DYNAMICS OF RIGID BODIES





Measuring angles in radian

Define the value of an angle θ in **radian**

as
$$\theta = \frac{s}{r}$$
,
or arc length $s = r\theta$



▲ a pure number, without dimension
 ▲ independent of radius *r* of the circle
 ▲ one complete circle
 θ = ^{2πr}/_r = 2π (in radian) ↔ 360°
 π (in radian) ↔ 180°
 π/2 (in radian) ↔ 90°

Consider a rigid body rotating about a fixed axis



angular displacement: $\Delta \theta = \theta_2 - \theta_1$

angular velocity:

$$\omega = \frac{\Delta\theta}{\Delta t} \quad \stackrel{\Delta t \to 0}{\longrightarrow} \quad \frac{d\theta}{dt}$$
(average) (instantaneous)

angular acceleration:

 $\alpha = \frac{d\omega}{dt} = \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2}$

Convention: θ measured from x axis in counterclockwise direction

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Angular velocity is a vector, direction defined by the **right hand rule**

(a) If you curl the fingers of your right hand in the direction of rotation ... $\vec{\omega}$... your right thumb points in the direction of $\vec{\omega}$. ώ

direction of $\vec{\omega}$ represents sense of rotation

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Angular acceleration is defined as $\vec{\alpha} = d\vec{\omega}/dt$

 Δ if rotation axis is fixed, $\vec{\alpha}$ along the direction of $\vec{\omega}$



Rotation slowing down, $\vec{\alpha}$ and $\vec{\omega}$ in the opposite direction

Question

 The figure shows a graph of ω and α versus time. During which time intervals is the rotation speeding up?

(i) 0 < *t* < 2 s; (ii) 2 s < *t* < 4 s; (iii) 4 s < *t* < 6 s.



Rotation with constant angular acceleration

Straight-Line Motion with Constant Linear Acceleration		Fixed-Axis Rotation with Constant Angular Acceleration	
$a_x = \text{constant}$		$\alpha_z = \text{constant}$	
$v_x = v_{0x} + a_x t$	(2.8)	$\omega_z = \omega_{0z} + \alpha_z t$	(9.7)
$x = x_0 + v_{0x}t + \frac{1}{2}a_xt^2$	(2.12)	$\theta = \theta_0 + \omega_{0z}t + \frac{1}{2}\alpha_z t^2$	(9.11)
$v_x^2 = v_{0x}^2 + 2a_x(x - x_0)$	(2.13)	$\omega_z^2 = \omega_{0z}^2 + 2\alpha_z(\theta - \theta_0)$	(9.12)
$x - x_0 = \frac{1}{2}(v_{0x} + v_x)t$ © 2012 Pearson Education, Inc.	(2.14)	$\theta - \theta_0 = \frac{1}{2}(\omega_{0z} + \omega_z)t$	(9.10)

Example

A Blu-ray disc is slowing down to a stop with constant angular acceleration $\alpha = -10.0 \text{ rad/s}^2$. At t = 0, $\omega_0 = 27.5 \text{ rad/s}$, and a line PQ marked on the disc surface is along the x axis.



angular velocity at t = 0.300 s: $\omega = \omega_0 + \alpha t$ $= 27.5 \text{ rad/s} + (-10.0 \text{ rad/s}^2)(0.300 \text{ s})$ = 24.5 rad/sSuppose θ is the angular position of PQ at $t = 0.300 \, \mathrm{s}$ $\theta = \omega_0 t + \frac{1}{2}\alpha t^2 = 7.80$ rad $= (7.8 \text{ rad}) \left(\frac{360^{\circ}}{2\pi \text{ rad}} \right) = 447^{\circ} = 87^{\circ}$

What are the directions of $\vec{\omega}$ and $\vec{\alpha}$?

Question

• In the above example, suppose the initial angular velocity is doubled to $2\omega_0$, and the angular acceleration (deceleration) is also doubled to 2α , it will take (more / less / the same amount of) time for the disc to come to a stop compared to the original problem.

A DVD is initially at rest so that the line PQ on the disc's surface is along the +x-axis. The disc begins to turn with a constant $\alpha_z = 5.0 \text{ rad/s}^2$.

At t = 0.40 s, what is the angle between the line PQ and the +x-axis?

A. 0.40 rad B. 0.80 rad C. 1.0 rad

D. 2.0 rad

y



х



A DVD is initially at rest so that the line PQ on the disc's surface is along the +x-axis. The disc begins to turn with a constant $\alpha_z = 5.0 \text{ rad/s}^2$.

At *t* = 0.40 s, what is the angle between the line *PQ* and the +*x*-axis?





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A9.2

Rigid body rotation





In time Δt , angular displacement is $\Delta \theta$, tangential displacement (arc length) is $\Delta s = r \Delta \theta$

 \therefore tangential speed

$$v = \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t} = r \frac{\Delta \theta}{\Delta t} \rightarrow r \frac{d\theta}{dt} = r \omega$$

Velocity of point P, \vec{v} , is tangential and has magnitude $v = r\omega$

tangential acceleration

 \bigwedge radial acceleration (from circular motion of *P*)

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

$$a_{\rm rad} = \frac{v^2}{r} = \omega^2 r$$

Example



An athlete whirls a discus in a circle of radius 80.0 cm. At some instant $\omega = 10.0$ rad/s, and $\alpha = 50.0$ rad/s². Then

$$a_{tan} = r\alpha = (0.800 \text{ m})(50.0 \text{ rad/s}^2) = 40.0 \text{ m/s}^2$$

 $a_{rad} = \omega^2 r = (10.0 \text{ rad/s})^2(0.800 \text{ m}) = 80.0 \text{ m/s}^2$

Magnitude of the linear acceleration is

$$a = \sqrt{a_{tan}^2 + a_{rad}^2} = 89.4 \text{ m/s}^2$$

Rotational kinetic energy of a rigid body

Consider a rigid body as a collection of particles, the kinetic energy due to rotation is

$$K = \sum_{i=1}^{1} \frac{1}{2} m_i v_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{1} \frac{1}{2} m_i r_i^2 \omega^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i r_i^2 \right) \omega^2$$

moment of inertia *I*, analogous to *mass* in rectilinear motion

$$K = \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2$$
$$I = \sum m_i r_i^2$$

c.f. in rectilinear motion, $K = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$



I depends on distribution of mass, and therefore on the location of the rotation axis.



You want to double the radius of a rotating solid sphere while keeping its kinetic energy constant. (The mass does not change.) To do this, the final angular velocity of the sphere must be

- A. 4 times its initial value.
- B. twice its initial value.
- C. the same as its initial value.
- D. 1/2 of its initial value.
- E. 1/4 of its initial value.

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The three objects shown here all have the same mass *M*. Each object is rotating about its axis of symmetry (shown in blue). All three objects have the *same* rotational kinetic energy. Which one is rotating with *fastest* angular speed?





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Gravitational potential energy of a rigid body

$$U = m_1 g y_1 + m_2 g y_2 + \cdots$$

= $(m_1 y_1 + m_2 y_2 + \cdots)g = Mgy_{cm}$

Gravitational PE is as if all the mass is concentrated at the CM.

Example

Assumption: rotation of cylinder is frictionless no slipping between cylinder and cable At the moment the block hits the ground, speed of block is v, angular speed of cylinder is ω $v = R\omega$



Question: Is there friction between the string and pulley? Does it dissipate energy?

Question

Suppose the cylinder and block have the same mass, m = M. Just before the block hits the floor, it's KE is (larger than / less than / the same as) the KE of the cylinder.

Parallel axis theorem

 I_{CM} : moment of inertia about an axis through its CM

 I_p : moment of inertia about another axis || to the original one and at \perp distance d

$$I_p = I_{\rm CM} + Md^2$$

Axis of rotation passing through cm and perpendicular to the plane of the figure



Question

- A pool cue is a wooden rod with a uniform composition and tapered with a larger diameter at one end than at the other end.
 Does it have a larger moment of inertia
- for an axis through the thicker end of the rod and perpendicular to the length of the rod, or
- ② for an axis through the thinner end of the rod and perpendicular to the length of the rod?

Significance of the parallel axis theorem: need formula for *I*_{CM} only

Example A cylinder with uniform density



Before calculating moment of inertia, must specify rotation axis CM along axis of symmetry

$$I = \sum m_i r_i^2 \longrightarrow \int r^2 dm = \int r^2 \rho dV$$

 \perp distance of m_i to rotation axis

uniform density

Key: choose *dV* (the volume element) wisely, as symmetric as possible

$$dV = (2\pi r)(dr)L$$

$$I = 2\pi\rho L \int_{R_1}^{R_2} r^3 dr = \frac{\pi\rho L}{2} (R_2^4 - R_1^4)$$
$$= \frac{\pi\rho L}{2} (R_2^2 - R_1^2) (R_2^2 + R_1^2)$$
But $M = \rho (\pi R_2^2 L - \pi R_1^2 L) = \pi\rho L (R_2^2 - R_1^2)$
$$\boxed{I = \frac{1}{2}M (R_2^2 + R_1^2)}$$

1 independent of length

Question

 Two hollow cylinders have the same inner and outer radii and the same mass, but they have different lengths. One is made of wood and the other of lead. The wooden cylinder has (larger / smaller / the same) moment of inertia about the symmetry axis than the lead one.

Example A uniform sphere



Choose *dV* to be a disk of radius $r = \sqrt{R^2 - x^2}$ and thickness *dx* From Example 9.10, moment of inertia of this disk is

$$\frac{1}{2}(dm)r^2 = \frac{1}{2}(\rho\pi r^2 dx)r^2 = \frac{1}{2}\rho\pi (R^2 - x^2)^2 dx$$

Therefore

$$I = \int \frac{1}{2} (dm) r^2 = \frac{\rho \pi}{2} \int_{-R}^{R} (R^2 - x^2)^2 dx = \frac{8\pi \rho R^5}{15}$$

Since $\rho = \frac{M}{V} = \frac{3M}{4\pi R^3}$

$$I = \frac{2}{5}MR^2$$



Table 9.2 Moments of Inertia of Various Bodies

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Vector (Cross) Product





Torque

Besides magnitude and direction, the **line of action** of a force is important because it produces rotation effect.



 \vec{F}_a and \vec{F}_b have the same magnitudes and directions, but different line of action: they produce different physical effects – which force would you apply if you were to tighten/loosen the screw?

Define torque about a point O as

a vector



 $\begin{vmatrix} \vec{\tau} &= \vec{r} \times \vec{F} \end{vmatrix}$ $\vec{\tau} \text{ is } \perp \text{ to both } \vec{r} \text{ and } \vec{F}$ Magnitude: $\tau = r(F \sin \phi) = (r \sin \phi)F$ $component \qquad \perp \text{ distance}$ of $\vec{F} \perp \text{ to } \vec{r}$ from *O* to
line of
actions of \vec{F}

Direction gives the sense of rotation about *O* through the right-hand-rule.

Notation: \bigcirc out of the plane \bigotimes into the plane

SI unit for torque: Nm (just like work done)

Q10.2

Which of the four forces shown here produces a torque about *O* that is directed *out of* the plane of the drawing?



A. F_1 B. F_2 C. F_3 D. F_4

E. more than one of these

A10.2

Which of the four forces shown here produces a torque about *O* that is directed *out of* the plane of the drawing?





Question

A force *P* is applied to one end of a lever of length *L*. The magnitude of the torque of this force about point *A* is $(PL \sin \theta / PL \cos \theta / PL \tan \theta)$


Suppose a rigid body is rotating about a fixed axis which we arbitrarily call the z axis. m_1 is a small part of the total mass.



 $F_{1,\text{rad}}, F_{1,\text{tan}}$, and $F_{1,Z}$ are the 3 components of the total force acting on m_1 Only $F_{1,\text{tan}}$ produces the desired rotation, $F_{1,\text{rad}}$ and $F_{1,Z}$ produce some other effects which are irrelevant to the rotation about the *z* axis.

$$F_{1,\text{tan}} = m_1 a_{1,\text{tan}} = m_1 (r_1 \alpha_z)$$

$$F_{1,\text{tan}} r_1 = m_1 r_1^2 \alpha_z$$

torque on m_1 about z, τ_{1z}

Sum over all mass in the body, since they all have the same α_z

$$\sum \tau_{iz} = \left(\sum m_r r_i^2\right) \alpha_z = I \alpha_z$$



Need to consider torque due to external forces only. Internal forces (action and reaction pairs) produce equal and opposite torques which have no net rotational effect.

Conclusion: for rigid body rotation about a fixed axis,

$$\sum \tau_{\rm ext} = I\alpha$$

c.f. Newton's second law $\sum \vec{F}_{ext} = M\vec{a}$

Example Pulley rotates about a fixed axis. What is the acceleration *a* of the block?



Suppose the block is initially at rest at height *h*. At the moment it hits the floor:

$$v^2 = 0 + 2\left(\frac{g}{1+M/2m}\right)h \implies v = \sqrt{\frac{2gh}{1+M/2m}}$$

c.f. Previously we get the same result using energy conservation.

Question

Mass m_1 slides on a frictionless track. The pulley has moment of inertia *I* about its rotation axis, and the string does not slip nor stretch. When the hanging mass m_2 is released, arrange the forces T_1 , T_2 , and m_2g in increasing order of magnitude.



We know how to deal with:

translation of a point particle (or CM of a rigid body):

$$\sum \vec{F}_{ext} = m\vec{a}$$

rotation of a rigid body about a *fixed* axis:

$$\sum \tau_{\mathsf{ext}} = I\alpha$$

In general, a rigid body is rotating about a *moving* axis, i.e., has both types of motion simultaneously.

Every possible motion of a rigid body can be represented as a combination of translational motion of the CM and rotation about an axis through its CM.

e.g. tossing a baton



This baton toss can be represented as a combination of ...



translation + rotation

rotation about a fixed axis through CM

translation of CM (considered as a particle)

Energy consideration

 m_i is a small mass of the rigid body \vec{v}'_i its velocity relative to the CM, its velocity relative to the ground is $\vec{v}_i = \vec{v}_{\rm CM} + \vec{v}'_i$

$$K_{i} = \frac{1}{2}m_{i}|\vec{v}_{i}|^{2} = \frac{1}{2}m_{i}(\vec{v}_{\rm CM} + \vec{v}_{i}') \cdot (\vec{v}_{\rm CM} + \vec{v}_{i}')$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}m_{i}(\vec{v}_{\rm CM} \cdot \vec{v}_{\rm CM} + 2\vec{v}_{\rm CM} \cdot \vec{v}_{i}' + \vec{v}_{i}' \cdot \vec{v}_{i}')$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}m_{i}(v_{\rm CM}^{2} + 2\vec{v}_{\rm CM} \cdot \vec{v}_{i}' + v_{i}'^{2})$$

Total KE of the rigid body

 $K = \sum K_i$



$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i} \right) v_{\text{Cm}}^{2} + \vec{v}_{\text{Cm}} \cdot \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i} \vec{v}_{i}^{i} \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{1}{2} m_{i} v_{i}^{i^{2}} \right)$$

$$\stackrel{\text{center of mass}}{\underset{\text{velocity}}{\underset{\text{relative to CM}}{\underset{\text{-zero}}}} \frac{1}{2} m_{i} r_{i}^{2} \omega^{2}$$

$$K = \frac{1}{2} M v_{\text{Cm}}^{2} + \frac{1}{2} I \omega^{2}$$

Rolling without slipping

No slipping at the point of contact \Rightarrow point of contact must be at rest (instantaneously), i.e., $-R\omega + v_{cm} = 0 \Rightarrow v_{cm} = R\omega$



Example



What determines which body rolls down the incline fastest? Suppose a rigid body's moment of inertia about its symmetry axis is $I = cMR^2$



Role of friction: Example



Rolling without slipping is not possible without friction.

Consider a rigid sphere going freely down an inclined plane. If no friction, no torque about the center and the sphere slides down the plane.

Assume rolling without slipping, friction must be (static / dynamics) and must point (upward / downward) along the plane.

$$v_{\rm CM} = R\omega \implies a_{\rm CM} = R\alpha$$



$$v_{\rm CM} = R\omega \implies a_{\rm CM} = R\alpha$$

Translation of CM:

$$Mg\sin\beta - f = Ma_{\rm CM}$$

Rotation of sphere about its center: $fR = I_{CM}\alpha = (\frac{2}{5}MR^2)(a_{CM}/R)$

Get
$$a_{cm} = \frac{5}{7}g\sin\beta$$
 and $f = \frac{2}{7}Mg\sin\beta$



Rolling is slower than sliding because part of the PE is converted into rotation KE
 If the sphere is rolling uphill with no slipping, the friction will point (upward / downward) along the plane because its effect is to *decelerate* the rotation.

Puzzle: For rolling without slipping, friction does NO work.

- Therefore a vehicle will go on forever if there is no air resistance,
- just like a magnetic levitated train.

Too good to be true! 😕

In reality energy is lost because the floor and/or the rolling body are deformed, e.g. vehicle tyre.

(a) Perfectly rigid sphere rolling on a perfectly rigid surface



(b) Rigid sphere rolling on a deformable surface



Energy is lost because:

•due to deformation, normal reaction produces a torque opposing the rotation.

•sliding of the deformed surfaces causes energy lost.

These two effects give rise to rolling friction.

Consequence: trains, with metal wheels on metal tracks, are more fuel efficient than vehicles with rubber tires.

А Үо-уо



To find $v_{\rm CM}$ at point 2, need energy conservation

$$0 + Mgh = \frac{1}{2}Mv_{\rm Cm}^2 + \frac{1}{2}(\frac{1}{2}MR^2)\left(\frac{v_{\rm Cm}}{R}\right)^2 + 0$$

initial initial translation rotation KE about a final
KE PE KE of CM fixed axis PE
$$\Rightarrow v_{\rm Cm} = \sqrt{\frac{4}{3}gh} \qquad c.f. \text{ for free falling } v_{\rm cm} = \sqrt{2gh}$$

To find the downward acceleration of the yo-yo, need dynamic equations Translation of CM: $Mg - T = Ma_{\rm CM}$ Rotation of cylinder about its axis: $TR = I_{\rm CM}\alpha = (\frac{1}{2}MR^2)(a_{\rm CM}/R)$ Get

$$a_{\rm CM} = \frac{2}{3}g$$
$$T = \frac{1}{3}Mg$$

Exercise: rotation of a dumbbell

A dumbbell consists of a weightless rod of length L and two masses (each with mass M) on its two ends. Initially, the dumbbell sits on a frictionless table and points north. A constant force F (towards east) is applied on one of the ball. The dumbbell will accelerate and rotate due to the applied force. Find the tension in the rod when the dumbbell rotation 90°



Due to the constant external force F, the CM of the dumbbell accelerates with constant acceleration a = F/2M. At the instance when the CM moves to the distance l, the CM velocity becomes $v = \sqrt{2al}$. And the work-energy theorem gives $F(l + \frac{1}{2}L\sin\varphi) = K_t + K_r$

where

$$K_t = 2 \times \frac{1}{2} M v^2 = Fl$$

$$K_r = 2 \times \frac{1}{2} M \left(\frac{L}{2}\right)^2 \omega^2 = \frac{1}{4} M L^2 \omega^2$$

are the translational and rotational kinetic energies of the dumbbell respectively. Hence we have



Finally, focusing on the centripetal force acting on the mass 1.

$$T - F\sin\varphi = Ma_{\rm cir} - Ma_{\rm CM}\sin\varphi$$
$$= M\omega^2 \frac{L}{2} - M\frac{F}{2M}\sin\varphi$$
$$T = \frac{F}{2}\sin\varphi + \frac{ML}{2}\omega^2 = \frac{3}{2}F\sin\varphi$$



Work and power in rotational motion

A particle or rigid body, being pushed by an external force, is undergoing circular motion about a fixed axis (such as a merry-go-round).



 \bigstar only the tangential component F_{tan} does work – no displacement along the radial and z directions.

Work done after going through angle $d\theta$

 $dW = F_{\tan}(Rd\theta) = \tau d\theta$

ſ

$$\Rightarrow \qquad W = \int \tau \, d\theta$$

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c.f. in translation,
$$W = \int \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

$$W = \int \tau \, d\theta$$

By changing variable

$$\tau d\theta = (I\alpha)d\theta = I\frac{d\omega}{dt}d\theta = I(d\omega)\omega$$



$$W_{\text{tot}} = \int_{\omega_1}^{\omega_2} I\omega d\omega = \frac{1}{2}I\omega_2^2 - \frac{1}{2}I\omega_1^2$$

This is the **work-energy theorem** for rotational motion.

How about power? $P = \frac{dW}{dt} = \tau \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \tau \omega$ *c.f.* $P = \vec{F} \cdot \vec{v}$ for translational motion.

Question

 You apply equal torques to two different cylinders, one of which has a moment of inertial twice as large as the other. Each cylinder is initially at rest. After one complete rotation, the cylinder with larger moment of inertia will have (larger / smaller / the same) kinetic energy as the other one. Angular momentum

For a point particle, define its **angular momentum** about the origin *O* by

$$\vec{L} = \vec{r} \times \vec{p}$$

i.e.



For a rigid body



Take the rotation axis as the z axis, m_1 is a small mass of the rigid body

$$L_1 = mv_1r_1 = m(\omega r_1\sin\theta_1)r_1$$

If rotation axis is a symmetry axis, then there exist m_2 on the opposite side whose *x*-*y* components of angular momentum cancel those of m_1 . Therefore only *z* component of any \vec{L}_i is important.

Total angular momentum $\vec{L} = \sum \vec{L}_i = \sum L_i \sin \theta_i \hat{k}$, points along rotation axis with magnitude

$$L = \sum [m_i(\omega r_i \sin \theta_i) r_i] \sin \theta_i = \left(\sum m_i (r_i \sin \theta_i)^2 \right) \omega$$

 \perp distance of m_i to rotation axis

Conclusion: if rotation axis is a symmetry axis, then



 $\vec{\omega}$ and \vec{L} have the same direction

What if the rotation axis is not a symmetry axis? $\vec{L} \neq I \vec{\omega}$, but

$$L_z = I\omega$$



For rotation about a fixed axis, "angular momentum" often means the component of \vec{L} along the axis of rotation, but not \vec{L} itself. Internal forces (action and reaction pairs) have the same line of action \rightarrow no net torque. Therefore for a system of particles or a rigid body





c.f.
$$\frac{d\vec{P}}{dt} = \sum \vec{F}_{ext}$$

Under no external torque (\triangle *not* force)

$$\frac{d\vec{L}}{dt} = 0$$

conservation of angular momentum

A spinning physics professor



Conservation of angular momentum $I_1\omega_1 = I_2\omega_2$ If $I_2 = I_1/2$, then $\omega_2 = 2\omega_1$, and $K_2 = \frac{1}{2}I_2\omega_2^2 = __K_1$. Where comes the extra energy?

And in the reverse process $I_2 \rightarrow I_1$, where goes the energy? Example

A bullet hits a door in a perpendicular direction, embeds in it and swings it open.



Question: If the polar ice caps were to completely melt due to global warming, the melted ice would redistribute itself over the earth. This change would cause the length of the day (the time needed for the earth to rotate once on its axis) to (increase / decrease / remain the same).



https://www.youtube.com/wat ch?v=cquvA_IpEsA&t=3s



Gyroscope

Case 1: when the flywheel is not spinning – it falls down



torque $\vec{\tau}$ due to weight of the flywheel \vec{w} causes it to fall in the *x*-*z* plane

 \vec{L} increases as flywheel falls

Case 2: when flywheel spinning with initial angular moment \vec{L}_i – it precesses





Since $\vec{L} \perp d\vec{L}$, flywheel axis execute circular motion called **precession**, $|\vec{L}|$ remains constant

faster spinning $\omega \rightarrow$ slower precession Ω

Rotational motion of the angular momentum

$$d\vec{L} = \vec{\tau}dt \rightarrow dL = \tau dt = Mgrdt$$

 $d\vec{L} \perp \vec{L}$ ==> \vec{L} can only change its direction, but NOT its magnitude

$$d\varphi = \frac{dL}{L} = \frac{Mgrdt}{I\omega}$$

Precession rate

$$\Omega = \frac{d\varphi}{dt} = \frac{Mgr}{I\omega}$$



animation of the vectors $\vec{w}, \vec{\tau}$, and \vec{L} at <u>http://phys23p.sl.psu.edu/phys_anim/mech/gyro_s1_p.avi</u>



If $\omega \gg \Omega$, can ignore angular momentum due to precession. Otherwise there is *nutation* of the flywheel axis – it wobbles up and down







A spinning figure skater pulls his arms in as he rotates on the ice. As he pulls his arms in, what happens to his angular momentum *L* and kinetic energy *K*?



- A. *L* and *K* both increase.
- B. *L* stays the same; *K* increases.
- C. *L* increases; *K* stays the same.
- D. L and K both stay the same.
A spinning figure skater pulls his arms in as he rotates on the ice. As he pulls his arms in, what happens to his angular momentum *L* and kinetic energy *K*?





L stays the same; K increases.

- C. *L* increases; *K* stays the same.
- D. L and K both stay the same.

Kepler's Laws of Planetary Motion

Purely phenomenological – Kepler didn't know why

Later derived by Newton using his laws of motion and gravitation

– significance: heavenly objects obey the same physical laws as terrestrial objects, don't need, e.g., Greek myths! **First Law**: Each planet moves in an elliptical orbit, with the sun at one focus of the ellipse.



An **ellipse** is defined by the locus of a point *P* such that |PS'| + |SP| = constant

S and S' are the two **foci** of the ellipse

Semi-major axis a (\triangle a length, not an axis)

Eccentricity e (e = 0 for circle, 0 < e < 1 for ellipse)

Aphelion – farthest [(1 + e)a] point from sun

Perihelion – closest [(1 - e)a] point to sun

Note: aphelion distance + perihelion distance = 2a

Second Law: A line from the sun to a given planet sweeps out equal areas in equal times. See <u>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Kepler-second-law.gif</u>



 $dA \approx \text{area of blue triangle} = \frac{1}{2}(rd\theta)r$ $\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{1}{2}r^2\frac{d\theta}{dt}$ $v_\perp = v\sin\phi = r\frac{d\theta}{dt}$ $\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{1}{2}rv\sin\phi = \frac{1}{2m}|\vec{r} \times m\vec{v}| = \frac{L}{2m}$

i.e., Kepler's second law ⇔ conservation of angular momentum

- Angular momentum is conserved because gravitational force (a central force) produces no torque
- ▲ Another consequence of conservation of angular momentum orbit lies in a plane

Third Law: The periods of the planets are proportional to the $\frac{3}{2}$ powers of the major axis lengths of their orbits.

 $T = \frac{2\pi a^{3/2}}{\sqrt{Gm_S}}$

For the circular orbit, we have

$$\frac{Gm_sm}{a^2} = \frac{mv^2}{a}$$
$$T = \frac{2\pi a}{v}$$