Rotation of a Rigid Object About a Fixed Axis

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CONTENTS

Angular Position, Velocity, and Acceleration	2
Rotational Kinetmatic Equations	2
Angular and Translational Quantities	3
Torque	3
Rigid Object Under a Net Torque and Moment of Inertia	4
Deriving Moments of Inertia for Geometries	5
Deriving Moment of Inertia Formula for Uniform Thin Rod with Axis Through	
the Center	5
Deriving Moment of Inertia for a Uniform Thin Rod with Axis at the End	6
Deriving Moment of Inertia for a Disk Through the Center	6
Parallel-Axis Theorem	7
Derivation of Parallel-Axis Theorem	8

ANGULAR POSITION, VELOCITY, AND ACCELERATION

The angular position is described by

$$s = r\theta$$

Where s is the arc length, r is the radius, and θ is the angle.

The average angular speed ω_{avg} is

$$\omega_{\mathsf{avg}} = rac{\Delta heta}{\Delta t}$$

The instantaneous angular speed ω is

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

Furthermore, the average angular acceleration is

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

The instantaneous angular acceleration is

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

Rotational Kinetmatic Equations

Through integration, one can derive that the final angular speed is

$$\omega_f = \omega_i + \alpha t$$
 (for constant α)

And likewise, the angular position is

$$\theta_f = \theta_i + \omega_i t + \frac{1}{2} \alpha t^2$$
 (for constant α)

where θ_i is the angular position at time t=0.t can also be derived that

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

And if you were to determine angular position in terms of average angular speed

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_f &= \theta_i + \omega_{\text{avg}} t \\ &= \theta_i + \frac{1}{2} (\omega_i + \omega_i) t \end{aligned}$$

Angular and Translational Quantities

The tangential velocity is measured as $v=\frac{ds}{dt}$, where s is the distance traveled by the point measured along the circular path. Since $s=r\theta$

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

Similarly, for tangential acceleration

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

In the case of centripetal acceleration, since we now have an equation for tangential velocity

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

Note that the total acceleration is $\vec{a}=\vec{a_t}+\vec{a_c}$, hence the magnitude is

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

TORQUE

The change in rotational motion depends on both the force applied and location that this force was applied from. The measure of this change in rotational motion is measured by the quantity **torque**, denoted by $\overrightarrow{\tau}$. Torque is defined to be

$$\vec{\tau} = \vec{r} \times \vec{F}$$

And by definition of cross product, the magnitude of the torque is

$$\tau = rFsin\theta = Fd$$

Where d is the perpendicular distance from the orientation axis to the line of action of F, called the **moment arm** (or *lever arm*) of $\overset{\rightharpoonup}{F}$. See Figure 1.

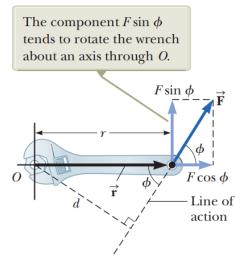


Figure 1

Rigid Object Under a Net Torque and Moment of Inertia

For a particle with mass m rotating in a circle of radius r

$$\Sigma F_t = ma_t$$

The net torque is

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

But recalling that $a_t = r\alpha$

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

Where we let $I=mr^2$. The quantity I is called the **moment of inertia**. For a given rigid body that is made up of a collection of particles, even though they may have different translational accelerations a_i , they all have the *same* angular acceleration α . Therefore

$$\Sigma \tau_{\text{ext}} = \Sigma_i \tau_i$$

$$= \Sigma_i m_i r_i^2 \alpha$$

$$= (\Sigma_i m_i r_i^2) \alpha$$

$$= I \alpha$$

Where

$$I = \sum_{i} m_i r_i^2$$

Notice that this equation has the same form as Newton's second law for a system of particles

$$\Sigma \overrightarrow{F}_{\rm ext} = M \overrightarrow{a}_{\rm CM}$$

Consequently, the moment of inertia I must lay the same role in rotational motion as the role that mass plays in translational motion: the moment of inertia is the resistance to changes in rotational motion. See Figure 2.

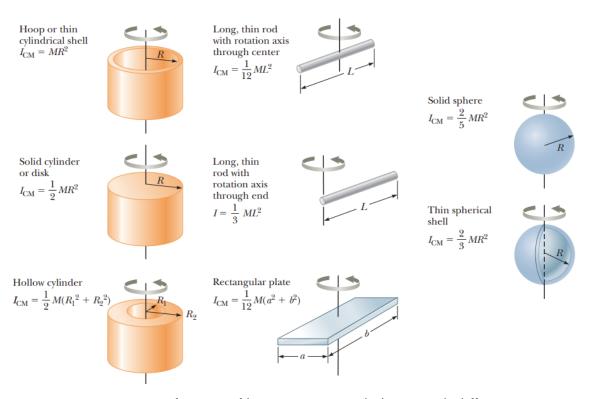


Figure 2: Moments of inertia of homogeneous rigid objects with different geometries

Deriving Moments of Inertia for Geometries

Because the moment of inertia for a rigid body is defined to be

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

If we were to consider for an infinitesimal number of particles that make up that rigid body, the summation simplifies to become

$$I = \int r^2 \, dm$$

Deriving Moment of Inertia Formula for Uniform Thin Rod with Axis Through the Center

Suppose we had a rod that was oriented along the x-axis and it were to be rotated about the z-axis (Figure 3). But since $I = \int r^2 dm$ and it is impractical to integrate over mass, we will

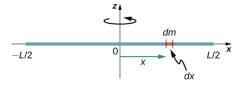


Figure 3

perform u-substition. We will do this using the linear mass density λ of the object, which is

the mass per unit length. Since the mass density of this object is uniform

$$\lambda = \frac{m}{x}$$

$$m = \lambda x$$

$$dm = d(\lambda x)$$

$$= \lambda dx$$

So performing this substitution yields

$$I = \int x^2 dm$$
$$= \int x^2 \lambda dx$$
$$= \lambda \int x^2 dx$$

For the limits of integration, we are integrating from $x=-\frac{L}{2}$ to $x=\frac{L}{2}$

$$I = \lambda \int_{-\frac{L}{2}}^{\frac{L}{2}} x^2 dx$$
$$= \lambda \left[\frac{1}{3} x^3 \right]_{-\frac{L}{2}}^{\frac{L}{2}}$$
$$= \frac{\lambda}{3} \left[\frac{L^3}{8} + \frac{L^3}{8} \right]$$
$$= \frac{1}{12} \lambda L^3$$

But noting that $\lambda = \frac{M}{L}$ yields the final equation

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

Deriving Moment of Inertia for a Uniform Thin Rod with Axis at the End

This is a simple setup which has the moment of inertia evaluating to one simple integral

$$I = \lambda \int_0^L x^2 dx$$
$$= \lambda \left[\frac{1}{3} x^3 \right]_0^L$$
$$= \frac{1}{3} \lambda L^3$$
$$= \frac{1}{3} M L^2$$

Deriving Moment of Inertia for a Disk Through the Center

We can utilize the disk method for integration (Figure 4). We start with the relationship for

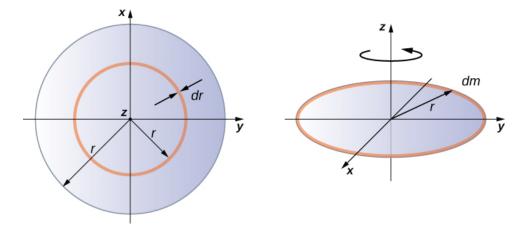


Figure 4

the surface mass density, which is the mass per unit surface area. Since it is uniform, the surface mass density σ is constant

$$\sigma = \frac{m}{A}$$

$$m = \sigma A$$

$$dm = \sigma(dA)$$

Since we have the relationship $A=\pi r^2$, we can calculate for dA

$$dA = d(\pi r^2)$$
$$= 2\pi r dr$$

So integrating from r=0 to r=R yields

$$I = \int_0^R r^2 [\sigma(2\pi r)] dr$$
$$= 2\pi \sigma \int_0^R r^3 dr$$
$$= 2\pi \sigma \left[\frac{1}{4} r^4 \right]_0^R$$
$$= \frac{\pi \sigma}{2} R^4$$

But rectall that $\sigma = \frac{m}{A} = \frac{m}{\pi R^2}$ so

$$I = \frac{m}{\pi R^2} \frac{\pi}{2} R^4$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} m R^2$$

Parallel-Axis Theorem

The similarity between the process of finding the moment of inertia of a rod about an axis through its middle and about an axis through its end is striking, and suggests that there might be a simpler method for determining the moment of inertia for a rod about any axis

parallel to the axis through the center of mass. Such an axis is called a **parallel axis**, and the **parallel-axis theorem** is stated as

$$I_{\text{parallel-axis}} = I_{\text{center of mass}} + md^2$$

Where m is the mass of an object and d is the distance from an axis through the object's center of mass to a new axis.

Derivation of Parallel-Axis Theorem

We may assume, without loss of generality, that in a Cartesian coordinate system the distance between the axes lies along the x-axis and that the center of mass lies at the origin (Figure 5). The moment of inertia relative to the z-axis is then

$$I_{\mathsf{CM}} = \int (x^2 + y^2) \, dm$$

The moment of inertia relative to the axis z', which is at a distance D from the center of

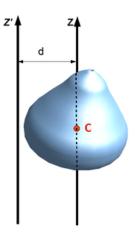


Figure 5

mass along the x-axis, is

$$I = \int ((x-D)^2 + y^2) dm$$

Expanding the bracket yields

$$I = \int (x^2 + y^2) \, dm + D^2 \int dm - 2D \int x \, dm$$

And notice that the first term is $I_{\rm CM}$, the second term becomes MD^2 , while the third term is a multiple of the x-coordinate of the center of mass which is 0 since the center of mass lies at the origin. So the equation becomes

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