

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

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
10⁹	giga-	G
10⁶	mega-	M
10³	kilo-	k
10 ²	hecto-	h
10 ¹	deka-	da
10 ⁻¹	deci-	d
10⁻²	centi-	c
10⁻³	milli-	m
10⁻⁶	micro-	μ
10⁻⁹	nano-	n
10⁻¹²	pico-	p
10 ⁻¹⁵	femto-	f
10 ⁻¹⁸	atto-	a
10 ⁻²¹	zepto-	z
10 ⁻²⁴	yocto-	y

^aThe most frequently used prefixes are shown in bold type.

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,

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

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,

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

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

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

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

or a particular time interval as

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

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

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

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 \approx 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



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

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

(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!

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.

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}

^aThis is the earliest time after the big bang at which the laws of physics as we know them can be applied.



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?

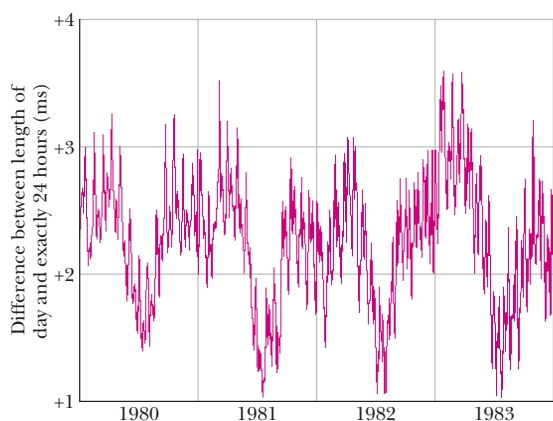


Figure 1-2 Variations in the length of the day over a 4-year period. Note that the entire vertical scale amounts to only 3 ms (= 0.003 s).

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 repetitive, 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:

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

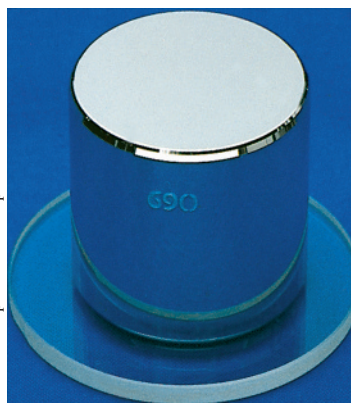
Mass

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

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

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



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.

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

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

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:

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V}. \quad (1-8)$$

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.


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}

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:

$$e = \frac{V_{\text{voids}}}{V_{\text{grains}}}. \quad (1-9)$$

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 $\rho_{\text{SiO}_2} = 2.600 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3$. 

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:

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

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

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



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:

$$m_{\text{sand}} = \rho_{\text{SiO}_2} V_{\text{grains}}. \quad (1-12)$$

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

$$\rho_{\text{sand}} = \frac{\rho_{\text{SiO}_2}}{V_{\text{total}}} \frac{V_{\text{total}}}{1+e} = \frac{\rho_{\text{SiO}_2}}{1+e}. \quad (1-13)$$

Substituting $\rho_{\text{SiO}_2} = 2.600 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3$ and the critical value of $e = 0.80$, we find that liquefaction occurs when the sand density is less than

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

A building can sink several meters in such liquefaction.



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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:

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V}. \quad (1-8)$$

Problems

1 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 m².) 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 $1 \times 10^{-28} \text{ m}^2$. (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 43 wapentakes to 8.0 barns?

2 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 9.50 m, how much farther into the room would the staircase extend if this change in run were made?

3 (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?

4 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 5.60 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?

5 Using conversions and data in the chapter, determine the number of hydrogen atoms required to obtain 3.30 kg of hydrogen. A hydrogen atom has a mass of 1.0078 u.

6 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 m³. Suppose you spot a shipping order for “46 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 m³ = 28.378 U.S. bushels.)

7 A typical sugar cube has an edge length of 1 cm. If you had a cubical box that contained 0.200 mole of sugar cubes, what would its edge length be in kilometers? (One mole = 6.02 × 10²³ units.)

8 An astronomical unit (AU) is the average distance between Earth and the Sun, approximately 1.50 × 10⁸ km. The speed of light is about 3.0 × 10⁸ m/s. Express the speed of light in astronomical units per hour.

9 In purchasing appetizers for a seafood restaurant, you erroneously order shucked medium-size Pacific oysters (which come 10 per U.S. pint) instead of shucked medium-size Atlantic oysters (which come 30 per U.S. pint). The filled oyster container shipped to you has the interior measure of 1.0 m × 20 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?

10 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 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. 1-4) 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?

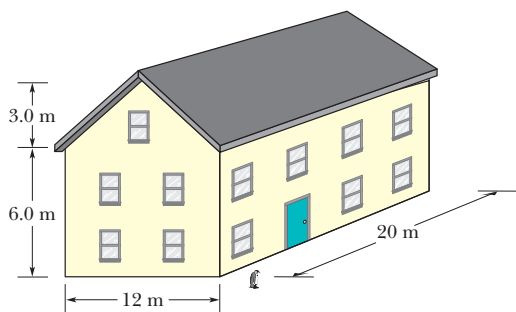


Figure 1-4 Problem 10.

11 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 17 km². (a) What volume of water, in acre-feet, fell on the town? (b) What was the mass of that water? Water has a density of 1.0 × 10³ kg/m³.

12 (a) Assuming that water has a density of exactly 1 g/cm³, find the mass of one cubic meter of water in kilograms. (b) Suppose that it takes 15.7 h to drain a container of 4800 m³ of water. What is the “mass flow rate,” in kilograms per second, of water from the container?

13 A cookbook from the 1700s 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 1.5 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	

14 The financial term *corn-hog ratio* is 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 6.50 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.)

15 One molecule of water (H₂O) 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 a body of water with a mass of 2.8 × 10⁸ kg?

16 A unit of area often used in measuring land areas is the *hectare*, defined as 10⁴ m². An open-pit coal mine consumes 57 hectares of land, down to a depth of 17 m, each year. What volume of earth, in cubic kilometers, is removed in this time?

17 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 m³. If an old story has a witch cooking up some vile liquid in a cauldron of volume 4.32 chaldrons, what is the volume in cubic meters?

Table 1-6 Problem 17

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

18 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 73 cranberry barrels of goods to a customer who thinks he is receiving apple barrels, what is the discrepancy in the shipment volume in liters?

19 You receive orders to sail due east for 45.3 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 45.3 *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.

20 The description for a certain brand of house paint claims a coverage of 230 ft²/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?

21 You must prepare dinners for 312 hot-pepper 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 312 dinners?

22 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. 1-5). 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.

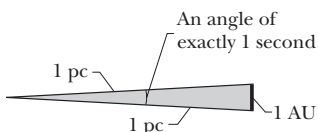


Figure 1-5 Problem 22.

23 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 350 s apart on clock *A*, how far apart are they on (a) clock *B* and (b) clock *C*? (c) When clock *A* reads 350 s, what does clock *B* read? (d) When clock *C* reads 30.0 s, what does clock *B* read? (Assume negative readings for prezero times.)

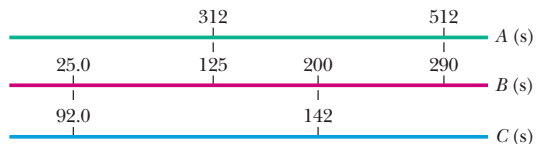


Figure 1-6 Problem 23.

24 An old manuscript reveals that a landowner in the time of King Arthur held 2.80 acres of plowed land plus a live-stock area of 13.0 perches by 3.00 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.

25 A *cord* is a volume of cut wood equal to a stack 8 ft long, 4 ft wide, and 4 ft high. How many cubic meters are in 2.00 cords?

26 In Japan, a traditional unit of length 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 6.90 kens and radius 3.80 kens in (c) cubic kens and (d) cubic meters?

27 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 1230 miles (in the United States), how many gallons of fuel does (a) the mistaken tourist believe she needs and (b) the car actually require?

28 The common Eastern mole, a mammal, typically has a mass of 68 g, which corresponds to about 6.8 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?

29 At a fancy wedding reception, the wine is to be served in a stunning cut-glass receptacle with the interior dimensions of 40 cm \times 40 cm \times 26 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

30 An ancient unit of length is the cubit, which is 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 11 cubits and a diameter of 2.5 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?

31 A person on a diet might lose 0.257 kg per day. Express the mass loss rate in milligrams per minute, as if the dieter could sense the minute-by-minute loss.

32 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.)