



## Rigid Object

Analysis models introduced so far cannot be used to analyze all motion.

We can model the motion of an extended object by modeling it as a system of many particles.

- The analysis is simplified if the object is assumed to be a **rigid object**.

A rigid object is one that is non-deformable.

- The relative locations of all particles making up the object remain constant.
- All real objects are deformable to some extent, but the rigid object model is very useful in many situations where the deformation is negligible.

In this chapter another class of analysis models based on the rigid-object model are developed.

## Angular Position

Axis of rotation is the center of the disc

Choose a fixed reference line.

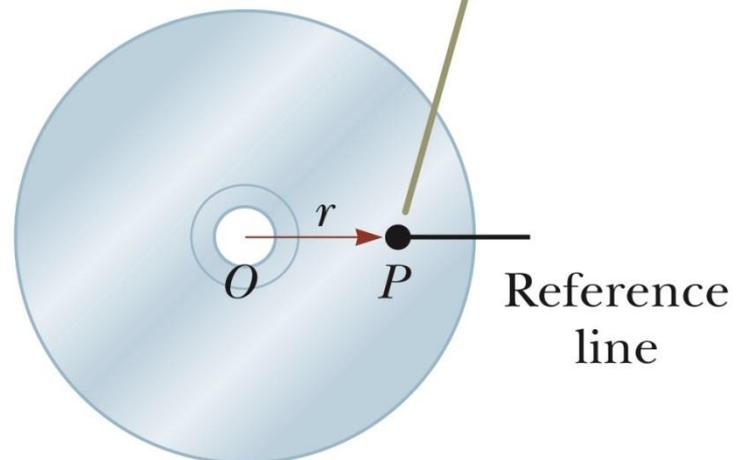
Point  $P$  is at a fixed distance  $r$  from the origin.

- A small element of the disc can be modeled as a particle at  $P$ .

Polar coordinates are convenient to use to represent the position of  $P$  (or any other point).

$P$  is located at  $(r, \theta)$  where  $r$  is the distance from the origin to  $P$  and  $\theta$  is the measured counterclockwise from the reference line.

To define angular position for the disc, a fixed reference line is chosen. A particle at  $P$  is located at a distance  $r$  from the rotation axis through  $O$ .



a

## Angular Position, cont.

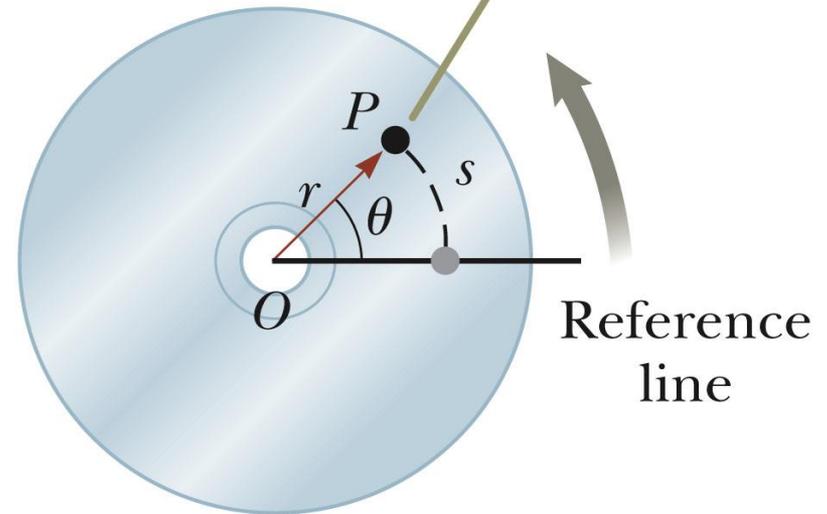
As the particle moves, the only coordinate that changes is  $\theta$ .

As the particle moves through  $\theta$ , it moves through an arc length  $s$ .

The arc length and  $r$  are related:

- $s = \theta r$

As the disc rotates, a particle at  $P$  moves through an arc length  $s$  on a circular path of radius  $r$ .



b

# Radian

This can also be expressed as:

$$\theta = \frac{S}{r}$$

$\theta$  is a pure number, but commonly is given the artificial unit, radian.

One radian is the angle subtended by an arc length equal to the radius of the arc.

Whenever using rotational equations, you must use angles expressed in radians.

## Conversions

Comparing degrees and radians

$$1 \text{ rad} = \frac{360^\circ}{2\pi} = 57.3^\circ$$

Converting from degrees to radians

$$\theta (\text{rad}) = \frac{\pi}{180^\circ} \theta (\text{degrees})$$

## Angular Position, final

We can associate the angle  $\theta$  with the entire rigid object as well as with an individual particle.

- Remember every particle on the object rotates through the same angle.

The **angular position** of the rigid object is the angle  $\theta$  between the reference line on the object and the fixed reference line in space.

- The fixed reference line in space is often the x-axis.

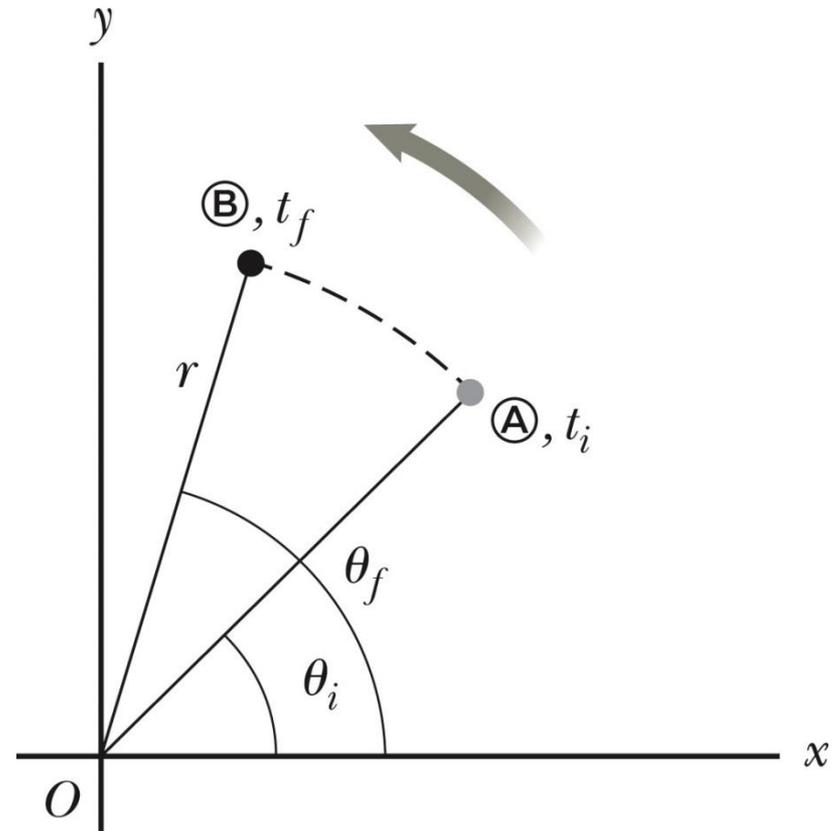
The angle  $\theta$  plays the same role in rotational motion that the position  $x$  does in translational motion.

## Angular Displacement

The *angular displacement* is defined as the angle the object rotates through during some time interval.

$$\Delta\theta = \theta_f - \theta_i$$

This is the angle that the reference line of length  $r$  sweeps out.



## Average Angular Speed

The *average* angular speed,  $\omega_{\text{avg}}$ , of a rotating rigid object is the ratio of the angular displacement to the time interval.

$$\omega_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\theta_f - \theta_i}{t_f - t_i} = \frac{\Delta\theta}{\Delta t}$$

## Angular Speed

The *instantaneous* angular speed is defined as the limit of the average speed as the time interval approaches zero.

$$\omega \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta \theta}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\theta}{dt}$$

This is analogous to translational speed.

Units of angular speed are radians/sec.

- rad/s or s<sup>-1</sup> since radians have no dimensions.

Angular speed will be positive if  $\theta$  is increasing (counterclockwise)

Angular speed will be negative if  $\theta$  is decreasing (clockwise)

## Angular Acceleration

The average angular acceleration,  $\alpha_{avg}$ , of an object is defined as the ratio of the change in the angular speed to the time it takes for the object to undergo the change.

$$\alpha_{avg} = \frac{\omega_f - \omega_i}{t_f - t_i} = \frac{\Delta\omega}{\Delta t}$$

The instantaneous angular acceleration is defined as the limit of the average angular acceleration as the time goes to 0.

$$\alpha \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta\omega}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\omega}{dt}$$

## Angular Acceleration, cont.

Analogous to translational velocity

Units of angular acceleration are  $\text{rad/s}^2$  or  $\text{s}^{-2}$  since radians have no dimensions.

Angular acceleration will be positive if an object rotating counterclockwise is speeding up.

Angular acceleration will also be positive if an object rotating clockwise is slowing down.

## Angular Motion, General Notes

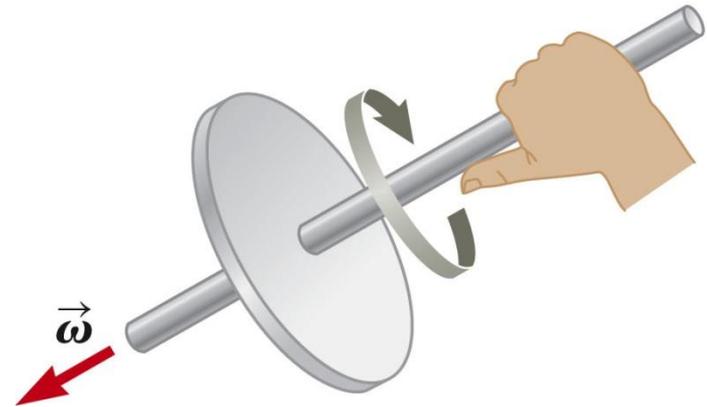
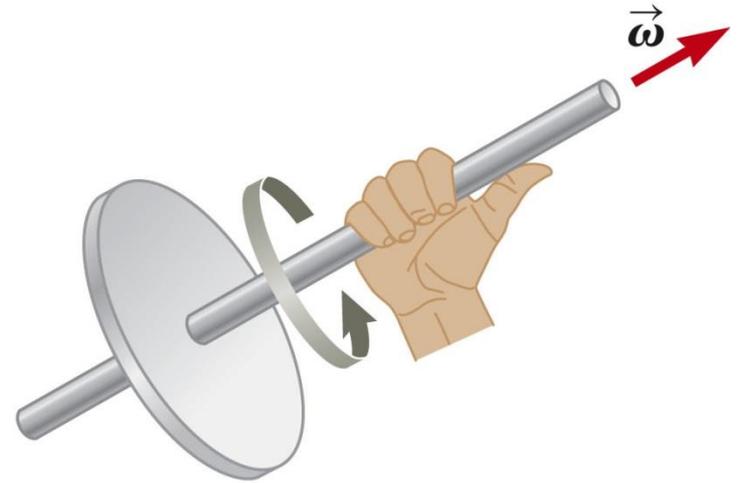
When a rigid object rotates about a fixed axis in a given time interval, every portion on the object rotates through the same angle in a given time interval and has the same angular speed and the same angular acceleration.

- So  $\theta$ ,  $\omega$ ,  $\alpha$  all characterize the motion of the entire rigid object as well as the individual particles in the object.

## Directions, details

Strictly speaking, the speed and acceleration ( $\omega$ ,  $\alpha$ ) are the magnitudes of the velocity and acceleration vectors.

The directions are actually given by the right-hand rule.



## Hints for Problem-Solving

Similar to the techniques used in linear motion problems.

- With constant angular acceleration, the techniques are much like those with constant linear acceleration.

There are some differences to keep in mind.

- For rotational motion, define a rotational axis.
  - The choice is arbitrary.
  - Once you make the choice, it must be maintained.
  - In some problems, the physical situation may suggest a natural axis.
- The object keeps returning to its original orientation, so you can find the number of revolutions made by the body.

## Rotational Kinematics

Under **constant angular acceleration**, we can describe the motion of the rigid object using a set of kinematic equations.

- These are similar to the kinematic equations for linear motion.
- The rotational equations have the same mathematical form as the linear equations.

The new model is a **rigid object under constant angular acceleration**.

- Analogous to the particle under constant acceleration model.

## Rotational Kinematic Equations

The kinematic expression for the rigid object under constant angular acceleration are of the same mathematical form as those for a particle under constant acceleration.

Substitutions from translational to rotational are

- $x \rightarrow \theta$
- $v \rightarrow \omega$
- $a \rightarrow \alpha$

$$\omega_f = \omega_i + \alpha t$$

$$\theta_f = \theta_i + \omega_i t + \frac{1}{2} \alpha t^2$$

$$\omega_f^2 = \omega_i^2 + 2\alpha(\theta_f - \theta_i)$$

$$\theta_f = \theta_i + \frac{1}{2}(\omega_i + \omega_f)t$$

*all with constant  $\alpha$*

## Comparison Between Rotational and Linear Equations

**TABLE 10.1** *Kinematic Equations for Rotational and Translational Motion*

**Rigid Body Under Constant Angular Acceleration**

$$\begin{aligned}\omega_f &= \omega_i + \alpha t \\ \theta_f &= \theta_i + \omega_i t + \frac{1}{2}\alpha t^2 \\ \omega_f^2 &= \omega_i^2 + 2\alpha(\theta_f - \theta_i) \\ \theta_f &= \theta_i + \frac{1}{2}(\omega_i + \omega_f)t\end{aligned}$$

**Particle Under Constant Acceleration**

$$\begin{aligned}v_f &= v_i + at \\ x_f &= x_i + v_i t + \frac{1}{2}at^2 \\ v_f^2 &= v_i^2 + 2a(x_f - x_i) \\ x_f &= x_i + \frac{1}{2}(v_i + v_f)t\end{aligned}$$

## Relationship Between Angular and Linear Quantities

Every point on the rotating object has the same angular motion.

Every point on the rotating object does **not** have the same linear motion.

Displacements

- $s = \theta r$

Speeds

- $v = \omega r$

Accelerations

- $a = \alpha r$

## Speed Comparison – Details

The linear velocity is always tangent to the circular path.

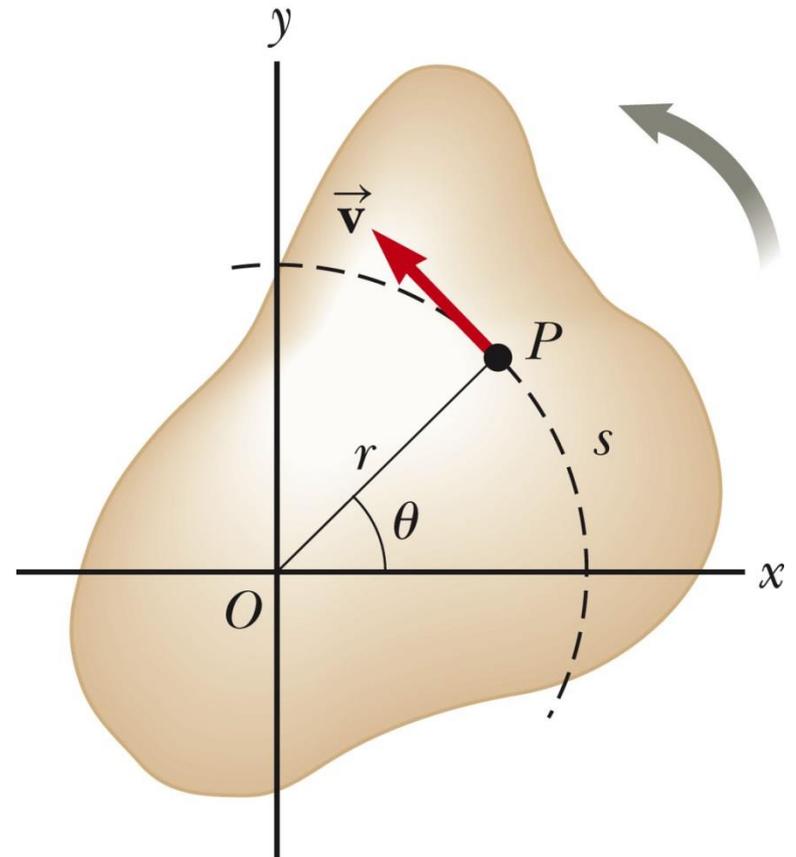
- Called the tangential velocity

The magnitude is defined by the tangential speed.

$$v = \frac{ds}{dt} = r \frac{d\theta}{dt} = r\omega$$

Since  $r$  is not the same for all points on the object, the tangential speed of every point is not the same.

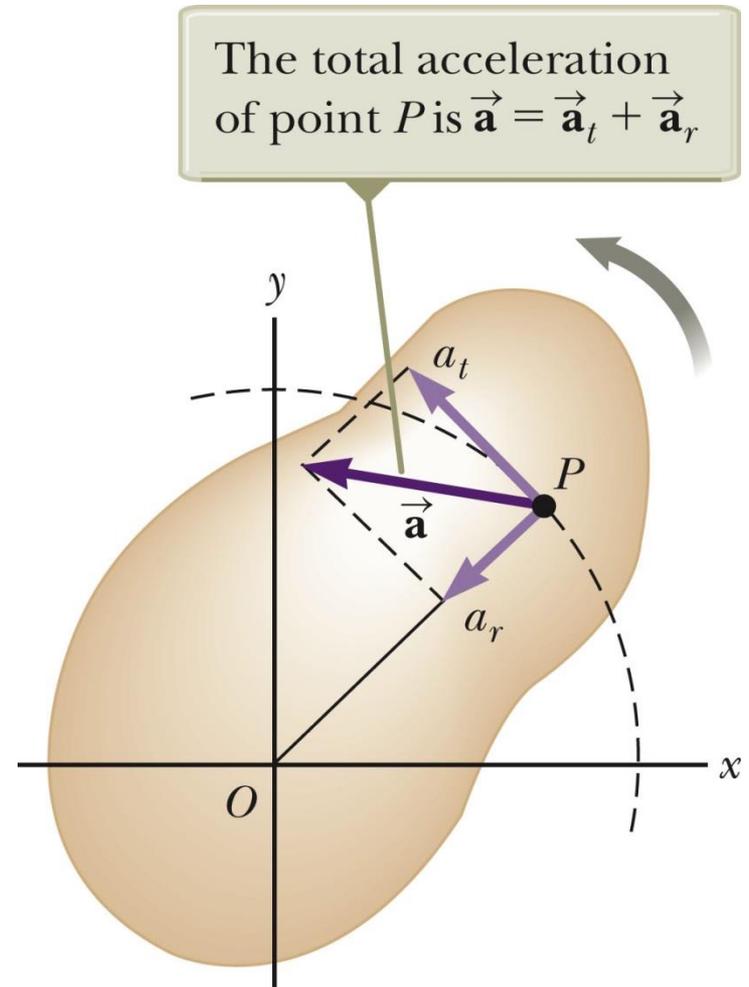
The tangential speed increases as one moves outward from the center of rotation.



## Acceleration Comparison – Details

The tangential acceleration is the derivative of the tangential velocity.

$$a_t = \frac{dv}{dt} = r \frac{d\omega}{dt} = r\alpha$$



## Speed and Acceleration Note

All points on the rigid object will have the same angular speed, but not the same tangential speed.

All points on the rigid object will have the same angular acceleration, but not the same tangential acceleration.

The tangential quantities depend on  $r$ , and  $r$  is not the same for all points on the object.

## Centripetal Acceleration

An object traveling in a circle, even though it moves with a constant speed, will have an acceleration.

- Therefore, each point on a rotating rigid object will experience a centripetal acceleration.

$$a_c = \frac{v^2}{r} = r\omega^2$$

## Resultant Acceleration

The tangential component of the acceleration is due to changing speed.

The centripetal component of the acceleration is due to changing direction.

Total acceleration can be found from these components:

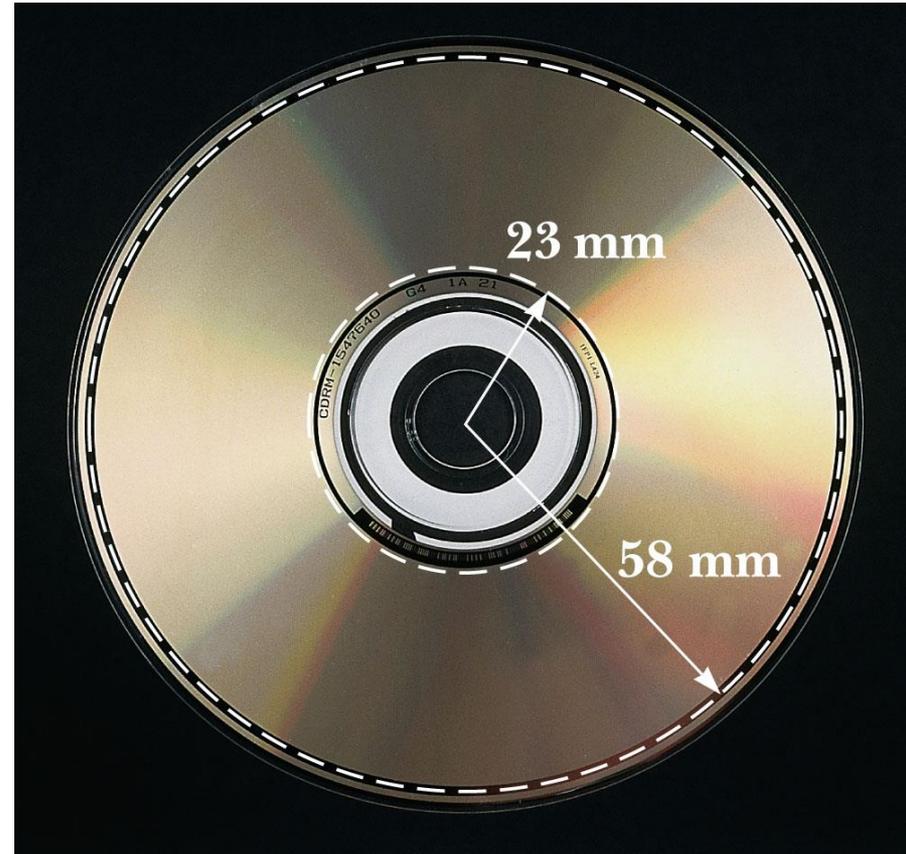
$$a = \sqrt{a_t^2 + a_r^2} = \sqrt{r^2\alpha^2 + r^2\omega^4} = r\sqrt{\alpha^2 + \omega^4}$$

## Rotational Motion Example

For a compact disc player to read a CD, the angular speed must vary to keep the tangential speed constant ( $v_t = \omega r$ ).

- Typically the constant speed of the surface at the point of the laser-lens system is 1.3 m/s.

At the inner sections, the angular speed is faster than at the outer sections.



## Rotational Kinetic Energy

An object rotating about some axis with an angular speed,  $\omega$ , has rotational kinetic energy even though it may not have any translational kinetic energy.

Each particle has a kinetic energy of

- $K_j = \frac{1}{2} m_j v_j^2$

Since the tangential velocity depends on the distance,  $r$ , from the axis of rotation, we can substitute  $v_j = \omega_j r$ .

## Rotational Kinetic Energy, cont

The total rotational kinetic energy of the rigid object is the sum of the energies of all its particles.

$$K_R = \sum_i K_i = \sum_i \frac{1}{2} m_i r_i^2 \omega^2$$

$$K_R = \frac{1}{2} \left( \sum_i m_i r_i^2 \right) \omega^2 = \frac{1}{2} I \omega^2$$

$I$  is called the moment of inertia.

## Rotational Kinetic Energy, final

There is an analogy between the kinetic energies associated with linear motion ( $K = \frac{1}{2} mv^2$ ) and the kinetic energy associated with rotational motion ( $K_R = \frac{1}{2} I\omega^2$ ).

Rotational kinetic energy is not a new type of energy, the form is different because it is applied to a rotating object.

The units of rotational kinetic energy are Joules (J).

## Moment of Inertia

The definition of moment of inertia is

$$I = \sum_i r_i^2 m_i$$

The dimensions of moment of inertia are  $ML^2$  and its SI units are  $kg \cdot m^2$ .

We can calculate the moment of inertia of an object more easily by assuming it is divided into many small volume elements, each of mass  $\Delta m_i$ .

Mass is an inherent property of an object, but the moment of inertia depends on the choice of rotational axis.

Moment of inertia is a measure of the resistance of an object to changes in its rotational motion, similar to mass being a measure of an object's resistance to changes in its translational motion.

- The moment of inertia depends on the mass and how the mass is distributed around the rotational axis.

## Moment of Inertia, cont

The moment of inertia of a system of discrete particles can be calculated by applying the definition for  $I$ .

For a continuous rigid object, imagine the object to be divided into many small elements, each having a mass of  $\Delta m_i$ .

We can rewrite the expression for  $I$  in terms of  $\Delta m$ .

$$I = \lim_{\Delta m_i \rightarrow 0} \sum_i r_i^2 \Delta m_i = \int r^2 dm$$

With the small volume segment assumption,

$$I = \int \rho r^2 dV$$

If  $\rho$  is constant, the integral can be evaluated with known geometry, otherwise its variation with position must be known.

## Notes on Various Densities

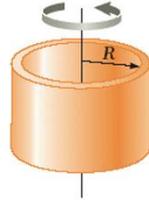
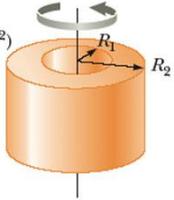
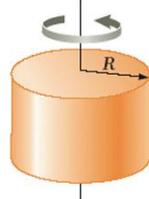
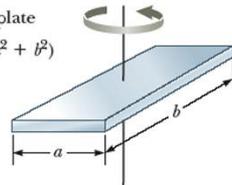
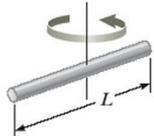
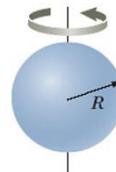
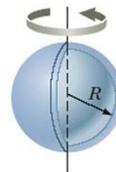
Volumetric Mass Density → mass per unit volume:  $\rho = m / V$

Surface Mass Density → mass per unit thickness of a sheet of uniform thickness,  $t$ :  $\sigma = \rho t$

Linear Mass Density → mass per unit length of a rod of uniform cross-sectional area:  $\lambda = m / L = \rho A$

# Moments of Inertia of Various Rigid Objects

**TABLE 10.2** Moments of Inertia of Homogeneous Rigid Objects with Different Geometries

<p>Hoop or thin cylindrical shell  <math>I_{\text{CM}} = MR^2</math></p> 	<p>Hollow cylinder  <math>I_{\text{CM}} = \frac{1}{2} M(R_1^2 + R_2^2)</math></p> 
<p>Solid cylinder or disk  <math>I_{\text{CM}} = \frac{1}{2} MR^2</math></p> 	<p>Rectangular plate  <math>I_{\text{CM}} = \frac{1}{12} M(a^2 + b^2)</math></p> 
<p>Long, thin rod with rotation axis through center  <math>I_{\text{CM}} = \frac{1}{12} ML^2</math></p> 	<p>Long, thin rod with rotation axis through end  <math>I = \frac{1}{3} ML^2</math></p> 
<p>Solid sphere  <math>I_{\text{CM}} = \frac{2}{5} MR^2</math></p> 	<p>Thin spherical shell  <math>I_{\text{CM}} = \frac{2}{3} MR^2</math></p> 

## Moment of Inertia of a Uniform Rigid Rod

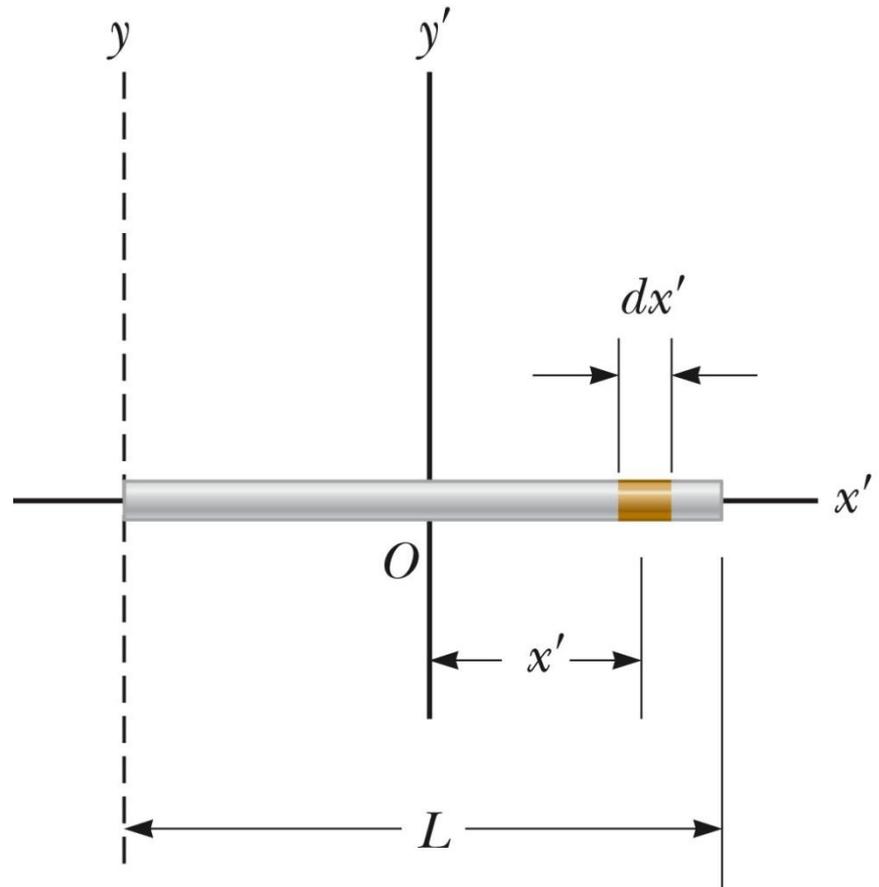
The shaded area has a mass

- $dm = \lambda dx$

Then the moment of inertia is

$$I_y = \int r^2 dm = \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} x^2 \frac{M}{L} dx$$

$$I = \frac{1}{12} ML^2$$



## Moment of Inertia of a Uniform Solid Cylinder

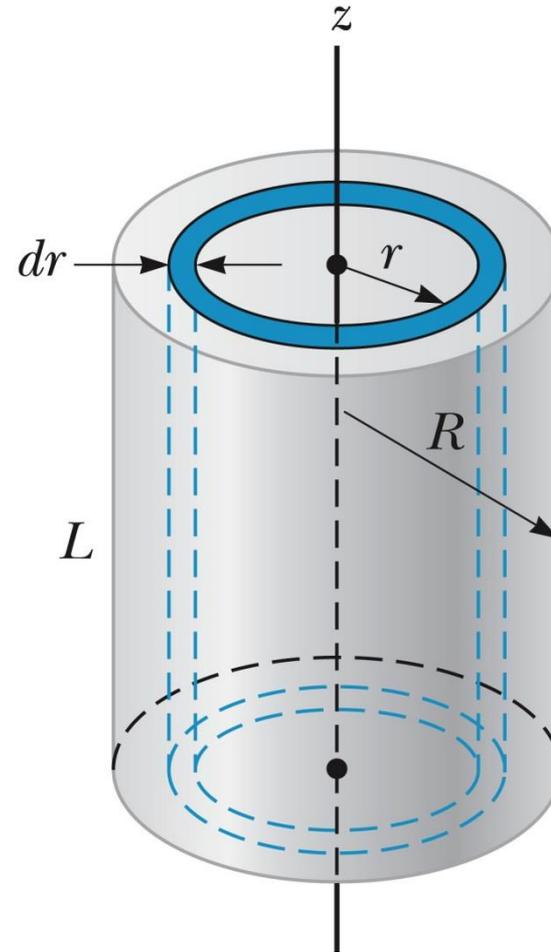
Divide the cylinder into concentric shells with radius  $r$ , thickness  $dr$  and length  $L$ .

$$dm = \rho dV = 2\pi(\rho Lr) dr$$

Then for  $I$

$$I_z = \int r^2 dm = \int r^2 (2\pi \rho Lr dr)$$

$$I_z = \frac{1}{2} MR^2$$



## Parallel-Axis Theorem

In the previous examples, the axis of rotation coincided with the axis of symmetry of the object.

For an arbitrary axis, the parallel-axis theorem often simplifies calculations.

The theorem states  $I = I_{\text{CM}} + MD^2$

- $I$  is about any axis parallel to the axis through the center of mass of the object.
- $I_{\text{CM}}$  is about the axis through the center of mass.
- $D$  is the distance from the center of mass axis to the arbitrary axis.

## Moment of Inertia for a Rod Rotating Around One End – Parallel Axis Theorem Example

The moment of inertia of the rod about its center is

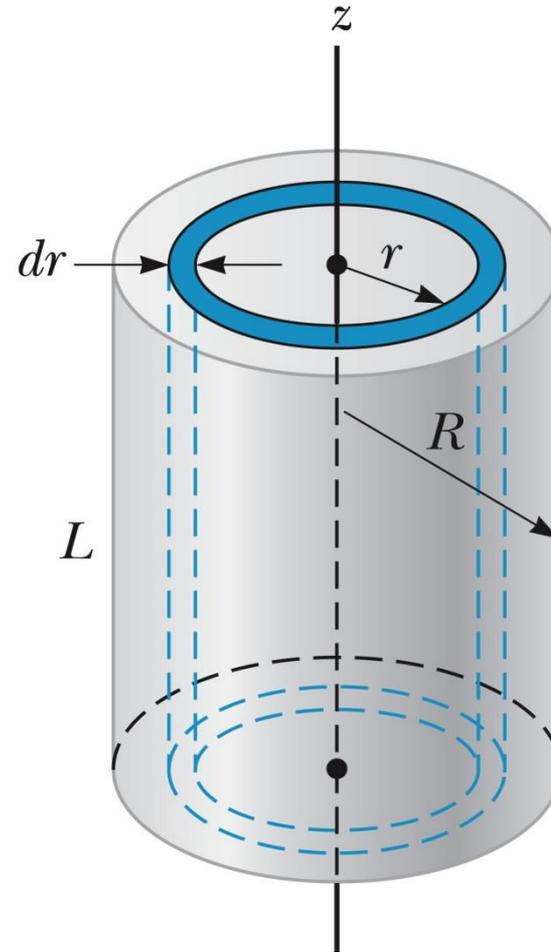
$$I_{CM} = \frac{1}{12} ML^2$$

$D$  is  $\frac{1}{2} L$

Therefore,

$$I = I_{CM} + MD^2$$

$$I = \frac{1}{12} ML^2 + M \left( \frac{L}{2} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{3} ML^2$$



# Torque

Torque,  $\tau$ , is the tendency of a force to rotate an object about some axis.

- Torque is a vector, but we will deal with its magnitude here:
- $\tau = r F \sin \phi = F d$ 
  - $F$  is the force
  - $\phi$  is the angle the force makes with the horizontal
  - $d$  is the *moment arm* (or lever arm) of the force
- There is no unique value of the torque on an object.
  - Its value depends on the choice of a rotational axis.

## Torque, cont

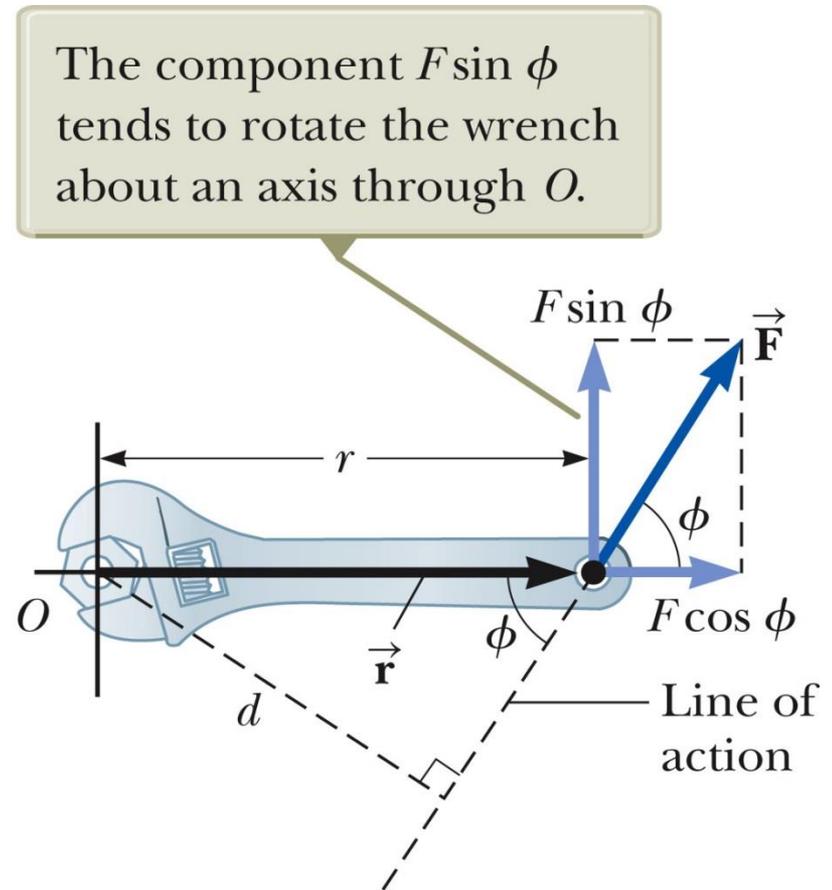
The moment arm,  $d$ , is the *perpendicular* distance from the axis of rotation to a line drawn along the direction of the force.

- $d = r \sin \phi$

The horizontal component of the force ( $F \cos \phi$ ) has no tendency to produce a rotation.

Torque will have direction.

- If the turning tendency of the force is counterclockwise, the torque will be positive.
- If the turning tendency is clockwise, the torque will be negative.

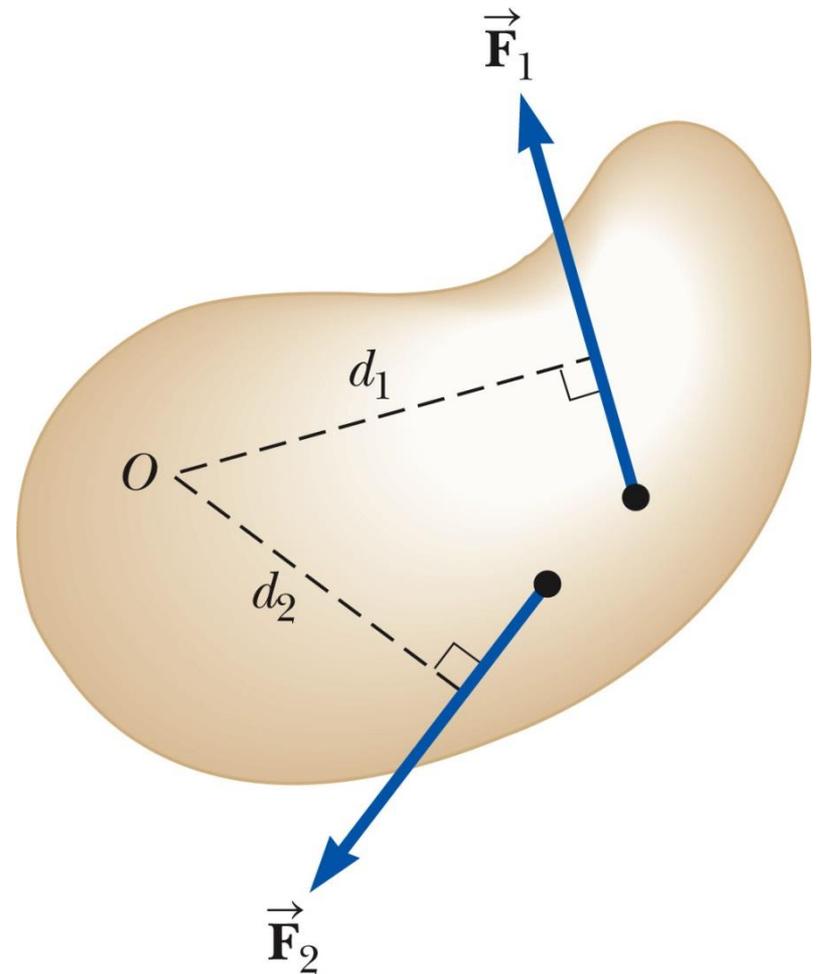


## Net Torque

The force  $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_1$  will tend to cause a counterclockwise rotation about  $O$ .

The force  $\vec{\mathbf{F}}_2$  will tend to cause a clockwise rotation about  $O$ .

$$\Sigma\tau = \tau_1 + \tau_2 = F_1d_1 - F_2d_2$$



## Torque vs. Force

Forces can cause a change in translational motion.

- Described by Newton's Second Law

Forces can cause a change in rotational motion.

- The effectiveness of this change depends on the force and the moment arm.
- The change in rotational motion depends on the torque.

## Torque Units

The SI units of torque are N·m.

- Although torque is a force multiplied by a distance, it is very different from work and energy.
- The units for torque are reported in N·m and not changed to Joules.

## Torque and Angular Acceleration

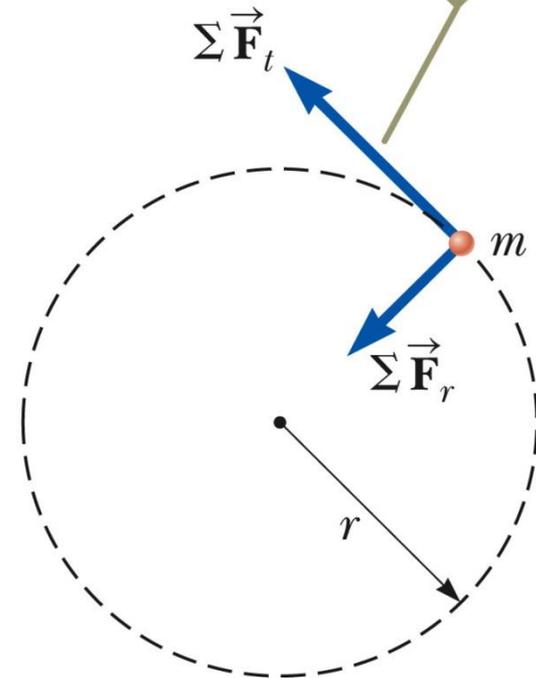
Consider a particle of mass  $m$  rotating in a circle of radius  $r$  under the influence of tangential force .

The tangential force provides a tangential acceleration:

- $F_t = ma_t$

The radial force causes the particle to move in a circular path.

The tangential force on the particle results in a torque on the particle about an axis through the center of the circle.



## Torque and Angular Acceleration, Particle cont.

The magnitude of the torque produced by  $\sum \vec{F}_t$  on a particle about an axis through the center of the circle is

- $\Sigma\tau = \Sigma F_t r = (ma_t) r$

The tangential acceleration is related to the angular acceleration.

- $\Sigma\tau = (ma_t) r = (mr\alpha) r = (mr^2) \alpha$

Since  $mr^2$  is the moment of inertia of the particle,

- $\Sigma\tau = I\alpha$
- The torque is directly proportional to the angular acceleration and the constant of proportionality is the moment of inertia.

## Torque and Angular Acceleration, Extended

Consider the object consists of an infinite number of mass elements  $dm$  of infinitesimal size.

Each mass element rotates in a circle about the origin,  $O$ .

Each mass element has a tangential acceleration.

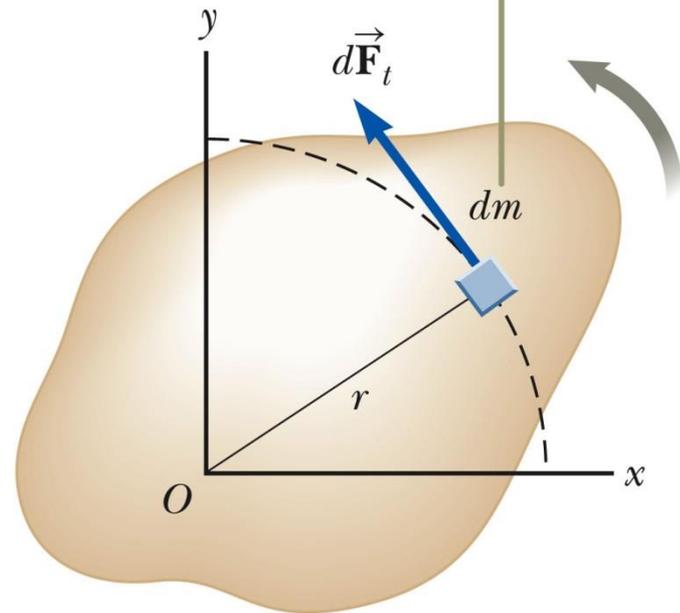
From Newton's Second Law

- $dF_t = (dm) a_t$

The torque associated with the force and using the angular acceleration gives

- $d\tau_{\text{ext}} = r dF_t = a_t r dm = \alpha r^2 dm$

The mass element  $dm$  of the rigid object experiences a torque in the same way that the particle in Figure 10.15 does.



## Torque and Angular Acceleration, Extended cont.

Finding the net torque

- $\sum \tau_{ext} = \int \alpha r^2 dm = \alpha \int r^2 dm$
- This becomes  $\Sigma \tau = I\alpha$

This is the same relationship that applied to a particle.

This is the mathematic representation of the analysis model of a **rigid body under a net torque.**

The result also applies when the forces have radial components.

- The line of action of the radial component must pass through the axis of rotation.
- These components will produce zero torque about the axis.

## Falling Smokestack Example

When a tall smokestack falls over, it often breaks somewhere along its length before it hits the ground.

Each higher portion of the smokestack has a larger tangential acceleration than the points below it.

The shear force due to the tangential acceleration is greater than the smokestack can withstand.

The smokestack breaks.



## Torque and Angular Acceleration, Wheel Example

Two analysis models need to be applied.

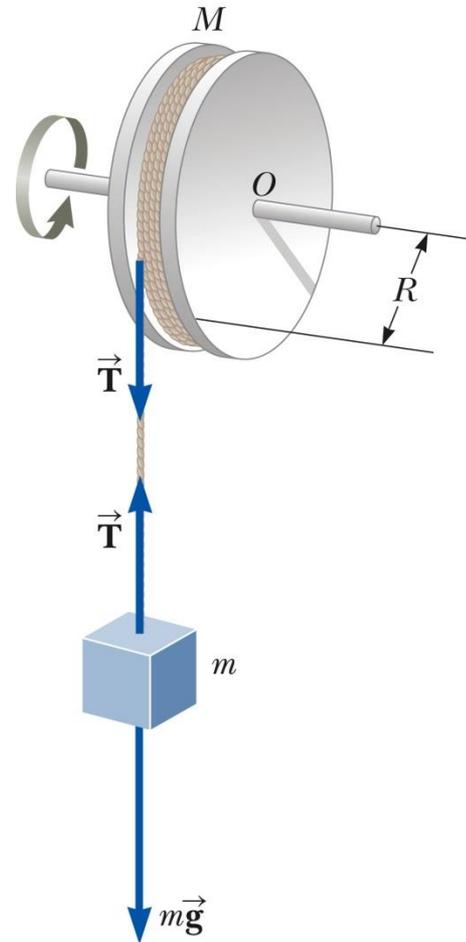
- The object is modeled as a particle under a net force.
- The wheel is modeled as a rigid object under a net torque .

The wheel is rotating and so we apply  $\Sigma \tau = I\alpha$ .

- The tension supplies the tangential force.

The mass is moving in a straight line, so apply Newton's Second Law.

- $\Sigma F_y = ma_y = mg - T$

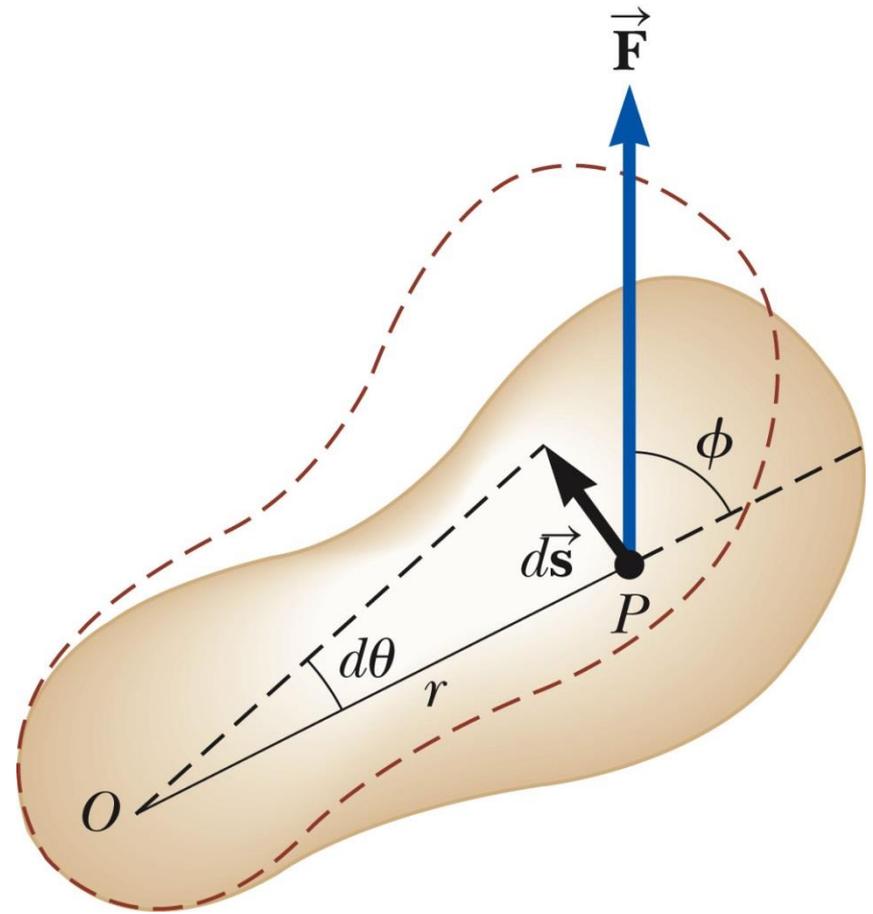


## Work in Rotational Motion

Find the work done by  $\vec{\mathbf{F}}$  on the object as it rotates through an infinitesimal distance  $ds = r d\theta$ .

$$\begin{aligned}dW &= \vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{s}} \\ &= (F \sin \phi) r d\theta\end{aligned}$$

The radial component of the force does no work because it is perpendicular to the displacement.



## Power in Rotational Motion

The rate at which work is being done in a time interval  $dt$  is

$$\text{Power} = P = \frac{dW}{dt} = \tau \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \tau\omega$$

This is analogous to  $P = Fv$  in a linear system.

## Work-Kinetic Energy Theorem in Rotational Motion

The work-kinetic energy theorem for rotational motion states that *the net work done by external forces in rotating a symmetrical rigid object about a fixed axis equals the change in the object's rotational kinetic energy.*

$$\sum W = \int_{\omega_i}^{\omega_f} I\omega \, d\omega = \frac{1}{2}I\omega_f^2 - \frac{1}{2}I\omega_i^2$$

## Work-Kinetic Energy Theorem, General

The rotational form can be combined with the linear form which indicates *the net work done by external forces on an object is the change in its **total** kinetic energy, which is the sum of the translational and rotational kinetic energies.*

# Summary of Useful Equations

**TABLE 10.3** *Useful Equations in Rotational and Translational Motion*

## Rotational Motion About a Fixed Axis

Angular speed  $\omega = d\theta/dt$

Angular acceleration  $\alpha = d\omega/dt$

Net torque  $\Sigma\tau_{\text{ext}} = I\alpha$

If  $\alpha = \text{constant}$   $\begin{cases} \omega_f = \omega_i + \alpha t \\ \theta_f = \theta_i + \omega_i t + \frac{1}{2}\alpha t^2 \\ \omega_f^2 = \omega_i^2 + 2\alpha(\theta_f - \theta_i) \end{cases}$

Work  $W = \int_{\theta_i}^{\theta_f} \tau d\theta$

Rotational kinetic energy  $K_R = \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2$

Power  $P = \tau\omega$

Angular momentum  $L = I\omega$

Net torque  $\Sigma\tau = dL/dt$

## Translational Motion

Translational speed  $v = dx/dt$

Translational acceleration  $a = dv/dt$

Net force  $\Sigma F = ma$

If  $a = \text{constant}$   $\begin{cases} v_f = v_i + at \\ x_f = x_i + v_i t + \frac{1}{2}at^2 \\ v_f^2 = v_i^2 + 2a(x_f - x_i) \end{cases}$

Work  $W = \int_{x_i}^{x_f} F_x dx$

Kinetic energy  $K = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$

Power  $P = Fv$

Linear momentum  $p = mv$

Net force  $\Sigma F = dp/dt$

## Energy in an Atwood Machine, Example

The system containing the two blocks, the pulley, and the Earth is an isolated system in terms of energy with no non-conservative forces acting.

The mechanical energy of the system is conserved.

The blocks undergo changes in translational kinetic energy and gravitational potential energy.

The pulley undergoes a change in rotational kinetic energy.

