Chapter 4

Motion in two & three dimensions

Position

- The position of a particle can be described by a position vector, with respect to a reference origin.

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

Displacement

- The displacement of a particle is the change of the position vector during a certain time.

$$\Delta\vec{r} = (x_2\hat{i} + y_2\hat{j} + z_2\hat{k}) - (x_1\hat{i} + y_1\hat{j} + z_1\hat{k})$$

$$\Delta\vec{r} = (x_2 - x_1)\hat{i} + (y_2 - y_1)\hat{j} + (z_2 - z_1)\hat{k},$$

Example: two-dimensional motion

A rabbit runs across a parking lot on which a set of coordinate axes has, strangely enough, been drawn. The co-ordinates (meters) of the rabbit's position as functions of time t (seconds) are given by

$$x = -0.31t^2 + 7.2t + 28 \tag{4-5}$$

and
$$y = 0.22t^2 - 9.1t + 30. \tag{4-6}$$

(a) At $t = 15$ s, what is the rabbit's position vector $\vec{r}$ in unit-vector notation and in magnitude-angle notation?

KEY IDEA

The x and y coordinates of the rabbit's position, as given by Eqs. 4-5 and 4-6, are the scalar components of the rabbit's position vector $\vec{r}$.

Calculations: We can write

$$\vec{r}(t) = x(t)\hat{i} + y(t)\hat{j}. \tag{4-7}$$

(We write $\vec{r}(t)$ rather than $\vec{r}$ because the components are functions of t, and thus $\vec{r}$ is also.)

At $t = 15$ s, the scalar components are
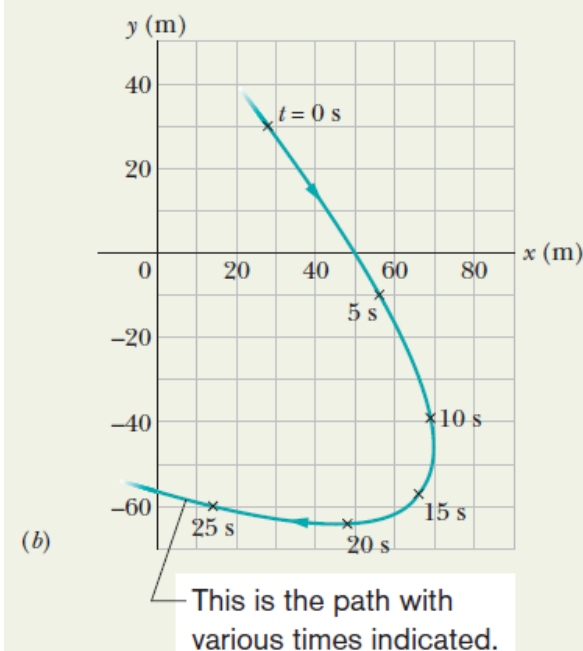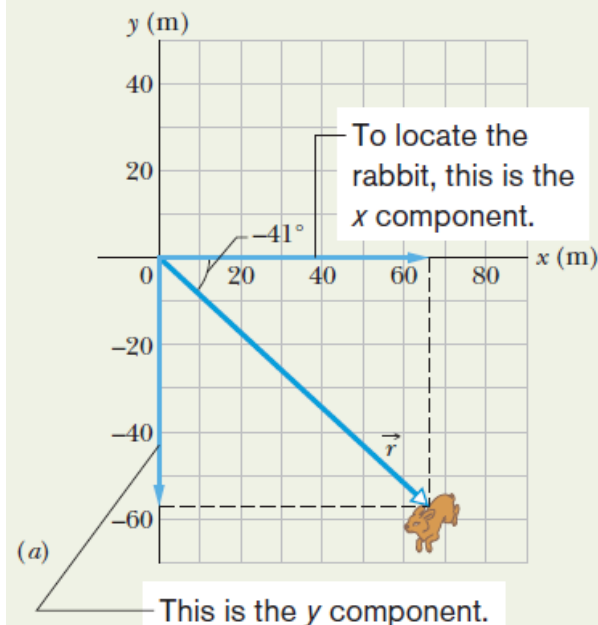
$$x = (-0.31)(15)^2 + (7.2)(15) + 28 = 66 \text{ m}$$

and $\quad y = (0.22)(15)^2 - (9.1)(15) + 30 = -57 \text{ m},$

so $\qquad\qquad \vec{r} = (66 \text{ m})\hat{i} - (57 \text{ m})\hat{j}, \qquad$ (Answer)

which is drawn in Fig. 4-2a. To get the magnitude and angle of $\vec{r}$, we use Eq. 3-6:

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = \sqrt{(66 \text{ m})^2 + (-57 \text{ m})^2}$$
$$= 87 \text{ m}, \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

and $\quad \theta = \tan^{-1}\dfrac{y}{x} = \tan^{-1}\left(\dfrac{-57 \text{ m}}{66 \text{ m}}\right) = -41°. \quad$ (Answer)

To locate the rabbit, this is the x component.

This is the y component.

(a)

This is the path with various times indicated.

(b)

If a particle moves through a displacement of Dr in *Δt* time, then the average velocity is:

$$\text{average velocity} = \frac{\text{displacement}}{\text{time interval}},$$

$$\vec{v}_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\Delta \vec{r}}{\Delta t}.$$

In the limit that the Δt time shrinks to a single point in time, the average velocity is approaches instantaneous velocity. This velocity is the derivative of displacement with respect to time.

$$\vec{v} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}.$$

$$\vec{v} = \frac{d}{dt}(x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}) = \frac{dx}{dt}\hat{i} + \frac{dy}{dt}\hat{j} + \frac{dz}{dt}\hat{k} = v_x\hat{i} + v_y\hat{j} + v_z\hat{k},$$

The direction of the instantaneous velocity $\vec{v}$ of a particle is always tangent to the particle's path at the particle's position.

Example: two-dimensional velocity

For the rabbit in the preceding Sample Problem, find the velocity $\vec{v}$ at time $t = 15$ s.

We can find $\vec{v}$ by taking derivatives of the components of the rabbit's position vector.

Calculations: Applying the v_x part of Eq. 4-12 to Eq. 4-5, we find the x component of $\vec{v}$ to be

$$v_x = \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}(-0.31t^2 + 7.2t + 28)$$

$$= -0.62t + 7.2. \qquad (4\text{-}13)$$

At $t = 15$ s, this gives $v_x = -2.1$ m/s. Similarly, applying the v_y part of Eq. 4-12 to Eq. 4-6, we find

$$v_y = \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}(0.22t^2 - 9.1t + 30)$$

$$= 0.44t - 9.1. \qquad (4\text{-}14)$$

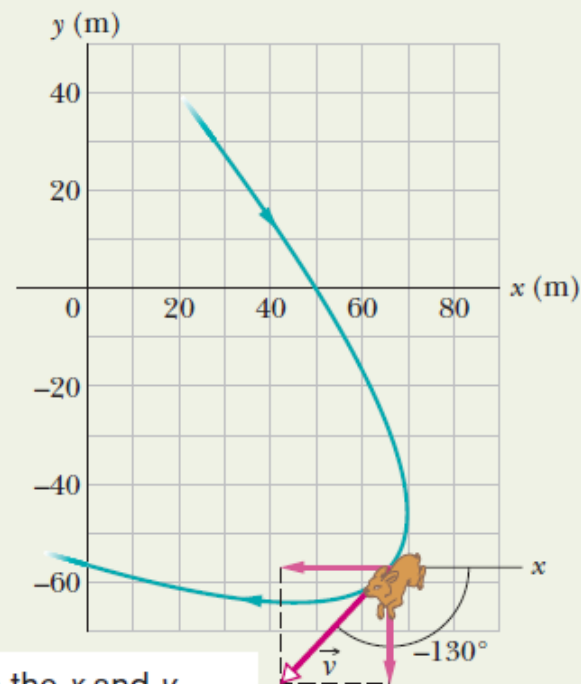At $t = 15$ s, this gives $v_y = -2.5$ m/s. Equation 4-11 then yields

$$\vec{v} = (-2.1 \text{ m/s})\hat{i} + (-2.5 \text{ m/s})\hat{j}, \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

which is shown in Fig. 4-5, tangent to the rabbit's path and in the direction the rabbit is running at $t = 15$ s.

$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2} = \sqrt{(-2.1 \text{ m/s})^2 + (-2.5 \text{ m/s})^2}$$

$$= 3.3 \text{ m/s} \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

and

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\frac{v_y}{v_x} = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{-2.5 \text{ m/s}}{-2.1 \text{ m/s}}\right)$$

$$= \tan^{-1}1.19 = -130°. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

Check: Is the angle $-130°$ or $-130° + 180° = 50°$?

These are the x and y components of the vector at this instant.

4.4 Average and Instantaneous Accelerations

- Following the same definition as in average velocity,

$$\frac{\text{average}}{\text{acceleration}} = \frac{\text{change in velocity}}{\text{time interval}},$$

$$\vec{a}_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\vec{v}_2 - \vec{v}_1}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta \vec{v}}{\Delta t}.$$

- If we shrink Δt to zero, then the average acceleration value approaches to the instant acceleration value, which is the derivative of velocity with respect to time:

$$\vec{a} = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt}.$$

$$\vec{a} = \frac{d}{dt}(v_x \hat{i} + v_y \hat{j} + v_z \hat{k})$$

$$= \frac{dv_x}{dt}\hat{i} + \frac{dv_y}{dt}\hat{j} + \frac{dv_z}{dt}\hat{k}$$

$$= a_x \hat{i} + a_y \hat{j} + a_z \hat{k}$$

4.4 Two-dimensional rabbit run …acceleration problem

For the rabbit in the preceding two Sample Problems, find the acceleration $\vec{a}$ at time $t = 15$ s.

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KEY IDEA

</div>

We can find $\vec{a}$ by taking derivatives of the rabbit's velocity components.

$$a_x = \frac{dv_x}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}(-0.62t + 7.2) = -0.62 \text{ m/s}^2.$$

Similarly, applying the a_y part of Eq. 4-18 to Eq. 4-14 yields the y component as

$$a_y = \frac{dv_y}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}(0.44t - 9.1) = 0.44 \text{ m/s}^2.$$

$$\vec{a} = (-0.62 \text{ m/s}^2)\hat{i} + (0.44 \text{ m/s}^2)\hat{j}, \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

$$a = \sqrt{a_x^2 + a_y^2} = \sqrt{(-0.62 \text{ m/s}^2)^2 + (0.44 \text{ m/s}^2)^2}$$
$$= 0.76 \text{ m/s}^2. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

For the angle we have

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\frac{a_y}{a_x} = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{0.44 \text{ m/s}^2}{-0.62 \text{ m/s}^2}\right) = -35°.$$

However, this angle, which is the one displayed on a calcula-

tor, indicates that $\vec{a}$ is directed to the right and downward in Fig. 4-7. Yet, we know from the components that $\vec{a}$ must be directed to the left and upward. To find the other angle that has the same tangent as $-35°$ but is not displayed on a calculator, we add $180°$:

$$-35° + 180° = 145°. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

This *is* consistent with the components of $\vec{a}$ because it gives a vector that is to the left and upward. Note that $\vec{a}$ has the same magnitude and direction throughout the rabbit's run because the acceleration is constant.
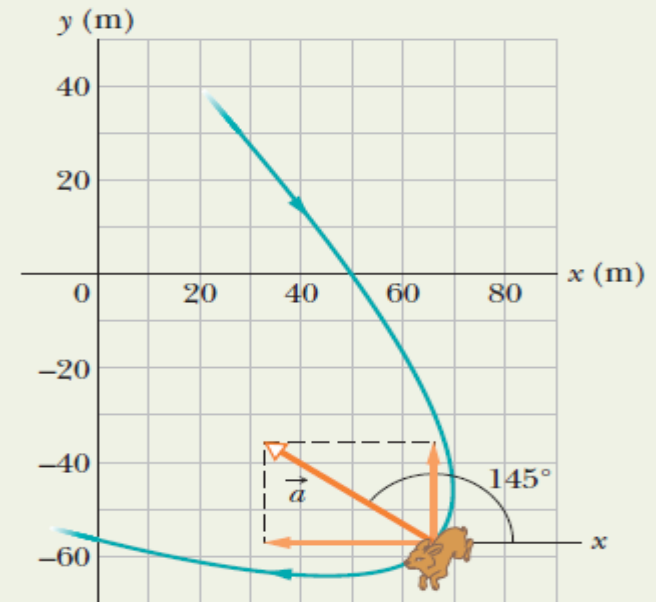
These are the x and y components of the vector at this instant.

A particle moves in a vertical plane, with some initial velocity v_0; the only acceleration is the free fall acceleration, g, *directed vertically downward.*

Examples in sports:

Tennis

Baseball

Football

Lacrosse

Racquetball

Soccer…………..

4.5 Projectile motion

- Motion under the influence of gravity near Earth's surface has essentially constant acceleration of magnitude $g = 9.80$ m/s^2, and whose direction is downward.
  - Such motion is called **projectile motion.**

- Equations for projectile motion, in a coordinate system with y axis vertically upward:

- Horizontal and vertical motions are independent:

$$v_x = v_{x0}$$

$$v_y = v_{y0} - gt$$

$$x = x_0 + v_{x0}t$$

$$y = y_0 + v_{y0}t - \tfrac{1}{2} gt^2$$
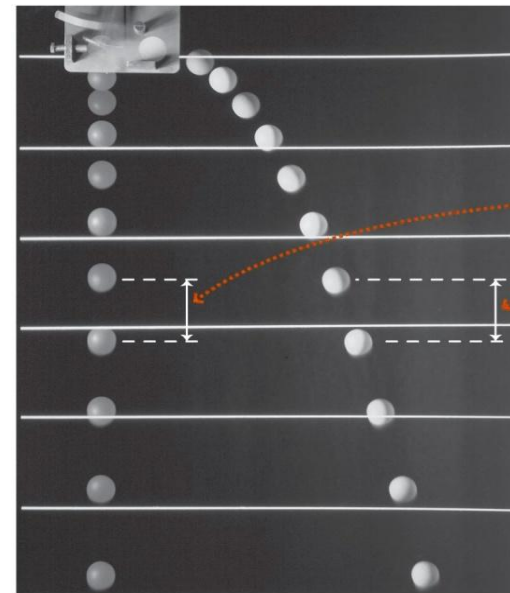
Vertical spacing is the same, showing that vertical and horizontal motion are independent.

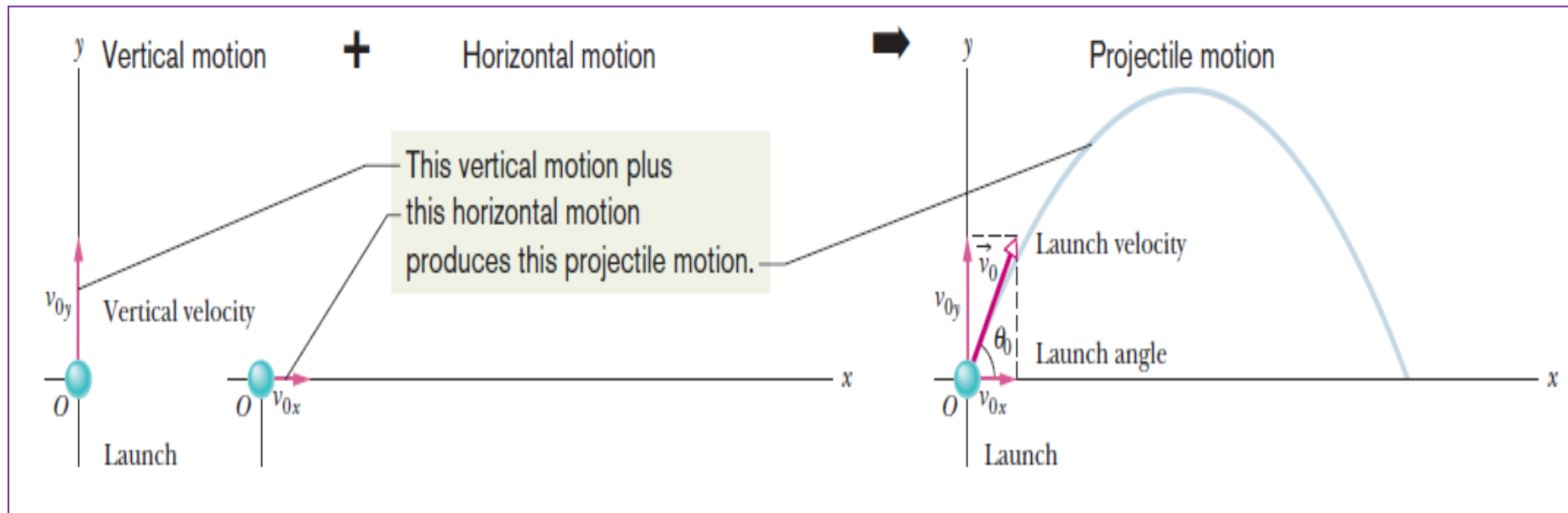- Animations: http://www.physicsclassroom.com/mmedia/#vectors

In projectile motion, the horizontal motion and the vertical motion are independent of each other; that is, neither motion affects the other.

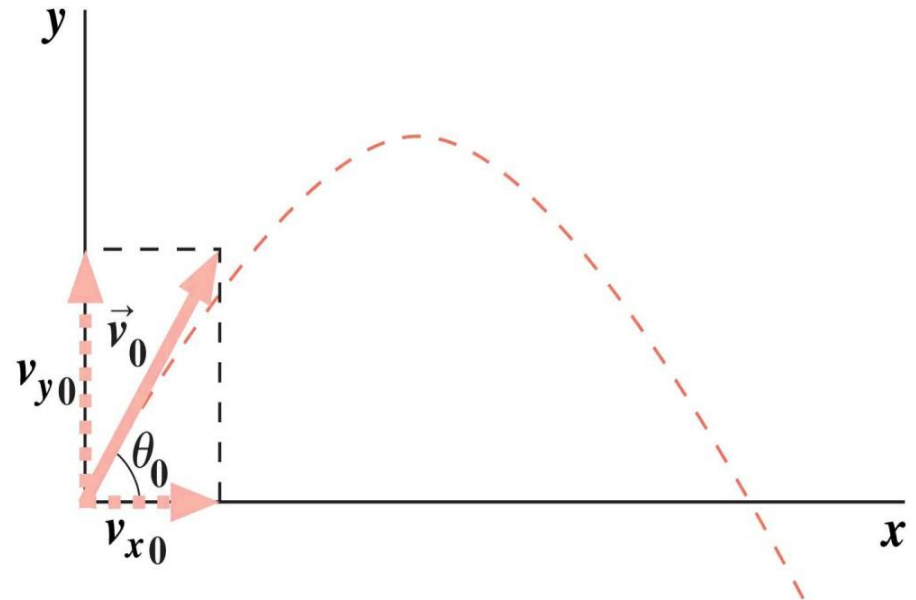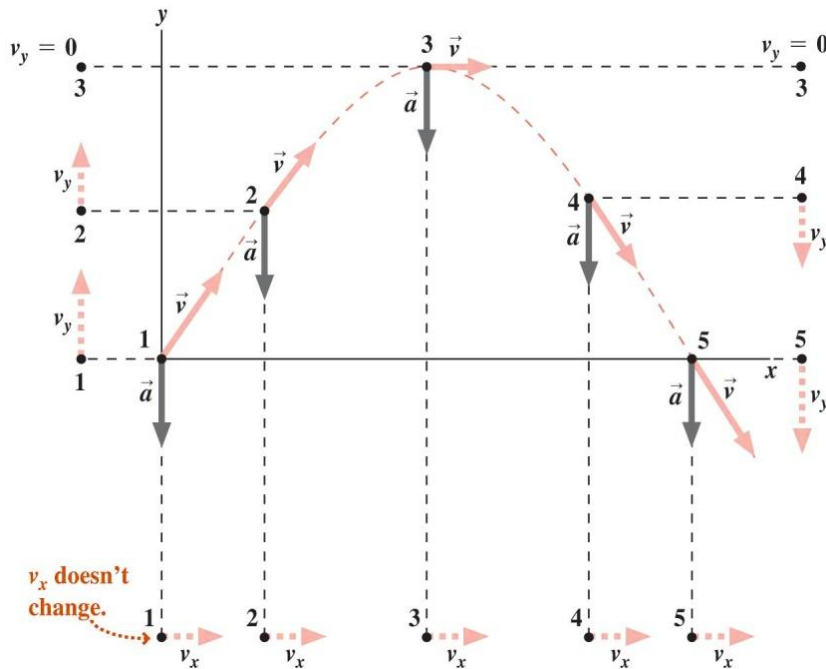The initial velocity of the projectile is: $\vec{v}_0 = v_{0x}\hat{i} + v_{0y}\hat{j}.$

Here, $v_{0x} = v_0 \cos \theta_0$ and $v_{0y} = v_0 \sin \theta_0.$

- ## The trajectory of a projectile motion is a parabola, unless the object has no horizontal component of motion in which case it is simply free fall.

- Horizontal motion is unchanged, while vertical motion undergoes downward acceleration:

- Equation for the trajectory:

$$y = x \tan \theta_0 - \frac{g}{2v_0^2 \cos^2 \theta_0} x^2$$

4.6: Projectile motion analyzed

Horizontal Motion: acceleration = 0

Vertical Motion; acceleration = g

$$x - x_0 = v_{0x}t.$$

$$x - x_0 = (v_0 \cos \theta_0)t.$$

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

$$= (v_0 \sin \theta_0)t - \tfrac{1}{2}gt^2,$$

$$v_y = v_0 \sin \theta_0 - gt$$
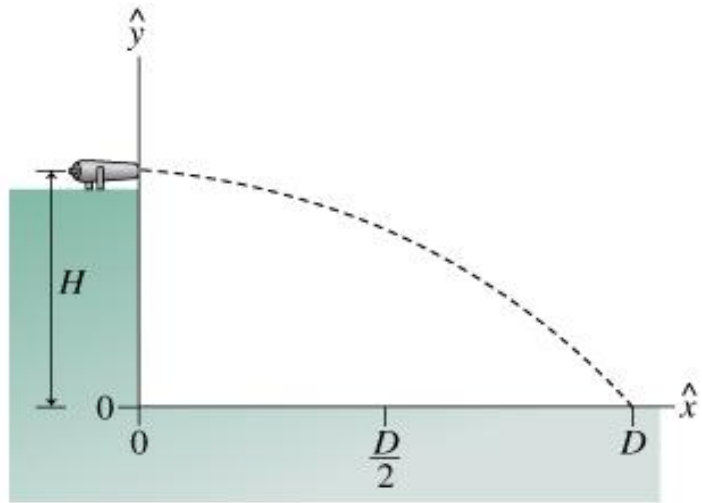
$$v_y^2 = (v_0 \sin \theta_0)^2 - 2g(y - y_0).$$
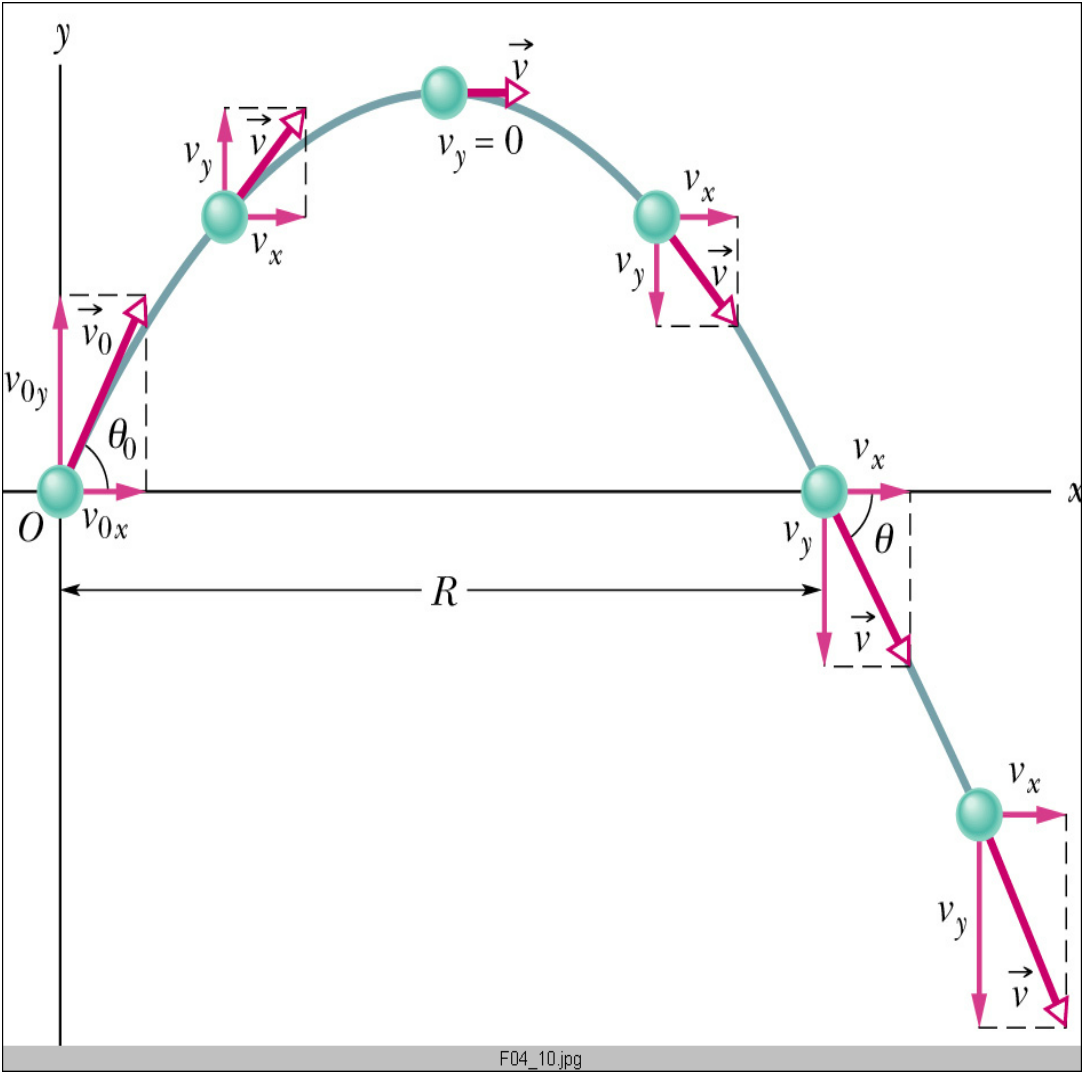
Eliminate time, t:

$$y = (\tan \theta_0)x - \frac{gx^2}{2(v_0 \cos \theta_0)^2}$$

4.6: Projectile motion analyzed

CASE 1: Horizontally launched projectiles ($\Theta_0 = 0^o$)

CASE 2: Projectiles launched at an angle ($0^o < \Theta_0 < 90^o$)

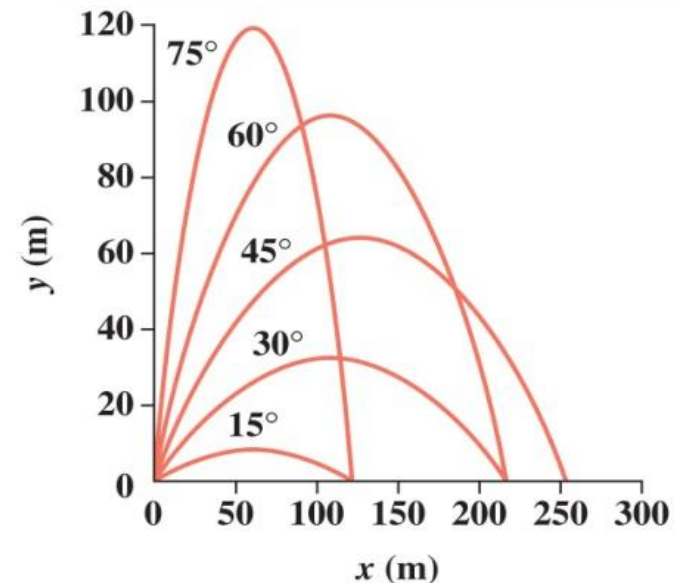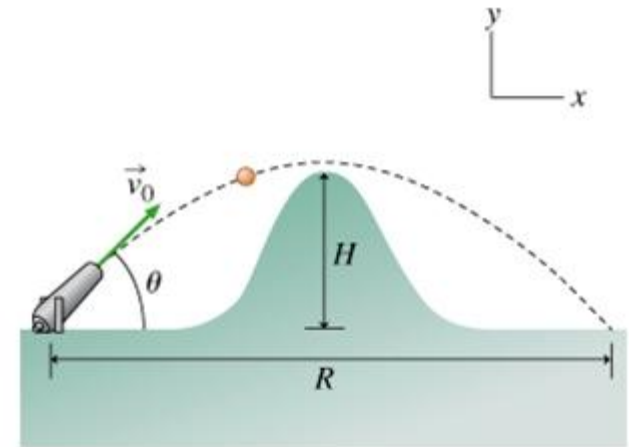F04_10.jpg

4.6: Horizontal Range (special case)

- The horizontal range of a projectile is the horizontal distance when it returns to its launching height

- The distance equations in the x- and y- directions respectively:

$$R = (v_0 \cos \theta_0)t$$

$$0 = (v_0 \sin \theta_0)t - \tfrac{1}{2}gt^2.$$

- Eliminating t:

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

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

The horizontal range R is maximum for a launch angle of 45°.

- Trajectories Summary: http://hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/hbase/traj.html#tracon

Example: projectile motion

In Fig. 4-14, a rescue plane flies at 198 km/h (= 55.0 m/s) and constant height $h = 500$ m toward a point directly over a victim, where a rescue capsule is to land.

(a) What should be the angle ϕ of the pilot's line of sight to the victim when the capsule release is made?
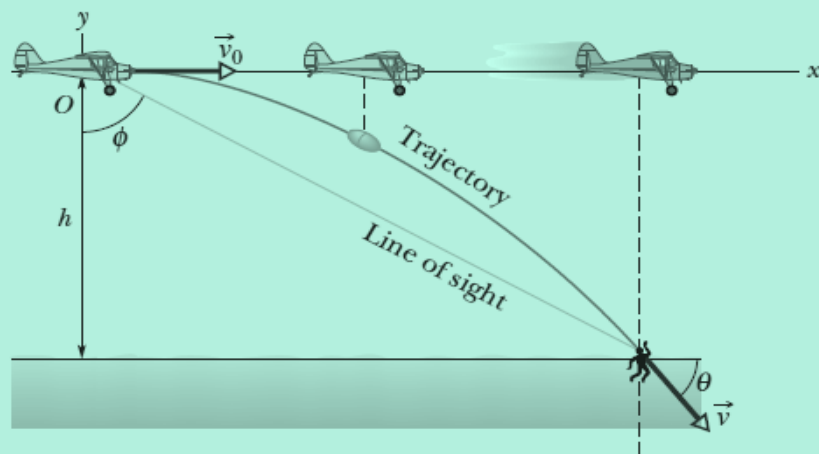
Fig. 4-14 A plane drops a rescue capsule while moving at constant velocity in level flight. While falling, the capsule remains under the plane.

(a) What should be the angle ϕ of the pilot's line of sight to the victim when the capsule release is made?

KEY IDEAS

Once released, the capsule is a projectile, so its horizontal and vertical motions can be considered separately (we need not consider the actual curved path of the capsule).

Calculations: In Fig. 4-14, we see that ϕ is given by

$$\phi = \tan^{-1}\frac{x}{h},$$

where x is the horizontal coordinate of the victim (and of the capsule when it hits the water) and $h = 500$ m. We should be able to find x

$$x - x_0 = (v_0 \cos \theta_0)t.$$

Here we know that $x_0 = 0$ because the origin is placed at the point of release. Because the capsule is *released* and not shot from the plane, its initial velocity $\vec{v}_0$ is equal to the plane's velocity. Thus, we know also that the initial velocity has magnitude $v_0 = 55.0$ m/s and angle $\theta_0 = 0°$ (measured relative to the positive direction of the x axis). However, we do not know the time t the capsule takes to move from the plane to the victim.

To find t, we next consider the *vertical* motion and specifically Eq. 4-22:

$$y - y_0 = (v_0 \sin \theta_0)t - \tfrac{1}{2}gt^2. \qquad (4\text{-}29)$$

Here the vertical displacement $y - y_0$ of the capsule is -500 m (the negative value indicates that the capsule moves *downward*). So,

$$-500 \text{ m} = (55.0 \text{ m/s})(\sin 0°)t - \tfrac{1}{2}(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2)t^2. \quad (4\text{-}30)$$

Solving for t, we find $t = 10.1$ s. Using that value in Eq. 4-28 yields

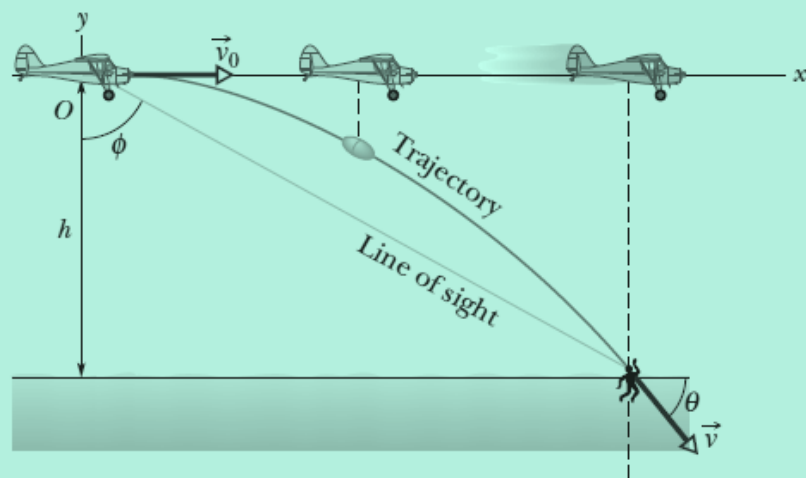$$x - 0 = (55.0 \text{ m/s})(\cos 0°)(10.1 \text{ s}), \qquad (4\text{-}31)$$

or

$$x = 555.5 \text{ m}.$$

Then Eq. 4-27 gives us

$$\phi = \tan^{-1}\frac{555.5 \text{ m}}{500 \text{ m}} = 48.0°. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

Example: projectile motion (same problem)

Fig. 4-14 A plane drops a rescue capsule while moving at constant velocity in level flight. While falling, the capsule remains under the plane.

(b) As the capsule reaches the water, what is its velocity $\vec{v}$ in unit-vector notation and in magnitude-angle notation?

(1) The horizontal and vertical components of the capsule's velocity are independent. (2) Component v_x does not change from its initial value $v_{0x} = v_0 \cos \theta_0$ because there is no horizontal acceleration. (3) Component v_y changes from its initial value $v_{0y} = v_0 \sin \theta_0$ because there is a vertical acceleration.

Calculations: When the capsule reaches the water,

$$v_x = v_0 \cos \theta_0 = (55.0 \text{ m/s})(\cos 0°) = 55.0 \text{ m/s}.$$

Using Eq. 4-23 and the capsule's time of fall $t = 10.1$ s, we also find that when the capsule reaches the water,

$$v_y = v_0 \sin \theta_0 - gt$$
$$= (55.0 \text{ m/s})(\sin 0°) - (9.8 \text{ m/s}^2)(10.1 \text{ s})$$
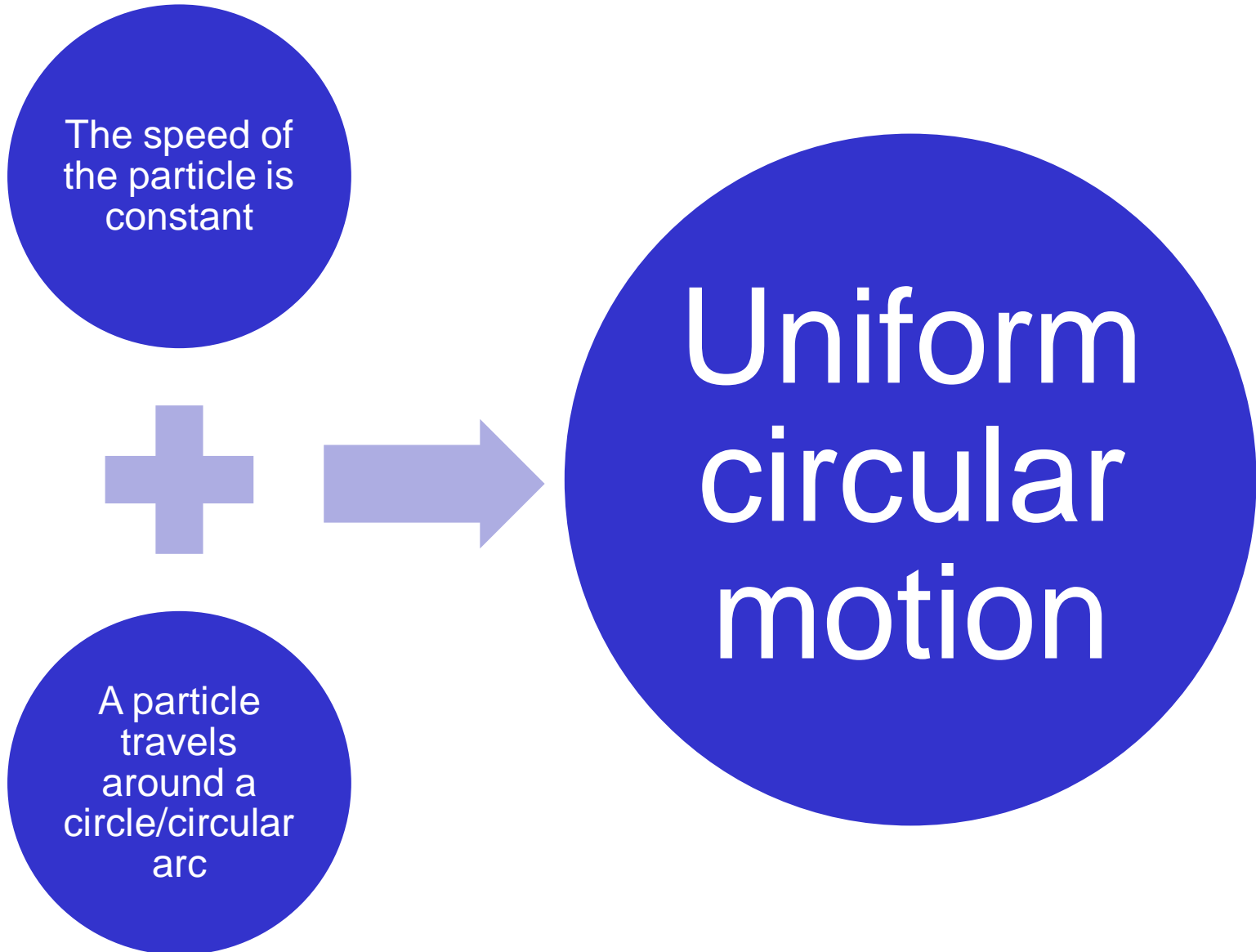$$= -99.0 \text{ m/s}.$$

Thus, at the water

$$\vec{v} = (55.0 \text{ m/s})\hat{i} - (99.0 \text{ m/s})\hat{j}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

Using Eq. 3-6 as a guide, we find that the magnitude and the angle of $\vec{v}$ are

$$v = 113 \text{ m/s} \quad \text{and} \quad \theta = -60.9°. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

The speed of the particle is constant

+

A particle travels around a circle/circular arc
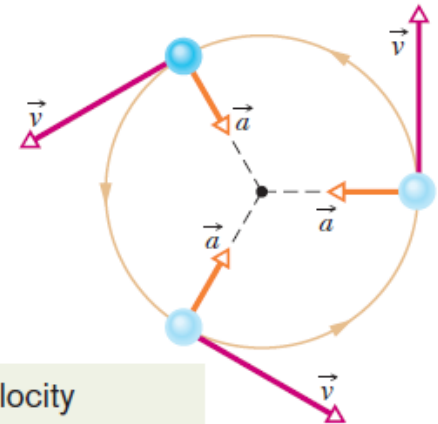
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Uniform circular motion

As the direction of the velocity of the particle changes, there is an acceleration!!!

CENTRIPETAL (center-seeking) ACCELERATION

$$a = \frac{v^2}{r} \qquad \text{(centripetal acceleration)},$$

Here v is the speed of the particle and r is the radius of the circle.

The acceleration vector always points toward the center.

The velocity vector is always tangent to the path.

4.7: Centripetal acceleration, proof of a = v²/r

$$\vec{v} = v_x\hat{i} + v_y\hat{j} = (-v \sin \theta)\hat{i} + (v \cos \theta)\hat{j}.$$

$$\vec{v} = \left(-\frac{vy_p}{r}\right)\hat{i} + \left(\frac{vx_p}{r}\right)\hat{j}.$$

(a)

$$\vec{a} = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = \left(-\frac{v}{r}\frac{dy_p}{dt}\right)\hat{i} + \left(\frac{v}{r}\frac{dx_p}{dt}\right)\hat{j}.$$

Note

$$\frac{dy_P}{dt} = v_y, \qquad \frac{dx_P}{dt} = v_x$$

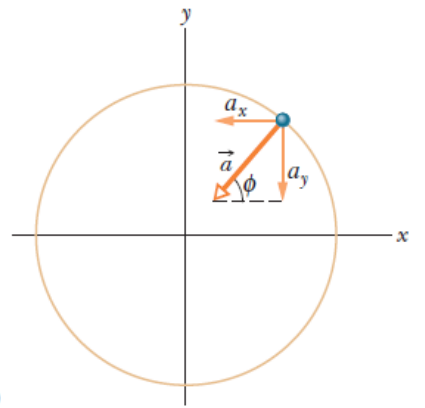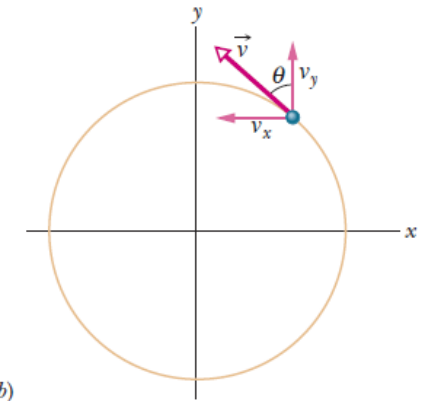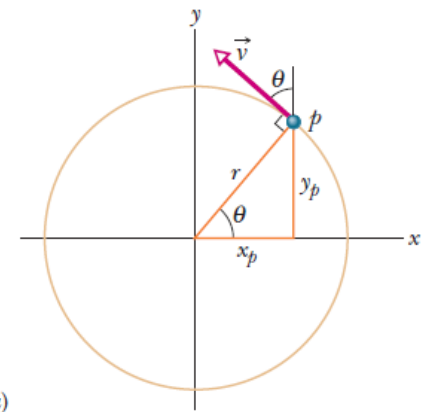$$v_x = -v \sin \theta, \qquad v_y = -v \cos \theta$$

$$\vec{a} = \left(-\frac{v^2}{r}\cos \theta\right)\hat{i} + \left(-\frac{v^2}{r}\sin \theta\right)\hat{j}.$$

(b)

$$a = \sqrt{a_x^2 + a_y^2} = \frac{v^2}{r}\sqrt{(\cos \theta)^2 + (\sin \theta)^2} = \frac{v^2}{r}\sqrt{1} = \frac{v^2}{r},$$

$$\tan \phi = \frac{a_y}{a_x} = \frac{-(v^2/r) \sin \theta}{-(v^2/r) \cos \theta} = \tan \theta.$$

(c)

Example: top gun pilots

"Top gun" pilots have long worried about taking a turn too tightly. As a pilot's body undergoes centripetal acceleration, with the head toward the center of curvature, the blood pressure in the brain decreases, leading to loss of brain function.

There are several warning signs. When the centripetal acceleration is 2g or 3g, the pilot feels heavy. At about 4g, the pilot's vision switches to black and white and narrows to "tunnel vision." If that acceleration is sustained or increased, vision ceases and, soon after, the pilot is unconscious—a condition known as g-LOC for "g-induced loss of consciousness."

What is the magnitude of the acceleration, in g units, of a pilot whose aircraft enters a horizontal circular turn with a velocity of $\vec{v}_i = (400\hat{i} + 500\hat{j})$ m/s and 24.0 s later leaves the turn with a velocity of $\vec{v}_f = (-400\hat{i} - 500\hat{j})$ m/s?

KEY IDEAS

We assume the turn is made with uniform circular motion.
Then the pilot's acceleration is centripetal and has magnitude *a given by* $a = v^2/R.$

Also, the time required to complete a full circle is the period given by $T = 2\pi R/v$

Calculations:

Because we do not know radius R, *let's solve for R* from the period equation for *R and substitute into the acceleration eqn.*

$$a = \frac{2\pi v}{T}.$$

Speed *v here is the (constant) magnitude of the velocity* during the turning.

$$v = \sqrt{(400 \text{ m/s})^2 + (500 \text{ m/s})^2} = 640.31 \text{ m/s}.$$

To find the period *T of the motion, first note that the final* velocity is the reverse of the initial velocity. This means the aircraft leaves on the opposite side of the circle from the initial point and must have completed half a circle in the given 24.0 s.

Thus a full circle would have taken *T 48.0 s.*
Substituting these values into our equation for *a, we find:*

$$a = \frac{2\pi(640.31 \text{ m/s})}{48.0 \text{ s}} = 83.81 \text{ m/s}^2 \approx 8.6g. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

The velocity of a particle depends on the reference frame of whoever is observing the velocity.

- Suppose Alex (A) is at the origin of frame A (as in Fig. 4-18), watching car P (the "particle") speed past.

- Suppose Barbara (B) is at the origin of frame B, and is driving along the highway at constant speed, also watching car P. Suppose that they both measure the position of the car at a given moment. Then:

$$x_{PA} = x_{PB} + x_{BA}.$$

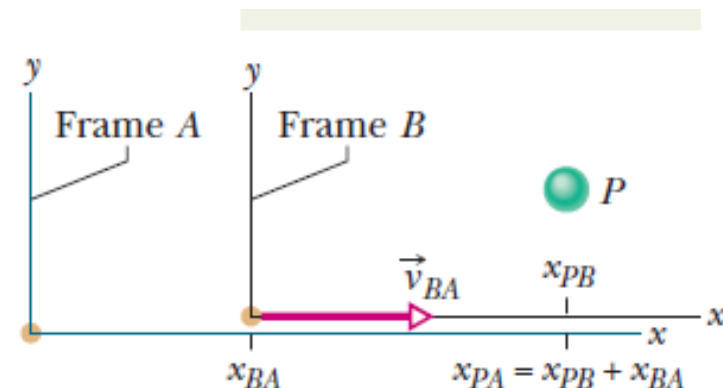where x_{PA} is the position of P as measured by A. Consequently,

$$v_{PA} = v_{PB} + v_{BA}.$$

Also,

$$\frac{d}{dt}(v_{PA}) = \frac{d}{dt}(v_{PB}) + \frac{d}{dt}(v_{BA}).$$

Since v_{BA} *is constant, the last term is zero and we have*

$$a_{PA} = a_{PB}.$$

Fig. 4-18   Alex (frame *A*) and Barbara (frame *B*) watch car *P*, as both *B* and *P* move at different velocities along the common *x* axis of the two frames. At the instant shown, x_{BA} is the coordinate of *B* in the *A* frame. Also, *P* is at coordinate x_{PB} in the *B* frame and coordinate $x_{PA} = x_{PB} + x_{BA}$ in the *A* frame.

Example: relative motion 1-D

In Fig. 4-18, suppose that Barbara's velocity relative to Alex is a constant $v_{BA} = 52$ km/h and car P is moving in the negative direction of the x axis.
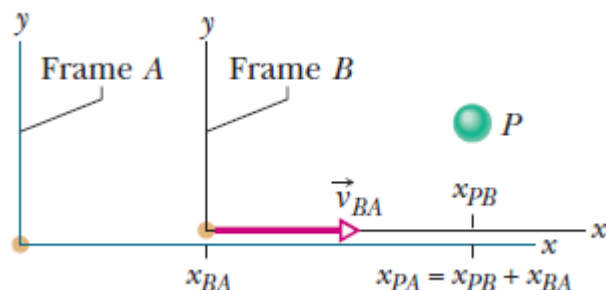

Fig. 4-18

(a) If Alex measures a constant $v_{PA} = -78$ km/h for car P, what velocity v_{PB} will Barbara measure?

> **KEY IDEAS**

We can attach a frame of reference A to Alex and a frame of reference B to Barbara. Because the frames move at constant velocity relative to each other along one axis, we can use Eq. 4-41 ($v_{PA} = v_{PB} + v_{BA}$) to relate v_{PB} to v_{PA} and v_{BA}.

Calculation: We find

$$-78 \text{ km/h} = v_{PB} + 52 \text{ km/h}.$$

Thus, $v_{PB} = -130$ km/h. (Answer)

Comment: If car P were connected to Barbara's car by a cord wound on a spool, the cord would be unwinding at a speed of 130 km/h as the two cars separated.

(b) If car P brakes to a stop relative to Alex (and thus relative to the ground) in time $t = 10$ s at constant acceleration, what is its acceleration a_{PA} relative to Alex?

> **KEY IDEAS**

To calculate the acceleration of car P *relative to Alex*, we must use the car's velocities *relative to Alex*. Because the acceleration is constant, we can use Eq. 2-11 ($v = v_0 + at$) to relate the acceleration to the initial and final velocities of P.

Calculation: The initial velocity of P relative to Alex is $v_{PA} = -78$ km/h and the final velocity is 0. Thus, the acceleration relative to Alex is

$$a_{PA} = \frac{v - v_0}{t} = \frac{0 - (-78 \text{ km/h})}{10 \text{ s}} \frac{1 \text{ m/s}}{3.6 \text{ km/h}}$$

$$= 2.2 \text{ m/s}^2. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

(c) What is the acceleration a_{PB} of car P relative to Barbara during the braking?

> **KEY IDEA**

To calculate the acceleration of car P *relative to Barbara*, we must use the car's velocities *relative to Barbara*.

Calculation: We know the initial velocity of P relative to Barbara from part (a) ($v_{PB} = -130$ km/h). The final velocity of P relative to Barbara is -52 km/h (this is the velocity of the stopped car relative to the moving Barbara). Thus,

$$a_{PB} = \frac{v - v_0}{t} = \frac{-52 \text{ km/h} - (-130 \text{ km/h})}{10 \text{ s}} \frac{1 \text{ m/s}}{3.6 \text{ km/h}}$$

$$= 2.2 \text{ m/s}^2. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

4.9: Relative motion in 2-D

A and B, the two observers, are watching P, the moving particle, from their origins of reference. B moves at a constant velocity with respect to A, while the corresponding axes of the two frames remain parallel; r_{PA} refers to the position of P as observed by A, and so on. From the situation, it is concluded:
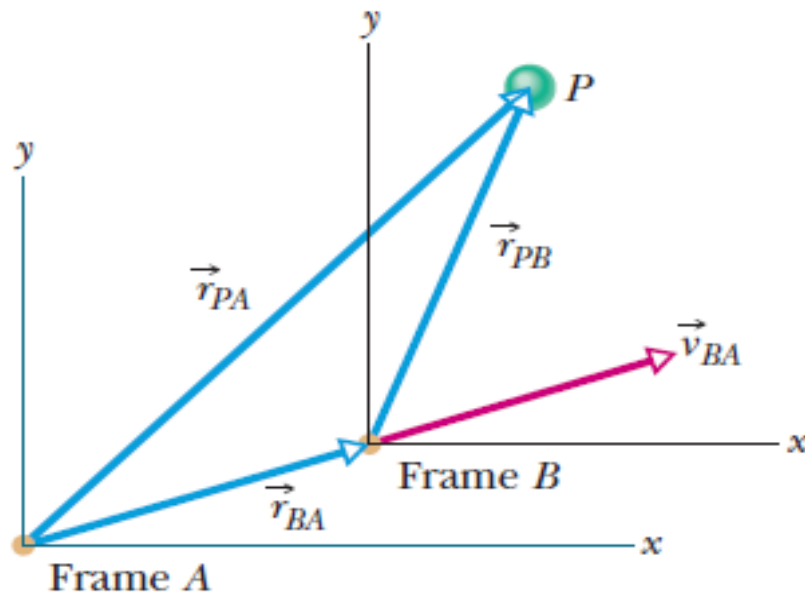
Fig. 4-19 Frame B has the constant two-dimensional velocity $\vec{v}_{BA}$ relative to frame A. The position vector of B relative to A is $\vec{r}_{BA}$. The position vectors of particle P are $\vec{r}_{PA}$ relative to A and $\vec{r}_{PB}$ relative to B.

$$\vec{r}_{PA} = \vec{r}_{PB} + \vec{r}_{BA}.$$

$$\vec{v}_{PA} = \vec{v}_{PB} + \vec{v}_{BA}.$$

$$\vec{a}_{PA} = \vec{a}_{PB}.$$

Relative Velocity Examples:
http://hyperphysics.phy-
astr.gsu.edu/hbase/relmot.html#c2

Example: relative motion, 2-D airplanes

In Fig. 4-20a, a plane moves due east while the pilot points the plane somewhat south of east, toward a steady wind that blows to the northeast. The plane has velocity $\vec{v}_{PW}$ relative to the wind, with an airspeed (speed relative to the wind) of 215 km/h, directed at angle θ south of east. The wind has velocity $\vec{v}_{WG}$ relative to the ground with speed 65.0 km/h, directed 20.0° east of north. What is the magnitude of the velocity $\vec{v}_{PG}$ of the plane relative to the ground, and what is θ?

This is the plane's actual direction of travel.

This is the plane's orientation.

This is the wind direction.

(a)

The actual direction is the vector sum of the other two vectors (head-to-tail arrangement).
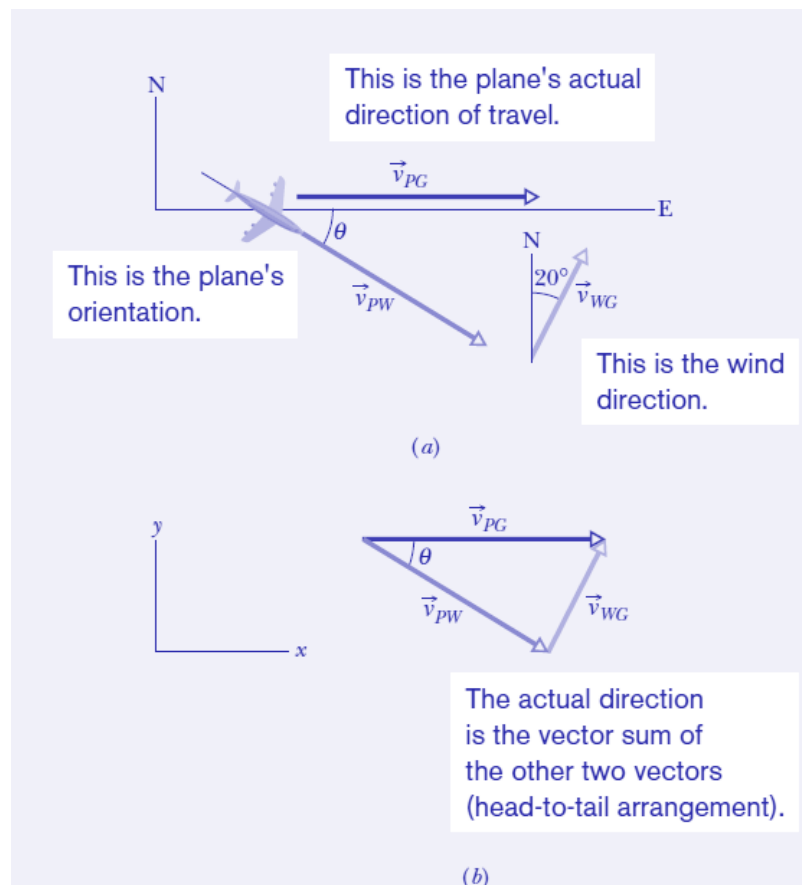
(b)

Fig. 4-20 A plane flying in a wind.

KEY IDEAS

The situation is like the one in Fig. 4-19. Here the moving particle P is the plane, frame A is attached to the ground (call it G), and frame B is "attached" to the wind (call it W). We need a vector diagram like Fig. 4-19 but with three velocity vectors.

Calculations: First we construct a sentence that relates the three vectors shown in Fig. 4-20b:

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{velocity of plane} \\ \text{relative to ground} \\ (PG) \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} \text{velocity of plane} \\ \text{relative to wind} \\ (PW) \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} \text{velocity of wind} \\ \text{relative to ground.} \\ (WG) \end{array}$$

This relation is written in vector notation as

$$\vec{v}_{PG} = \vec{v}_{PW} + \vec{v}_{WG}. \tag{4-46}$$

We need to resolve the vectors into components on the coordinate system of Fig. 4-20b and then solve Eq. 4-46 axis by axis. For the y components, we find

$$v_{PG,y} = v_{PW,y} + v_{WG,y}$$

or $0 = -(215 \text{ km/h}) \sin \theta + (65.0 \text{ km/h})(\cos 20.0°).$

Solving for θ gives us

Similarly, for the x components we find

$$v_{PG,x} = v_{PW,x} + v_{WG,x}.$$

Here, because $\vec{v}_{PG}$ is parallel to the x axis, the component $v_{PG,x}$ is equal to the magnitude v_{PG}. Substituting this notation and the value $\theta = 16.5°$, we find

$$v_{PG} = (215 \text{ km/h})(\cos 16.5°) + (65.0 \text{ km/h})(\sin 20.0°)$$
$$= 228 \text{ km/h}. \tag{Answer}$$