

changes from  $\mathbf{p}_i$  at time  $t_i$  to  $\mathbf{p}_f$  at time  $t_f$ , integrating Equation 9.7 gives

$$\Delta \mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}_f - \mathbf{p}_i = \int_{t_i}^{t_f} \mathbf{F} dt \quad (9.8)$$

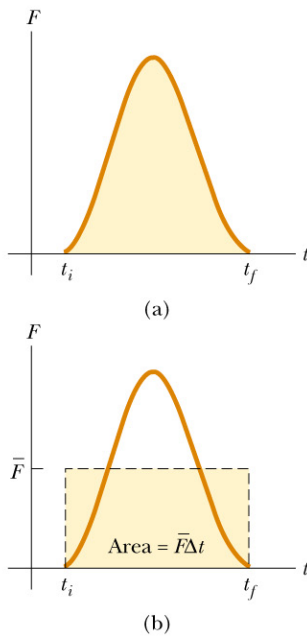
To evaluate the integral, we need to know how the force varies with time. The quantity on the right side of this equation is called the **impulse** of the force  $\mathbf{F}$  acting on a particle over the time interval  $\Delta t = t_f - t_i$ . Impulse is a vector defined by

Impulse of a force

$$\mathbf{I} \equiv \int_{t_i}^{t_f} \mathbf{F} dt = \Delta \mathbf{p} \quad (9.9)$$

Impulse–momentum theorem

The impulse of the force  $\mathbf{F}$  acting on a particle equals the change in the momentum of the particle caused by that force.



**Figure 9.4** (a) A force acting on a particle may vary in time. The impulse imparted to the particle by the force is the area under the force versus time curve. (b) In the time interval  $\Delta t$ , the time-averaged force (horizontal dashed line) gives the same impulse to a particle as does the time-varying force described in part (a).

This statement, known as the **impulse–momentum theorem**,<sup>3</sup> is equivalent to Newton’s second law. From this definition, we see that impulse is a vector quantity having a magnitude equal to the area under the force–time curve, as described in Figure 9.4a. In this figure, it is assumed that the force varies in time in the general manner shown and is nonzero in the time interval  $\Delta t = t_f - t_i$ . The direction of the impulse vector is the same as the direction of the change in momentum. Impulse has the dimensions of momentum—that is,  $\text{ML}/\text{T}$ . Note that impulse is *not* a property of a particle; rather, it is a measure of the degree to which an external force changes the momentum of the particle. Therefore, when we say that an impulse is given to a particle, we mean that momentum is transferred from an external agent to that particle.

Because the force imparting an impulse can generally vary in time, it is convenient to define a time-averaged force

$$\bar{\mathbf{F}} \equiv \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{t_i}^{t_f} \mathbf{F} dt \quad (9.10)$$

where  $\Delta t = t_f - t_i$ . (This is an application of the mean value theorem of calculus.) Therefore, we can express Equation 9.9 as

$$\mathbf{I} \equiv \bar{\mathbf{F}} \Delta t \quad (9.11)$$

This time-averaged force, described in Figure 9.4b, can be thought of as the constant force that would give to the particle in the time interval  $\Delta t$  the same impulse that the time-varying force gives over this same interval.

In principle, if  $\mathbf{F}$  is known as a function of time, the impulse can be calculated from Equation 9.9. The calculation becomes especially simple if the force acting on the particle is constant. In this case,  $\bar{\mathbf{F}} = \mathbf{F}$  and Equation 9.11 becomes

$$\mathbf{I} = \mathbf{F} \Delta t \quad (9.12)$$

In many physical situations, we shall use what is called the **impulse approximation**, in which we assume that one of the forces exerted on a particle acts for a short time but is much greater than any other force present. This approximation is especially useful in treating collisions in which the duration of the

<sup>3</sup>Although we assumed that only a single force acts on the particle, the impulse–momentum theorem is valid when several forces act; in this case, we replace  $\mathbf{F}$  in Equation 9.9 with  $\Sigma \mathbf{F}$ .