec{b})\vec{c}$$

Derivatives and Integrals

In what follows, the letters u and v stand for any functions of x, and a and m are constants. To each of the indefinite integrals should be added an arbitrary constant of integration. The *Handbook of Chemistry and Physics* (CRC Press Inc.) gives a more extensive tabulation.

1. $\frac{dx}{dx} = 1$

2. $\frac{d}{dx}(au) = a\frac{du}{dx}$

3. $\frac{d}{dx}(u + v) = \frac{du}{dx} + \frac{dv}{dx}$

4. $\frac{d}{dx}x^m = mx^{m-1}$

5. $\frac{d}{dx}\ln x = \frac{1}{x}$

6. $\frac{d}{dx}(uv) = u\frac{dv}{dx} + v\frac{du}{dx}$

7. $\frac{d}{dx}e^x = e^x$

8. $\frac{d}{dx}\sin x = \cos x$

9. $\frac{d}{dx}\cos x = -\sin x$

10. $\frac{d}{dx}\tan x = \sec^2 x$

11. $\frac{d}{dx}\cot x = -\csc^2 x$

12. $\frac{d}{dx}\sec x = \tan x \sec x$

13. $\frac{d}{dx}\csc x = -\cot x \csc x$

14. $\frac{d}{dx}e^u = e^u\frac{du}{dx}$

15. $\frac{d}{dx}\sin u = \cos u\frac{du}{dx}$

16. $\frac{d}{dx}\cos u = -\sin u\frac{du}{dx}$

1. $\int dx = x$

2. $\int au\,dx = a\int u\,dx$

3. $\int (u + v)\,dx = \int u\,dx + \int v\,dx$

4. $\int x^m\,dx = \frac{x^{m+1}}{m+1}\ (m \neq -1)$

5. $\int \frac{dx}{x} = \ln|x|$

6. $\int u\frac{dv}{dx}\,dx = uv - \int v\frac{du}{dx}\,dx$

7. $\int e^x\,dx = e^x$

8. $\int \sin x\,dx = -\cos x$

9. $\int \cos x\,dx = \sin x$

10. $\int \tan x\,dx = \ln|\sec x|$

11. $\int \sin^2 x\,dx = \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{1}{4}\sin 2x$

12. $\int e^{-ax}\,dx = -\frac{1}{a}e^{-ax}$

13. $\int xe^{-ax}\,dx = -\frac{1}{a^2}(ax + 1)\,e^{-ax}$

14. $\int x^2e^{-ax}\,dx = -\frac{1}{a^3}(a^2x^2 + 2ax + 2)e^{-ax}$

15. $\int_0^\infty x^n e^{-ax}\,dx = \frac{n!}{a^{n+1}}$

16. $\int_0^\infty x^{2n}e^{-ax^2}\,dx = \frac{1\cdot3\cdot5\cdots(2n-1)}{2^{n+1}a^n}\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{a}}$

17. $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}} = \ln(x + \sqrt{x^2 + a^2})$

18. $\int \frac{x\,dx}{(x^2 + a^2)^{3/2}} = -\frac{1}{(x^2 + a^2)^{1/2}}$

19. $\int \frac{dx}{(x^2 + a^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{x}{a^2(x^2 + a^2)^{1/2}}$

20. $\int_0^\infty x^{2n+1}\,e^{-ax^2}\,dx = \frac{n!}{2a^{n+1}}\quad (a > 0)$

21. $\int \frac{x\,dx}{x + d} = x - d\ln(x + d)$

APPENDIX F

PROPERTIES OF THE ELEMENTS

All physical properties are for a pressure of 1 atm unless otherwise specified.

Element	Symbol	Atomic Number Z	Molar Mass, g/mol	Density, g/cm^3 at 20°C	Melting Point, °C	Boiling Point, °C	Specific Heat, J/(g·°C) at 25°C
Actinium	Ac	89	(227)	10.06	1323	(3473)	0.092
Aluminum	Al	13	26.9815	2.699	660	2450	0.900
Americium	Am	95	(243)	13.67	1541	—	—
Antimony	Sb	51	121.75	6.691	630.5	1380	0.205
Argon	Ar	18	39.948	1.6626×10^{-3}	−189.4	−185.8	0.523
Arsenic	As	33	74.9216	5.78	817 (28 atm)	613	0.331
Astatine	At	85	(210)	—	(302)	—	—
Barium	Ba	56	137.34	3.594	729	1640	0.205
Berkelium	Bk	97	(247)	14.79	—	—	—
Beryllium	Be	4	9.0122	1.848	1287	2770	1.83
Bismuth	Bi	83	208.980	9.747	271.37	1560	0.122
Bohrium	Bh	107	262.12	—	—	—	—
Boron	B	5	10.811	2.34	2030	—	1.11
Bromine	Br	35	79.909	3.12 (liquid)	−7.2	58	0.293
Cadmium	Cd	48	112.40	8.65	321.03	765	0.226
Calcium	Ca	20	40.08	1.55	838	1440	0.624
Californium	Cf	98	(251)	—	—	—	—
Carbon	C	6	12.01115	2.26	3727	4830	0.691
Cerium	Ce	58	140.12	6.768	804	3470	0.188
Cesium	Cs	55	132.905	1.873	28.40	690	0.243
Chlorine	Cl	17	35.453	3.214×10^{-3} (0°C)	−101	−34.7	0.486
Chromium	Cr	24	51.996	7.19	1857	2665	0.448
Cobalt	Co	27	58.9332	8.85	1495	2900	0.423
Copernicium	Cn	112	(285)	—	—	—	—
Copper	Cu	29	63.54	8.96	1083.40	2595	0.385
Curium	Cm	96	(247)	13.3	—	—	—
Darmstadtium	Ds	110	(271)	—	—	—	—
Dubnium	Db	105	262.114	—	—	—	—
Dysprosium	Dy	66	162.50	8.55	1409	2330	0.172
Einsteinium	Es	99	(254)	—	—	—	—
Erbium	Er	68	167.26	9.15	1522	2630	0.167
Europium	Eu	63	151.96	5.243	817	1490	0.163
Fermium	Fm	100	(237)	—	—	—	—
Flerovium*	Fl	114	(289)	—	—	—	—
Fluorine	F	9	18.9984	1.696×10^{-3} (0°C)	−219.6	−188.2	0.753
Francium	Fr	87	(223)	—	(27)	—	—
Gadolinium	Gd	64	157.25	7.90	1312	2730	0.234
Gallium	Ga	31	69.72	5.907	29.75	2237	0.377
Germanium	Ge	32	72.59	5.323	937.25	2830	0.322
Gold	Au	79	196.967	19.32	1064.43	2970	0.131

Element	Symbol	Atomic Number Z	Molar Mass, g/mol	Density, g/cm^3 at 20°C	Melting Point, °C	Boiling Point, °C	Specific Heat, J/(g·°C) at 25°C
Hafnium	Hf	72	178.49	13.31	2227	5400	0.144
Hassium	Hs	108	(265)	—	—	—	—
Helium	He	2	4.0026	0.1664×10^{-3}	−269.7	−268.9	5.23
Holmium	Ho	67	164.930	8.79	1470	2330	0.165
Hydrogen	H	1	1.00797	0.08375×10^{-3}	−259.19	−252.7	14.4
Indium	In	49	114.82	7.31	156.634	2000	0.233
Iodine	I	53	126.9044	4.93	113.7	183	0.218
Iridium	Ir	77	192.2	22.5	2447	(5300)	0.130
Iron	Fe	26	55.847	7.874	1536.5	3000	0.447
Krypton	Kr	36	83.80	3.488×10^{-3}	−157.37	−152	0.247
Lanthanum	La	57	138.91	6.189	920	3470	0.195
Lawrencium	Lr	103	(257)	—	—	—	—
Lead	Pb	82	207.19	11.35	327.45	1725	0.129
Lithium	Li	3	6.939	0.534	180.55	1300	3.58
Livermorium*	Lv	116	(293)	—	—	—	—
Lutetium	Lu	71	174.97	9.849	1663	1930	0.155
Magnesium	Mg	12	24.312	1.738	650	1107	1.03
Manganese	Mn	25	54.9380	7.44	1244	2150	0.481
Meitnerium	Mt	109	(266)	—	—	—	—
Mendelevium	Md	101	(256)	—	—	—	—
Mercury	Hg	80	200.59	13.55	−38.87	357	0.138
Molybdenum	Mo	42	95.94	10.22	2617	5560	0.251
Neodymium	Nd	60	144.24	7.007	1016	3180	0.188
Neon	Ne	10	20.183	0.8387×10^{-3}	−248.597	−246.0	1.03
Neptunium	Np	93	(237)	20.25	637	—	1.26
Nickel	Ni	28	58.71	8.902	1453	2730	0.444
Niobium	Nb	41	92.906	8.57	2468	4927	0.264
Nitrogen	N	7	14.0067	1.1649×10^{-3}	−210	−195.8	1.03
Nobelium	No	102	(255)	—	—	—	—
Osmium	Os	76	190.2	22.59	3027	5500	0.130
Oxygen	O	8	15.9994	1.3318×10^{-3}	−218.80	−183.0	0.913
Palladium	Pd	46	106.4	12.02	1552	3980	0.243
Phosphorus	P	15	30.9738	1.83	44.25	280	0.741
Platinum	Pt	78	195.09	21.45	1769	4530	0.134
Plutonium	Pu	94	(244)	19.8	640	3235	0.130
Polonium	Po	84	(210)	9.32	254	—	—
Potassium	K	19	39.102	0.862	63.20	760	0.758
Praseodymium	Pr	59	140.907	6.773	931	3020	0.197
Promethium	Pm	61	(145)	7.22	(1027)	—	—
Protactinium	Pa	91	(231)	15.37 (estimated)	(1230)	—	—
Radium	Ra	88	(226)	5.0	700	—	—
Radon	Rn	86	(222)	9.96×10^{-3} (0°C)	(−71)	−61.8	0.092
Rhenium	Re	75	186.2	21.02	3180	5900	0.134
Rhodium	Rh	45	102.905	12.41	1963	4500	0.243
Roentgenium	Rg	111	(280)	—	—	—	—
Rubidium	Rb	37	85.47	1.532	39.49	688	0.364
Ruthenium	Ru	44	101.107	12.37	2250	4900	0.239
Rutherfordium	Rf	104	261.11	—	—	—	—

Element	Symbol	Atomic Number Z	Molar Mass, g/mol	Density, g/cm^3 at 20°C	Melting Point, °C	Boiling Point, °C	Specific Heat, J/(g·°C) at 25°C
Samarium	Sm	62	150.35	7.52	1072	1630	0.197
Scandium	Sc	21	44.956	2.99	1539	2730	0.569
Seaborgium	Sg	106	263.118	—	—	—	—
Selenium	Se	34	78.96	4.79	221	685	0.318
Silicon	Si	14	28.086	2.33	1412	2680	0.712
Silver	Ag	47	107.870	10.49	960.8	2210	0.234
Sodium	Na	11	22.9898	0.9712	97.85	892	1.23
Strontium	Sr	38	87.62	2.54	768	1380	0.737
Sulfur	S	16	32.064	2.07	119.0	444.6	0.707
Tantalum	Ta	73	180.948	16.6	3014	5425	0.138
Technetium	Tc	43	(99)	11.46	2200	—	0.209
Tellurium	Te	52	127.60	6.24	449.5	990	0.201
Terbium	Tb	65	158.924	8.229	1357	2530	0.180
Thallium	Tl	81	204.37	11.85	304	1457	0.130
Thorium	Th	90	(232)	11.72	1755	(3850)	0.117
Thulium	Tm	69	168.934	9.32	1545	1720	0.159
Tin	Sn	50	118.69	7.2984	231.868	2270	0.226
Titanium	Ti	22	47.90	4.54	1670	3260	0.523
Tungsten	W	74	183.85	19.3	3380	5930	0.134
Unnamed	Uut	113	(284)	—	—	—	—
Unnamed	Uup	115	(288)	—	—	—	—
Unnamed	Uus	117	—	—	—	—	—
Unnamed	Uuo	118	(294)	—	—	—	—
Uranium	U	92	(238)	18.95	1132	3818	0.117
Vanadium	V	23	50.942	6.11	1902	3400	0.490
Xenon	Xe	54	131.30	5.495×10^{-3}	−111.79	−108	0.159
Ytterbium	Yb	70	173.04	6.965	824	1530	0.155
Yttrium	Y	39	88.905	4.469	1526	3030	0.297
Zinc	Zn	30	65.37	7.133	419.58	906	0.389
Zirconium	Zr	40	91.22	6.506	1852	3580	0.276

The values in parentheses in the column of molar masses are the mass numbers of the longest-lived isotopes of those elements that are radioactive. Melting points and boiling points in parentheses are uncertain.

The data for gases are valid only when these are in their usual molecular state, such as H_2, He, O_2, Ne, etc. The specific heats of the gases are the values at constant pressure.

Source: Adapted from J. Emsley, *The Elements,* 3rd ed., 1998, Clarendon Press, Oxford. See also www.webelements.com for the latest values and newest elements.

*The names and symbols for elements 114 (Flerovium, Fl) and 116 (Livermorium, Lv) have been suggested but are not official.

APPENDIX G

PERIODIC TABLE OF THE ELEMENTS

Metals

Metalloids

Nonmetals

THE HORIZONTAL PERIODS

	Alkali metals IA	IIA	IIIB	IVB	VB	VIB	VIIB	VIIIB	VIIIB	VIIIB	IB	IIB	IIIA	IVA	VA	VIA	VIIA	Noble gases 0
1	1 H																	2 He
2	3 Li	4 Be											5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
3	11 Na	12 Mg											13 Al	14 Si	15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
4	19 K	20 Ca	21 Sc	22 Ti	23 V	24 Cr	25 Mn	26 Fe	27 Co	28 Ni	29 Cu	30 Zn	31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
5	37 Rb	38 Sr	39 Y	40 Zr	41 Nb	42 Mo	43 Tc	44 Ru	45 Rh	46 Pd	47 Ag	48 Cd	49 In	50 Sn	51 Sb	52 Te	53 I	54 Xe
6	55 Cs	56 Ba	57-71 *	72 Hf	73 Ta	74 W	75 Re	76 Os	77 Ir	78 Pt	79 Au	80 Hg	81 Tl	82 Pb	83 Bi	84 Po	85 At	86 Rn
7	87 Fr	88 Ra	89-103 †	104 Rf	105 Db	106 Sg	107 Bh	108 Hs	109 Mt	110 Ds	111 Rg	112 Cn	113	114 Fl	115	116 Lv	117	118

Transition metals (groups IIIB–IIB)

Inner transition metals

Lanthanide series *	57 La	58 Ce	59 Pr	60 Nd	61 Pm	62 Sm	63 Eu	64 Gd	65 Tb	66 Dy	67 Ho	68 Er	69 Tm	70 Yb	71 Lu
Actinide series †	89 Ac	90 Th	91 Pa	92 U	93 Np	94 Pu	95 Am	96 Cm	97 Bk	98 Cf	99 Es	100 Fm	101 Md	102 No	103 Lr

Evidence for the discovery of elements 113 through 118 has been reported. See www.webelements.com for the latest information and newest elements. The names and symbols for elements 114 and 116 have been suggested but are not official.

ANSWERS

To Checkpoints and Odd-Numbered Questions and Problems

Chapter 1

P **1.** (a) 4.00×10^4 km; (b) 5.10×10^8 km^2; (c) 1.08×10^{12} km^3 **3.** (a) 10^9 μm; (b) 10^{-4}; (c) 9.1×10^5 μm **5.** (a) 160 rods; (b) 40 chains **7.** 1.1×10^3 acre-feet **9.** 1.9×10^{22} cm^3 **11.** (a) 1.43; (b) 0.864 **13.** (a) 495 s; (b) 141 s; (c) 198 s; (d) -245 s **15.** 1.21×10^{12} μs **17.** C, D, A, B, E; the important criterion is the consistency of the daily variation, not its magnitude **19.** 5.2×10^6 m **21.** 9.0×10^{49} atoms **23.** (a) 1×10^3 kg; (b) 158 kg/s **25.** 1.9×10^5 kg **27.** (a) 1.18×10^{-29} m^3; (b) 0.282 nm **29.** 1.75×10^3 kg **31.** 1.43 kg/min **33.** (a) 293 U.S. bushels; (b) 3.81×10^3 U.S. bushels **35.** (a) 22 pecks; (b) 5.5 Imperial bushels; (c) 200 L **37.** 8×10^2 km **39.** (a) 18.8 gallons; (b) 22.5 gallons **41.** 0.3 cord **43.** 3.8 mg/s **45.** (a) yes; (b) 8.6 universe seconds **47.** 0.12 AU/min **49.** (a) 3.88; (b) 7.65; (c) 156 ken^3; (d) 1.19×10^3 m^3 **51.** (a) 3.9 m, 4.8 m; (b) 3.9×10^3 mm, 4.8×10^3 mm; (c) 2.2 m^3, 4.2 m^3 **53.** (a) 4.9×10^{-6} pc; (b) 1.6×10^{-5} ly **55.** (a) 3 nebuchadnezzars, 1 methuselah; (b) 0.37 standard bottle; (c) 0.26 L **57.** 10.7 habaneros **59.** 700 to 1500 oysters

Chapter 2

CP **1.** b and c **2.** (check the derivative dx/dt) (a) 1 and 4; (b) 2 and 3 **3.** (a) plus; (b) minus; (c) minus; (d) plus **4.** 1 and 4 ($a = d^2x/dt^2$ must be constant) **5.** (a) plus (upward displacement on y axis); (b) minus (downward displacement on y axis); (c) $a = -g = -9.8$ m/s^2

Q **1.** (a) negative; (b) positive; (c) yes; (d) positive; (e) constant **3.** (a) all tie; (b) 4, tie of 1 and 2, then 3 **5.** (a) positive direction; (b) negative direction; (c) 3 and 5; (d) 2 and 6 tie, then 3 and 5 tie, then 1 and 4 tie (zero) **7.** (a) D; (b) E **9.** (a) 3, 2, 1; (b) 1, 2, 3; (c) all tie; (d) 1, 2, 3 **11.** 1 and 2 tie, then 3

P **1.** 13 m **3.** (a) $+40$ km/h; (b) 40 km/h **5.** (a) 0; (b) -2 m; (c) 0; (d) 12 m; (e) $+12$ m; (f) $+7$ m/s **7.** 60 km **9.** 1.4 m **11.** 128 km/h **13.** (a) 73 km/h; (b) 68 km/h; (c) 70 km/h; (d) 0 **15.** (a) -6 m/s; (b) $-x$ direction; (c) 6 m/s; (d) decreasing; (e) 2 s; (f) no **17.** (a) 28.5 cm/s; (b) 18.0 cm/s; (c) 40.5 cm/s; (d) 28.1 cm/s; (e) 30.3 cm/s **19.** -20 m/s^2 **21.** (a) 1.10 m/s; (b) 6.11 mm/s^2; (c) 1.47 m/s; (d) 6.11 mm/s^2 **23.** 1.62×10^{15} m/s^2 **25.** (a) 30 s; (b) 300 m **27.** (a) $+1.6$ m/s; (b) $+18$ m/s **29.** (a) 10.6 m; (b) 41.5 s **31.** (a) 3.1×10^6 s; (b) 4.6×10^{13} m **33.** (a) 3.56 m/s^2; (b) 8.43 m/s **35.** 0.90 m/s^2 **37.** (a) 4.0 m/s^2; (b) $+x$ **39.** (a) -2.5 m/s^2; (b) 1; (d) 0; (e) 2 **41.** 40 m **43.** (a) 0.994 m/s^2 **45.** (a) 31 m/s; (b) 6.4 s **47.** (a) 29.4 m; (b) 2.45 s **49.** (a) 5.4 s; (b) 41 m/s **51.** (a) 20 m; (b) 59 m **53.** 4.0 m/s **55.** (a) 857 m/s^2; (b) up **57.** (a) 1.26×10^3 m/s^2; (b) up **59.** (a) 89 cm; (b) 22 cm **61.** 20.4 m **63.** 2.34 m **65.** (a) 2.25 m/s; (b) 3.90 m/s **67.** 0.56 m/s **69.** 100 m **71.** (a) 2.00 s; (b) 12 cm; (c) -9.00 cm/s^2; (d) right; (e) left; (f) 3.46 s **73.** (a) 82 m; (b) 19 m/s **75.** (a) 0.74 s; (b) 6.2 m/s^2 **77.** (a) 3.1 m/s^2; (b) 45 m; (c) 13 s **79.** 17 m/s **81.** $+47$ m/s **83.** (a) 1.23 cm; (b) 4 times; (c) 9 times; (d) 16 times; (e) 25 times **85.** 25 km/h **87.** 1.2 h **89.** $4H$ **91.** (a) 3.2 s; (b) 1.3 s **93.** (a) 8.85 m/s; (b) 1.00 m **95.** (a) 2.0 m/s^2; (b) 12 m/s; (c) 45 m **97.** (a) 48.5 m/s; (b) 4.95 s; (c) 34.3 m/s; (d) 3.50 s **99.** 22.0 m/s **101.** (a) $v = (v_0^2 + 2gh)^{0.5}$; (b) $t = [(v_0^2 + 2gh)^{0.5} - v_0]/g$; (c) same as (a); (d) $t = [(v_0^2 + 2gh)^{0.5} + v_0]/g$, greater **103.** 414 ms **105.** 90 m **107.** 0.556 s **109.** (a) 0.28 m/s^2; (b) 0.28 m/s^2 **111.** (a) 10.2 s; (b) 10.0 m **113.** (a) 5.44 s; (b) 53.3 m/s; (c) 5.80 m **115.** 2.3 cm/min **117.** 0.15 m/s **119.** (a) 1.0 cm/s; (b) 1.6 cm/s, 1.1 cm/s, 0; (c) -0.79 cm/s^2; (d) 0, -0.87 cm/s^2, -1.2 cm/s^2

Chapter 3

CP **1.** (a) 7 m ($\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ are in same direction); (b) 1 m ($\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ are in opposite directions) **2.** c, d, f (components must be head to tail; $\vec{a}$ must extend from tail of one component to head of the other) **3.** (a) $+, +$; (b) $+, -$; (c) $+, +$ (draw vector from tail of $\vec{d}_1$ to head of $\vec{d}_2$) **4.** (a) 90°; (b) 0° (vectors are parallel—same direction); (c) 180° (vectors are antiparallel—opposite directions) **5.** (a) 0° or 180°; (b) 90°

Q **1.** yes, when the vectors are in same direction **3.** Either the sequence $\vec{d}_2, \vec{d}_1$ or the sequence $\vec{d}_2, \vec{d}_2, \vec{d}_3$ **5.** all but (e) **7.** (a) yes; (b) yes; (c) no **9.** (a) $+x$ for (1), $+z$ for (2), $+z$ for (3); (b) $-x$ for (1), $-z$ for (2), $-z$ for (3) **11.** $\vec{s}, \vec{p}, \vec{r}$ or $\vec{p}, \vec{s}, \vec{r}$ **13.** Correct: c, d, f, h. Incorrect: a (cannot dot a vector with a scalar), b (cannot cross a vector with a scalar), e, g, i, j (cannot add a scalar and a vector).

P **1.** (a) -2.5 m; (b) -6.9 m **3.** (a) 47.2 m; (b) 122° **5.** (a) 156 km; (b) 39.8° west of due north **7.** (a) parallel; (b) antiparallel; (c) perpendicular **9.** (a) $(3.0\text{ m})\hat{i} - (2.0\text{ m})\hat{j} + (5.0\text{ m})\hat{k}$; (b) $(5.0\text{ m})\hat{i} - (4.0\text{ m})\hat{j} - (3.0\text{ m})\hat{k}$; (c) $(-5.0\text{ m})\hat{i} + (4.0\text{ m})\hat{j} + (3.0\text{ m})\hat{k}$ **11.** (a) $(-9.0\text{ m})\hat{i} + (10\text{ m})\hat{j}$; (b) 13 m; (c) 132° **13.** 4.74 km **15.** (a) 1.59 m; (b) 12.1 m; (c) 12.2 m; (d) 82.5° **17.** (a) 38 m; (b) $-37.5°$; (c) 130 m; (d) 1.2°; (e) 62 m; (f) 130° **19.** 5.39 m at 21.8° left of forward **21.** (a) -70.0 cm; (b) 80.0 cm; (c) 141 cm; (d) $-172°$ **23.** 3.2 **25.** 2.6 km **27.** (a) $8\hat{i} + 16\hat{j}$; (b) $2\hat{i} + 4\hat{j}$ **29.** (a) 7.5 cm; (b) 90°; (c) 8.6 cm; (d) 48° **31.** (a) 9.51 m; (b) 14.1 m; (c) 13.4 m; (d) 10.5 m **33.** (a) 12; (b) $+z$; (c) 12; (d) $-z$; (e) 12; (f) $+z$ **35.** (a) -18.8 units; (b) 26.9 units, $+z$ direction **37.** (a) -21; (b) -9; (c) $5\hat{i} - 11\hat{j} - 9\hat{k}$ **39.** 70.5° **41.** 22° **43.** (a) 3.00 m; (b) 0; (c) 3.46 m; (d) 2.00 m; (e) -5.00 m; (f) 8.66 m; (g) -6.67; (h) 4.33 **45.** (a) -83.4; (b) $(1.14 \times 10^3)\hat{k}$; (c) 1.14×10^3, θ not defined, $\phi = 0°$; (d) 90.0°; (e) $-5.14\hat{i} + 6.13\hat{j} + 3.00\hat{k}$; (f) 8.54, $\theta = 130°$, $\phi = 69.4°$ **47.** (a) 140°; (b) 90.0°; (c) 99.1° **49.** (a) 103 km; (b) 60.9° north of due west **51.** (a) 27.8 m; (b) 13.4 m **53.** (a) 30; (b) 52 **55.** (a) -2.83 m; (b) -2.83 m; (c) 5.00 m; (d) 0; (e) 3.00 m; (f) 5.20 m; (g) 5.17 m; (h) 2.37 m; (i) 5.69 m; (j) 25° north of due east; (k) 5.69 m; (l) 25° south of due west **57.** 4.1 **59.** (a) $(9.19\text{ m})\hat{i}' + (7.71\text{ m})\hat{j}'$; (b) $(14.0\text{ m})\hat{i}' + (3.41\text{ m})\hat{j}'$ **61.** (a) $11\hat{i} + 5.0\hat{j} - 7.0\hat{k}$; (b) 120°; (c) -4.9; (d) 7.3 **63.** (a) 3.0 m^2; (b) 52 m^3; (c) $(11\text{ m}^2)\hat{i} + (9.0\text{ m}^2)\hat{j} + (3.0\text{ m}^2)\hat{k}$ **65.** (a) $(-40\hat{i} - 20\hat{j} + 25\hat{k})$ m; (b) 45 m **67.** (a) 0; (b) 0; (c) -1; (d) west; (e) up; (f) west **69.** (a) 168 cm; (b) 32.5° **71.** (a) 15 m; (b) south; (c) 6.0 m; (d) north **73.** (a) $2\hat{k}$; (b) 26; (c) 46; (d) 5.81 **75.** (a) up; (b) 0; (c) south; (d) 1; (e) 0 **77.** (a) $(1300\text{ m})\hat{i} + (2200\text{ m})\hat{j} - (410\text{ m})\hat{k}$; (b) 2.56×10^3 m **79.** 8.4

Chapter 4

CP **1.** (draw $\vec{v}$ tangent to path, tail on path) (a) first; (b) third **2.** (take second derivative with respect to time) (1) and (3) a_x and a_y are both constant and thus $\vec{a}$ is constant; (2) and (4) a_y is constant but a_x is not, thus $\vec{a}$ is not **3.** yes **4.** (a) v_x constant; (b) v_y initially positive, decreases to zero, and then becomes progressively more negative; (c) $a_x = 0$ throughout; (d) $a_y = -g$ throughout **5.** (a) $-(4\text{ m/s})\hat{i}$; (b) $-(8\text{ m/s}^2)\hat{j}$

Q **1.** a and c tie, then b **3.** decreases **5.** a, b, c **7.** (a) 0; (b) 350 km/h; (c) 350 km/h; (d) same (nothing changed about the vertical motion) **9.** (a) all tie; (b) all tie; (c) 3, 2, 1; (d) 3, 2, 1 **11.** 2, then 1 and 4 tie, then 3 **13.** (a) yes; (b) no; (c) yes **15.** (a) decreases; (b) increases **17.** maximum height

P **1.** (a) 6.2 m **3.** $(-2.0\text{ m})\hat{i} + (6.0\text{ m})\hat{j} - (10\text{ m})\hat{k}$ **5.** (a) 7.59 km/h; (b) 22.5° east of due north **7.** $(-0.70\text{ m/s})\hat{i} + (1.4\text{ m/s})\hat{j} - (0.40\text{ m/s})\hat{k}$ **9.** (a) 0.83 cm/s; (b) 0°; (c) 0.11 m/s; (d) −63° **11.** (a) $(6.00\text{ m})\hat{i} - (106\text{ m})\hat{j}$; (b) $(19.0\text{ m/s})\hat{i} - (224\text{ m/s})\hat{j}$; (c) $(24.0\text{ m/s}^2)\hat{i} - (336\text{ m/s}^2)\hat{j}$; (d) −85.2° **13.** (a) $(8\text{ m/s}^2)t\hat{j} + (1\text{ m/s})\hat{k}$; (b) $(8\text{ m/s}^2)\hat{j}$ **15.** (a) $(-1.50\text{ m/s})\hat{j}$; (b) $(4.50\text{ m})\hat{i} - (2.25\text{ m})\hat{j}$ **17.** $(32\text{ m/s})\hat{i}$ **19.** (a) $(72.0\text{ m})\hat{i} + (90.7\text{ m})\hat{j}$; (b) 49.5° **21.** (a) 18 cm; (b) 1.9 m **23.** (a) 3.03 s; (b) 758 m; (c) 29.7 m/s **25.** 43.1 m/s (155 km/h) **27.** (a) 10.0 s; (b) 897 m **29.** 78.5° **31.** 3.35 m **33.** (a) 202 m/s; (b) 806 m; (c) 161 m/s; (d) −171 m/s **35.** 4.84 cm **37.** (a) 1.60 m; (b) 6.86 m; (c) 2.86 m **39.** (a) 32.3 m; (b) 21.9 m/s; (c) 40.4°; (d) below **41.** 55.5° **43.** (a) 11 m; (b) 23 m; (c) 17 m/s; (d) 63° **45.** (a) ramp; (b) 5.82 m; (c) 31.0° **47.** (a) yes; (b) 2.56 m **49.** (a) 31°; (b) 63° **51.** (a) 2.3°; (b) 1.1 m; (c) 18° **53.** (a) 75.0 m; (b) 31.9 m/s; (c) 66.9°; (d) 25.5 m **55.** the third **57.** (a) 7.32 m; (b) west; (c) north **59.** (a) 12 s; (b) 4.1 m/s^2; (c) down; (d) 4.1 m/s^2; (e) up **61.** (a) 1.3×10^5 m/s; (b) 7.9×10^5 m/s^2; (c) increase **63.** 2.92 m **65.** $(3.00\text{ m/s}^2)\hat{i} + (6.00\text{ m/s}^2)\hat{j}$ **67.** 160 m/s^2 **69.** (a) 13 m/s^2; (b) eastward; (c) 13 m/s^2; (d) eastward **71.** 1.67 **73.** (a) $(80\text{ km/h})\hat{i} - (60\text{ km/h})\hat{j}$; (b) 0°; (c) answers do not change **75.** 32 m/s **77.** 60° **79.** (a) 38 knots; (b) 1.5° east of due north; (c) 4.2 h; (d) 1.5° west of due south **81.** (a) $(-32\text{ km/h})\hat{i} - (46\text{ km/h})\hat{j}$; (b) $[(2.5\text{ km}) - (32\text{ km/h})t]\hat{i} + [(4.0\text{ km}) - (46\text{ km/h})t]\hat{j}$; (c) 0.084 h; (d) 2×10^2 m **83.** (a) −30°; (b) 69 min; (c) 80 min; (d) 80 min; (e) 0°; (f) 60 min **85.** (a) 2.7 km; (b) 76° clockwise **87.** (a) 44 m; (b) 13 m; (c) 8.9 m **89.** (a) 45 m; (b) 22 m/s **91.** (a) 2.6×10^2 m/s; (b) 45 s; (c) increase **93.** (a) 63 km; (b) 18° south of due east; (c) 0.70 km/h; (d) 18° south of due east; (e) 1.6 km/h; (f) 1.2 km/h; (g) 33° north of due east **95.** (a) 1.5; (b) (36 m, 54 m) **97.** (a) 62 ms; (b) 4.8×10^2 m/s **99.** 2.64 m **101.** (a) 2.5 m; (b) 0.82 m; (c) 9.8 m/s^2; (d) 9.8 m/s^2 **103.** (a) 6.79 km/h; (b) 6.96° **105.** (a) 16 m/s; (b) 23°; (c) above; (d) 27 m/s; (e) 57°; (f) below **107.** (a) 4.2 m, 45°; (b) 5.5 m, 68°; (c) 6.0 m, 90°; (d) 4.2 m, 135°; (e) 0.85 m/s, 135°; (f) 0.94 m/s, 90°; (g) 0.94 m/s, 180°; (h) 0.30 m/s^2, 180°; (i) 0.30 m/s^2, 270° **109.** (a) 5.4×10^{-13} m; (b) decrease **111.** (a) 0.034 m/s^2; (b) 84 min **113.** (a) 8.43 m; (b) −129° **115.** (a) 2.00 ns; (b) 2.00 mm; (c) 1.00×10^7 m/s; (d) 2.00×10^6 m/s **117.** (a) 24 m/s; (b) 65° **119.** 93° from the car's direction of motion **121.** (a) 4.6×10^{12} m; (b) 2.4×10^5 s **123.** (a) 6.29°; (b) 83.7° **125.** (a) 3×10^1 m **127.** (a) $(6.0\hat{i} + 4.2\hat{j})$ m/s; (b) $(18\hat{i} + 6.3\hat{j})$ m **129.** (a) 38 ft/s; (b) 32 ft/s; (c) 9.3 ft **131.** (a) 11 m; (b) 45 m/s **133.** (a) 5.8 m/s; (b) 17 m; (c) 67° **135.** (a) 32.4 m; (b) −37.7 m **137.** 88.6 km/h

Chapter 5

CP **1.** c, d, and e ($\vec{F}_1$ and $\vec{F}_2$ must be head to tail, $\vec{F}_{net}$ must be from tail of one of them to head of the other) **2.** (a) and (b) 2 N, leftward (acceleration is zero in each situation) **3.** (a) equal; (b) greater (acceleration is upward, thus net force on body must be upward) **4.** (a) equal; (b) greater; (c) less **5.** (a) increase; (b) yes; (c) same; (d) yes

Q **1.** (a) 2, 3, 4; (b) 1, 3, 4; (c) 1, $+y$; 2, $+x$; 3, fourth quadrant; 4, third quadrant **3.** increase **5.** (a) 2 and 4; (b) 2 and 4 **7.** (a) M; (b) M; (c) M; (d) $2M$; (e) $3M$ **9.** (a) 20 kg; (b) 18 kg; (c) 10 kg; (d) all tie; (e) 3, 2, 1 **11.** (a) increases from initial value mg; (b) decreases from mg to zero (after which the block moves up away from the floor)

P **1.** 2.9 m/s^2 **3.** (a) 1.88 N; (b) 0.684 N; (c) $(1.88\text{ N})\hat{i} + (0.684\text{ N})\hat{j}$ **5.** (a) $(0.86\text{ m/s}^2)\hat{i} - (0.16\text{ m/s}^2)\hat{j}$; (b) 0.88 m/s^2; (c) −11° **7.** (a) $(-32.0\text{ N})\hat{i} - (20.8\text{ N})\hat{j}$; (b) 38.2 N; (c) −147° **9.** (a) 8.37 N; (b) −133°; (c) −125° **11.** 9.0 m/s^2 **13.** (a) 4.0 kg; (b) 1.0 kg; (c) 4.0 kg; (d) 1.0 kg **15.** (a) 108 N; (b) 108 N; (c) 108 N **17.** (a) 42 N; (b) 72 N; (c) 4.9 m/s^2 **19.** 1.2×10^5 N **21.** (a) 11.7 N; (b) −59.0° **23.** (a) $(285\text{ N})\hat{i} + (705\text{ N})\hat{j}$; (b) $(285\text{ N})\hat{i} - (115\text{ N})\hat{j}$; (c) 307 N; (d) −22.0°; (e) 3.67 m/s^2; (f) −22.0° **25.** (a) 0.022 m/s^2; (b) 8.3×10^4 km; (c) 1.9×10^3 m/s **27.** 1.5 mm **29.** (a) 494 N; (b) up; (c) 494 N; (d) down **31.** (a) 1.18 m; (b) 0.674 s; (c) 3.50 m/s **33.** 1.8×10^4 N **35.** (a) 46.7°; (b) 28.0° **37.** (a) 0.62 m/s^2; (b) 0.13 m/s^2; (c) 2.6 m **39.** (a) 2.2×10^{-3} N; (b) 3.7×10^{-3} N **41.** (a) 1.4 m/s^2; (b) 4.1 m/s **43.** (a) 1.23 N; (b) 2.46 N; (c) 3.69 N; (d) 4.92 N; (e) 6.15 N; (f) 0.250 N **45.** (a) 31.3 kN; (b) 24.3 kN **47.** 6.4×10^3 N **49.** (a) 2.18 m/s^2; (b) 116 N; (c) 21.0 m/s^2 **51.** (a) 3.6 m/s^2; (b) 17 N **53.** (a) 0.970 m/s^2; (b) 11.6 N; (c) 34.9 N **55.** (a) 1.1 N **57.** (a) 0.735 m/s^2; (b) down; (c) 20.8 N **59.** (a) 4.9 m/s^2; (b) 2.0 m/s^2; (c) up; (d) 120 N **61.** $2Ma/(a+g)$ **63.** (a) 8.0 m/s; (b) $+x$ **65.** (a) 0.653 m/s^3; (b) 0.896 m/s^3; (c) 6.50 s **67.** 81.7 N **69.** 2.4 N **71.** 16 N **73.** (a) 2.6 N; (b) 17° **75.** (a) 0; (b) 0.83 m/s^2; (c) 0 **77.** (a) 0.74 m/s^2; (b) 7.3 m/s^2 **79.** (a) 11 N; (b) 2.2 kg; (c) 0; (d) 2.2 kg **81.** 195 N **83.** (a) 4.6 m/s^2; (b) 2.6 m/s^2 **85.** (a) rope breaks; (b) 1.6 m/s^2 **87.** (a) 65 N; (b) 49 N **89.** (a) 4.6×10^3 N; (b) 5.8×10^3 N **91.** (a) 1.8×10^2 N; (b) 6.4×10^2 N **93.** (a) 44 N; (b) 78 N; (c) 54 N; (d) 152 N **95.** (a) 4 kg; (b) 6.5 m/s^2; (c) 13 N **97.** (a) $(1.0\hat{i} - 2.0\hat{j})$ N; (b) 2.2 N; (c) −63°; (d) 2.2 m/s^2; (e) −63°

Chapter 6

CP **1.** (a) zero (because there is no attempt at sliding); (b) 5 N; (c) no; (d) yes; (e) 8 N **2.** ($\vec{a}$ is directed toward center of circular path) (a) $\vec{a}$ downward, $\vec{F}_N$ upward; (b) $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{F}_N$ upward; (c) same; (d) greater at lowest point

Q **1.** (a) decrease; (b) decrease; (c) increase; (d) increase; (e) increase **3.** (a) same; (b) increases; (c) increases; (d) no **5.** (a) upward; (b) horizontal, toward you; (c) no change; (d) increases; (e) increases **7.** At first, $\vec{f}_s$ is directed up the ramp and its magnitude increases from $mg \sin\theta$ until it reaches $f_{s,max}$. Thereafter the force is kinetic friction directed up the ramp, with magnitude f_k (a constant value smaller than $f_{s,max}$). **9.** 4, 3, then 1, 2, and 5 tie **11.** (a) all tie; (b) all tie; (c) 2, 3, 1 **13.** (a) increases; (b) increases; (c) decreases; (d) decreases; (e) decreases

P **1.** 36 m **3.** (a) 2.0×10^2 N; (b) 1.2×10^2 N **5.** (a) 6.0 N; (b) 3.6 N; (c) 3.1 N **7.** (a) 1.9×10^2 N; (b) 0.56 m/s^2 **9.** (a) 11 N; (b) 0.14 m/s^2 **11.** (a) 3.0×10^2 N; (b) 1.3 m/s^2 **13.** (a) 1.3×10^2 N; (b) no; (c) 1.1×10^2 N; (d) 46 N; (e) 17 N **15.** 2° **17.** (a) $(17\text{ N})\hat{i}$; (b) $(20\text{ N})\hat{i}$; (c) $(15\text{ N})\hat{i}$ **19.** (a) no; (b) $(-12\text{ N})\hat{i} + (5.0\text{ N})\hat{j}$ **21.** (a) 19°; (b) 3.3 kN **23.** 0.37 **25.** 1.0×10^2 N **27.** (a) 0; (b) $(-3.9\text{ m/s}^2)\hat{i}$; (c) $(-1.0\text{ m/s}^2)\hat{i}$ **29.** (a) 66 N; (b) 2.3 m/s^2 **31.** (a) 3.5 m/s^2; (b) 0.21 N **33.** 9.9 s **35.** 4.9×10^2 N **37.** (a) 3.2×10^2 km/h; (b) 6.5×10^2 km/h; (c) no **39.** 2.3 **41.** 0.60 **43.** 21 m **45.** (a) light; (b) 778 N; (c) 223 N; (d) 1.11 kN **47.** (a) 10 s; (b) 4.9×10^2 N; (c) 1.1×10^3 N **49.** 1.37×10^3 N **51.** 2.2 km **53.** 12° **55.** 2.6×10^3 N **57.** 1.81 m/s **59.** (a) 8.74 N; (b) 37.9 N; (c) 6.45 m/s; (d) radially inward **61.** (a) 27 N; (b) 3.0 m/s^2 **63.** (b) 240 N; (c) 0.60 **65.** (a) 69 km/h; (b) 139 km/h; (c) yes **67.** $g(\sin\theta - 2^{0.5}\mu_k \cos\theta)$ **69.** 3.4 m/s^2 **71.** (a) 35.3 N; (b) 39.7 N; (c) 320 N **73.** (a) 7.5 m/s^2; (b) down; (c) 9.5 m/s^2; (d) down **75.** (a) 3.0×10^5 N; (b) 1.2° **77.** 147 m/s **79.** (a) 13 N; (b) 1.6 m/s^2 **81.** (a) 275 N; (b) 877 N **83.** (a) 84.2 N; (b) 52.8 N; (c) 1.87 m/s^2 **85.** 3.4% **87.** (a) 3.21×10^3 N; (b) yes **89.** (a) 222 N; (b) 334 N; (c) 311 N; (d) 311 N; (e) c, d **91.** (a) $v_0^2/(4g \sin\theta)$; (b) no **93.** (a) 0.34; (b) 0.24 **95.** (a) $\mu_k mg/(\sin\theta - \mu_k \cos\theta)$; (b) $\theta_0 = \tan^{-1}\mu_s$ **97.** 0.18 **99.** (a) 56 N; (b) 59 N; (c) 1.1×10^3 N **101.** 0.76 **103.** (a) bottom of circle; (b) 9.5 m/s **105.** 0.56

Chapter 7

CP **1.** (a) decrease; (b) same; (c) negative, zero **2.** (a) positive; (b) negative; (c) zero **3.** zero

Q **1.** all tie **3.** (a) positive; (b) negative; (c) negative **5.** *b* (positive work), *a* (zero work), *c* (negative work), *d* (more negative work) **7.** all tie **9.** (a) *A*; (b) *B* **11.** 2, 3, 1

P **1.** (a) 2.9×10^7 m/s; (b) 2.1×10^{-13} J **3.** (a) 5×10^{14} J; (b) 0.1 megaton TNT; (c) 8 bombs **5.** (a) 2.4 m/s; (b) 4.8 m/s **7.** 0.96 J **9.** 20 J **11.** (a) 62.3°; (b) 118° **13.** (a) 1.7×10^2 N; (b) 3.4×10^2 m; (c) -5.8×10^4 J; (d) 3.4×10^2 N; (e) 1.7×10^2 m; (f) -5.8×10^4 J **15.** (a) 1.50 J; (b) increases **17.** (a) 12 kJ; (b) -11 kJ; (c) 1.1 kJ; (d) 5.4 m/s **19.** 25 J **21.** (a) $-3Mgd/4$; (b) Mgd; (c) $Mgd/4$; (d) $(gd/2)^{0.5}$ **23.** 4.41 J **25.** (a) 25.9 kJ; (b) 2.45 N **27.** (a) 7.2 J; (b) 7.2 J; (c) 0; (d) -25 J **29.** (a) 0.90 J; (b) 2.1 J; (c) 0 **31.** (a) 6.6 m/s; (b) 4.7 m **33.** (a) 0.12 m; (b) 0.36 J; (c) -0.36 J; (d) 0.060 m; (e) 0.090 J **35.** (a) 0; (b) 0 **37.** (a) 42 J; (b) 30 J; (c) 12 J; (d) 6.5 m/s, $+x$ axis; (e) 5.5 m/s, $+x$ axis; (f) 3.5 m/s, $+x$ axis **39.** 4.00 N/m **41.** 5.3×10^2 J **43.** (a) 0.83 J; (b) 2.5 J; (c) 4.2 J; (d) 5.0 W **45.** 4.9×10^2 W **47.** (a) 1.0×10^2 J; (b) 8.4 W **49.** 7.4×10^2 W **51.** (a) 32.0 J; (b) 8.00 W; (c) 78.2° **53.** (a) 1.20 J; (b) 1.10 m/s **55.** (a) 1.8×10^5 ft·lb; (b) 0.55 hp **57.** (a) 797 N; (b) 0; (c) -1.55 kJ; (d) 0; (e) 1.55 kJ; (f) F varies during displacement **59.** (a) 11 J; (b) -21 J **61.** -6 J **63.** (a) 314 J; (b) -155 J; (c) 0; (d) 158 J **65.** (a) 98 N; (b) 4.0 cm; (c) 3.9 J; (d) -3.9 J **67.** (a) 23 mm; (b) 45 N **69.** 165 kW **71.** -37 J **73.** (a) 13 J; (b) 13 J **75.** 235 kW **77.** (a) 6 J; (b) 6.0 J **79.** (a) 0.6 J; (b) 0; (c) -0.6 J **81.** (a) 3.35 m/s; (b) 22.5 J; (c) 0; (d) 0; (e) 0.212 m **83.** (a) -5.20×10^{-2} J; (b) -0.160 J **85.** 6.63 m/s

Chapter 8

CP **1.** no (consider round trip on the small loop) **2.** 3, 1, 2 (see Eq. 8-6) **3.** (a) all tie; (b) all tie **4.** (a) *CD*, *AB*, *BC* (0) (check slope magnitudes); (b) positive direction of x **5.** all tie

Q **1.** (a) 3, 2, 1; (b) 1, 2, 3 **3.** (a) 12 J; (b) -2 J **5.** (a) increasing; (b) decreasing; (c) decreasing; (d) constant in *AB* and *BC*, decreasing in *CD* **7.** $+30$ J **9.** 2, 1, 3 **11.** -40 J

P **1.** 89 N/cm **3.** (a) 167 J; (b) -167 J; (c) 196 J; (d) 29 J; (e) 167 J; (f) -167 J; (g) 296 J; (h) 129 J **5.** (a) 4.31 mJ; (b) -4.31 mJ; (c) 4.31 mJ; (d) -4.31 mJ; (e) all increase **7.** (a) 13.1 J; (b) -13.1 J; (c) 13.1 J; (d) all increase **9.** (a) 17.0 m/s; (b) 26.5 m/s; (c) 33.4 m/s; (d) 56.7 m; (e) all the same **11.** (a) 2.08 m/s; (b) 2.08 m/s; (c) increase **13.** (a) 0.98 J; (b) -0.98 J; (c) 3.1 N/cm **15.** (a) 2.6×10^2 m; (b) same; (c) decrease **17.** (a) 2.5 N; (b) 0.31 N; (c) 30 cm **19.** (a) 784 N/m; (b) 62.7 J; (c) 62.7 J; (d) 80.0 cm **21.** (a) 8.35 m/s; (b) 4.33 m/s; (c) 7.45 m/s; (d) both decrease **23.** (a) 4.85 m/s; (b) 2.42 m/s **25.** -3.2×10^2 J **27.** (a) no; (b) 9.3×10^2 N **29.** (a) 35 cm; (b) 1.7 m/s **31.** (a) 39.2 J; (b) 39.2 J; (c) 4.00 m **33.** (a) 2.40 m/s; (b) 4.19 m/s **35.** (a) 39.6 cm; (b) 3.64 cm **37.** -18 mJ **39.** (a) 2.1 m/s; (b) 10 N; (c) $+x$ direction; (d) 5.7 m; (e) 30 N; (f) $-x$ direction **41.** (a) -3.7 J; (c) 1.3 m; (d) 9.1 m; (e) 2.2 J; (f) 4.0 m; (g) $(4 - x)e^{-x/4}$; (h) 4.0 m **43.** (a) 5.6 J; (b) 3.5 J **45.** (a) 30.1 J; (b) 30.1 J; (c) 0.225 **47.** 0.53 J **49.** (a) -2.9 kJ; (b) 3.9×10^2 J; (c) 2.1×10^2 N **51.** (a) 1.5 MJ; (b) 0.51 MJ; (c) 1.0 MJ; (d) 63 m/s **53.** (a) 67 J; (b) 67 J; (c) 46 cm **55.** (a) -0.90 J; (b) 0.46 J; (c) 1.0 m/s **57.** 1.2 m **59.** (a) 19.4 m; (b) 19.0 m/s **61.** (a) 1.5×10^{-2} N; (b) $(3.8 \times 10^2)g$ **63.** (a) 7.4 m/s; (b) 90 cm; (c) 2.8 m; (d) 15 m **65.** 20 cm **67.** (a) 7.0 J; (b) 22 J **69.** 3.7 J **71.** 4.33 m/s **73.** 25 J **75.** (a) 4.9 m/s; (b) 4.5 N; (c) 71°; (d) same **77.** (a) 4.8 N; (b) $+x$ direction; (c) 1.5 m; (d) 13.5 m; (e) 3.5 m/s **79.** (a) 24 kJ; (b) 4.7×10^2 N **81.** (a) 5.00 J; (b) 9.00 J; (c) 11.0 J; (d) 3.00 J; (e) 12.0 J; (f) 2.00 J; (g) 13.0 J; (h) 1.00 J; (i) 13.0 J; (j) 1.00 J; (l) 11.0 J; (m) 10.8 m; (n) It returns to $x = 0$ and stops. **83.** (a) 6.0 kJ; (b) 6.0×10^2 W; (c) 3.0×10^2 W; (d) 9.0×10^2 W **85.** 880 MW **87.** (a) $v_0 = (2gL)^{0.5}$; (b) $5mg$; (c) $-mgL$; (d) $-2mgL$ **89.** (a) 109 J; (b) 60.3 J; (c) 68.2 J; (d) 41.0 J **91.** (a) 2.7 J; (b) 1.8 J; (c) 0.39 m **93.** (a) 10 m; (b) 49 N; (c) 4.1 m; (d) 1.2×10^2 N **95.** (a) 5.5 m/s; (b) 5.4 m; (c) same **97.** 80 mJ **99.** 24 W **101.** -12 J **103.** (a) 8.8 m/s; (b) 2.6 kJ; (c) 1.6 kW **105.** (a) 7.4×10^2 J; (b) 2.4×10^2 J **107.** 15 J **109.** (a) 2.35×10^3 J; (b) 352 J **111.** 738 m **113.** (a) -3.8 kJ; (b) 31 kN **115.** (a) 300 J; (b) 93.8 J; (c) 6.38 m **117.** (a) 5.6 J; (b) 12 J; (c) 13 J **119.** (a) 1.2 J; (b) 11 m/s; (c) no; (d) no **121.** (a) 2.1×10^6 kg; (b) $(100 + 1.5t)^{0.5}$ m/s; (c) $(1.5 \times 10^6)/(100 + 1.5t)^{0.5}$ N; (d) 6.7 km **123.** 54% **125.** (a) 2.7×10^9 J; (b) 2.7×10^9 W; (c) \$$2.4 \times 10^8$ **127.** 5.4 kJ **129.** 3.1×10^{11} W **131.** because your force on the cabbage (as you lower it) does work **135.** (a) 8.6 kJ; (b) 8.6×10^2 W; (c) 4.3×10^2 W; (d) 1.3 kW

Chapter 9

CP **1.** (a) origin; (b) fourth quadrant; (c) on y axis below origin; (d) origin; (e) third quadrant; (f) origin **2.** (a) – (c) at the center of mass, still at the origin (their forces are internal to the system and cannot move the center of mass) **3.** (Consider slopes and Eq. 9-23.) (a) 1, 3, and then 2 and 4 tie (zero force); (b) 3 **4.** (a) unchanged; (b) unchanged (see Eq. 9-32); (c) decrease (Eq. 9-35) **5.** (a) zero; (b) positive (initial p_y down y; final p_y up y); (c) positive direction of y **6.** (No net external force; $\vec{P}$ conserved.) (a) 0; (b) no; (c) $-x$ **7.** (a) 10 kg·m/s; (b) 14 kg·m/s; (c) 6 kg·m/s **8.** (a) 4 kg·m/s; (b) 8 kg·m/s; (c) 3 J **9.** (a) 2 kg·m/s (conserve momentum along x); (b) 3 kg·m/s (conserve momentum along y)

Q **1.** (a) 2 N, rightward; (b) 2 N, rightward; (c) greater than 2 N, rightward **3.** b, c, a **5.** (a) x yes, y no; (b) x yes, y no; (c) x no, y yes **7.** (a) *c*, kinetic energy cannot be negative; *d*, total kinetic energy cannot increase; (b) *a*; (c) *b* **9.** (a) one was stationary; (b) 2; (c) 5; (d) equal (pool player's result) **11.** (a) *C*; (b) *B*; (c) 3

P **1.** (a) -1.50 m; (b) -1.43 m **3.** (a) -6.5 cm; (b) 8.3 cm; (c) 1.4 cm **5.** (a) -0.45 cm; (b) -2.0 cm **7.** (a) 0; (b) 3.13×10^{-11} m **9.** (a) 28 cm; (b) 2.3 m/s **11.** $(-4.0\text{ m})\hat{i} + (4.0\text{ m})\hat{j}$ **13.** 53 m **15.** (a) $(2.35\hat{i} - 1.57\hat{j})$ m/s²; (b) $(2.35\hat{i} - 1.57\hat{j})t$ m/s, with t in seconds; (d) straight, at downward angle 34° **17.** 4.2 m **19.** (a) 7.5×10^4 J; (b) 3.8×10^4 kg·m/s; (c) 39° south of due east **21.** (a) 5.0 kg·m/s; (b) 10 kg·m/s **23.** 1.0×10^3 to 1.2×10^3 kg·m/s **25.** (a) 42 N·s; (b) 2.1 kN **27.** (a) 67 m/s; (b) $-x$; (c) 1.2 kN; (d) $-x$ **29.** 5 N **31.** (a) 2.39×10^3 N·s; (b) 4.78×10^5 N; (c) 1.76×10^3 N·s; (d) 3.52×10^5 N **33.** (a) 5.86 kg·m/s; (b) 59.8°; (c) 2.93 kN; (d) 59.8° **35.** 9.9×10^2 N **37.** (a) 9.0 kg·m/s; (b) 3.0 kN; (c) 4.5 kN; (d) 20 m/s **39.** 3.0 mm/s **41.** (a) $-(0.15\text{ m/s})\hat{i}$; (b) 0.18 m **43.** 55 cm **45.** (a) $(1.00\hat{i} - 0.167\hat{j})$ km/s; (b) 3.23 MJ **47.** (a) 14 m/s; (b) 45° **49.** 3.1×10^2 m/s **51.** (a) 721 m/s; (b) 937 m/s **53.** (a) 33%; (b) 23%; (c) decreases **55.** (a) $+2.0$ m/s; (b) -1.3 J; (c) $+40$ J; (d) system got energy from some source, such as a small explosion **57.** (a) 4.4 m/s; (b) 0.80 **59.** 25 cm **61.** (a) 99 g; (b) 1.9 m/s; (c) 0.93 m/s **63.** (a) 3.00 m/s; (b) 6.00 m/s **65.** (a) 1.2 kg; (b) 2.5 m/s **67.** -28 cm **69.** (a) 0.21 kg; (b) 7.2 m **71.** (a) 4.15×10^5 m/s; (b) 4.84×10^5 m/s **73.** 120° **75.** (a) 433 m/s; (b) 250 m/s **77.** (a) 46 N; (b) none **79.** (a) 1.57×10^6 N; (b) 1.35×10^5 kg; (c) 2.08 km/s **81.** (a) 7290 m/s; (b) 8200 m/s; (c) 1.271×10^{10} J; (d) 1.275×10^{10} J **83.** (a) 1.92 m; (b) 0.640 m **85.** (a) 1.78 m/s; (b) less; (c) less; (d) greater **87.** (a) 3.7 m/s; (b) 1.3 N·s; (c) 1.8×10^2 N **89.** (a) $(7.4 \times 10^3\text{ N·s})\hat{i} - (7.4 \times 10^3\text{ N·s})\hat{j}$; (b) $(-7.4 \times 10^3\text{ N·s})\hat{i}$; (c) 2.3×10^3 N; (d) 2.1×10^4 N; (e) $-45°$ **91.** $+4.4$ m/s **93.** 1.18×10^4 kg **95.** (a) 1.9 m/s; (b) $-30°$; (c) elastic **97.** (a) 6.9 m/s; (b) 30°; (c) 6.9 m/s; (d) $-30°$; (e) 2.0 m/s; (f) $-180°$ **99.** (a) 25 mm; (b) 26 mm; (c) down; (d) 1.6×10^{-2} m/s² **101.** 29 J **103.** 2.2 kg **105.** 5.0 kg **107.** (a) 50 kg/s; (b) 1.6×10^2 kg/s **109.** (a) 4.6×10^3 km; (b) 73% **111.** 190 m/s

113. 28.8 N **115.** (a) 0.745 mm; (b) 153°; (c) 1.67 mJ **117.** (a) $(2.67\text{ m/s})\hat{i} + (-3.00\text{ m/s})\hat{j}$; (b) 4.01 m/s; (c) 48.4° **119.** (a) -0.50 m; (b) -1.8 cm; (c) 0.50 m **121.** 0.22% **123.** 36.5 km/s **125.** (a) $(-1.00 \times 10^{-19}\hat{i} + 0.67 \times 10^{-19}\hat{j})$ kg·m/s; (b) 1.19×10^{-12} J **127.** 2.2×10^{-3}

Chapter 10

CP **1.** b and c **2.** (a) and (d) ($\alpha = d^2\theta/dt^2$ must be a constant) **3.** (a) yes; (b) no; (c) yes; (d) yes **4.** all tie **5.** 1, 2, 4, 3 (see Eq. 10-36) **6.** (see Eq. 10-40) 1 and 3 tie, 4, then 2 and 5 tie (zero) **7.** (a) downward in the figure ($\tau_{net} = 0$); (b) less (consider moment arms)

Q **1.** (a) c, a, then b and d tie; (b) b, then a and c tie, then d **3.** all tie **5.** (a) decrease; (b) clockwise; (c) counterclockwise **7.** larger **9.** c, a, b **11.** less

P **1.** 14 rev **3.** (a) 4.0 rad/s; (b) 11.9 rad/s **5.** 11 rad/s **7.** (a) 4.0 m/s; (b) no **9.** (a) 3.00 s; (b) 18.9 rad **11.** (a) 30 s; (b) 1.8×10^3 rad **13.** (a) 3.4×10^2 s; (b) -4.5×10^{-3} rad/s²; (c) 98 s **15.** 8.0 s **17.** (a) 44 rad; (b) 5.5 s; (c) 32 s; (d) -2.1 s; (e) 40 s **19.** (a) 2.50×10^{-3} rad/s; (b) 20.2 m/s²; (c) 0 **21.** 6.9×10^{-13} rad/s **23.** (a) 20.9 rad/s; (b) 12.5 m/s; (c) 800 rev/min²; (d) 600 rev **25.** (a) 7.3×10^{-5} rad/s; (b) 3.5×10^2 m/s; (c) 7.3×10^{-5} rad/s; (d) 4.6×10^2 m/s **27.** (a) 73 cm/s²; (b) 0.075; (c) 0.11 **29.** (a) 3.8×10^3 rad/s; (b) 1.9×10^2 m/s **31.** (a) 40 s; (b) 2.0 rad/s² **33.** 12.3 kg·m² **35.** (a) 1.1 kJ; (b) 9.7 kJ **37.** 0.097 kg·m² **39.** (a) 49 MJ; (b) 1.0×10^2 min **41.** (a) 0.023 kg·m²; (b) 1.1 mJ **43.** 4.7×10^{-4} kg·m² **45.** -3.85 N·m **47.** 4.6 N·m **49.** (a) 28.2 rad/s²; (b) 338 N·m **51.** (a) 6.00 cm/s²; (b) 4.87 N; (c) 4.54 N; (d) 1.20 rad/s²; (e) 0.0138 kg·m² **53.** 0.140 N **55.** 2.51×10^{-4} kg·m² **57.** (a) 4.2×10^2 rad/s²; (b) 5.0×10^2 rad/s **59.** 396 N·m **61.** (a) -19.8 kJ; (b) 1.32 kW **63.** 5.42 m/s **65.** (a) 5.32 m/s²; (b) 8.43 m/s²; (c) 41.8° **67.** 9.82 rad/s **69.** 6.16×10^{-5} kg·m² **71.** (a) 31.4 rad/s²; (b) 0.754 m/s²; (c) 56.1 N; (d) 55.1 N **73.** (a) 4.81×10^5 N; (b) 1.12×10^4 N·m; (c) 1.25×10^6 J **75.** (a) 2.3 rad/s²; (b) 1.4 rad/s² **77.** (a) -67 rev/min²; (b) 8.3 rev **81.** 3.1 rad/s **83.** (a) 1.57 m/s²; (b) 4.55 N; (c) 4.94 N **85.** 30 rev **87.** 0.054 kg·m² **89.** 1.4×10^2 N·m **91.** (a) 10 J; (b) 0.27 m **93.** 4.6 rad/s² **95.** 2.6 J **97.** (a) 5.92×10^4 m/s²; (b) 4.39×10^4 s^{-2} **99.** (a) 0.791 kg·m²; (b) 1.79×10^{-2} N·m **101.** (a) 1.5×10^2 cm/s; (b) 15 rad/s; (c) 15 rad/s; (d) 75 cm/s; (e) 3.0 rad/s **103.** (a) 7.0 kg·m²; (b) 7.2 m/s; (c) 71° **105.** (a) 0.32 rad/s; (b) 1.0×10^2 km/h **107.** (a) 1.4×10^2 rad; (b) 14 s

Chapter 11

CP **1.** (a) same; (b) less **2.** less (consider the transfer of energy from rotational kinetic energy to gravitational potential energy) **3.** (draw the vectors, use right-hand rule) (a) $\pm z$; (b) $+y$; (c) $-x$ **4.** (see Eq. 11-21) (a) 1 and 3 tie; then 2 and 4 tie, then 5 (zero); (b) 2 and 3 **5.** (see Eqs. 11-23 and 11-16) (a) 3, 1; then 2 and 4 tie (zero); (b) 3 **6.** (a) all tie (same τ, same t, thus same ΔL); (b) sphere, disk, hoop (reverse order of I) **7.** (a) decreases; (b) same ($\tau_{net} = 0$, so L is conserved); (c) increases

Q **1.** a, then b and c tie, then e, d (zero) **3.** (a) spins in place; (b) rolls toward you; (c) rolls away from you **5.** (a) 1, 2, 3 (zero); (b) 1 and 2 tie, then 3; (c) 1 and 3 tie, then 2 **7.** (a) same; (b) increase; (c) decrease; (d) same, decrease, increase **9.** D, B, then A and C tie **11.** (a) same; (b) same

P **1.** (a) 0; (b) $(22\text{ m/s})\hat{i}$; (c) $(-22\text{ m/s})\hat{i}$; (d) 0; (e) 1.5×10^3 m/s²; (f) 1.5×10^3 m/s²; (g) $(22\text{ m/s})\hat{i}$; (h) $(44\text{ m/s})\hat{i}$; (i) 0; (j) 0; (k) 1.5×10^3 m/s²; (l) 1.5×10^3 m/s² **3.** -3.15 J **5.** 0.020 **7.** (a) 63 rad/s; (b) 4.0 m **9.** 4.8 m **11.** (a) $(-4.0\text{ N})\hat{i}$; (b) 0.60 kg·m² **13.** 0.50 **15.** (a) $-(0.11\text{ m})\omega$; (b) -2.1 m/s²; (c) -47 rad/s²; (d) 1.2 s; (e) 8.6 m; (f) 6.1 m/s **17.** (a) 13 cm/s²; (b) 4.4 s; (c) 55 cm/s; (d) 18 mJ; (e) 1.4 J; (f) 27 rev/s **19.** $(-2.0\text{ N·m})\hat{i}$ **21.** (a) $(6.0\text{ N·m})\hat{j} + (8.0\text{ N·m})\hat{k}$; (b) $(-22\text{ N·m})\hat{i}$ **23.** (a) $(-1.5\text{ N·m})\hat{i} - (4.0\text{ N·m})\hat{j} - (1.0\text{ N·m})\hat{k}$; (b) $(-1.5\text{ N·m})\hat{i} - (4.0\text{ N·m})\hat{j} - (1.0\text{ N·m})\hat{k}$ **25.** (a) $(50\text{ N·m})\hat{k}$; (b) 90° **27.** (a) 0; (b) $(8.0\text{ N·m})\hat{i} + (8.0\text{ N·m})\hat{k}$ **29.** (a) 9.8 kg·m²/s; (b) $+z$ direction **31.** (a) 0; (b) -22.6 kg·m²/s; (c) -7.84 N·m; (d) -7.84 N·m **33.** (a) $(-1.7 \times 10^2\text{ kg·m}^2\text{/s})\hat{k}$; (b) $(+56\text{ N·m})\hat{k}$; (c) $(+56\text{ kg·m}^2\text{/s}^2)\hat{k}$ **35.** (a) $48t\hat{k}$ N·m; (b) increasing **37.** (a) 4.6×10^{-3} kg·m²; (b) 1.1×10^{-3} kg·m²/s; (c) 3.9×10^{-3} kg·m²/s **39.** (a) 1.47 N·m; (b) 20.4 rad; (c) -29.9 J; (d) 19.9 W **41.** (a) 1.6 kg·m²; (b) 4.0 kg·m²/s **43.** (a) 1.5 m; (b) 0.93 rad/s; (c) 98 J; (d) 8.4 rad/s; (e) 8.8×10^2 J; (f) internal energy of the skaters **45.** (a) 3.6 rev/s; (b) 3.0; (c) forces on the bricks from the man transferred energy from the man's internal energy to kinetic energy **47.** 0.17 rad/s **49.** (a) 750 rev/min; (b) 450 rev/min; (c) clockwise **51.** (a) 267 rev/min; (b) 0.667 **53.** 1.3×10^3 m/s **55.** 3.4 rad/s **57.** (a) 18 rad/s; (b) 0.92 **59.** 11.0 m/s **61.** 1.5 rad/s **63.** 0.070 rad/s **65.** (a) 0.148 rad/s; (b) 0.0123; (c) 181° **67.** (a) 0.180 m; (b) clockwise **69.** 0.041 rad/s **71.** (a) 1.6 m/s²; (b) 16 rad/s²; (c) $(4.0\text{ N})\hat{i}$ **73.** (a) 0; (b) 0; (c) $-30t^3\hat{k}$ kg·m²/s; (d) $-90t^2\hat{k}$ N·m; (e) $30t^3\hat{k}$ kg·m²/s; (f) $90t^2\hat{k}$ N·m **75.** (a) 149 kg·m²; (b) 158 kg·m²/s; (c) 0.744 rad/s **77.** (a) 6.65×10^{-5} kg·m²/s; (b) no; (c) 0; (d) yes **79.** (a) 0.333; (b) 0.111 **81.** (a) 58.8 J; (b) 39.2 J **83.** (a) 61.7 J; (b) 3.43 m; (c) no **85.** (a) $mvR/(I + MR^2)$; (b) $mvR^2/(I + MR^2)$

Chapter 12

CP **1.** c, e, f **2.** (a) no; (b) at site of $\vec{F}_1$, perpendicular to plane of figure; (c) 45 N **3.** d

Q **1.** (a) 1 and 3 tie, then 2; (b) all tie; (c) 1 and 3 tie, then 2 (zero) **3.** a and c (forces and torques balance) **5.** (a) 12 kg; (b) 3 kg; (c) 1 kg **7.** (a) at C (to eliminate forces there from a torque equation); (b) plus; (c) minus; (d) equal **9.** increase **11.** A and B, then C

P **1.** (a) 1.00 m; (b) 2.00 m; (c) 0.987 m; (d) 1.97 m **3.** (a) 9.4 N; (b) 4.4 N **5.** 7.92 kN **7.** (a) 2.8×10^2 N; (b) 8.8×10^2 N; (c) 71° **9.** 74.4 g **11.** (a) 1.2 kN; (b) down; (c) 1.7 kN; (d) up; (e) left; (f) right **13.** (a) 2.7 kN; (b) up; (c) 3.6 kN; (d) down **15.** (a) 5.0 N; (b) 30 N; (c) 1.3 m **17.** (a) 0.64 m; (b) increased **19.** 8.7 N **21.** (a) 6.63 kN; (b) 5.74 kN; (c) 5.96 kN **23.** (a) 192 N; (b) 96.1 N; (c) 55.5 N **25.** 13.6 N **27.** (a) 1.9 kN; (b) up; (c) 2.1 kN; (d) down **29.** (a) $(-80\text{ N})\hat{i} + (1.3 \times 10^2\text{ N})\hat{j}$; (b) $(80\text{ N})\hat{i} + (1.3 \times 10^2\text{ N})\hat{j}$ **31.** 2.20 m **33.** (a) 60.0°; (b) 300 N **35.** (a) 445 N; (b) 0.50; (c) 315 N **37.** 0.34 **39.** (a) 207 N; (b) 539 N; (c) 315 N **41.** (a) slides; (b) 31°; (c) tips; (d) 34° **43.** (a) 6.5×10^6 N/m²; (b) 1.1×10^{-5} m **45.** (a) 0.80; (b) 0.20; (c) 0.25 **47.** (a) 1.4×10^9 N; (b) 75 **49.** (a) 866 N; (b) 143 N; (c) 0.165 **51.** (a) 1.2×10^2 N; (b) 68 N **53.** (a) 1.8×10^7 N; (b) 1.4×10^7 N; (c) 16 **55.** 0.29 **57.** 76 N **59.** (a) 8.01 kN; (b) 3.65 kN; (c) 5.66 kN **61.** 71.7 N **63.** (a) $L/2$; (b) $L/4$; (c) $L/6$; (d) $L/8$; (e) $25L/24$ **65.** (a) 88 N; (b) $(30\hat{i} + 97\hat{j})$ N **67.** 2.4×10^9 N/m² **69.** 60° **71.** (a) $\mu < 0.57$; (b) $\mu > 0.57$ **73.** (a) $(35\hat{i} + 200\hat{j})$ N; (b) $(-45\hat{i} + 200\hat{j})$ N; (c) 1.9×10^2 N **75.** (a) BC, CD, DA; (b) 535 N; (c) 757 N **77.** (a) 1.38 kN; (b) 180 N **79.** (a) $a_1 = L/2, a_2 = 5L/8, h = 9L/8$; (b) $b_1 = 2L/3, b_2 = L/2, h = 7L/6$ **81.** $L/4$ **83.** (a) 106 N; (b) 64.0° **85.** 1.8×10^2 N **87.** (a) -24.4 N; (b) 1.60 N; (c) $-3.75°$

Chapter 13

CP **1.** all tie **2.** (a) 1, tie of 2 and 4, then 3; (b) line d **3.** (a) increase; (b) negative **4.** (a) 2; (b) 1 **5.** (a) path 1 (decreased E (more negative) gives decreased a); (b) less (decreased a gives decreased T)

Q **1.** $3GM^2/d^2$, leftward **3.** Gm^2/r^2, upward **5.** b and c tie, then a (zero) **7.** 1, tie of 2 and 4, then 3 **9.** (a) positive y; (b) yes, rotates counterclockwise until it points toward particle B **11.** b, d, and f all tie, then e, c, a

P **1.** $\frac{1}{2}$ **3.** 19 m **5.** 0.8 m **7.** $-5.00d$ **9.** 2.60×10^5 km **11.** (a) $M = m$; (b) 0 **13.** 8.31×10^{-9} N **15.** (a) $-1.88d$; (b) $-3.90d$; (c) $0.489d$ **17.** (a) 17 N; (b) 2.4 **19.** 2.6×10^6 m **21.** 5×10^{24} kg **23.** (a) 7.6 m/s^2; (b) 4.2 m/s^2 **25.** (a) $(3.0 \times 10^{-7}$ N/kg$)m$; (b) $(3.3 \times 10^{-7}$ N/kg$)m$; (c) $(6.7 \times 10^{-7}$ N/kg $\cdot$ m$)mr$ **27.** (a) 9.83 m/s^2; (b) 9.84 m/s^2; (c) 9.79 m/s^2 **29.** 5.0×10^9 J **31.** (a) 0.74; (b) 3.8 m/s^2; (c) 5.0 km/s **33.** (a) 0.0451; (b) 28.5 **35.** -4.82×10^{-13} J **37.** (a) 0.50 pJ; (b) -0.50 pJ **39.** (a) 1.7 km/s; (b) 2.5×10^5 m; (c) 1.4 km/s **41.** (a) 82 km/s; (b) 1.8×10^4 km/s **43.** (a) 7.82 km/s; (b) 87.5 min **45.** 6.5×10^{23} kg **47.** 5×10^{10} stars **49.** (a) 1.9×10^{13} m; (b) $6.4R_P$ **51.** (a) 6.64×10^3 km; (b) 0.0136 **53.** 5.8×10^6 m **57.** 0.71 y **59.** $(GM/L)^{0.5}$ **61.** (a) 3.19×10^3 km; (b) lifting **63.** (a) 2.8 y; (b) 1.0×10^{-4} **65.** (a) $r^{1.5}$; (b) r^{-1}; (c) $r^{0.5}$; (d) $r^{-0.5}$ **67.** (a) 7.5 km/s; (b) 97 min; (c) 4.1×10^2 km; (d) 7.7 km/s; (e) 93 min; (f) 3.2×10^{-3} N; (g) no; (h) yes **69.** 1.1 s **71.** (a) $GMmx(x^2 + R^2)^{-3/2}$; (b) $[2GM(R^{-1} - (R^2 + x^2)^{-1/2})]^{1/2}$ **73.** (a) 1.0×10^3 kg; (b) 1.5 km/s **75.** 3.2×10^{-7} N **77.** $037\hat{j}$ μN **79.** $2\pi r^{1.5}G^{-0.5}(M + m/4)^{-0.5}$ **81.** (a) 2.2×10^{-7} rad/s; (b) 89 km/s **83.** (a) 2.15×10^4 s; (b) 12.3 km/s; (c) 12.0 km/s; (d) 2.17×10^{11} J; (e) -4.53×10^{11} J; (f) -2.35×10^{11} J; (g) 4.04×10^7 m; (h) 1.22×10^3 s; (i) elliptical **85.** 2.5×10^4 km **87.** (a) 1.4×10^6 m/s; (b) 3×10^6 m/s^2 **89.** (a) 0; (b) 1.8×10^{32} J; (c) 1.8×10^{32} J; (d) 0.99 km/s **91.** (a) Gm^2/R_i; (b) $Gm^2/2R_i$; (c) $(Gm/R_i)^{0.5}$; (d) $2(Gm/R_i)^{0.5}$; (e) Gm^2/R_i; (f) $(2Gm/R_i)^{0.5}$; (g) The center-of-mass frame is an inertial frame, and in it the principle of conservation of energy may be written as in Chapter 8; the reference frame attached to body A is noninertial, and the principle cannot be written as in Chapter 8. Answer (d) is correct. **93.** 2.4×10^4 m/s **95.** $-0.044\hat{j}$ μN **97.** $GM_Em/12R_E$ **99.** 1.51×10^{-12} N **101.** 3.4×10^5 km

Chapter 14

CP **1.** all tie **2.** (a) all tie (the gravitational force on the penguin is the same); (b) $0.95\rho_0, \rho_0, 1.1\rho_0$ **3.** 13 cm^3/s, outward **4.** (a) all tie; (b) 1, then 2 and 3 tie, 4 (wider means slower); (c) 4, 3, 2, 1 (wider and lower mean more pressure)

Q **1.** (a) moves downward; (b) moves downward **3.** (a) downward; (b) downward; (c) same **5.** b, then a and d tie (zero), then c **7.** (a) 1 and 4; (b) 2; (c) 3 **9.** B, C, A

P **1.** 0.074 **3.** 1.1×10^5 Pa **5.** 2.9×10^4 N **7.** (b) 26 kN **9.** (a) 1.0×10^3 torr; (b) 1.7×10^3 torr **11.** (a) 94 torr; (b) 4.1×10^2 torr; (c) 3.1×10^2 torr **13.** 1.08×10^3 atm **15.** -2.6×10^4 Pa **17.** 7.2×10^5 N **19.** 4.69×10^5 N **21.** 0.635 J **23.** 44 km **25.** 739.26 torr **27.** (a) 7.9 km; (b) 16 km **29.** 8.50 kg **31.** (a) 6.7×10^2 kg/m^3; (b) 7.4×10^2 kg/m^3 **33.** (a) 2.04×10^{-2} m^3; (b) 1.57 kN **35.** five **37.** 57.3 cm **39.** (a) 1.2 kg; (b) 1.3×10^3 kg/m^3 **41.** (a) 0.10; (b) 0.083 **43.** (a) 637.8 cm^3; (b) 5.102 m^3; (c) 5.102×10^3 kg **45.** 0.126 m^3 **47.** (a) 1.80 m^3; (b) 4.75 m^3 **49.** (a) 3.0 m/s; (b) 2.8 m/s **51.** 8.1 m/s **53.** 66 W **55.** 1.4×10^5 J **57.** (a) 1.6×10^{-3} m^3/s; (b) 0.90 m **59.** (a) 2.5 m/s; (b) 2.6×10^5 Pa **61.** (a) 3.9 m/s; (b) 88 kPa **63.** 1.1×10^2 m/s **65.** (b) 2.0×10^{-2} m^3/s **67.** (a) 74 N; (b) 1.5×10^2 m^3 **69.** (a) 0.0776 m^3/s; (b) 69.8 kg/s **71.** (a) 35 cm; (b) 30 cm; (c) 20 cm **73.** 1.5 g/cm^3 **75.** 5.11×10^{-7} kg **77.** 44.2 g **79.** 6.0×10^2 kg/m^3 **81.** 45.3 cm^3 **83.** (a) 3.2 m/s; (b) 9.2×10^4 Pa; (c) 10.3 m **85.** 1.07×10^3 g **87.** 26.3 m^2 **89.** (a) 5.66×10^9 N; (b) 25.4 atm

Chapter 15

CP **1.** (sketch x versus t) (a) $-x_m$; (b) $+x_m$; (c) 0 **2.** c (a must have the form of Eq. 15-8) **3.** a (F must have the form of Eq. 15-10) **4.** (a) 5 J; (b) 2 J; (c) 5 J **5.** all tie (in Eq. 15-29, m is included in I) **6.** 1, 2, 3 (the ratio m/b matters; k does not)

Q **1.** a and b **3.** (a) 2; (b) positive; (c) between 0 and $+x_m$ **5.** (a) between D and E; (b) between $3\pi/2$ rad and 2π rad **7.** (a) all tie; (b) 3, then 1 and 2 tie; (c) 1, 2, 3 (zero); (d) 1, 2, 3 (zero); (e) 1, 3, 2 **9.** b (infinite period, does not oscillate), c, a **11.** (a) greater; (b) same; (c) same; (d) greater; (e) greater

P **1.** (a) 0.50 s; (b) 2.0 Hz; (c) 18 cm **3.** 37.8 m/s^2 **5.** (a) 1.0 mm; (b) 0.75 m/s; (c) 5.7×10^2 m/s^2 **7.** (a) 498 Hz; (b) greater **9.** (a) 3.0 m; (b) -49 m/s; (c) -2.7×10^2 m/s^2; (d) 20 rad; (e) 1.5 Hz; (f) 0.67 s **11.** 39.6 Hz **13.** (a) 0.500 s; (b) 2.00 Hz; (c) 12.6 rad/s; (d) 79.0 N/m; (e) 4.40 m/s; (f) 27.6 N **15.** (a) $0.18A$; (b) same direction **17.** (a) 5.58 Hz; (b) 0.325 kg; (c) 0.400 m **19.** (a) 25 cm; (b) 2.2 Hz **21.** 54 Hz **23.** 3.1 cm **25.** (a) 0.525 m; (b) 0.686 s **27.** (a) 0.75; (b) 0.25; (c) $2^{-0.5}x_m$ **29.** 37 mJ **31.** (a) 2.25 Hz; (b) 125 J; (c) 250 J; (d) 86.6 cm **33.** (a) 1.1 m/s; (b) 3.3 cm **35.** (a) 3.1 ms; (b) 4.0 m/s; (c) 0.080 J; (d) 80 N; (e) 40 N **37.** (a) 2.2 Hz; (b) 56 cm/s; (c) 0.10 kg; (d) 20.0 cm **39.** (a) 39.5 rad/s; (b) 34.2 rad/s; (c) 124 rad/s^2 **41.** (a) 0.205 kg$\cdot$m^2; (b) 47.7 cm; (c) 1.50 s **43.** (a) 1.64 s; (b) equal **45.** 8.77 s **47.** 0.366 s **49.** (a) 0.845 rad; (b) 0.0602 rad **51.** (a) 0.53 m; (b) 2.1 s **53.** 0.0653 s **55.** (a) 2.26 s; (b) increases; (c) same **57.** 6.0% **59.** (a) 14.3 s; (b) 5.27 **61.** (a) $F_m/b\omega$; (b) F_m/b **63.** 5.0 cm **65.** (a) 2.8×10^3 rad/s; (b) 2.1 m/s; (c) 5.7 km/s^2 **67.** (a) 1.1 Hz; (b) 5.0 cm **69.** 7.2 m/s **71.** (a) 7.90 N/m; (b) 1.19 cm; (c) 2.00 Hz **73.** (a) 1.3×10^2 N/m; (b) 0.62 s; (c) 1.6 Hz; (d) 5.0 cm; (e) 0.51 m/s **75.** (a) 16.6 cm; (b) 1.23% **77.** (a) 1.2 J; (b) 50 **79.** 1.53 m **81.** (a) 0.30 m; (b) 0.28 s; (c) 1.5×10^2 m/s^2; (d) 11 J **83.** (a) 1.23 kN/m; (b) 76.0 N **85.** 1.6 kg **87.** (a) 0.735 kg $\cdot$ m^2; (b) 0.0240 N $\cdot$ m; (c) 0.181 rad/s **89.** (a) 3.5 m; (b) 0.75 s **91.** (a) 0.35 Hz; (b) 0.39 Hz; (c) 0 (no oscillation) **93.** (a) 245 N/m; (b) 0.284 s **95.** 0.079 kg $\cdot$ m^2 **97.** (a) 8.11×10^{-5} kg $\cdot$ m^2; (b) 3.14 rad/s **99.** 14.0° **101.** (a) 3.2 Hz; (b) 0.26 m; (c) $x = (0.26 \text{ m}) \cos(20t - \pi/2)$, with t in seconds **103.** (a) 0.44 s; (b) 0.18 m **105.** (a) 0.45 s; (b) 0.10 m above and 0.20 m below; (c) 0.15 m; (d) 2.3 J **107.** 7×10^2 N/m **109.** 0.804 m **111.** (a) 0.30 m; (b) 30 m/s^2; (c) 0; (d) 4.4 s **113.** (a) F/m; (b) $2F/mL$; (c) 0 **115.** 2.54 m

Chapter 16

CP **1.** a, 2; b, 3; c, 1 (compare with the phase in Eq. 16-2, then see Eq. 16-5) **2.** (a) 2, 3, 1 (see Eq. 16-12); (b) 3, then 1 and 2 tie (find amplitude of dy/dt) **3.** (a) same (independent of f); (b) decrease ($\lambda = v/f$); (c) increase; (d) increase **4.** 0.20 and 0.80 tie, then 0.60, 0.45 **5.** (a) 1; (b) 3; (c) 2 **6.** (a) 75 Hz; (b) 525 Hz

Q **1.** (a) 1, 4, 2, 3; (b) 1, 4, 2, 3 **3.** a, upward; b, upward; c, downward; d, downward; e, downward; f, downward; g, upward; h, upward **5.** intermediate (closer to fully destructive) **7.** (a) 0, 0.2 wavelength, 0.5 wavelength (zero); (b) $4P_{avg,1}$ **9.** d **11.** c, a, b

P **1.** 1.1 ms **3.** (a) 3.49 m^{-1}; (b) 31.5 m/s **5.** (a) 0.680 s; (b) 1.47 Hz; (c) 2.06 m/s **7.** (a) 64 Hz; (b) 1.3 m; (c) 4.0 cm; (d) 5.0 m^{-1}; (e) 4.0×10^2 s^{-1}; (f) $\pi/2$ rad; (g) minus **9.** (a) 3.0 mm; (b) 16 m^{-1}; (c) 2.4×10^2 s^{-1}; (d) minus **11.** (a) negative; (b) 4.0 cm; (c) 0.31 cm^{-1}; (d) 0.63 s^{-1}; (e) π rad; (f) minus; (g) 2.0 cm/s; (h) -2.5 cm/s **13.** (a) 11.7 cm; (b) π rad **15.** (a) 0.12 mm; (b) 141 m^{-1}; (c) 628 s^{-1}; (d) plus **17.** (a) 15 m/s; (b) 0.036 N **19.** 129 m/s **21.** 2.63 m **23.** (a) 5.0 cm; (b) 40 cm; (c) 12 m/s; (d) 0.033 s; (e) 9.4 m/s; (f) 16 m^{-1}; (g) 1.9×10^2 s^{-1}; (h) 0.93 rad; (i) plus **27.** 3.2 mm **29.** 0.20 m/s **31.** $1.41y_m$ **33.** (a) 9.0 mm; (b) 16 m^{-1}; (c) 1.1×10^3 s^{-1}; (d) 2.7 rad; (e) plus **35.** 5.0 cm **37.** (a) 3.29 mm; (b) 1.55 rad; (c) 1.55 rad **39.** 84° **41.** (a) 82.0 m/s; (b) 16.8 m; (c) 4.88 Hz **43.** (a) 7.91 Hz; (b) 15.8 Hz; (c) 23.7 Hz **45.** (a) 105 Hz; (b) 158 m/s **47.** 260 Hz **49.** (a) 144 m/s; (b) 60.0 cm; (c) 241 Hz **51.** (a) 0.50 cm;

(b) 3.1 m^{-1}; (c) 3.1×10^2 s^{-1}; (d) minus **53.** (a) 0.25 cm; (b) 1.2×10^2 cm/s; (c) 3.0 cm; (d) 0 **55.** 0.25 m **57.** (a) 2.00 Hz; (b) 2.00 m; (c) 4.00 m/s; (d) 50.0 cm; (e) 150 cm; (f) 250 cm; (g) 0; (h) 100 cm; (i) 200 cm **59.** (a) 324 Hz; (b) eight **61.** 36 N **63.** (a) 75 Hz; (b) 13 ms **65.** (a) 2.0 mm; (b) 95 Hz; (c) +30 m/s; (d) 31 cm; (e) 1.2 m/s **67.** (a) 0.31 m; (b) 1.64 rad; (c) 2.2 mm **69.** (a) $0.83y_1$; (b) 37° **71.** (a) 3.77 m/s; (b) 12.3 N; (c) 0; (d) 46.4 W; (e) 0; (f) 0; (g) $\pm$0.50 cm **73.** 1.2 rad **75.** (a) 300 m/s; (b) no **77.** (a) $[k\,\Delta\ell(\ell + \Delta\ell)/m]^{0.5}$ **79.** (a) 144 m/s; (b) 3.00 m; (c) 1.50 m; (d) 48.0 Hz; (e) 96.0 Hz **81.** (a) 1.00 cm; (b) 3.46×10^3 s^{-1}; (c) 10.5 m^{-1}; (d) plus **83.** (a) $2\pi y_m/\lambda$; (b) no **85.** (a) 240 cm; (b) 120 cm; (c) 80 cm **87.** (a) 1.33 m/s; (b) 1.88 m/s; (c) 16.7 m/s^2; (d) 23.7 m/s^2 **89.** (a) 0.52 m; (b) 40 m/s; (c) 0.40 m **91.** (a) 0.16 m; (b) 2.4×10^2 N; (c) $y(x, t) = (0.16\text{ m}) \sin[(1.57\text{ m}^{-1})x] \sin[(31.4\text{ s}^{-1})t]$ **93.** (c) 2.0 m/s; (d) $-x$ **95.** (a) ∞; (b) 1.0; (c) 4.0%

Chapter 17

CP **1.** beginning to decrease (example: mentally move the curves of Fig. 17-6 rightward past the point at $x = 42$ cm) **2.** (a) 1 and 2 tie, then 3 (see Eq. 17-28); (b) 3, then 1 and 2 tie (see Eq. 17-26) **3.** second (see Eqs.17-39 and 17-41) **4.** *a*, greater; *b*, less; *c*, can't tell; *d*, can't tell; *e*, greater; *f*, less

Q **1.** (a) 0, 0.2 wavelength, 0.5 wavelength (zero); (b) $4P_{avg,1}$ **3.** *C*, then *A* and *B* tie **5.** *E, A, D, C, B* **7.** 1, 4, 3, 2 **9.** 150 Hz and 450 Hz **11.** 505, 507, 508 Hz or 501, 503, 508 Hz

P **1.** (a) 79 m; (b) 41 m; (c) 89 m **3.** (a) 2.6 km; (b) 2.0×10^2 **5.** 1.9×10^3 km **7.** 40.7 m **9.** 0.23 ms **11.** (a) 76.2 μm; (b) 0.333 mm **13.** 960 Hz **15.** (a) 2.3×10^2 Hz; (b) higher **17.** (a) 143 Hz; (b) 3; (c) 5; (d) 286 Hz; (e) 2; (f) 3 **19.** (a) 14; (b) 14 **21.** (a) 343 Hz; (b) 3; (c) 5; (d) 686 Hz; (e) 2; (f) 3 **23.** (a) 0; (b) fully constructive; (c) increase; (d) 128 m; (e) 63.0 m; (f) 41.2 m **25.** 36.8 nm **27.** (a) 1.0×10^3; (b) 32 **29.** 15.0 mW **31.** 2 μW **33.** 0.76 μm **35.** (a) 5.97×10^{-5} W/m^2; (b) 4.48 nW **37.** (a) 0.34 nW; (b) 0.68 nW; (c) 1.4 nW; (d) 0.88 nW; (e) 0 **39.** (a) 405 m/s; (b) 596 N; (c) 44.0 cm; (d) 37.3 cm **41.** (a) 833 Hz; (b) 0.418 m **43.** (a) 3; (b) 1129 Hz; (c) 1506 Hz **45.** (a) 2; (b) 1 **47.** 12.4 m **49.** 45.3 N **51.** 2.25 ms **53.** 0.020 **55.** (a) 526 Hz; (b) 555 Hz **57.** 0 **59.** (a) 1.022 kHz; (b) 1.045 kHz **61.** 41 kHz **63.** 155 Hz **65.** (a) 2.0 kHz; (b) 2.0 kHz **67.** (a) 485.8 Hz; (b) 500.0 Hz; (c) 486.2 Hz; (d) 500.0 Hz **69.** (a) 42°; (b) 11 s **71.** 1 cm **73.** 2.1 m **75.** (a) 39.7 μW/m^2; (b) 171 nm; (c) 0.893 Pa **77.** 0.25 **79.** (a) 2.10 m; (b) 1.47 m **81.** (a) 59.7; (b) 2.81×10^{-4} **83.** (a) rightward; (b) 0.90 m/s; (c) less **85.** (a) 11 ms; (b) 3.8 m **87.** (a) 9.7×10^2 Hz; (b) 1.0 kHz; (c) 60 Hz, no **89.** (a) 21 nm; (b) 35 cm; (c) 24 nm; (d) 35 cm **91.** (a) 7.70 Hz; (b) 7.70 Hz **93.** (a) 5.2 kHz; (b) 2 **95.** (a) 10 W; (b) 0.032 W/m^2; (c) 99 dB **97.** (a) 0; (b) 0.572 m; (c) 1.14 m **99.** 171 m **101.** (a) 3.6×10^2 m/s; (b) 150 Hz **103.** 400 Hz **105.** (a) 14; (b) 12 **107.** 821 m/s **109.** (a) 39.3 Hz; (b) 118 Hz **111.** 4.8×10^2 Hz

Chapter 18

CP **1.** (a) all tie; (b) 50°X, 50°Y, 50°W **2.** (a) 2 and 3 tie, then 1, then 4; (b) 3, 2, then 1 and 4 tie (from Eqs. 18-9 and 18-10, assume that change in area is proportional to initial area) **3.** *A* (see Eq. 18-14) **4.** *c* and *e* (maximize area enclosed by a clockwise cycle) **5.** (a) all tie (ΔE_{int} depends on *i* and *f*, not on path); (b) 4, 3, 2, 1 (compare areas under curves); (c) 4, 3, 2, 1 (see Eq. 18-26) **6.** (a) zero (closed cycle); (b) negative (W_{net} is negative; see Eq. 18-26) **7.** *b* and *d* tie, then *a*, *c* (P_{cond} identical; see Eq. 18-32)

Q **1.** *c*, then the rest tie **3.** *B*, then *A* and *C* tie **5.** (a) *f*, because ice temperature will not rise to freezing point and then drop; (b) *b* and *c* at freezing point, *d* above, *e* below; (c) in *b* liquid partly freezes and no ice melts; in *c* no liquid freezes and no ice melts; in *d* no liquid freezes and ice fully melts; in *e* liquid fully freezes and no ice melts **7.** (a) both clockwise; (b) both clockwise **9.** (a) greater; (b) 1, 2, 3; (c) 1, 3, 2; (d) 1, 2, 3; (e) 2, 3, 1 **11.** *c*, *b*, *a*

P **1.** 1.366 **3.** 348 K **5.** (a) 320°F; (b) $-$12.3°F **7.** $-$92.1°X **9.** 2.731 cm **11.** 49.87 cm^3 **13.** 29 cm^3 **15.** 360°C **17.** 0.26 cm^3 **19.** 0.13 mm **21.** 7.5 cm **23.** 160 s **25.** 94.6 L **27.** 42.7 kJ **29.** 33 m^2 **31.** 33 g **33.** 3.0 min **35.** 13.5 C° **37.** (a) 5.3°C; (b) 0; (c) 0°C; (d) 60 g **39.** 742 kJ **41.** (a) 0°C; (b) 2.5°C **43.** (a) 1.2×10^2 J; (b) 75 J; (c) 30 J **45.** $-$30 J **47.** (a) 6.0 cal; (b) $-$43 cal; (c) 40 cal; (d) 18 cal; (e) 18 cal **49.** 60 J **51.** (a) 1.23 kW; (b) 2.28 kW; (c) 1.05 kW **53.** 1.66 kJ/s **55.** (a) 16 J/s; (b) 0.048 g/s **57.** (a) 1.7×10^4 W/m^2; (b) 18 W/m^2 **59.** 0.50 min **61.** 0.40 cm/h **63.** $-$4.2°C **65.** 1.1 m **67.** 10% **69.** (a) 80 J; (b) 80 J **71.** 4.5×10^2 J/kg·K **73.** 0.432 cm^3 **75.** 3.1×10^2 J **77.** 79.5°C **79.** 23 J **81.** (a) $11p_1V_1$; (b) $6p_1V_1$ **83.** 4.83×10^{-2} cm^3 **85.** 10.5°C **87.** (a) 90 W; (b) 2.3×10^2 W; (c) 3.3×10^2 W **89.** (a) 1.87×10^4; (b) 10.4 h **91.** 333 J **93.** 8.6 J **95.** (a) $-$45 J; (b) +45 J **97.** 4.0×10^3 min **99.** $-$6.1 nW **101.** 1.17 C° **103.** 8.0×10^{-3} m^2 **105.** (a) too fast; (b) 0.79 s/h **107.** 1.9

Chapter 19

CP **1.** all but *c* **2.** (a) all tie; (b) 3, 2, 1 **3.** gas *A* **4.** 5 (greatest change in *T*), then tie of 1, 2, 3, and 4 **5.** 1, 2, 3 ($Q_3 = 0$, Q_2 goes into work W_2, but Q_1 goes into greater work W_1 and increases gas temperature)

Q **1.** *d*, then *a* and *b* tie, then *c* **3.** 20 J **5.** (a) 3; (b) 1; (c) 4; (d) 2; (e) yes **7.** (a) 1, 2, 3, 4; (b) 1, 2, 3 **9.** constant-volume process

P **1.** 0.933 kg **3.** (a) 0.0388 mol; (b) 220°C **5.** 25 molecules/cm^3 **7.** (a) 3.14×10^3 J; (b) from **9.** 186 kPa **11.** 5.60 kJ **13.** (a) 1.5 mol; (b) 1.8×10^3 K; (c) 6.0×10^2 K; (d) 5.0 kJ **15.** 360 K **17.** 2.0×10^5 Pa **19.** (a) 511 m/s; (b) $-$200°C; (c) 899°C **21.** 1.8×10^2 m/s **23.** 1.9 kPa **25.** (a) 5.65×10^{-21} J; (b) 7.72×10^{-21} J; (c) 3.40 kJ; (d) 4.65 kJ **27.** (a) 6.76×10^{-20} J; (b) 10.7 **29.** (a) 6×10^9 km **31.** (a) 3.27×10^{10} molecules/cm^3; (b) 172 m **33.** (a) 6.5 km/s; (b) 7.1 km/s **35.** (a) 420 m/s; (b) 458 m/s; (c) yes **37.** (a) 0.67; (b) 1.2; (c) 1.3; (d) 0.33 **39.** (a) 1.0×10^4 K; (b) 1.6×10^5 K; (c) 4.4×10^2 K; (d) 7.0×10^3 K; (e) no; (f) yes **41.** (a) 7.0 km/s; (b) 2.0×10^{-8} cm; (c) 3.5×10^{10} collisions/s **43.** (a) 3.49 kJ; (b) 2.49 kJ; (c) 997 J; (d) 1.00 kJ **45.** (a) 6.6×10^{-26} kg; (b) 40 g/mol **47.** (a) 0; (b) +374 J; (c) +374 J; (d) $+3.11 \times 10^{-22}$ J **49.** 15.8 J/mol·K **51.** 8.0 kJ **53.** (a) 6.98 kJ; (b) 4.99 kJ; (c) 1.99 kJ; (d) 2.99 kJ **55.** (a) 14 atm; (b) 6.2×10^2 K **57.** (a) diatomic; (b) 446 K; (c) 8.10 mol **59.** $-$15 J **61.** $-$20 J **63.** (a) 3.74 kJ; (b) 3.74 kJ; (c) 0; (d) 0; (e) $-$1.81 kJ; (f) 1.81 kJ; (g) $-$3.22 kJ; (h) $-$1.93 kJ; (i) $-$1.29 kJ; (j) 520 J; (k) 0; (l) 520 J; (m) 0.0246 m^3; (n) 2.00 atm; (o) 0.0373 m^3; (p) 1.00 atm **65.** (a) monatomic; (b) 2.7×10^4 K; (c) 4.5×10^4 mol; (d) 3.4 kJ; (e) 3.4×10^2 kJ; (f) 0.010 **67.** (a) 2.00 atm; (b) 333 J; (c) 0.961 atm; (d) 236 J **69.** 349 K **71.** (a) $-$374 J; (b) 0; (c) +374 J; (d) $+3.11 \times 10^{-22}$ J **73.** 7.03×10^9 s^{-1} **75.** (a) 900 cal; (b) 0; (c) 900 cal; (d) 450 cal; (e) 1200 cal; (f) 300 cal; (g) 900 cal; (h) 450 cal; (i) 0; (j) $-$900 cal; (k) 900 cal; (l) 450 cal **77.** (a) $3/v_0^3$; (b) $0.750v_0$; (c) $0.775v_0$ **79.** (a) $-$2.37 kJ; (b) 2.37 kJ **81.** (b) 125 J; (c) to **83.** (a) 8.0 atm; (b) 300 K; (c) 4.4 kJ; (d) 3.2 atm; (e) 120 K; (f) 2.9 kJ; (g) 4.6 atm; (h) 170 K; (i) 3.4 kJ **85.** (a) 38 L; (b) 71 g **87.** $-$3.0 J **89.** 22.8 m **95.** 1.40 **97.** 4.71

Chapter 20

CP **1.** a, b, c **2.** smaller (*Q* is smaller) **3.** c, b, a **4.** a, d, c, b **5.** b

Q **1.** *b*, *a*, *c*, *d* **3.** unchanged **5.** *a* and *c* tie, then *b* and *d* tie **7.** (a) same; (b) increase; (c) decrease **9.** A, first; B, first and second; C, second; D, neither

P **1.** (a) 9.22 kJ; (b) 23.1 J/K; (c) 0 **3.** 14.4 J/K **5.** (a) 5.79×10^4 J; (b) 173 J/K **7.** (a) 320 K; (b) 0; (c) +1.72 J/K **9.** +0.76 J/K **11.** (a) 57.0°C; (b) −22.1 J/K; (c) +24.9 J/K; (d) +2.8 J/K **13.** (a) −710 mJ/K; (b) +710 mJ/K; (c) +723 mJ/K; (d) −723 mJ/K; (e) +13 mJ/K; (f) 0 **15.** (a) −943 J/K; (b) +943 J/K; (c) yes **17.** (a) 0.333; (b) 0.215; (c) 0.644; (d) 1.10; (e) 1.10; (f) 0; (g) 1.10; (h) 0; (i) −0.889; (j) −0.889; (k) −1.10; (l) −0.889; (m) 0; (n) 0.889; (o) 0 **19.** (a) 0.693; (b) 4.50; (c) 0.693; (d) 0; (e) 4.50; (f) 23.0 J/K; (g) −0.693; (h) 7.50; (i) −0.693; (j) 3.00; (k) 4.50; (l) 23.0 J/K **21.** −1.18 J/K **23.** 97 K **25.** (a) 266 K; (b) 341 K **27.** (a) 23.6%; (b) 1.49×10^4 J **29.** (a) 2.27 kJ; (b) 14.8 kJ; (c) 15.4%; (d) 75.0%; (e) greater **31.** (a) 33 kJ; (b) 25 kJ; (c) 26 kJ; (d) 18 kJ **33.** (a) 1.47 kJ; (b) 554 J; (c) 918 J; (d) 62.4% **35.** (a) 3.00; (b) 1.98; (c) 0.660; (d) 0.495; (e) 0.165; (f) 34.0% **37.** 440 W **39.** 20 J **41.** 0.25 hp **43.** 2.03 **47.** (a) $W = N!/(n_1!\, n_2!\, n_3!)$; (b) $[(N/2)!\,(N/2)!]/[(N/3)!\,(N/3)!\,(N/3)!]$; (c) 4.2×10^{16} **49.** 0.141 J/K·s **51.** (a) 87 m/s; (b) 1.2×10^2 m/s; (c) 22 J/K **53.** (a) 78%; (b) 82 kg/s **55.** (a) 40.9°C; (b) −27.1 J/K; (c) 30.3 J/K; (d) 3.18 J/K **57.** +3.59 J/K **59.** 1.18×10^3 J/K **63.** (a) 0; (b) 0; (c) −23.0 J/K; (d) 23.0 J/K **65.** (a) 25.5 kJ; (b) 4.73 kJ; (c) 18.5% **67.** (a) 1.95 J/K; (b) 0.650 J/K; (c) 0.217 J/K; (d) 0.072 J/K; (e) decrease **69.** (a) 4.45 J/K; (b) no **71.** (a) 1.26×10^{14}; (b) 4.71×10^{13}; (c) 0.37; (d) 1.01×10^{29}; (e) 1.37×10^{28}; (f) 0.14; (g) 9.05×10^{58}; (h) 1.64×10^{57}; (i) 0.018; (j) decrease **73.** (a) 42.6 kJ; (b) 7.61 kJ **75.** (a) 1; (b) 1; (c) 3; (d) 10; (e) 1.5×10^{-23} J/K; (f) 3.2×10^{-23} J/K **77.** $e = (1 + K)^{-1}$ **79.** 6.7

Chapter 21

CP **1.** *C* and *D* attract; *B* and *D* attract **2.** (a) leftward; (b) leftward; (c) leftward **3.** (a) *a*, *c*, *b*; (b) less than **4.** $-15e$ (net charge of $-30e$ is equally shared)
Q **1.** 3, 1, 2, 4 (zero) **3.** *a* and *b* **5.** $2kq^2/r^2$, up the page **7.** *b* and *c* tie, then *a* (zero) **9.** (a) same; (b) less than; (c) cancel; (d) add; (e) adding components; (f) positive direction of *y*; (g) negative direction of *y*; (h) positive direction of *x*; (i) negative direction of *x* **11.** (a) $+4e$; (b) $-2e$ upward; (c) $-3e$ upward; (d) $-12e$ upward
P **1.** 0.500 **3.** 1.39 m **5.** 2.81 N **7.** −4.00 **9.** (a) −1.00 μC; (b) 3.00 μC **11.** (a) 0.17 N; (b) −0.046 N **13.** (a) −14 cm; (b) 0 **15.** (a) 35 N; (b) −10°; (c) −8.4 cm; (d) +2.7 cm **17.** (a) 1.60 N; (b) 2.77 N **19.** (a) 3.00 cm; (b) 0; (c) −0.444 **21.** 3.8×10^{-8} C **23.** (a) 0; (b) 12 cm; (c) 0; (d) 4.9×10^{-26} N **25.** 6.3×10^{11} **27.** (a) 3.2×10^{-19} C; (b) 2 **29.** (a) −6.05 cm; (b) 6.05 cm **31.** 122 mA **33.** 1.3×10^7 C **35.** (a) 0; (b) 1.9×10^{-9} N **37.** (a) ^{9}B; (b) ^{13}N; (c) ^{12}C **39.** 1.31×10^{-22} N **41.** (a) 5.7×10^{13} C; (b) cancels out; (c) 6.0×10^5 kg **43.** (b) 3.1 cm **45.** 0.19 MC **47.** −45 μC **49.** 3.8 N **51.** (a) 2.00×10^{10} electrons; (b) 1.33×10^{10} electrons **53.** (a) 8.99×10^9 N; (b) 8.99 kN **55.** (a) 0.5; (b) 0.15; (c) 0.85 **57.** 1.7×10^8 N **59.** -1.32×10^{13} C **61.** (a) (0.829 N)$\hat{i}$; (b) (−0.621 N)$\hat{j}$ **63.** 2.2×10^{-6} kg **65.** 4.68×10^{-19} N **67.** (a) 2.72*L*; (b) 0 **69.** (a) 5.1×10^2 N; (b) 7.7×10^{28} m/s^2 **71.** (a) 0; (b) 3.43×10^9 m/s^2 **73.** (a) 2.19×10^6 m/s; (b) 1.09×10^6 m/s; (c) decrease **75.** 4.16×10^{42}

Chapter 22

CP **1.** (a) rightward; (b) leftward; (c) leftward; (d) rightward (p and e have same charge magnitude, and p is farther) **2.** (a) toward positive *y*; (b) toward positive *x*; (c) toward negative *y* **3.** (a) leftward; (b) leftward; (c) decrease **4.** (a) all tie; (b) 1 and 3 tie, then 2 and 4 tie
Q **1.** *a*, *b*, *c* **3.** (a) yes; (b) toward; (c) no (the field vectors are not along the same line); (d) cancel; (e) add; (f) adding components; (g) toward negative *y* **5.** (a) to their left; (b) no **7.** (a) 4, 3, 1, 2; (b) 3, then 1 and 4 tie, then 2 **9.** *a*, *b*, *c* **11.** *e*, *b*, then *a* and *c* tie, then *d* (zero) **13.** *a*, *b*, *c*
P **3.** (a) 3.07×10^{21} N/C; (b) outward **5.** 56 pC **7.** $(1.02 \times 10^5$ N/C$)\hat{j}$ **9.** (a) 1.38×10^{-10} N/C; (b) 180° **11.** −30 cm **13.** (a) 3.60×10^{-6} N/C; (b) 2.55×10^{-6} N/C; (c) 3.60×10^{-4} N/C; (d) 7.09×10^{-7} N/C; (e) As the proton nears the disk, the forces on it from electrons e_s more nearly cancel. **15.** (a) 160 N/C; (b) 45° **17.** (a) −90°; (b) +2.0 μC; (c) −1.6 μC **19.** (a) $qd/4\pi\varepsilon_0 r^3$; (b) −90° **23.** 0.506 **25.** (a) 1.62×10^6 N/C; (b) −45° **27.** (a) 23.8 N/C; (b) −90° **29.** 1.57 **31.** (a) -5.19×10^{-14} C/m; (b) 1.57×10^{-3} N/C; (c) −180°; (d) 1.52×10^{-8} N/C; (e) 1.52×10^{-8} N/C **35.** 0.346 m **37.** 28% **39.** $-5e$ **41.** (a) 1.5×10^3 N/C; (b) 2.4×10^{-16} N; (c) up; (d) 1.6×10^{-26} N; (e) 1.5×10^{10} **43.** 3.51×10^{15} m/s^2 **45.** 6.6×10^{-15} N **47.** (a) 1.92×10^{12} m/s^2; (b) 1.96×10^5 m/s **49.** (a) 0.245 N; (b) −11.3°; (c) 108 m; (d) −21.6 m **51.** 2.6×10^{-10} N; (b) 3.1×10^{-8} N; (c) moves to stigma **53.** 27 μm **55.** (a) 2.7×10^6 m/s; (b) 1.0 kN/C **57.** (a) 9.30×10^{-15} C·m; (b) 2.05×10^{-11} J **59.** 1.22×10^{-23} J **61.** $(1/2\pi)(pE/I)^{0.5}$ **63.** (a) 8.87×10^{-15} N; (b) 120 **65.** 217° **67.** 61 N/C **69.** (a) 47 N/C; (b) 27 N/C **71.** 38 N/C **73.** (a) −1.0 cm; (b) 0; (c) 10 pC **75.** +1.00 μC **77.** (a) 6.0 mm; (b) 180° **79.** 9:30 **81.** (a) −0.029 C; (b) repulsive forces would explode the sphere **83.** (a) -1.49×10^{-26} J; (b) $(-1.98 \times 10^{-26}$ N·m$)\hat{k}$; (c) 3.47×10^{-26} J **85.** (a) top row: 4, 8, 12; middle row: 5, 10, 14; bottom row: 7, 11, 16; (b) 1.63×10^{-19} C **87.** (a) (−1.80 N/C)$\hat{i}$; (b) (43.2 N/C)$\hat{i}$; (c) (−6.29 N/C)$\hat{i}$

Chapter 23

CP **1.** (a) $+EA$; (b) $-EA$; (c) 0; (d) 0 **2.** (a) 2; (b) 3; (c) 1 **3.** (a) equal; (b) equal; (c) equal **4.** 3 and 4 tie, then 2, 1
Q **1.** (a) 8 N·m^2/C; (b) 0 **3.** all tie **5.** all tie **7.** *a*, *c*, then *b* and *d* tie (zero) **9.** (a) 2, 1, 3; (b) all tie $(+4q)$ **11.** (a) impossible; (b) $-3q_0$; (c) impossible
P **1.** −0.015 N·m^2/C **3.** (a) 0; (b) −3.92 N·m^2/C; (c) 0; (d) 0 **5.** 3.01 nN·m^2/C **7.** 2.0×10^5 N·m^2/C **9.** (a) 8.23 N·m^2/C; (b) 72.9 pC; (c) 8.23 N·m^2/C; (d) 72.9 pC **11.** −1.70 nC **13.** 3.54 μC **15.** (a) 0; (b) 0.0417 **17.** (a) 37 μC; (b) 4.1×10^6 N·m^2/C **19.** (a) 4.5×10^{-7} C/m^2; (b) 5.1×10^4 N/C **21.** (a) -3.0×10^{-6} C; (b) $+1.3 \times 10^{-5}$ C **23.** (a) 0.32 μC; (b) 0.14 μC **25.** 5.0 μC/m **27.** 3.8×10^{-8} C/m^2 **29.** (a) 0.214 N/C; (b) inward; (c) 0.855 N/C; (d) outward; (e) -3.40×10^{-12} C; (f) -3.40×10^{-12} C **31.** (a) 2.3×10^6 N/C; (b) outward; (c) 4.5×10^5 N/C; (d) inward **33.** (a) 0; (b) 0; (c) $(-7.91 \times 10^{-11}$ N/C$)\hat{i}$ **35.** −1.5 **37.** (a) 5.3×10^7 N/C; (b) 60 N/C **39.** 5.0 nC/m^2 **41.** 0.44 mm **43.** (a) 0; (b) 1.31 μN/C; (c) 3.08 μN/C; (d) 3.08 μN/C **45.** (a) 2.50×10^4 N/C; (b) 1.35×10^4 N/C **47.** −7.5 nC **49.** (a) 0; (b) 56.2 mN/C; (c) 112 mN/C; (d) 49.9 mN/C; (e) 0; (f) 0; (g) −5.00 fC; (h) 0 **51.** 1.79×10^{-11} C/m^2 **53.** (a) 7.78 fC; (b) 0; (c) 5.58 mN/C; (d) 22.3 mN/C **55.** $6K\varepsilon_0 r^3$ **57.** (a) 0; (b) 2.88×10^4 N/C; (c) 200 N/C **59.** (a) 5.4 N/C; (b) 6.8 N/C **61.** (a) 0; (b) $q_a/4\pi\varepsilon_0 r^2$; (c) $(q_a + q_b)/4\pi\varepsilon_0 r^2$ **63.** −1.04 nC **65.** (a) 0.125; (b) 0.500 **67.** (a) +2.0 nC; (b) −1.2 nC; (c) +1.2 nC; (d) +0.80 nC **69.** $(5.65 \times 10^4$ N/C$)\hat{j}$ **71.** (a) -2.53×10^{-2} N·m^2/C; (b) $+2.53 \times 10^{-2}$ N·m^2/C **75.** 3.6 nC **77.** (a) +4.0 μC; (b) −4.0 μC **79.** (a) 693 kg/s; (b) 693 kg/s; (c) 347 kg/s; (d) 347 kg/s; (e) 575 kg/s **81.** (a) 0.25*R*; (b) 2.0*R*

Chapter 24

CP **1.** (a) negative; (b) increase; (c) positive; (d) higher **2.** (a) rightward; (b) 1, 2, 3, 5: positive; 4, negative; (c) 3, then 1, 2, and 5 tie, then 4 **3.** all tie **4.** *a*, *c* (zero), *b* **5.** (a) 2, then 1 and 3 tie; (b) 3; (c) accelerate leftward

Q **1.** $-4q/4\pi\varepsilon_0 d$ **3.** (a) 1 and 2; (b) none; (c) no; (d) 1 and 2, yes; 3 and 4, no **5.** (a) higher; (b) positive; (c) negative; (d) all tie **7.** (a) 0; (b) 0; (c) 0; (d) all three quantities still 0 **9.** (a) 3 and 4 tie, then 1 and 2 tie; (b) 1 and 2, increase; 3 and 4, decrease **11.** a, b, c
P **1.** (a) 3.0×10^5 C; (b) 3.6×10^6 J **3.** 2.8×10^5 **5.** 8.8 mm **7.** -32.0 V **9.** (a) 1.87×10^{-21} J; (b) -11.7 mV **11.** (a) -0.268 mV; (b) -0.681 mV **13.** (a) 3.3 nC; (b) 12 nC/m^2 **15.** (a) 0.54 mm; (b) 790 V **17.** 0.562 mV **19.** (a) 6.0 cm; (b) -12.0 cm **21.** 16.3 μV **23.** (a) 24.3 mV; (b) 0 **25.** (a) -2.30 V; (b) -1.78 V **27.** 13 kV **29.** 32.4 mV **31.** 47.1 μV **33.** 18.6 mV **35.** $(-12\text{ V/m})\hat{i} + (12\text{ V/m})\hat{j}$ **37.** 150 N/C **39.** $(-4.0 \times 10^{-16}\text{ N})\hat{i} + (1.6 \times 10^{-16}\text{ N})\hat{j}$ **41.** (a) 0.90 J; (b) 4.5 J **43.** -0.192 pJ **45.** 2.5 km/s **47.** 22 km/s **49.** 0.32 km/s **51.** (a) $+6.0 \times 10^4$ V; (b) -7.8×10^5 V; (c) 2.5 J; (d) increase; (e) same; (f) same **53.** (a) 0.225 J; (b) A 45.0 m/s^2, B 22.5 m/s^2; (c) A 7.75 m/s, B 3.87 m/s **55.** 1.6×10^{-9} m **57.** (a) 3.0 J; (b) -8.5 m **59.** (a) proton; (b) 65.3 km/s **61.** (a) 12; (b) 2 **63.** (a) -1.8×10^2 V; (b) 2.9 kV; (c) -8.9 kV **65.** 2.5×10^{-8} C **67.** (a) 12 kN/C; (b) 1.8 kV; (c) 5.8 cm **69.** (a) 64 N/C; (b) 2.9 V; (c) 0 **71.** $p/2\pi\varepsilon_0 r^3$ **73.** (a) 3.6×10^5 V; (b) no **75.** 6.4×10^8 V **77.** 2.90 kV **79.** 7.0×10^5 m/s **81.** (a) 1.8 cm; (b) 8.4×10^5 m/s; (c) 2.1×10^{-17} N; (d) positive; (e) 1.6×10^{-17} N; (f) negative **83.** (a) $+7.19 \times 10^{-10}$ V; (b) $+2.30 \times 10^{-28}$ J; (c) $+2.43 \times 10^{-29}$ J **85.** 2.30×10^{-28} J **87.** 2.1 days **89.** 2.30×10^{-22} J **91.** 1.48×10^7 m/s **93.** -1.92 MV **95.** (a) $Q/4\pi\varepsilon_0 r$; (b) $(\rho/3\varepsilon_0)(1.5r_2^2 - 0.50r^2 - r_1^3 r^{-1})$, $\rho = Q/[(4\pi/3)(r_2^3 - r_1^3)]$; (c) $(\rho/2\varepsilon_0)(r_2^2 - r_1^2)$, with ρ as in (b); (d) yes **97.** (a) 38 s; (b) 2.7×10^2 days **101.** (a) 0.484 MeV; (b) 0 **103.** -1.7

Chapter 25

CP **1.** (a) same; (b) same **2.** (a) decreases; (b) increases; (c) decreases **3.** (a) V, $q/2$; (b) $V/2$; q
Q **1.** a, 2; b, 1; c, 3 **3.** (a) no; (b) yes; (c) all tie **5.** (a) same; (b) same; (c) more; (d) more **7.** a, series; b, parallel; c, parallel **9.** (a) increase; (b) same; (c) increase; (d) increase; (e) increase; (f) increase **11.** parallel, C_1 alone, C_2 alone, series
P **1.** (a) 3.5 pF; (b) 3.5 pF; (c) 57 V **3.** (a) 144 pF; (b)17.3 nC **5.** 0.280 pF **7.** 6.79×10^{-4} F/m^2 **9.** 315 mC **11.** 3.16 μF **13.** 43 pF **15.** (a) 3.00 μF; (b) 60.0 μC; (c) 10.0 V; (d) 30.0 μC; (e) 10.0 V; (f) 20.0 μC; (g) 5.00 V; (h) 20.0 μC **17.** (a) 789 μC; (b) 78.9 V **19.** (a) 4.0 μF; (b) 2.0 μF **21.** (a) 50 V; (b) 5.0×10^{-5} C; (c) 1.5×10^{-4} C **23.** (a) 4.5×10^{14}; (b) 1.5×10^{14}; (c) 3.0×10^{14}; (d) 4.5×10^{14}; (e) up; (f) up **25.** 3.6 pC **27.** (a) 9.00 μC; (b) 16.0 μC; (c) 9.00 μC; (d) 16.0 μC; (e) 8.40 μC; (f) 16.8 μC; (g) 10.8 μC; (h) 14.4 μC **29.** 72 F **31.** 0.27 J **33.** 0.11 J/m^3 **35.** (a) 9.16×10^{-18} J/m^3; (b) 9.16×10^{-6} J/m^3; (c) 9.16×10^6 J/m^3; (d) 9.16×10^{18} J/m^3; (e) ∞ **37.** (a) 16.0 V; (b) 45.1 pJ; (c) 120 pJ; (d) 75.2 pJ **39.** (a) 190 V; (b) 95 mJ **41.** 81 pF/m **43.** Pyrex **45.** 66 μJ **47.** 0.63 m^2 **49.** 17.3 pF **51.** (a) 10 kV/m; (b) 5.0 nC; (c) 4.1 nC **53.** (a) 89 pF; (b) 0.12 nF; (c) 11 nC; (d) 11 nC; (e) 10 kV/m; (f) 2.1 kV/m; (g) 88 V; (h) -0.17 μJ **55.** (a) 0.107 nF; (b) 7.79 nC; (c) 7.45 nC **57.** 45 μC **59.** 16 μC **61.** (a) 7.20 μC; (b) 18.0 μC; (c) Battery supplies charges only to plates to which it is connected; charges on other plates are due to electron transfers between plates, in accord with new distribution of voltages across the capacitors. So the battery does not directly supply charge on capacitor 4. **63.** (a) 10 μC; (b) 20 μC **65.** 1.06 nC **67.** (a) 2.40 μF; (b) 0.480 mC; (c) 80 V; (d) 0.480 mC; (e) 120 V **69.** 4.9% **71.** (a) 0.708 pF; (b) 0.600 ; (c) 1.02×10^{-9} J; (d) sucked in **73.** 5.3 V **75.** 40 μF **77.** (a) 200 kV/m; (b) 200 kV/m; (c) 1.77 μC/m^2; (d) 4.60 μC/m^2; (e) -2.83 μC/m^2 **79.** (a) $q^2/2\varepsilon_0 A$

Chapter 26

CP **1.** 8 A, rightward **2.** (a)–(c) rightward **3.** a and c tie, then b **4.** device 2 **5.** (a) and (b) tie, then (d), then (c)
Q **1.** tie of A, B, and C, then tie of $A + B$ and $B + C$, then $A + B + C$ **3.** (a) top-bottom, front-back, left-right; (b) top-bottom, front-back, left-right; (c) top-bottom, front-back, left-right; (d) top-bottom, front-back, left-right **5.** a, b, and c all tie, then d **7.** (a) B, A, C; (b) B, A, C **9.** (a) C, B, A; (b) all tie; (c) A, B, C; (d) all tie **11.** (a) a and c tie, then b (zero); (b) a, b, c; (c) a and b tie, then c
P **1.** (a) 1.2 kC; (b) 7.5×10^{21} **3.** 6.7 μC/m^2 **5.** (a) 6.4 A/m^2; (b) north; (c) cross-sectional area **7.** 0.38 mm **9.** 18.1 μA **11.** (a) 1.33 A; (b) 0.666 A; (c) J_a **13.** 13 min **15.** 2.4 Ω **17.** 2.0×10^6 (Ω·m)$^{-1}$ **19.** 2.0×10^{-8} Ω·m **21.** (1.8×10^3)°C **23.** 8.2×10^{-8} Ω·m **25.** 54 Ω **27.** 3.0 **29.** 3.35×10^{-7} C **31.** (a) 6.00 mA; (b) 1.59×10^{-8} V; (c) 21.2 nΩ **33.** (a) 38.3 mA; (b) 109 A/m^2; (c) 1.28 cm/s; (d) 227 V/m **35.** 981 kΩ **39.** 150 s **41.** (a) 1.0 kW; (b) US\$0.25 **43.** 0.135 W **45.** (a) 10.9 A; (b) 10.6 Ω; (c) 4.50 MJ **47.** (a) 5.85 m; (b) 10.4 m **49.** (a) US\$4.46; (b) 144 Ω; (c) 0.833 A **51.** (a) 5.1 V; (b) 10 V; (c) 10 W; (d) 20 W **53.** (a) 28.8 Ω; (b) 2.60×10^{19} s^{-1} **55.** 660 W **57.** 28.8 kC **59.** (a) silver; (b) 51.6 nΩ **61.** (a) 2.3×10^{12}; (b) 5.0×10^3; (c) 10 MV **63.** 2.4 kW **65.** (a) 1.37; (b) 0.730 **67.** (a) -8.6%; (b) smaller **69.** 146 kJ **71.** (a) 250°C; (b) yes **73.** 3.0×10^6 J/kg **75.** 560 W **77.** 0.27 m/s **79.** (a) 10 A/cm^2; (b) eastward **81.** (a) 9.4×10^{13} s^{-1}; (b) 2.40×10^2 W **83.** 113 min **85.** (a) 225 μC; (b) 60.0 μA; (c) 0.450 mW

Chapter 27

CP **1.** (a) rightward; (b) all tie; (c) b, then a and c tie; (d) b, then a and c tie **2.** (a) all tie; (b) R_1, R_2, R_3 **3.** (a) less; (b) greater; (c) equal **4.** (a) $V/2, i$; (b) $V, i/2$ **5.** (a) 1, 2, 4, 3; (b) 4, tie of 1 and 2, then 3
Q **1.** (a) equal; (b) more **3.** parallel, R_2, R_1, series **5.** (a) series; (b) parallel; (c) parallel **7.** (a) less; (b) less; (c) more **9.** (a) parallel; (b) series **11.** (a) same; (b) same; (c) less; (d) more **13.** (a) all tie; (b) 1, 3, 2
P **1.** (a) 0.50 A; (b) 1.0 W; (c) 2.0 W; (d) 6.0 W; (e) 3.0 W; (f) supplied; (g) absorbed **3.** (a) 14 V; (b) 1.0×10^2 W; (c) 6.0×10^2 W; (d) 10 V; (e) 1.0×10^2 W **5.** 11 kJ **7.** (a) 80 J; (b) 67 J; (c) 13 J **9.** (a) 12.0 eV; (b) 6.53 W **11.** (a) 50 V; (b) 48 V; (c) negative **13.** (a) 6.9 km; (b) 20 Ω **15.** 8.0 Ω **17.** (a) 0.004 Ω; (b) 1 **19.** (a) 4.00 Ω; (b) parallel **21.** 5.56 A **23.** (a) 50 mA; (b) 60 mA; (c) 9.0 V **25.** $3d$ **27.** 3.6×10^3 A **29.** (a) 0.333 A; (b) right; (c) 720 J **31.** (a) -11 V; (b) -9.0 V **33.** 48.3 V **35.** (a) 5.25 V; (b) 1.50 V; (c) 5.25 V; (d) 6.75 V **37.** 1.43 Ω **39.** (a) 0.150 Ω; (b) 240 W **41.** (a) 0.709 W; (b) 0.050 W; (c) 0.346 W; (d) 1.26 W; (e) -0.158 W **43.** 9 **45.** (a) 0.67 A; (b) down; (c) 0.33 A; (d) up; (e) 0.33 A; (f) up; (g) 3.3 V **47.** (a) 1.11 A; (b) 0.893 A; (c) 126 m **49.** (a) 0.45 A **51.** (a) 55.2 mA; (b) 4.86 V; (c) 88.0 Ω; (d) decrease **53.** -3.0% **57.** 0.208 ms **59.** 4.61 **61.** (a) 2.41 μs; (b) 161 pF **63.** (a) 1.1 mA; (b) 0.55 mA; (c) 0.55 mA; (d) 0.82 mA; (e) 0.82 mA; (f) 0; (g) 4.0×10^2 V; (h) 6.0×10^2 V **65.** 411 μA **67.** 0.72 MΩ **69.** (a) 0.955 μC/s; (b) 1.08 μW; (c) 2.74 μW; (d) 3.82 μW **71.** (a) 3.00 A; (b) 3.75 A; (c) 3.94 A **73.** (a) 1.32×10^7 A/m^2; (b) 8.90 V; (c) copper; (d) 1.32×10^7 A/m^2; (e) 51.1 V; (f) iron **75.** (a) 3.0 kV; (b) 10 s; (c) 11 GΩ **77.** (a) 85.0 Ω; (b) 915 Ω **81.** 4.0 V **83.** (a) 24.8 Ω; (b) 14.9 kΩ **85.** the cable **87.** -13 μC **89.** 20 Ω **91.** (a) 3.00 A; (b) down; (c) 1.60 A; (d) down; (e) supply; (f) 55.2 W; (g) supply; (h) 6.40 W **93.** (a) 1.0 V; (b) 50 mΩ **95.** 3 **99.** (a) 1.5 mA; (b) 0; (c) 1.0 mA **101.** 7.50 V

103. (a) 60.0 mA; (b) down; (c) 180 mA; (d) left; (e) 240 mA; (f) up **105.** (a) 4.0 A; (b) up; (c) 0.50 A; (d) down; (e) 64 W; (f) 16 W; (g) supplied; (h) absorbed

Chapter 28

CP **1.** a, $+z$; b, $-x$; c, $\vec{F}_B = 0$ **2.** (a) 2, then tie of 1 and 3 (zero); (b) 4 **3.** (a) electron; (b) clockwise **4.** $-y$ **5.** (a) all tie; (b) 1 and 4 tie, then 2 and 3 tie

Q **1.** (a) no, because $\vec{v}$ and $\vec{F}_B$ must be perpendicular; (b) yes; (c) no, because $\vec{B}$ and $\vec{F}_B$ must be perpendicular **3.** (a) $+z$ and $-z$ tie, then $+y$ and $-y$ tie, then $+x$ and $-x$ tie (zero); (b) $+y$ **5.** (a) $\vec{F}_E$; (b) $\vec{F}_B$ **7.** (a) $\vec{B}_1$; (b) $\vec{B}_1$ into page, $\vec{B}_2$ out of page; (c) less **9.** (a) positive; (b) $2 \to 1$ and $2 \to 4$ tie, then $2 \to 3$ (which is zero) **11.** (a) negative; (b) equal; (c) equal; (d) half-circle

P **1.** (a) 400 km/s; (b) 835 eV **3.** (a) $(6.2 \times 10^{-14}\ \mathrm{N})\hat{k}$; (b) $(-6.2 \times 10^{-14}\ \mathrm{N})\hat{k}$ **5.** -2.0 T **7.** $(-11.4\ \mathrm{V/m})\hat{i} - (6.00\ \mathrm{V/m})\hat{j} + (4.80\ \mathrm{V/m})\hat{k}$ **9.** $-(0.267\ \mathrm{mT})\hat{k}$ **11.** 0.68 MV/m **13.** 7.4 μV **15.** (a) $(-600\ \mathrm{mV/m})\hat{k}$; (b) 1.20 V **17.** (a) 2.60×10^6 m/s; (b) 0.109 μs; (c) 0.140 MeV; (d) 70.0 kV **19.** 1.2×10^{-9} kg/C **21.** (a) 2.05×10^7 m/s; (b) 467 μT; (c) 13.1 MHz; (d) 76.3 ns **23.** 21.1 μT **25.** (a) 0.978 MHz; (b) 96.4 cm **27.** (a) 495 mT; (b) 22.7 mA; (c) 8.17 MJ **29.** 65.3 km/s **31.** 5.07 ns **33.** (a) 0.358 ns; (b) 0.166 mm; (c) 1.51 mm **35.** (a) 200 eV; (b) 20.0 keV; (c) 0.499% **37.** 2.4×10^2 m **39.** (a) 28.2 N; (b) horizontally west **41.** (a) 467 mA; (b) right **43.** (a) 0; (b) 0.138 N; (c) 0.138 N; (d) 0 **45.** $(-2.50\ \mathrm{mN})\hat{j} + (0.750\ \mathrm{mN})\hat{k}$ **47.** (a) 0.10 T; (b) 31° **49.** $(-4.3 \times 10^{-3}\ \mathrm{N \cdot m})\hat{j}$ **51.** 2.45 A **55.** (a) 2.86 A·m²; (b) 1.10 A·m² **57.** (a) 12.7 A; (b) 0.0805 N·m **59.** (a) 0.30 A·m²; (b) 0.024 N·m **61.** (a) -72.0 μJ; (b) $(96.0\hat{i} + 48.0\hat{k})$ μN·m **63.** (a) $-(9.7 \times 10^{-4}\ \mathrm{N \cdot m})\hat{i} - (7.2 \times 10^{-4}\ \mathrm{N \cdot m})\hat{j} + (8.0 \times 10^{-4}\ \mathrm{N \cdot m})\hat{k}$; (b) -6.0×10^{-4} J **65.** (a) 90°; (b) 1; (c) 1.28×10^{-7} N·m **67.** (a) 20 min; (b) 5.9×10^{-2} N·m **69.** 8.2 mm **71.** 127 u **73.** (a) 6.3×10^{14} m/s²; (b) 3.0 mm **75.** (a) 1.4; (b) 1.0 **77.** $(-500\ \mathrm{V/m})\hat{j}$ **79.** (a) 0.50; (b) 0.50; (c) 14 cm; (d) 14 cm **81.** $(0.80\hat{j} - 1.1\hat{k})$ mN **83.** -40 mC **85.** (a) $(12.8\hat{i} + 6.41\hat{j}) \times 10^{-22}$ N; (b) 90°; (c) 173° **87.** (a) up the conducting path; (b) rim; (c) 47.1 V; (d) 47.1 V; (e) 2.36 kW **89.** $(mV/2ed^2)^{0.5}$ **91.** $n = JB/eE$

Chapter 29

CP **1.** b, c, a **2.** d, tie of a and c, then b **3.** d, a, tie of b and c (zero)

Q **1.** c, a, b **3.** c, d, then a and b tie (zero) **5.** a, c, b **7.** c and d tie, then b, a **9.** b, a, d, c (zero) **11.** (a) 1, 3, 2; (b) less

P **1.** (a) 3.3 μT; (b) yes **3.** (a) 16 A; (b) east **5.** (a) 1.0 mT; (b) out; (c) 0.80 mT; (d) out **7.** (a) 0.102 μT; (b) out **9.** (a) opposite; (b) 30 A **11.** (a) 4.3 A; (b) out **13.** 50.3 nT **15.** (a) 1.7 μT; (b) into; (c) 6.7 μT; (d) into **17.** 132 nT **19.** 5.0 μT **21.** 256 nT **23.** $(-7.75 \times 10^{-23}\ \mathrm{N})\hat{i}$ **25.** 2.00 rad **27.** 61.3 mA **29.** $(80\ \mu\mathrm{T})\hat{j}$ **31.** (a) 20 μT; (b) into **33.** $(22.3\ \mathrm{pT})\hat{j}$ **35.** 88.4 pN/m **37.** $(-125\ \mu\mathrm{N/m})\hat{i} + (41.7\ \mu\mathrm{N/m})\hat{j}$ **39.** 800 nN/m **41.** $(3.20\ \mathrm{mN})\hat{j}$ **43.** (a) 0; (b) 0.850 mT; (c) 1.70 mT; (d) 0.850 mT **45.** (a) -2.5 μT·m; (b) 0 **47.** (a) 0; (b) 0.10 μT; (c) 0.40 μT **49.** (a) 533 μT; (b) 400 μT **51.** 0.30 mT **53.** 0.272 A **55.** (a) 4.77 cm; (b) 35.5 μT **57.** (a) 2.4 A·m²; (b) 46 cm **59.** 0.47 A·m² **61.** (a) 79 μT; (b) 1.1×10^{-6} N·m **63.** (a) $(0.060\ \mathrm{A \cdot m^2})\hat{j}$; (b) $(96\ \mathrm{pT})\hat{j}$ **65.** 1.28 mm **69.** (a) 15 A; (b) $-z$ **71.** 7.7 mT **73.** (a) 15.3 μT **75.** (a) $(0.24\hat{i})$ nT; (b) 0; (c) $(-43\hat{k})$ pT; (d) $(0.14\hat{k})$ nT **79.** (a) 4.8 mT; (b) 0.93 mT; (c) 0 **83.** $(-0.20\ \mathrm{mT})\hat{k}$ **87.** (a) $\mu_0 ir/2\pi c^2$; (b) $\mu_0 i/2\pi r$; (c) $\mu_0 i(a^2 - r^2)/2\pi(a^2 - b^2)r$; (d) 0

Chapter 30

CP **1.** b, then d and e tie, and then a and c tie (zero) **2.** a and b tie, then c (zero) **3.** c and d tie, then a and b tie **4.** b, out; c, out; d, into; e, into **5.** d and e **6.** (a) 2, 3, 1 (zero); (b) 2, 3, 1 **7.** a and b tie, then c

Q **1.** out **3.** (a) all tie (zero); (b) 2, then 1 and 3 tie (zero) **5.** d and c tie, then b, a **7.** (a) more; (b) same; (c) same; (d) same (zero) **9.** (a) all tie (zero); (b) 1 and 2 tie, then 3; (c) all tie (zero) **11.** b

P **1.** 0 **3.** 30 mA **5.** 0 **7.** (a) 31 mV; (b) left **9.** 0.198 mV **11.** (b) 0.796 m² **13.** 29.5 mC **15.** (a) 21.7 V; (b) counterclockwise **17.** (a) 1.26×10^{-4} T; (b) 0; (c) 1.26×10^{-4} T; (d) yes; (e) 5.04×10^{-8} V **19.** 5.50 kV **21.** (a) 40 Hz; (b) 3.2 mV **23.** (a) $\mu_0 iR^2\pi r^2/2x^3$; (b) $3\mu_0 i\pi R^2 r^2 v/2x^4$; (c) counterclockwise **25.** (a) 13 μWb/m; (b) 17%; (c) 0 **27.** (a) 80 μV; (b) clockwise **29.** (a) 48.1 mV; (b) 2.67 mA; (c) 0.129 mW **31.** 3.68 μW **33.** (a) 240 μV; (b) 0.600 mA; (c) 0.144 μW; (d) 2.87×10^{-8} N; (e) 0.144 μW **35.** (a) 0.60 V; (b) up; (c) 1.5 A; (d) clockwise; (e) 0.90 W; (f) 0.18 N; (g) 0.90 W **37.** (a) 71.5 μV/m; (b) 143 μV/m **39.** 0.15 V/m **41.** (a) 2.45 mWb; (b) 0.645 mH **43.** 1.81 μH/m **45.** (a) decreasing; (b) 0.68 mH **47.** (b) $L_{eq} = \Sigma L_j$, sum from $j = 1$ to $j = N$ **49.** 59.3 mH **51.** 46 Ω **53.** (a) 8.45 ns; (b) 7.37 mA **55.** 6.91 **57.** (a) 1.5 s **59.** (a) $i[1 - \exp(-Rt/L)]$; (b) $(L/R)\ln 2$ **61.** (a) 97.9 H; (b) 0.196 mJ **63.** 25.6 ms **65.** (a) 18.7 J; (b) 5.10 J; (c) 13.6 J **67.** (a) 34.2 J/m³; (b) 49.4 mJ **69.** 1.5×10^8 V/m **71.** (a) 1.0 J/m³; (b) 4.8×10^{-15} J/m³ **73.** (a) 1.67 mH; (b) 6.00 mWb **75.** 13 μH **77.** (b) have the turns of the two solenoids wrapped in opposite directions **79.** (a) 2.0 A; (b) 0; (c) 2.0 A; (d) 0; (e) 10 V; (f) 2.0 A/s; (g) 2.0 A; (h) 1.0 A; (i) 3.0 A; (j) 10 V; (k) 0; (l) 0 **81.** (a) 10 μT; (b) out; (c) 3.3 μT; (d) out **83.** 0.520 ms **85.** (a) $(4.4 \times 10^7\ \mathrm{m/s^2})\hat{i}$; (b) 0; (c) $(-4.4 \times 10^7\ \mathrm{m/s^2})\hat{i}$ **87.** (a) 0.40 V; (b) 20 A **89.** (a) 10 A; (b) 1.0×10^2 J **91.** (a) 0; (b) 8.0×10^2 A/s; (c) 1.8 mA; (d) 4.4×10^2 A/s; (e) 4.0 mA; (f) 0 **93.** 1.15 W **95.** (a) 20 A/s; (b) 0.75 A **97.** 12 A/s **99.** 3×10^{36} J **101.** (a) 13.9 H; (b) 120 mA

Chapter 31

CP **1.** (a) $T/2$; (b) T; (c) $T/2$; (d) $T/4$ **2.** (a) 5 V; (b) 150 μJ **3.** (a) remains the same; (b) remains the same **4.** (a) C, B, A; (b) 1, A; 2, B; 3, S; 4, C; (c) A **5.** (a) remains the same; (b) increases; (c) remains the same; (d) decreases **6.** (a) 1, lags; 2, leads; 3, in phase; (b) 3 ($\omega_d = \omega$ when $X_L = X_C$) **7.** (a) increase (circuit is mainly capacitive; increase C to decrease X_C to be closer to resonance for maximum P_{avg}); (b) closer **8.** (a) greater; (b) step-up

Q **1.** b, a, c **3.** (a) $T/4$; (b) $T/4$; (c) $T/2$; (d) $T/2$ **5.** c, b, a **7.** a inductor; b resistor; c capacitor **9.** (a) positive; (b) decreased (to decrease X_L and get closer to resonance); (c) decreased (to increase X_C and get closer to resonance) **11.** (a) rightward, increase (X_L increases, closer to resonance); (b) rightward, increase (X_C decreases, closer to resonance); (c) rightward, increase (ω_d/ω increases, closer to resonance) **13.** (a) inductor; (b) decrease

P **1.** (a) 1.17 μJ; (b) 5.58 mA **3.** (a) 6.00 μs; (b) 167 kHz; (c) 3.00 μs **5.** 45.2 mA **7.** (a) 1.25 kg; (b) 372 N/m; (c) 1.75×10^{-4} m; (d) 3.02 mm/s **9.** 7.0×10^{-4} s **11.** (a) 6.0; (b) 36 pF; (c) 0.22 mH **13.** (a) 0.180 mC; (b) 70.7 μs; (c) 66.7 W **15.** (a) 3.0 nC; (b) 1.7 mA; (c) 4.5 nJ **17.** (a) 275 Hz; (b) 365 mA **21.** (a) 356 μs; (b) 2.50 mH; (c) 3.20 mJ **23.** (a) 1.98 μJ; (b) 5.56 μC; (c) 12.6 mA; (d) $-46.9°$; (e) $+46.9°$ **25.** 8.66 mΩ **29.** (a) 95.5 mA; (b) 11.9 mA **31.** (a) 0.65 kHz; (b) 24 Ω **33.** (a) 6.73 ms; (b) 11.2 ms; (c) inductor; (d) 138 mH **35.** 89 Ω **37.** 7.61 A **39.** (a) 267 Ω; (b) $-41.5°$; (c) 135 mA **41.** (a) 206 Ω; (b) 13.7°; (c) 175 mA **43.** (a) 218 Ω; (b) 23.4°; (c) 165 mA **45.** (a) yes; (b) 1.0 kV **47.** (a) 224 rad/s; (b) 6.00 A; (c) 219 rad/s; (d) 228 rad/s; (e) 0.040 **49.** (a) 796 Hz; (b) no change; (c) decreased; (d) increased **53.** (a) 12.1 Ω; (b) 1.19 kW

55. 1.84 A **57.** (a) 117 μF; (b) 0; (c) 90.0 W; (d) 0°; (e) 1; (f) 0; (g) $-90°$; (h) 0 **59.** (a) 2.59 A; (b) 38.8 V; (c) 159 V; (d) 224 V; (e) 64.2 V; (f) 75.0 V; (g) 100 W; (h) 0; (i) 0 **61.** (a) 0.743; (b) lead; (c) capacitive; (d) no; (e) yes; (f) no; (g) yes; (h) 33.4 W **63.** (a) 2.4 V; (b) 3.2 mA; (c) 0.16 A **65.** (a) 1.9 V; (b) 5.9 W; (c) 19 V; (d) 5.9×10^2 W; (e) 0.19 kV; (f) 59 kW **67.** (a) 6.73 ms; (b) 2.24 ms; (c) capacitor; (d) 59.0 μF **69.** (a) -0.405 rad; (b) 2.76 A; (c) capacitive **71.** (a) 64.0 Ω; (b) 50.9 Ω; (c) capacitive **73.** (a) 2.41 μH; (b) 21.4 pJ; (c) 82.2 nC **75.** (a) 39.1 Ω; (b) 21.7 Ω; (c) capacitive **79.** (a) $0.577Q$; (b) 0.152 **81.** (a) 45.0°; (b) 70.7 Ω **83.** 1.84 kHz **85.** (a) 0.689 μH; (b) 17.9 pJ; (c) 0.110 μC **87.** (a) 165 Ω; (b) 313 mH; (c) 14.9 μF **93.** (a) 36.0 V; (b) 29.9 V; (c) 11.9 V; (d) -5.85 V

Chapter 32

CP **1.** d, b, c, a (zero) **2.** a, c, b, d (zero) **3.** tie of b, c, and d, then a **4.** (a) 2; (b) 1 **5.** (a) away; (b) away; (c) less **6.** (a) toward; (b) toward; (c) less

Q **1.** 1 a, 2 b, 3 c and d **3.** a, decreasing; b, decreasing **5.** supplied **7.** (a) a and b tie, then c, d; (b) none (because plate lacks circular symmetry, $\vec{B}$ not tangent to any circular loop); (c) none **9.** (a) 1 up, 2 up, 3 down; (b) 1 down, 2 up, 3 zero **11.** (a) 1, 3, 2; (b) 2

P **1.** +3 Wb **3.** (a) 47.4 μWb; (b) inward **5.** 2.4×10^{13} V/m·s **7.** (a) 1.18×10^{-19} T; (b) 1.06×10^{-19} T **9.** (a) 5.01×10^{-22} T; (b) 4.51×10^{-22} T **11.** (a) 1.9 pT **13.** 7.5×10^5 V/s **17.** (a) 0.324 V/m; (b) 2.87×10^{-16} A; (c) 2.87×10^{-18} **19.** (a) 75.4 nT; (b) 67.9 nT **21.** (a) 27.9 nT; (b) 15.1 nT **23.** (a) 2.0 A; (b) 2.3×10^{11} V/m·s; (c) 0.50 A; (d) 0.63 μT·m **25.** (a) 0.63 μT; (b) 2.3×10^{12} V/m·s **27.** (a) 0.71 A; (b) 0; (c) 2.8 A **29.** (a) 7.60 μA; (b) 859 kV·m/s; (c) 3.39 mm; (d) 5.16 pT **31.** 55 μT **33.** (a) 0; (b) 0; (c) 0; (d) $\pm 3.2 \times 10^{-25}$ J; (e) -3.2×10^{-34} J·s; (f) 2.8×10^{-23} J/T; (g) -9.7×10^{-25} J; (h) $\pm 3.2 \times 10^{-25}$ J **35.** (a) -9.3×10^{-24} J/T; (b) 1.9×10^{-23} J/T **37.** (b) $+x$; (c) clockwise; (d) $+x$ **39.** yes **41.** 20.8 mJ/T **43.** (b) K_i/B; (c) $-z$; (d) 0.31 kA/m **47.** (a) 1.8×10^2 km; (b) 2.3×10^{-5} **49.** (a) 3.0 μT; (b) 5.6×10^{-10} eV **51.** 5.15×10^{-24} A·m^2 **53.** (a) 0.14 A; (b) 79 μC **55.** (a) 6.3×10^8 A; (b) yes; (c) no **57.** 0.84 kJ/T **59.** (a) $(1.2 \times 10^{-13}\text{ T})\exp[-t/(0.012\text{ s})]$; (b) 5.9×10^{-15} T **63.** (a) 27.5 mm; (b) 110 mm **65.** 8.0 A **67.** (a) -8.8×10^{15} V/m·s; (b) 5.9×10^{-7} T·m **69.** (b) sign is minus; (c) no, because there is compensating positive flux through open end nearer to magnet **71.** (b) $-x$; (c) counterclockwise; (d) $-x$ **73.** (a) 7; (b) 7; (c) $3h/2\pi$; (d) $3eh/4\pi m$; (e) $3.5h/2\pi$; (f) 8 **75.** (a) 9; (b) 3.71×10^{-23} J/T; (c) $+9.27 \times 10^{-24}$ J; (d) -9.27×10^{-24} J

Chapter 33

CP **1.** (a) (Use Fig. 33-5.) On right side of rectangle, $\vec{E}$ is in negative y direction; on left side, $\vec{E} + d\vec{E}$ is greater and in same direction; (b) $\vec{E}$ is downward. On right side, $\vec{B}$ is in negative z direction; on left side, $\vec{B} + d\vec{B}$ is greater and in same direction. **2.** positive direction of x **3.** (a) same; (b) decrease **4.** a, d, b, c (zero) **5.** a

Q **1.** (a) positive direction of z; (b) x **3.** (a) same; (b) increase; (c) decrease **5.** (a) and (b) $A = 1, n = 4, \theta = 30°$ **7.** a, b, c **9.** B **11.** none

P **1.** 7.49 GHz **3.** (a) 515 nm; (b) 610 nm; (c) 555 nm; (d) 5.41×10^{14} Hz; (e) 1.85×10^{-15} s **5.** 5.0×10^{-21} H **7.** 1.2 MW/m^2 **9.** 0.10 MJ **11.** (a) 6.7 nT; (b) y; (c) negative direction of y **13.** (a) 1.03 kV/m; (b) 3.43 μT **15.** (a) 87 mV/m; (b) 0.29 nT; (c) 6.3 kW **17.** (a) 6.7 nT; (b) 5.3 mW/m^2; (c) 6.7 W **19.** 1.0×10^7 Pa **21.** 5.9×10^{-8} Pa **23.** (a) 4.68×10^{11} W; (b) any chance disturbance could move sphere from directly above source—the two force vectors no longer along the same axis **27.** (a) 1.0×10^8 Hz; (b) 6.3×10^8 rad/s; (c) 2.1 m^{-1}; (d) 1.0 μT; (e) z; (f) 1.2×10^2 W/m^2; (g) 8.0×10^{-7} N; (h) 4.0×10^{-7} Pa **29.** 1.9 mm/s **31.** (a) 0.17 μm; (b) toward the Sun **33.** 3.1% **35.** 4.4 W/m^2 **37.** (a) 2 sheets; (b) 5 sheets **39.** (a) 1.9 V/m; (b) 1.7×10^{-11} Pa **41.** 20° or 70° **43.** 0.67 **45.** 1.26 **47.** 1.48 **49.** 180° **51.** (a) 56.9°; (b) 35.3° **55.** 1.07 m **57.** 182 cm **59.** (a) 48.9°; (b) 29.0° **61.** (a) 26.8°; (b) yes **63.** (a) $(1 + \sin^2\theta)^{0.5}$; (b) $2^{0.5}$; (c) yes; (d) no **65.** 23.2° **67.** (a) 1.39; (b) 28.1°; (c) no **69.** 49.0° **71.** (a) 0.50 ms; (b) 8.4 min; (c) 2.4 h; (d) 5446 B.C. **73.** (a) $(16.7\text{ nT})\sin[(1.00 \times 10^6\text{ m}^{-1})z + (3.00 \times 10^{14}\text{ s}^{-1})t]$; (b) 6.28 μm; (c) 20.9 fs; (d) 33.2 mW/m^2; (e) x; (f) infrared **75.** 1.22 **77.** (c) 137.6°; (d) 139.4°; (e) 1.7° **81.** (a) z axis; (b) 7.5×10^{14} Hz; (c) 1.9 kW/m^2 **83.** (a) white; (b) white dominated by red end; (c) no refracted light **85.** 1.5×10^{-9} m/s^2 **87.** (a) 3.5 μW/m^2; (b) 0.78 μW; (c) 1.5×10^{-17} W/m^2; (d) 1.1×10^{-7} V/m; (e) 0.25 fT **89.** (a) 55.8°; (b) 55.5° **91.** (a) 83 W/m^2; (b) 1.7 MW **93.** 35° **97.** $\cos^{-1}(p/50)^{0.5}$ **99.** $8RI/3c$ **101.** 0.034 **103.** 9.43×10^{-10} T **105.** (a) $-y$; (b) z; (c) 1.91 kW/m^2; (d) $E_z = (1.20\text{ kV/m})\sin[(6.67 \times 10^6\text{ m}^{-1})y + (2.00 \times 10^{15}\text{ s}^{-1})t]$; (e) 942 nm; (f) infrared **107.** (a) 1.60; (b) 58.0°

Chapter 34

CP **1.** 0.2d, 1.8d, 2.2d **2.** (a) real; (b) inverted; (c) same **3.** (a) e; (b) virtual, same **4.** virtual, same as object, diverging

Q **1.** (a) a; (b) c **3.** (a) a and c; (b) three times; (c) you **5.** convex **7.** (a) all but variation 2; (b) 1, 3, 4: right, inverted; 5, 6: left, same **9.** d (infinite), tie of a and b, then c **11.** (a) x; (b) no; (c) no; (d) the direction you are facing

P **1.** 9.10 m **3.** 1.11 **5.** 351 cm **7.** 10.5 cm **9.** (a) +24 cm; (b) +36 cm; (c) -2.0; (d) R; (e) I; (f) same **11.** (a) -20 cm; (b) -4.4 cm; (c) +0.56; (d) V; (e) NI; (f) opposite **13.** (a) +36 cm; (b) -36 cm; (c) +3.0; (d) V; (e) NI; (f) opposite **15.** (a) -16 cm; (b) -4.4 cm; (c) +0.44; (d) V; (e) NI; (f) opposite **17.** (b) plus; (c) +40 cm; (e) -20 cm; (f) +2.0; (g) V; (h) NI; (i) opposite **19.** (a) convex; (b) -20 cm; (d) +20 cm; (f) +0.50; (g) V; (h) NI; (i) opposite **21.** (a) concave; (c) +40 cm; (e) +60 cm; (f) -2.0; (g) R; (h) I; (i) same **23.** (a) convex; (b) minus; (c) -60 cm; (d) +1.2 m; (e) -24 cm; (g) V; (h) NI; (i) opposite **25.** (a) concave; (b) +8.6 cm; (c) +17 cm; (e) +12 cm; (f) minus; (g) R; (i) same **27.** (a) convex; (c) -60 cm; (d) +30 cm; (f) +0.50; (g) V; (h) NI; (i) opposite **29.** (b) -20 cm; (c) minus; (d) +5.0 cm; (e) minus; (f) +0.80; (g) V; (h) NI; (i) opposite **31.** (b) 0.56 cm/s; (c) 11 m/s; (d) 6.7 cm/s **33.** (c) -33 cm; (e) V; (f) same **35.** (d) -26 cm; (e) V; (f) same **37.** (c) +30 cm; (e) V; (f) same **39.** (a) 2.00; (b) none **41.** (a) +40 cm; (b) ∞ **43.** 5.0 mm **45.** 1.86 mm **47.** (a) 45 mm; (b) 90 mm **49.** 22 cm **51.** (a) -48 cm; (b) +4.0; (c) V; (d) NI; (e) same **53.** (a) -4.8 cm; (b) +0.60; (c) V; (d) NI; (e) same **55.** (a) -8.6 cm; (b) +0.39; (c) V; (d) NI; (e) same **57.** (a) +36 cm; (b) -0.80; (c) R; (d) I; (e) opposite **59.** (a) +55 cm; (b) -0.74; (c) R; (d) I; (e) opposite **61.** (a) -18 cm; (b) +0.76; (c) V; (d) NI; (e) same **63.** (a) -30 cm; (b) +0.86; (c) V; (d) NI; (e) same **65.** (a) -7.5 cm; (b) +0.75; (c) V; (d) NI; (e) same **67.** (a) +84 cm; (b) -1.4; (c) R; (d) I; (e) opposite **69.** (a) C; (d) -10 cm; (e) +2.0; (f) V; (g) NI; (h) same **71.** (a) D; (b) -5.3 cm; (d) -4.0 cm; (f) V; (g) NI; (h) same **73.** (a) C; (b) +3.3 cm; (d) +5.0 cm; (f) R; (g) I; (h) opposite **75.** (a) D; (b) minus; (d) -3.3 cm; (e) +0.67; (f) V; (g) NI **77.** (a) C; (b) +80 cm; (d) -20 cm; (f) V; (g) NI; (h) same **79.** (a) C; (b) plus; (d) -13 cm; (e) +1.7; (f) V; (g) NI; (h) same

81. (a) +24 cm; (b) +6.0; (c) R; (d) NI; (e) opposite
83. (a) +3.1 cm; (b) −0.31; (c) R; (d) I; (e) opposite **85.** (a) −4.6 cm; (b) +0.69; (c) V; (d) NI; (e) same **87.** (a) −5.5 cm; (b) +0.12; (c)V; (d) NI; (e) same **89.** (a) 13.0 cm; (b) 5.23 cm; (c) −3.25; (d) 3.13; (e) −10.2 **91.** (a) 2.35 cm; (b) decrease **93.** (a) 3.5; (b) 2.5
95. (a) +8.6 cm; (b) +2.6; (c) R; (d) NI; (e) opposite
97. (a) +7.5 cm; (b) −0.75; (c) R; (d) I; (e) opposite **99.** (a) +24 cm; (b) −0.58; (c) R; (d) I; (e) opposite **105.** (a) 3.00 cm; (b) 2.33 cm
107. (a) 40 cm; (b) 20 cm; (c) −40 cm; (d) 40 cm **109.** (a) 20 cm; (b) 15 cm **111.** (a) 6.0 mm; (b) 1.6 kW/m^2; (c) 4.0 cm **113.** 100 cm
115. 2.2 mm^2 **119.** (a) −30 cm; (b) not inverted; (c) virtual; (d) 1.0
121. (a) −12 cm **123.** (a) 80 cm; (b) 0 to 12 cm **127.** (a) 8.0 cm; (b) 16 cm; (c) 48 cm **129.** (a) $\alpha = 0.500$ rad: 7.799 cm; $\alpha = 0.100$ rad: 8.544 cm; $\alpha = 0.0100$ rad: 8.571 cm; mirror equation: 8.571 cm; (b) $\alpha = 0.500$ rad: −13.56 cm; $\alpha = 0.100$ rad: −12.05 cm; $\alpha = 0.0100$ rad: −12.00 cm; mirror equation: −12.00 cm **131.** 42 mm
133. (b) P_n **135.** (a) $(0.5)(2 - n)r/(n - 1)$; (b) right **137.** 2.67 cm
139. (a) 3.33 cm; (b) left; (c) virtual; (d) not inverted
141. (a) $1 + (25 \text{ cm})/f$; (b) $(25 \text{ cm})/f$; (c) 3.5; (d) 2.5

Chapter 35

CP **1.** b (least n), c, a **2.** (a) top; (b) bright intermediate illumination (phase difference is 2.1 wavelengths) **3.** (a) 3λ, 3; (b) 2.5λ, 2.5 **4.** a and d tie (amplitude of resultant wave is $4E_0$), then b and c tie (amplitude of resultant wave is $2E_0$) **5.** (a) 1 and 4; (b) 1 and 4
Q **1.** (a) decrease; (b) decrease; (c) decrease; (d) blue **3.** (a) $2d$; (b) (odd number)$\lambda/2$; (c) $\lambda/4$ **5.** (a) intermediate closer to maximum, $m = 2$; (b) minimum, $m = 3$; (c) intermediate closer to maximum, $m = 2$; (d) maximum, $m = 1$ **7.** (a) maximum; (b) minimum; (c) alternates **9.** (a) peak; (b) valley **11.** c, d **13.** c
P **1.** (a) 155 nm; (b) 310 nm **3.** (a) 3.60 μm; (b) intermediate closer to fully constructive **5.** 4.55×10^7 m/s **7.** 1.56
9. (a) 1.55 μm; (b) 4.65 μm **11.** (a) 1.70; (b) 1.70; (c) 1.30; (d) all tie **13.** (a) 0.833; (b) intermediate closer to fully constructive **15.** 648 nm **17.** 16 **19.** 2.25 mm **21.** 72 μm
23. 0 **25.** 7.88 μm **27.** 6.64 μm **29.** 2.65 **31.** $27 \sin(\omega t + 8.5°)$
33. $(17.1\ \mu\text{V/m}) \sin[(2.0 \times 10^{14} \text{ rad/s})t]$ **35.** 120 nm **37.** 70.0 nm
39. (a) 0.117 μm; (b) 0.352 μm **41.** 161 nm **43.** 560 nm
45. 478 nm **47.** 509 nm **49.** 273 nm **51.** 409 nm **53.** 338 nm
55. (a) 552 nm; (b) 442 nm **57.** 608 nm **59.** 528 nm **61.** 455 nm
63. 248 nm **65.** 339 nm **67.** 329 nm **69.** 1.89 μm **71.** 0.012°
73. 140 **75.** $[(m + \frac{1}{2})\lambda R]^{0.5}$, for $m = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ **77.** 1.00 m
79. 588 nm **81.** 1.00030 **83.** (a) 50.0 nm; (b) 36.2 nm **85.** 0.23°
87. (a) 1500 nm; (b) 2250 nm; (c) 0.80 **89.** $x = (D/2a)(m + 0.5)\lambda$, for $m = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ **91.** (a) 22°; (b) refraction reduces θ **93.** 600 nm **95.** (a) 1.75 μm; (b) 4.8 mm **97.** $I_m \cos^2(2\pi x/\lambda)$ **99.** (a) 42.0 ps; (b) 42.3 ps; (c) 43.2 ps; (d) 41.8 ps; (e) 4 **101.** 33 μm
103. (a) bright; (b) 594 nm; (c) Primary reason: the colored bands begin to overlap too much to be distinguished. Secondary reason: the two reflecting surfaces are too separated for the light reflecting from them to be coherent.

Chapter 36

CP **1.** (a) expand; (b) expand **2.** (a) second side maximum; (b) 2.5 **3.** (a) red; (b) violet **4.** diminish **5.** (a) left; (b) less
Q **1.** (a) $m = 5$ minimum; (b) (approximately) maximum between the $m = 4$ and $m = 5$ minima **3.** (a) A, B, C; (b) A, B, C
5. (a) 1 and 3 tie, then 2 and 4 tie; (b) 1 and 2 tie, then 3 and 4 tie
7. (a) larger; (b) red **9.** (a) decrease; (b) same; (c) remain in place
11. (a) A; (b) left; (c) left; (d) right **13.** (a) 1 and 2 tie, then 3; (b) yes; (c) no
P **1.** (a) 2.5 mm; (b) 2.2×10^{-4} rad **3.** (a) 70 cm; (b) 1.0 mm
5. (a) 700 nm; (b) 4; (c) 6 **7.** 60.4 μm **9.** 1.77 mm **11.** 160°
13. (a) 0.18°; (b) 0.46 rad; (c) 0.93 **15.** (d) 52.5°; (e) 10.1°; (f) 5.06°
17. (b) 0; (c) −0.500; (d) 4.493 rad; (e) 0.930; (f) 7.725 rad; (g) 1.96
19. (a) 19 cm; (b) larger **21.** (a) 1.1×10^4 km; (b) 11 km
23. (a) 1.3×10^{-4} rad; (b) 10 km **25.** 50 m **27.** 1.6×10^3 km
29. (a) 8.8×10^{-7} rad; (b) 8.4×10^7 km; (c) 0.025 mm **31.** (a) 0.346°; (b) 0.97° **33.** (a) 17.1 m; (b) 1.37×10^{-10} **35.** 5 **37.** 3
39. (a) 5.0 μm; (b) 20 μm **41.** (a) 7.43×10^{-3}; (b) between the $m = 6$ minimum (the seventh one) and the $m = 7$ maximum (the seventh side maximum); (c) between the $m = 3$ minimum (the third one) and the $m = 4$ minimum (the fourth one)
43. (a) 9; (b) 0.255 **45.** (a) 62.1°; (b) 45.0°; (c) 32.0° **47.** 3
49. (a) 6.0 μm; (b) 1.5 μm; (c) 9; (d) 7; (e) 6 **51.** (a) 2.1°; (b) 21°; (c) 11 **53.** (a) 470 nm; (b) 560 nm **55.** 3.65×10^3
57. (a) 0.032°/nm; (b) 4.0×10^4; (c) 0.076°/nm; (d) 8.0×10^4; (e) 0.24°/nm; (f) 1.2×10^5 **59.** 0.15 nm **61.** (a) 10 μm; (b) 3.3 mm
63. 1.09×10^3 rulings/mm **65.** (a) 0.17 nm; (b) 0.13 nm
67. (a) 25 pm; (b) 38 pm **69.** 0.26 nm **71.** (a) 15.3°; (b) 30.6°; (c) 3.1°; (d) 37.8° **73.** (a) $0.7071a_0$; (b) $0.4472a_0$; (c) $0.3162a_0$; (d) $0.2774a_0$; (e) $0.2425a_0$ **75.** (a) 625 nm; (b) 500 nm; (c) 416 nm
77. 3.0 mm **83.** (a) 13; (b) 6 **85.** 59.5 pm **87.** 4.9 km **89.** 1.36×10^4
91. 2 **93.** 4.7 cm **97.** 36 cm **99.** (a) fourth; (b) seventh
103. (a) 2.4 μm; (b) 0.80 μm; (c) 2 **107.** 9

Chapter 37

CP **1.** (a) same (speed of light postulate); (b) no (the start and end of the flight are spatially separated); (c) no (because his measurement is not a proper time) **2.** (a) Eq. 2; (b) +0.90c; (c) 25 ns; (d) −7.0 m **3.** (a) right; (b) more **4.** (a) equal; (b) less
Q **1.** c **3.** b **5.** (a) C_1'; (b) C_1' **7.** (a) 4 s; (b) 3 s; (c) 5 s; (d) 4 s; (e) 10 s **9.** (a) a tie of 3, 4, and 6, then a tie of 1, 2, and 5; (b) 1, then a tie of 2 and 3, then 4, then a tie of 5 and 6; (c) 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6; (d) 2 and 4; (e) 1, 2, 5 **11.** (a) 3, tie of 1 and 2, then 4; (b) 4, tie of 1 and 2, then 3; (c) 1, 4, 2, 3
P **1.** 0.990 50 **3.** (a) 0.999 999 50 **5.** 0.446 ps **7.** 2.68×10^3 y
9. (a) 87.4 m; (b) 394 ns **11.** 1.32 m **13.** (a) 26.26 y; (b) 52.26 y; (c) 3.705 y **15.** (a) 0.999 999 15; (b) 30 ly
17. (a) 138 km; (b) −374 μs **19.** (a) 25.8 μs; (b) small flash
21. (a) $\gamma[1.00\ \mu\text{s} - \beta(400 \text{ m})/(2.998 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})]$; (d) 0.750; (e) $0 < \beta < 0.750$; (f) $0.750 < \beta < 1$; (g) no **23.** (a) 1.25; (b) 0.800 μs
25. (a) 0.480; (b) negative; (c) big flash; (d) 4.39 μs **27.** 0.81c
29. (a) 0.35; (b) 0.62 **31.** 1.2 μs **33.** (a) 1.25 y; (b) 1.60 y; (c) 4.00 y
35. 22.9 MHz **37.** 0.13c **39.** (a) 550 nm; (b) yellow
41. (a) 196.695; (b) 0.999 987 **43.** (a) 1.0 keV; (b) 1.1 MeV
45. 110 km **47.** 1.01×10^7 km **49.** (a) 0.222 cm; (b) 701 ps; (c) 7.40 ps **51.** 2.83mc **53.** $\gamma(2\pi m/|q|B)$; (b) no; (c) 4.85 mm; (d) 15.9 mm; (e) 16.3 ps; (f) 0.334 ns **55.** (a) 0.707; (b) 1.41; (c) 0.414 **57.** 18 smu/y **59.** (a) 2.08 MeV; (b) −1.21 MeV
61. (d) 0.801 **63.** (a) $vt \sin\theta$; (b) $t[1 - (v/c)\cos\theta]$; (c) 3.24c
67. (b) +0.44c **69.** (a) 1.93 m; (b) 6.00 m; (c) 13.6 ns; (d) 13.6 ns; (e) 0.379 m; (f) 30.5 m; (g) −101 ns; (h) no; (i) 2; (k) no; (l) both
71. (a) 5.4×10^4 km/h; (b) 6.3×10^{-10} **73.** 189 MeV
75. 8.7×10^{-3} ly **77.** 7 **79.** 2.46 MeV/c **81.** 0.27c
83. (a) 5.71 GeV; (b) 6.65 GeV; (c) 6.58 GeV/c; (d) 3.11 MeV; (e) 3.62 MeV; (f) 3.59 MeV/c **85.** 0.95c **87.** (a) 256 kV; (b) 0.745c
89. (a) 0.858c; (b) 0.185c **91.** 0.500c **93.** (a) 119 MeV; (b) 64.0 MeV/c; (c) 81.3 MeV; (d) 64.0 MeV/c **95.** 4.00 u, probably a helium nucleus **97.** (a) 534; (b) 0.999 998 25; (c) 2.23 T
99. (a) 415 nm; (b) blue **101.** (a) 88 kg; (b) no **103.** (a) 3×10^{-18}; (b) 2×10^{-12}; (c) 8.2×10^{-8}; (d) 6.4×10^{-6}; (e) 1.1×10^{-6}; (f) 3.7×10^{-5}; (g) 9.9×10^{-5}; (h) 0.10

Chapter 38

CP **1.** b, a, d, c **2.** (a) lithium, sodium, potassium, cesium; (b) all tie **3.** (a) same; (b)–(d) x rays **4.** (a) proton; (b) same; (c) proton **5.** same

Q **1.** (a) greater; (b) less **3.** potassium **5.** only e **7.** none **9.** (a) decreases by a factor of $(1/2)^{0.5}$; (b) decreases by a factor of 1/2 **11.** amplitude of reflected wave is less than that of incident wave **13.** electron, neutron, alpha particle **15.** all tie

P **1.** (a) 2.1 μm; (b) infrared **3.** 1.0×10^{45} photons/s **5.** 2.047 eV **7.** 1.1×10^{-10} W **9.** (a) 2.96×10^{20} photons/s; (b) 4.86×10^{7} m; (c) 5.89×10^{18} photons/m$^2 \cdot$ s **11.** (a) infrared; (b) 1.4×10^{21} photons/s **13.** 4.7×10^{26} photons **15.** 170 nm **17.** 676 km/s **19.** 1.3 V; (b) 6.8×10^{2} km/s **21.** (a) 3.1 keV; (b) 14 keV **23.** (a) 2.00 eV; (b) 0; (c) 2.00 V; (d) 295 nm **25.** (a) 382 nm; (b) 1.82 eV **27.** (a) 2.73 pm; (b) 6.05 pm **29.** (a) 8.57×10^{18} Hz; (b) 3.55×10^{4} eV; (c) 35.4 keV/c **31.** 300% **33.** (a) -8.1×10^{-9}%; (b) -4.9×10^{-4}%; (c) -8.9%; (d) -66% **35.** (a) 2.43 pm; (b) 1.32 fm; (c) 0.511 MeV; (d) 939 MeV **37.** (a) 41.8 keV; (b) 8.2 keV **39.** 44° **41.** (a) 2.43 pm; (b) 4.11×10^{-6}; (c) -8.67×10^{-6} eV; (d) 2.43 pm; (e) 9.78×10^{-2}; (f) -4.45 keV **43.** (a) 2.9×10^{-10} m; (b) x ray; (c) 2.9×10^{-8} m; (d) ultraviolet **45.** (a) 9.35 μm; (b) 1.47×10^{-5} W; (c) 6.93×10^{14} photons/s; (d) 2.33×10^{-37} W; (e) 5.87×10^{-19} photons/s **47.** 7.75 pm **49.** (a) 1.9×10^{-21} kg $\cdot$ m/s; (b) 346 fm **51.** 4.3 μeV **53.** (a) 1.24 μm; (b) 1.22 nm; (c) 1.24 fm; (d) 1.24 fm **55.** (a) 15 keV; (b) 120 keV **57.** neutron **59.** (a) 3.96×10^{6} m/s; (b) 81.7 kV **67.** 2.1×10^{-24} kg $\cdot$ m/s **71.** (a) 1.45×10^{11} m^{-1}; (b) 7.25×10^{10} m^{-1}; (c) 0.111; (d) 5.56×10^{4} **73.** 4.81 mA **75.** (a) 9.02×10^{-6}; (b) 3.0 MeV; (c) 3.0 MeV; (d) 7.33×10^{-8}; (e) 3.0 MeV; (f) 3.0 MeV **77.** (a) -20%; (b) -10%; (c) $+15$% **79.** (a) no; (b) plane wavefronts of infinite extent, perpendicular to x axis **83.** (a) 38.8 meV; (b) 146 pm **85.** (a) 4.14×10^{-15} eV $\cdot$ s; (b) 2.31 eV **89.** (a) no; (b) 544 nm; (c) green

Chapter 39

CP **1.** b, a, c **2.** (a) all tie; (b) a, b, c **3.** a, b, c, d **4.** $E_{1,1}$ (neither n_x nor n_y can be zero) **5.** (a) 5; (b) 7

Q **1.** a, c, b **3.** (a) 18; (b) 17 **5.** equal **7.** c **9.** (a) decrease; (b) increase **11.** $n = 1, n = 2, n = 3$ **13.** (a) $n = 3$; (b) $n = 1$; (c) $n = 5$ **15.** b, c, and d

P **1.** 1.41 **3.** 0.65 eV **5.** 0.85 nm **7.** 1.9 GeV **9.** (a) 72.2 eV; (b) 13.7 nm; (c) 17.2 nm; (d) 68.7 nm; (e) 41.2 nm; (g) 68.7 nm; (h) 25.8 nm **11.** (a) 13; (b) 12 **13.** (a) 0.020; (b) 20 **15.** (a) 0.050; (b) 0.10; (c) 0.0095 **17.** 56 eV **19.** 109 eV **23.** 3.21 eV **25.** 1.4×10^{-3} **27.** (a) 8; (b) 0.75; (c) 1.00; (d) 1.25; (e) 3.75; (f) 3.00; (g) 2.25 **29.** (a) 7; (b) 1.00; (c) 2.00; (d) 3.00; (e) 9.00; (f) 8.00; (g) 6.00 **31.** 4.0 **33.** (a) 12.1 eV; (b) 6.45×10^{-27} kg $\cdot$ m/s; (c) 102 nm **35.** (a) 291 nm^{-3}; (b) 10.2 nm^{-1} **41.** (a) 0.0037; (b) 0.0054 **43.** (a) 13.6 eV; (b) -27.2 eV **45.** (a) $(r^4/8a^5)[\exp(-r/a)] \cos^2 \theta$; (b) $(r^4/16a^5)[\exp(-r/a)] \sin^2 \theta$ **47.** 4.3×10^{3} **49.** (a) 13.6 eV; (b) 3.40 eV **51.** 0.68 **59.** (b) $(2\pi/h)[2m(U_0 - E)]^{0.5}$ **61.** (b) meter$^{-2.5}$ **63.** (a) n; (b) $2\ell + 1$; (c) n^2 **65.** (a) $nh/\pi md^2$; (b) $n^2h^2/4\pi^2md^2$ **67.** (a) 3.9×10^{-22} eV; (b) 10^{20}; (c) 3.0×10^{-18} K **71.** (a) $e^2r/4\pi\varepsilon_0 a^3$; (b) $e/(4\pi\varepsilon_0 m a_0^3)^{0.5}$ **73.** 18.1, 36.2, 54.3, 66.3, 72.4 μeV

Chapter 40

CP **1.** 7 **2.** (a) decrease; (b)–(c) remain the same **3.** A, C, B

Q **1.** (a) 2; (b) 8; (c) 5; (d) 50 **3.** all true **5.** same number (10) **7.** 2, -1, 0, and 1 **9.** (a) 2; (b) 3 **11.** (a) n; (b) n and ℓ **13.** In addition to the quantized energy, a helium atom has kinetic energy; its total energy can equal 20.66 eV.

P **1.** 24.1° **3.** (a) 3.65×10^{-34} J $\cdot$ s; (b) 3.16×10^{-34} J $\cdot$ s **5.** (a) 3; (b) 3 **7.** (a) 4; (b) 5; (c) 2 **9.** (a) 3.46; (b) 3.46; (c) 3; (d) 3; (e) -3; (f) 30.0°; (g) 54.7°; (h) 150° **13.** 72 km/s^2 **15.** (a) 54.7°; (b) 125° **17.** 19 mT **19.** 5.35 cm **21.** 44 **23.** 42 **25.** (a) 51; (b) 53; (c) 56 **27.** (a) $(2, 0, 0, +\frac{1}{2}), (2, 0, 0, -\frac{1}{2})$; (b) $(2, 1, 1, +\frac{1}{2}), (2, 1, 1, -\frac{1}{2}), (2, 1, 0, +\frac{1}{2}), (2, 1, 0, -\frac{1}{2}), (2, 1, -1, +\frac{1}{2}), (2, 1, -1, -\frac{1}{2})$ **29.** g **31.** (a) $4p$; (b) 4; (c) $4p$; (d) 5; (e) $4p$; (f) 6 **33.** 12.4 kV **35.** (a) 35.4 pm; (b) 56.5 pm; (c) 49.6 pm **39.** 0.563 **41.** 80.3 pm **43.** (a) 69.5 kV; (b) 17.8 pm; (c) 21.3 pm; (d) 18.5 pm **45.** (a) 49.6 pm; (b) 99.2 pm **47.** 2.0×10^{16} s^{-1} **49.** 2×10^{7} **51.** 9.0×10^{-7} **53.** 7.3×10^{15} s^{-1} **55.** (a) 3.60 mm; (b) 5.24×10^{17} **57.** (a) 0; (b) 68 J **59.** 3.0 eV **61.** (a) 3.03×10^{5}; (b) 1.43 GHz; (d) 3.31×10^{-6} **63.** 186 **65.** (a) 2.13 meV; (b) 18 T **69.** (a) no; (b) 140 nm **71.** $n > 3$; $\ell = 3$; $m_\ell = +3, +2, +1, 0, -1, -2, -3$; $m_s = \pm\frac{1}{2}$ **73.** (a) 6.0; (b) 3.2×10^{6} y **75.** argon **79.** $(Ze/4\pi\varepsilon_0)(r^{-2} - rR^{-3})$

Chapter 41

CP **1.** larger **2.** a, b, and c

Q **1.** b, c, d (the latter due to thermal expansion) **3.** 8 **5.** below **7.** increase **9.** much less than **11.** b and d

P **3.** 8.49×10^{28} m^{-3} **5.** (b) 6.81×10^{27} m^{-3} eV$^{-3/2}$; (c) 1.52×10^{28} m^{-3} eV^{-1} **7.** (a) 0; (b) 0.0955 **9.** (a) 5.86×10^{28} m^{-3}; (b) 5.49 eV; (c) 1.39×10^{3} km/s; (d) 0.522 nm **11.** (a) 1.36×10^{28} m^{-3} eV^{-1}; (b) 1.68×10^{28} m^{-3} eV^{-1}; (c) 9.01×10^{27} m^{-3} eV^{-1}; (d) 9.56×10^{26} m^{-3} eV^{-1}; (e) 1.71×10^{18} m^{-3} eV^{-1} **13.** (a) 6.81 eV; (b) 1.77×10^{28} m^{-3} eV^{-1}; (c) 1.59×10^{28} m^{-3} eV^{-1} **15.** (a) 2.50×10^{3} K; (b) 5.30×10^{3} K **17.** 3 **19.** (a) 1.0; (b) 0.99; (c) 0.50; (d) 0.014; (e) 2.4×10^{-17}; (f) 7.0×10^{2} K **21.** (a) 0.0055; (b) 0.018 **25.** (a) 19.7 kJ; (b) 197 s **27.** (a) 1.31×10^{29} m^{-3}; (b) 9.43 eV; (c) 1.82×10^{3} km/s; (d) 0.40 nm **29.** 57.1 kJ **31.** (a) 226 nm; (b) ultraviolet **33.** (a) 1.5×10^{-6}; (b) 1.5×10^{-6} **35.** 0.22 μg **37.** (a) 4.79×10^{-10}; (b) 0.0140; (c) 0.824 **39.** 6.0×10^{5} **41.** 4.20 eV **43.** 13 μm **47.** (a) 109.5°; (b) 238 pm **49.** (b) 1.8×10^{28} m^{-3} eV^{-1} **53.** 3.49×10^{3} atm

Chapter 42

CP **1.** ^{90}As and ^{158}Nd **2.** a little more than 75 Bq (elapsed time is a little less than three half-lives) **3.** ^{206}Pb

Q **1.** (a) ^{196}Pt; (b) no **3.** yes **5.** (a) less; (b) greater **7.** ^{240}U **9.** no effect **11.** yes **13.** (a) all except ^{198}Au; (b) ^{132}Sn and ^{208}Pb **15.** d

P **1.** 1.3×10^{-13} m **3.** 46.6 fm **5.** (a) 0.390 MeV; (b) 4.61 MeV **7.** (a) 2.3×10^{17} kg/m^3; (b) 2.3×10^{17} kg/m^3; (d) 1.0×10^{25} C/m^3; (e) 8.8×10^{24} C/m^3 **9.** (a) 6; (b) 8 **11.** (a) 6.2 fm; (b) yes **13.** 13 km **17.** 1.0087 u **19.** (a) 9.303%; (b) 11.71% **21.** (b) 7.92 MeV/nucleon **25.** 5.3×10^{22} **27.** (a) 0.250; (b) 0.125 **29.** (a) 64.2 h; (b) 0.125; (c) 0.0749 **31.** (a) 7.5×10^{16} s^{-1}; (b) 4.9×10^{16} s^{-1} **33.** 1×10^{13} atoms **37.** 265 mg **39.** (a) 8.88×10^{10} s^{-1}; (b) 1.19×10^{15}; (c) 0.111 μg **41.** 1.12×10^{11} y **43.** 9.0×10^{8} Bq **45.** (a) 3.2×10^{12} Bq; (b) 86 Ci **47.** (a) 2.0×10^{20}; (b) 2.8×10^{9} s^{-1} **49.** (a) 1.2×10^{-17}; (b) 0 **51.** 4.269 MeV **53.** 1.21 MeV **55.** 0.783 MeV **57.** (b) 0.961 MeV **59.** 78.3 eV **61.** (a) 1.06×10^{19}; (b) 0.624×10^{19}; (c) 1.68×10^{19}; (d) 2.97×10^{9} y **63.** 1.7 mg **65.** 1.02 mg **67.** 2.50 mSv **69.** (a) 6.3×10^{18}; (b) 2.5×10^{11}; (c) 0.20 J; (d) 2.3 mGy; (e) 30 mSv **71.** (a) 6.6 MeV; (b) no **73.** (a) 25.4 MeV; (b) 12.8 MeV; (c) 25.0 MeV **75.** ^{7}Li **77.** 3.2×10^{4} y **79.** 730 cm^2 **81.** ^{225}Ac **83.** 30 MeV **89.** 27 **91.** (a) 11.906 83 u; (b) 236.2025 u **93.** 600 keV **95.** (a) 59.5 d; (b) 1.18 **97.** (a) 4.8×10^{-18} s^{-1}; (b) 4.6×10^{9} y

Chapter 43

CP **1.** c and d **2.** e
Q **1.** (a) 101; (b) 42 **3.** ^{239}Np **5.** ^{140}I, ^{105}Mo, ^{152}Nd, ^{123}In, ^{115}Pd **7.** increased **9.** less than **11.** still equal to 1
P **1.** (a) 16 day^{-1}; (b) 4.3×10^8 **3.** 4.8 MeV **5.** 1.3×10^3 kg **7.** 3.1×10^{10} s^{-1} **9.** (a) 2.6×10^{24}; (b) 8.2×10^{13} J; (c) 2.6×10^4 y **11.** -23.0 MeV **13.** (a) 251 MeV; (b) typical fission energy is 200 MeV **15.** (a) 84 kg; (b) 1.7×10^{25}; (c) 1.3×10^{25} **17.** (a) ^{153}Nd; (b) 110 MeV; (c) 60 MeV; (d) 1.6×10^7 m/s; (e) 8.7×10^6 m/s **21.** 557 W **23.** 0.99938 **25.** (b) 1.0; (c) 0.89; (d) 0.28; (e) 0.019; (f) 8 **27.** (a) 75 kW; (b) 5.8×10^3 kg **29.** 1.7×10^9 y **31.** 170 keV **33.** 1.41 MeV **35.** 10^{-12} m **37.** (a) 4.3×10^9 kg/s; (b) 3.1×10^{-4} **41.** 1.6×10^8 y **43.** (a) 24.9 MeV; (b) 8.65 megatons TNT **45.** (a) 1.8×10^{38} s^{-1}; (b) 8.2×10^{28} s^{-1} **47.** (a) 4.1 eV/atom; (b) 9.0 MJ/kg; (c) 1.5×10^3 y **49.** 14.4 kW **51.** $^{238}\mathrm{U} + \mathrm{n} \rightarrow {}^{239}\mathrm{U} \rightarrow {}^{239}\mathrm{Np} + \mathrm{e} + \nu$, $^{239}\mathrm{Np} \rightarrow {}^{239}\mathrm{Pu} + \mathrm{e} + \nu$ **55.** (a) 3.1×10^{31} protons/m^3; (b) 1.2×10^6 **57.** (a) 227 J; (b) 49.3 mg; (c) 22.7 kW

Chapter 44

CP **1.** (a) the muon family; (b) a particle; (c) $L_\mu = +1$ **2.** b and e **3.** c
Q **1.** b, c, d **3.** (a) 1; (b) positively charged **5.** a, b, c, d **7.** d **9.** c **11.** (a) lepton; (b) antiparticle; (c) fermion; (d) yes
P **1.** $\pi^- \rightarrow \mu^- + \bar{\nu}$ **3.** 2.4 pm **5.** 2.4×10^{-43} **7.** 769 MeV **9.** 2.7 cm/s **11.** (a) angular momentum, L_e; (b) charge, L_μ; (c) energy, L_μ **15.** (a) energy; (b) strangeness; (c) charge **17.** (a) yes; (b)–(d) no **19.** (a) 0; (b) -1; (c) 0 **21.** (a) K^+; (b) $\bar{\mathrm{n}}$; (c) K^0 **23.** (a) 37.7 MeV; (b) 5.35 MeV; (c) 32.4 MeV **25.** (a) $\bar{\mathrm{u}}\bar{\mathrm{u}}\bar{\mathrm{d}}$; (b) $\bar{\mathrm{u}}\bar{\mathrm{d}}\bar{\mathrm{d}}$ **27.** $\mathrm{s}\bar{\mathrm{d}}$ **29.** (a) Ξ^0; (b) Σ^- **31.** 2.77×10^8 ly **33.** 668 nm **35.** 1.4×10^{10} ly **37.** (a) 2.6 K; (b) 976 nm **39.** (b) 5.7 H atoms/m^3 **41.** 4.57×10^3 **43.** (a) 121 m/s; (b) 0.00406; (c) 248 y **47.** 1.08×10^{42} J **49.** (a) $0.785c$; (b) $0.993c$; (c) C2; (d) C1; (e) 51 ns; (f) 40 ns **51.** (c) $r\alpha/c + (r\alpha/c)^2 + (r\alpha/c)^3 + \cdots$; (d) $r\alpha/c$; (e) $\alpha = H$; (f) 6.5×10^8 ly; (g) 6.9×10^8 y; (h) 6.5×10^8 y; (i) 6.9×10^8 ly; (j) 1.0×10^9 ly; (k) 1.1×10^9 y; (l) 3.9×10^8 ly **53.** (a) ssd; (b) $\bar{\mathrm{s}}\bar{\mathrm{s}}\bar{\mathrm{d}}$

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SOME PHYSICAL CONSTANTS*

Speed of light	c	2.998×10^{8} m/s
Gravitational constant	G	6.673×10^{-11} N · m^2/kg^2
Avogadro constant	N_A	6.022×10^{23} mol^{-1}
Universal gas constant	R	8.314 J/mol · K
Mass–energy relation	c^2	8.988×10^{16} J/kg
		931.49 MeV/u
Permittivity constant	ε_0	8.854×10^{-12} F/m
Permeability constant	μ_0	1.257×10^{-6} H/m
Planck constant	h	6.626×10^{-34} J · s
		4.136×10^{-15} eV · s
Boltzmann constant	k	1.381×10^{-23} J/K
		8.617×10^{-5} eV/K
Elementary charge	e	1.602×10^{-19} C
Electron mass	m_e	9.109×10^{-31} kg
Proton mass	m_p	1.673×10^{-27} kg
Neutron mass	m_n	1.675×10^{-27} kg
Deuteron mass	m_d	3.344×10^{-27} kg
Bohr radius	a	5.292×10^{-11} m
Bohr magneton	μ_B	9.274×10^{-24} J/T
		5.788×10^{-5} eV/T
Rydberg constant	R	$1.097\,373 \times 10^{7}$ m^{-1}

*For a more complete list, showing also the best experimental values, see Appendix B.

THE GREEK ALPHABET

Alpha	A	α	Iota	I	ι	Rho	P	ρ
Beta	B	β	Kappa	K	κ	Sigma	Σ	σ
Gamma	Γ	γ	Lambda	Λ	λ	Tau	T	τ
Delta	Δ	δ	Mu	M	μ	Upsilon	Υ	υ
Epsilon	E	ϵ	Nu	N	ν	Phi	Φ	ϕ, φ
Zeta	Z	ζ	Xi	Ξ	ξ	Chi	X	χ
Eta	H	η	Omicron	O	o	Psi	Ψ	ψ
Theta	Θ	θ	Pi	Π	π	Omega	Ω	ω

SOME CONVERSION FACTORS*

Mass and Density

1 kg = 1000 g = 6.02×10^{26} u

1 slug = 14.59 kg

1 u = 1.661×10^{-27} kg

1 kg/m^3 = 10^{-3} g/cm^3

Length and Volume

1 m = 100 cm = 39.4 in. = 3.28 ft

1 mi = 1.61 km = 5280 ft

1 in. = 2.54 cm

1 nm = 10^{-9} m = 10 Å

1 pm = 10^{-12} m = 1000 fm

1 light-year = 9.461×10^{15} m

1 m^3 = 1000 L = 35.3 ft^3 = 264 gal

Time

1 d = 86 400 s

1 y = $365\frac{1}{4}$ d = 3.16×10^7 s

Angular Measure

1 rad = 57.3° = 0.159 rev

π rad = 180° = $\frac{1}{2}$ rev

Speed

1 m/s = 3.28 ft/s = 2.24 mi/h

1 km/h = 0.621 mi/h = 0.278 m/s

Force and Pressure

1 N = 10^5 dyne = 0.225 lb

1 lb = 4.45 N

1 ton = 2000 lb

1 Pa = 1 N/m^2 = 10 dyne/cm^2
= 1.45×10^{-4} lb/in.^{2}

1 atm = 1.01×10^5 Pa = 14.7 lb/in.^{2}
= 76.0 cm Hg

Energy and Power

1 J = 10^7 erg = 0.2389 cal = 0.738 ft · lb

1 kW · h = 3.6×10^6 J

1 cal = 4.1868 J

1 eV = 1.602×10^{-19} J

1 horsepower = 746 W = 550 ft · lb/s

Magnetism

1 T = 1 Wb/m^2 = 10^4 gauss

*See Appendix D for a more complete list.