

The analysis of motion we have been discussing in this Chapter is basically algebraic. It is sometimes helpful to use a graphical interpretation as well; see the optional Section 2–8.

## 2–7 Falling Objects

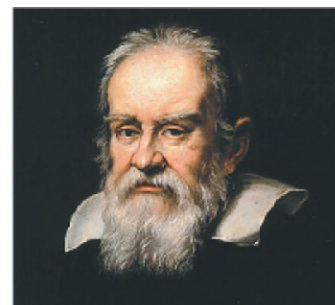
One of the most common examples of uniformly accelerated motion is that of an object allowed to fall freely near the Earth’s surface. That a falling object is accelerating may not be obvious at first. And beware of thinking, as was widely believed until the time of Galileo (Fig. 2–17), that heavier objects fall faster than lighter objects and that the speed of fall is proportional to how heavy the object is.

Galileo’s analysis of falling objects made use of his new and creative technique of imagining what would happen in idealized (simplified) cases. For free fall, he postulated that all objects would fall with the *same constant acceleration* in the absence of air or other resistance. He showed that this postulate predicts that for an object falling from rest, the distance traveled will be proportional to the square of the time (Fig. 2–18); that is,  $d \propto t^2$ . We can see this from Eq. 2–11b, but Galileo was the first to derive this mathematical relation. [Among Galileo’s great contributions to science was to establish such mathematical relations, and to insist on specific experimental consequences that could be quantitatively checked, such as  $d \propto t^2$ .]

To support his claim that falling objects increase in speed as they fall, Galileo made use of a clever argument: a heavy stone dropped from a height of 2 m will drive a stake into the ground much further than will the same stone dropped from a height of only 0.2 m. Clearly, the stone must be moving faster in the former case.

As we saw, Galileo also claimed that *all* objects, light or heavy, fall with the *same* acceleration, at least in the absence of air. If you hold a piece of paper horizontally in one hand and a heavier object—say, a baseball—in the other, and release them at the same time as in Fig. 2–19a, the heavier object will reach the ground first. But if you repeat the experiment, this time crumpling the paper into a small wad (see Fig. 2–19b), you will find that the two objects reach the floor at nearly the same time.

Galileo was sure that air acts as a resistance to very light objects that have a large surface area. But in many circumstances this air resistance is negligible. In a chamber from which the air has been removed, even light objects like a feather or a horizontally held piece of paper will fall with the same acceleration as any other object (see Fig. 2–20). Such a demonstration in vacuum was not possible in Galileo’s time, which makes Galileo’s achievement all the greater. Galileo is often called the “father of modern science,” not only for the content of his science (astronomical discoveries, inertia, free fall), but also for his style or approach to science (idealization and simplification, mathematization of theory, theories that have testable consequences, experiments to test theoretical predictions).

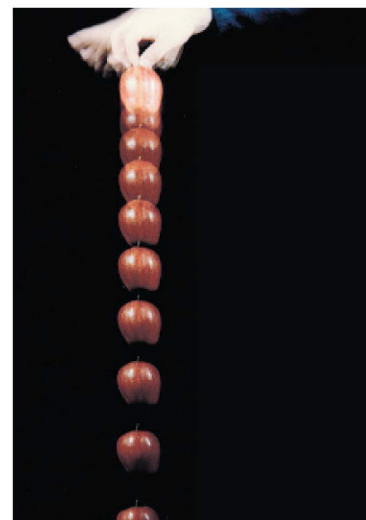


**FIGURE 2–17** Galileo Galilei (1564–1642).

### CAUTION

*The speed of a falling object is NOT proportional to its mass or weight*

**FIGURE 2–18** Multiflash photograph of a falling apple, at equal time intervals. The apple falls farther during each successive interval, which means it is accelerating.

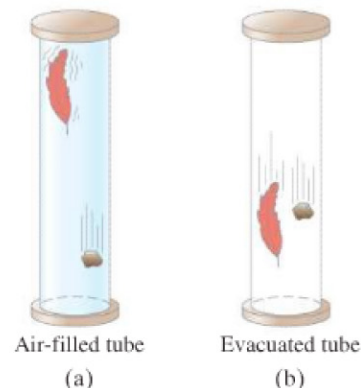


**FIGURE 2–19** (a) A ball and a light piece of paper are dropped at the same time. (b) Repeated, with the paper wadded up.

(a)

(b)

**FIGURE 2–20** A rock and a feather are dropped simultaneously (a) in air, (b) in a vacuum.



Air-filled tube  
(a)

Evacuated tube  
(b)