Velocity

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Velocity is a measurement of speed in a certain direction of motion. It is a fundamental concept in kinematics, the branch of classical mechanics that describes the motion of physical objects. Velocity is a vector quantity, meaning that both magnitude and direction are needed to define it. The scalar absolute value (magnitude) of velocity is called speed, being a coherent derived unit whose quantity is measured in the SI (metric system) as metres per second (m/s or m?s?1). For example, "5 metres per second" is a scalar, whereas "5 metres per second east" is a vector. If there is a change in speed, direction or both, then the object is said to be undergoing an acceleration.

Detonation velocity

Explosive velocity, also known as detonation velocity or velocity of detonation (VoD), is the velocity at which the shock wave front travels through a

Explosive velocity, also known as detonation velocity or velocity of detonation (VoD), is the velocity at which the shock wave front travels through a detonated explosive. Explosive velocities are always higher than the local speed of sound in the material.

If the explosive is confined before detonation, such as in an artillery shell, the force produced is focused on a much smaller area, and the pressure is significantly intensified. This results in an explosive velocity that is higher than if the explosive had been detonated in open air. Unconfined velocities are often approximately 70 to 80 percent of confined velocities.

Explosive velocity is increased with smaller particle size (i.e., increased spatial density), increased charge diameter, and increased confinement (i.e., higher pressure).

Typical detonation velocities for organic dust mixtures range from 1400 to 1650 m/s. Gas explosions can either deflagrate or detonate based on confinement; detonation velocities are generally around 1700 m/s but can be as high as 3000 m/s. Solid explosives often have detonation velocities ranging beyond 4000 m/s to 10300 m/s.

Detonation velocity can be measured by the Dautriche method. In essence, this method relies on the time lag between the initiation of two ends of a detonating fuse of a known detonation velocity, inserted radially at two points into the explosive charge at a known distance apart. When the explosive charge is detonated, it triggers one end of the fuse, then the second end. This causes two detonation fronts travelling in opposite direction along the length of the detonating fuse, which meet at a specific point away from the centre of the fuse. Knowing the distance along the detonation charge between the two ends of the fuse, the position of the collision of the detonation fronts, and the detonation velocity of the detonating fuse, the detonation velocity of the explosive is calculated and is expressed in km/s.

In other words "VOD is the velocity or rate of propagation of chemical decomposition/reaction." And for high explosives, it is generally above 1000 m/s.

In the cases where a material has not received dedicated testing, rough predictions based upon gas behavior theory are sometimes used (see Chapman–Jouguet condition).

The detonation velocity can be effectively determined by the Chapman–Jouguet (CJ) state, which represents the minimum sustainable steady detonation speed.

Velocity (disambiguation)

Look up velocity or instantaneous velocity in Wiktionary, the free dictionary. Velocity is a quantity in physics that is related to speed. Velocity may also

Velocity is a quantity in physics that is related to speed.

Velocity may also refer to:

Escape velocity

In celestial mechanics, escape velocity or escape speed is the minimum speed needed for an object to escape from contact with or orbit of a primary body

In celestial mechanics, escape velocity or escape speed is the minimum speed needed for an object to escape from contact with or orbit of a primary body, assuming:

Ballistic trajectory – no other forces are acting on the object, such as propulsion and friction

No other gravity-producing objects exist.

Although the term escape velocity is common, it is more accurately described as a speed than as a velocity because it is independent of direction. Because gravitational force between two objects depends on their combined mass, the escape speed also depends on mass. For artificial satellites and small natural objects, the mass of the object makes a negligible contribution to the combined mass, and so is often ignored.

Escape speed varies with distance from the center of the primary body, as does the velocity of an object traveling under the gravitational influence of the primary. If an object is in a circular or elliptical orbit, its speed is always less than the escape speed at its current distance. In contrast if it is on a hyperbolic trajectory its speed will always be higher than the escape speed at its current distance. (It will slow down as it gets to greater distance, but do so asymptotically approaching a positive speed.) An object on a parabolic trajectory will always be traveling exactly the escape speed at its current distance. It has precisely balanced positive kinetic energy and negative gravitational potential energy; it will always be slowing down, asymptotically approaching zero speed, but never quite stop.

Escape velocity calculations are typically used to determine whether an object will remain in the gravitational sphere of influence of a given body. For example, in solar system exploration it is useful to know whether a probe will continue to orbit the Earth or escape to a heliocentric orbit. It is also useful to know how much a probe will need to slow down in order to be gravitationally captured by its destination body. Rockets do not have to reach escape velocity in a single maneuver, and objects can also use a gravity assist to siphon kinetic energy away from large bodies.

Precise trajectory calculations require taking into account small forces like atmospheric drag, radiation pressure, and solar wind. A rocket under continuous or intermittent thrust (or an object climbing a space elevator) can attain escape at any non-zero speed, but the minimum amount of energy required to do so is always the same.

Terminal velocity

Terminal velocity is the maximum speed attainable by an object as it falls through a fluid (air is the most common example). It is reached when the sum

Terminal velocity is the maximum speed attainable by an object as it falls through a fluid (air is the most common example). It is reached when the sum of the drag force (Fd) and the buoyancy is equal to the downward force of gravity (FG) acting on the object. Since the net force on the object is zero, the object has zero acceleration. For objects falling through air at normal pressure, the buoyant force is usually dismissed and not taken into account, as its effects are negligible.

As the speed of an object increases, so does the drag force acting on it, which also depends on the substance it is passing through (for example air or water). At some speed, the drag or force of resistance will be equal to the gravitational pull on the object. At this point the object stops accelerating and continues falling at a constant speed called the terminal velocity (also called settling velocity).

An object moving downward faster than the terminal velocity (for example because it was thrown downwards, it fell from a thinner part of the atmosphere, or it changed shape) will slow down until it reaches the terminal velocity. Drag depends on the projected area, here represented by the object's cross-section or silhouette in a horizontal plane.

An object with a large projected area relative to its mass, such as a parachute, has a lower terminal velocity than one with a small projected area relative to its mass, such as a dart. In general, for the same shape and material, the terminal velocity of an object increases with size. This is because the downward force (weight) is proportional to the cube of the linear dimension, but the air resistance is approximately proportional to the cross-section area which increases only as the square of the linear dimension.

For very small objects such as dust and mist, the terminal velocity is easily overcome by convection currents which can prevent them from reaching the ground at all, and hence they can stay suspended in the air for indefinite periods. Air pollution and fog are examples.

Angular velocity

In physics, angular velocity (symbol? or??? { $\displaystyle {\vec {\omega}}}$ }?, the lowercase Greek letter omega), also known as the angular frequency

In physics, angular velocity (symbol? or?

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{\displaystyle {\vec {\omega }}}
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?, the lowercase Greek letter omega), also known as the angular frequency vector, is a pseudovector representation of how the angular position or orientation of an object changes with time, i.e. how quickly an object rotates (spins or revolves) around an axis of rotation and how fast the axis itself changes direction.

The magnitude of the pseudovector,

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, represents the angular speed (or angular frequency), the angular rate at which the object rotates (spins or
revolves). The pseudovector direction
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is normal to the instantaneous plane of rotation or angular displacement.
There are two types of angular velocity:
Orbital angular velocity refers to how fast a point object revolves about a fixed origin, i.e. the time rate of
change of its angular position relative to the origin.
Spin angular velocity refers to how fast a rigid body rotates around a fixed axis of rotation, and is
independent of the choice of origin, in contrast to orbital angular velocity.
Angular velocity has dimension of angle per unit time; this is analogous to linear velocity, with angle
replacing distance, with time in common. The SI unit of angular velocity is radians per second, although
degrees per second (°/s) is also common. The radian is a dimensionless quantity, thus the SI units of angular
velocity are dimensionally equivalent to reciprocal seconds, s?1, although rad/s is preferable to avoid
confusion with rotation velocity in units of hertz (also equivalent to s?1).
The sense of angular velocity is conventionally specified by the right-hand rule, implying clockwise rotations
(as viewed on the plane of rotation); negation (multiplication by ?1) leaves the magnitude unchanged but
flips the axis in the opposite direction.
For example, a geostationary satellite completes one orbit per day above the equator (360 degrees per 24
hours) a has angular velocity magnitude (angular speed) ? = 360^{\circ}/24 \text{ h} = 15^{\circ}/\text{h} (or 2? rad/24 h ? 0.26 rad/h)
and angular velocity direction (a unit vector) parallel to Earth's rotation axis (?
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?, in the geocentric coordinate system). If angle is measured in radians, the linear velocity is the radius times the angular velocity, ?

v = r ? {\displaystyle v=r\omega }

?. With orbital radius 42000 km from the Earth's center, the satellite's tangential speed through space is thus $v = 42000 \text{ km} \times 0.26/\text{h}$? 11000 km/h. The angular velocity is positive since the satellite travels prograde with the Earth's rotation (the same direction as the rotation of Earth).

^a Geosynchronous satellites actually orbit based on a sidereal day which is 23h 56m 04s, but 24h is assumed in this example for simplicity.

Muzzle velocity

Muzzle velocity is the speed of a projectile (bullet, pellet, slug, ball/shots or shell) with respect to the muzzle at the moment it leaves the end of

Muzzle velocity is the speed of a projectile (bullet, pellet, slug, ball/shots or shell) with respect to the muzzle at the moment it leaves the end of a gun's barrel (i.e. the muzzle). Firearm muzzle velocities range from approximately 120 m/s (390 ft/s) to 370 m/s (1,200 ft/s) in black powder muskets, to more than 1,200 m/s (3,900 ft/s) in modern rifles with high-velocity cartridges such as the .220 Swift and .204 Ruger, all the way to 1,700 m/s (5,600 ft/s) for tank guns firing kinetic energy penetrator ammunition. To simulate orbital debris impacts on spacecraft, NASA launches projectiles through light-gas guns at speeds up to 8,500 m/s (28,000 ft/s).

Several factors, including the type of firearm, the cartridge, and the barrel length, determine the bullet's muzzle velocity.

Flow velocity

continuum mechanics the flow velocity in fluid dynamics, also macroscopic velocity in statistical mechanics, or drift velocity in electromagnetism, is a

In continuum mechanics the flow velocity in fluid dynamics, also macroscopic velocity in statistical mechanics, or drift velocity in electromagnetism, is a vector field used to mathematically describe the motion of a continuum. The length of the flow velocity vector is scalar, the flow speed.

It is also called velocity field; when evaluated along a line, it is called a velocity profile (as in, e.g., law of the wall).

Group velocity

The group velocity of a wave is the velocity with which the overall envelope shape of the wave's amplitudes—known as the modulation or envelope of the

The group velocity of a wave is the velocity with which the overall envelope shape of the wave's amplitudes—known as the modulation or envelope of the wave—propagates through space.

For example, if a stone is thrown into the middle of a very still pond, a circular pattern of waves with a quiescent center appears in the water, also known as a capillary wave. The expanding ring of waves is the wave group or wave packet, within which one can discern individual waves that travel faster than the group as a whole. The amplitudes of the individual waves grow as they emerge from the trailing edge of the group and diminish as they approach the leading edge of the group.

Phase velocity

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The phase velocity of a wave is the rate at which the wave propagates in any medium. This is the velocity at which the phase of any one frequency component of the wave travels. For such a component, any given phase of the wave (for example, the crest) will appear to travel at the phase velocity. The phase velocity is given in terms of the wavelength? (lambda) and time period T as

Equivalently, in terms of the wave's angular frequency?, which specifies angular change per unit of time, and wavenumber (or angular wave number) k, which represent the angular change per unit of space,

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v
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{\displaystyle v_{\mathrm {p} }={\frac {\omega }{k}}.}
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To gain some basic intuition for this equation, we consider a propagating (cosine) wave A cos(kx ? ?t). We want to see how fast a particular phase of the wave travels. For example, we can choose kx - ?t = 0, the phase of the first crest. This implies kx = ?t, and so v = x / t = ? / k.

Formally, we let the phase ? = kx - ?t and see immediately that ? = -d? / dt and k = d? / dx. So, it immediately follows that

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As a result, we observe an inverse relation between the angular frequency and wavevector. If the wave has higher frequency oscillations, the wavelength must be shortened for the phase velocity to remain constant. Additionally, the phase velocity of electromagnetic radiation may – under certain circumstances (for example anomalous dispersion) – exceed the speed of light in vacuum, but this does not indicate any superluminal information or energy transfer. It was theoretically described by physicists such as Arnold Sommerfeld and Léon Brillouin.

The previous definition of phase velocity has been demonstrated for an isolated wave. However, such a definition can be extended to a beat of waves, or to a signal composed of multiple waves. For this it is necessary to mathematically write the beat or signal as a low frequency envelope multiplying a carrier. Thus the phase velocity of the carrier determines the phase velocity of the wave set.

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