PUZZLER

One of the most popular early bicycles was the penny–farthing, introduced in 1870. The bicycle was so named because the size relationship of its two wheels was about the same as the size relationship of the penny and the farthing, two English coins. When the rider looks down at the top of the front wheel, he sees it moving forward faster than he and the handlebars are moving. Yet the center of the wheel does not appear to be moving at all relative to the handlebars. How can different parts of the rolling wheel move at different linear speeds? *(© Steve Lovegrove/Tasmanian Photo Library)*

chapter 11

Rolling Motion and Angular Momentum

Chapter Outline

In the preceding chapter we learned how to treat a rigid body rotating about a fixed axis; in the present chapter, we move on to the more general case in which the axis of rotation is not fixed in space. We begin by describing such motion, which is called *rolling motion.* The central topic of this chapter is, however, angular momentum, a quantity that plays a key role in rotational dynamics. In analogy to the conservation of linear momentum, we find that the angular momentum of a rigid object is always conserved if no external torques act on the object. Like the law of conservation of linear momentum, the law of conservation of angular momentum is a fundamental law of physics, equally valid for relativistic and quantum systems.

11.1 ROLLING MOTION OF A RIGID OBJECT

7.7 In this section we treat the motion of a rigid object rotating about a moving axis. In general, such motion is very complex. However, we can simplify matters by restricting our discussion to a homogeneous rigid object having a high degree of symmetry, such as a cylinder, sphere, or hoop. Furthermore, we assume that the object undergoes rolling motion along a flat surface. We shall see that if an object such as a cylinder rolls without slipping on the surface (we call this *pure rolling motion*), a simple relationship exists between its rotational and translational motions.

Suppose a cylinder is rolling on a straight path. As Figure 11.1 shows, the center of mass moves in a straight line, but a point on the rim moves in a more complex path called a *cycloid.* This means that the axis of rotation remains parallel to its initial orientation in space. Consider a uniform cylinder of radius R rolling without slipping on a horizontal surface (Fig. 11.2). As the cylinder rotates through an angle θ, its center of mass moves a linear distance $s = R\theta$ (see Eq. 10.1a). Therefore, the linear speed of the center of mass for pure rolling motion is given by

$$v_{\text{CM}} = \frac{ds}{dt} = R\frac{d\theta}{dt} = R\omega \tag{11.1}$$

where ω is the angular velocity of the cylinder. Equation 11.1 holds whenever a cylinder or sphere rolls without slipping and is the **condition for pure rolling**

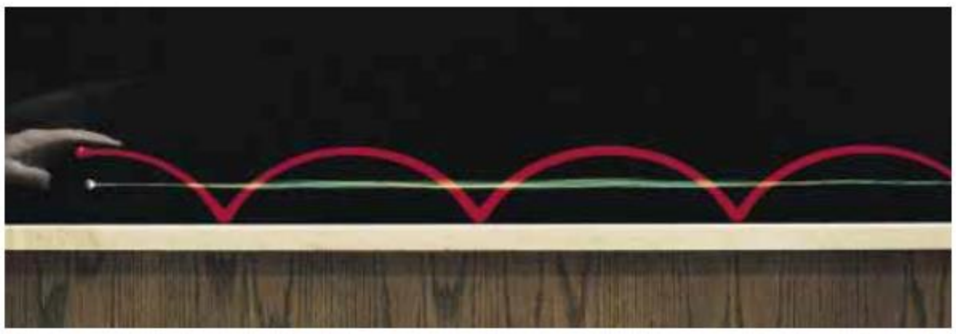


Figure 11.1 One light source at the center of a rolling cylinder and another at one point on the rim illustrate the different paths these two points take. The center moves in a straight line (green line), whereas the point on the rim moves in the path called a *cycloid* (red curve). *(Henry Leap and Jim Lehman)*

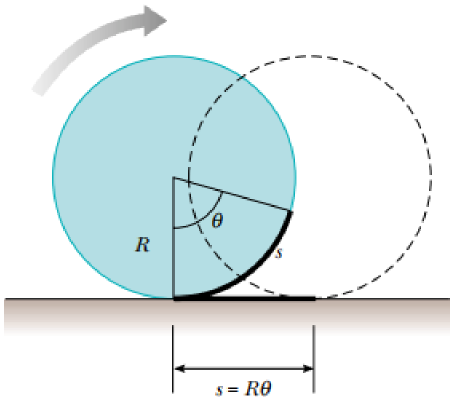


Figure 11.2 In pure rolling motion, as the cylinder rotates through an angle θ, its center of mass moves a linear distance $s = R\theta$.

motion. The magnitude of the linear acceleration of the center of mass for pure rolling motion is

$$a_{CM} = \frac{dv_{CM}}{dt} = R\frac{d\omega}{dt} = R\alpha \quad \textbf{(11.2)}$$

where α is the angular acceleration of the cylinder.

The linear velocities of the center of mass and of various points on and within the cylinder are illustrated in Figure 11.3. A short time after the moment shown in the drawing, the rim point labeled P will have rotated from the six o'clock position to, say, the seven o'clock position, the point Q will have rotated from the ten o'clock position to the eleven o'clock position, and so on. Note that the linear velocity of any point is in a direction perpendicular to the line from that point to the contact point P. At any instant, the part of the rim that is at point P is at rest relative to the surface because slipping does not occur.

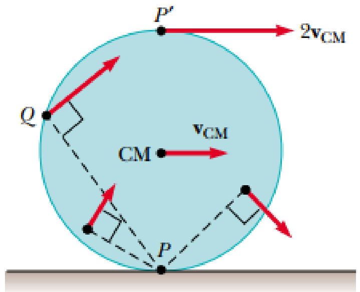


Figure 11.3 All points on a rolling object move in a direction perpendicular to an axis through the instantaneous point of contact P. In other words, all points rotate about P. The center of mass of the object moves with a velocity $\mathbf{v}_{CM}$, and the point P' moves with a velocity $2\mathbf{v}_{CM}$.

All points on the cylinder have the same angular speed. Therefore, because the distance from P' to P is twice the distance from P to the center of mass, P' has a speed $2v_{CM} = 2R\omega$. To see why this is so, let us model the rolling motion of the cylinder in Figure 11.4 as a combination of translational (linear) motion and rotational motion. For the pure translational motion shown in Figure 11.4a, imagine that the cylinder does not rotate, so that each point on it moves to the right with speed v_{CM}. For the pure rotational motion shown in Figure 11.4b, imagine that a rotation axis through the center of mass is stationary, so that each point on the cylinder has the same rotational speed ω. The combination of these two motions represents the rolling motion shown in Figure 11.4c. Note in Figure 11.4c that the top of the cylinder has linear speed $v_{CM} + R\omega = v_{CM} + v_{CM} = 2v_{CM}$, which is greater than the linear speed of any other point on the cylinder. As noted earlier, the center of mass moves with linear speed v_{CM} while the contact point between the surface and cylinder has a linear speed of zero.

7.2

We can express the total kinetic energy of the rolling cylinder as

$$K = \tfrac{1}{2}I_P\omega^2 \quad \textbf{(11.3)}$$

where I_P is the moment of inertia about a rotation axis through P. Applying the parallel-axis theorem, we can substitute $I_P = I_{CM} + MR^2$ into Equation 11.3 to obtain

$$K = \tfrac{1}{2}I_{CM}\omega^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}MR^2\omega^2$$

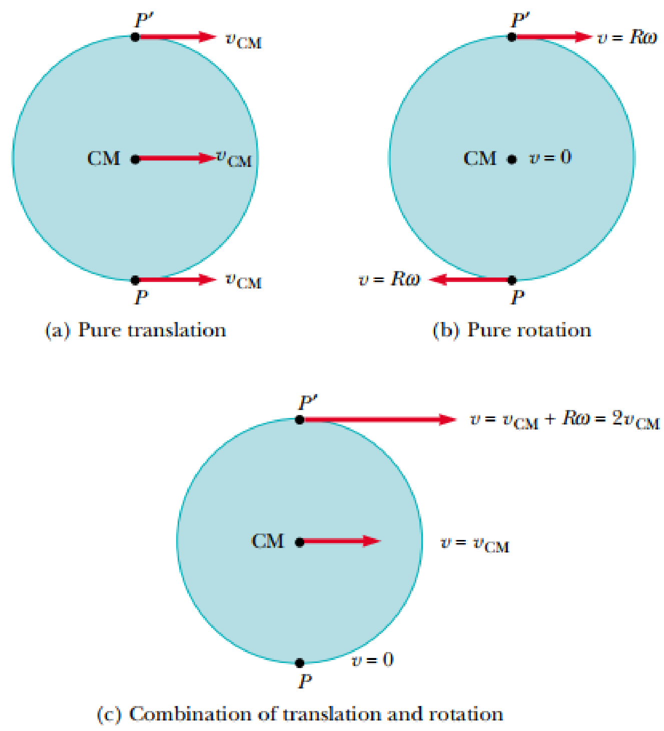


Figure 11.4 The motion of a rolling object can be modeled as a combination of pure translation and pure rotation.

Total kinetic energy of a rolling body

or, because $v_{CM} = R\omega$,

$$K = \tfrac{1}{2}I_{CM}\omega^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}Mv_{CM}^2 \tag{11.4}$$

The term $\frac{1}{2}I_{CM}\omega^2$ represents the rotational kinetic energy of the cylinder about its center of mass, and the term $\frac{1}{2}Mv_{CM}^2$ represents the kinetic energy the cylinder would have if it were just translating through space without rotating. Thus, we can say that the **total kinetic energy of a rolling object is the sum of the rotational kinetic energy about the center of mass and the translational kinetic energy of the center of mass.**

We can use energy methods to treat a class of problems concerning the rolling motion of a sphere down a rough incline. (The analysis that follows also applies to the rolling motion of a cylinder or hoop.) We assume that the sphere in Figure 11.5 rolls without slipping and is released from rest at the top of the incline. Note that accelerated rolling motion is possible only if a frictional force is present between the sphere and the incline to produce a net torque about the center of mass. Despite the presence of friction, no loss of mechanical energy occurs because the contact point is at rest relative to the surface at any instant. On the other hand, if the sphere were to slip, mechanical energy would be lost as motion progressed.

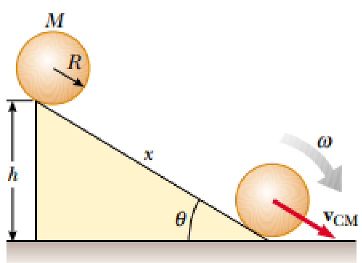


Figure 11.5 A sphere rolling down an incline. Mechanical energy is conserved if no slipping occurs.

Using the fact that $v_{CM} = R\omega$ for pure rolling motion, we can express Equation 11.4 as

$$K = \tfrac{1}{2}I_{CM}\left(\frac{v_{CM}}{R}\right)^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}Mv_{CM}^2$$

$$K = \tfrac{1}{2}\left(\frac{I_{CM}}{R^2} + M\right)v_{CM}^2 \tag{11.5}$$

By the time the sphere reaches the bottom of the incline, work equal to Mgh has been done on it by the gravitational field, where h is the height of the incline. Because the sphere starts from rest at the top, its kinetic energy at the bottom, given by Equation 11.5, must equal this work done. Therefore, the speed of the center of mass at the bottom can be obtained by equating these two quantities:

$$\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{I_{CM}}{R^2} + M\right) v_{CM}{}^2 = Mgh$$

$$v_{CM} = \left(\frac{2gh}{1 + I_{CM}/MR^2}\right)^{1/2} \qquad (11.6)$$

Quick Quiz 11.1

Imagine that you slide your textbook across a gymnasium floor with a certain initial speed. It quickly stops moving because of friction between it and the floor. Yet, if you were to start a basketball rolling with the same initial speed, it would probably keep rolling from one end of the gym to the other. Why does a basketball roll so far? Doesn't friction affect its motion?

EXAMPLE 11.1 Sphere Rolling Down an Incline

For the solid sphere shown in Figure 11.5, calculate the linear speed of the center of mass at the bottom of the incline and the magnitude of the linear acceleration of the center of mass.

Solution The sphere starts from the top of the incline with potential energy $U_g = Mgh$ and kinetic energy $K = 0$. As we have seen before, if it fell vertically from that height, it would have a linear speed of $\sqrt{2gh}$ at the moment before it hit the floor. After rolling down the incline, the linear speed of the center of mass must be less than this value because some of the initial potential energy is diverted into rotational kinetic energy rather than all being converted into translational kinetic energy. For a uniform solid sphere, $I_{CM} = \frac{2}{5}MR^2$ (see Table 10.2), and therefore Equation 11.6 gives

$$v_{CM} = \left(\frac{2gh}{1 + \dfrac{2/5MR^2}{MR^2}}\right)^{1/2} = \boxed{\left(\frac{10}{7}gh\right)^{1/2}}$$

which is less than $\sqrt{2gh}$.

To calculate the linear acceleration of the center of mass, we note that the vertical displacement is related to the displacement x along the incline through the relationship $h = x \sin\theta$. Hence, after squaring both sides, we can express the equation above as

$$v_{CM}{}^2 = \frac{10}{7} gx \sin\theta$$

Comparing this with the expression from kinematics, $v_{CM}{}^2 = 2a_{CM}x$ (see Eq. 2.12), we see that the acceleration of the center of mass is

$$a_{CM} = \boxed{\frac{5}{7} g \sin\theta}$$

These results are quite interesting in that both the speed and the acceleration of the center of mass are *independent* of the mass and the radius of the sphere! That is, **all homogeneous solid spheres experience the same speed and acceleration on a given incline.**

If we repeated the calculations for a hollow sphere, a solid cylinder, or a hoop, we would obtain similar results in which only the factor in front of $g \sin\theta$ would differ. The constant factors that appear in the expressions for v_{CM} and a_{CM} depend only on the moment of inertia about the center of mass for the specific body. In all cases, the acceleration of the center of mass is *less* than $g \sin\theta$, the value the acceleration would have if the incline were frictionless and no rolling occurred.

EXAMPLE 11.2 Another Look at the Rolling Sphere

In this example, let us use dynamic methods to verify the results of Example 11.1. The free-body diagram for the sphere is illustrated in Figure 11.6.

Solution Newton's second law applied to the center of mass gives

$$(1) \qquad \Sigma F_x = Mg\sin\theta - f = Ma_{CM}$$

$$\Sigma F_y = n - Mg\cos\theta = 0$$

where x is measured along the slanted surface of the incline.

Now let us write an expression for the torque acting on the sphere. A convenient axis to choose is the one that passes

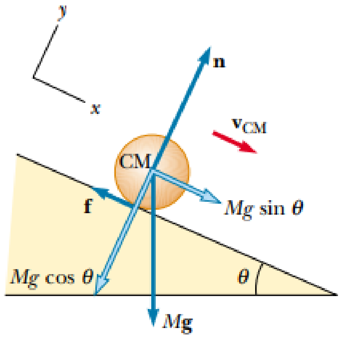


Figure 11.6 Free-body diagram for a solid sphere rolling down an incline.

through the center of the sphere and is perpendicular to the plane of the figure.[1] Because **n** and $M\mathbf{g}$ go through the center of mass, they have zero moment arm about this axis and thus do not contribute to the torque. However, the force of static friction produces a torque about this axis equal to fR in the clockwise direction; therefore, because τ is also in the clockwise direction,

$$\tau_{CM} = fR = I_{CM}\alpha$$

Because $I_{CM} = \frac{2}{5}MR^2$ and $\alpha = a_{CM}/R$, we obtain

$$(2) \qquad f = \frac{I_{CM}\alpha}{R} = \left(\frac{\frac{2}{5}MR^2}{R}\right)\frac{a_{CM}}{R} = \frac{2}{5}Ma_{CM}$$

Substituting Equation (2) into Equation (1) gives

$$a_{CM} = \frac{5}{7}g \sin\theta$$

which agrees with the result of Example 11.1.

Note that $\Sigma\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$ applies only if $\Sigma\mathbf{F}$ is the net external force exerted on the sphere and **a** is the acceleration of its center of mass. In the case of our sphere rolling down an incline, even though the frictional force does not change the total kinetic energy of the sphere, it does contribute to $\Sigma\mathbf{F}$ and thus decreases the acceleration of the center of mass. As a result, the final translational kinetic energy is less than it would be in the absence of friction. As mentioned in Example 11.1, some of the initial potential energy is converted to rotational kinetic energy.

QuickLab

Hold a basketball and a tennis ball side by side at the top of a ramp and release them at the same time. Which reaches the bottom first? Does the outcome depend on the angle of the ramp? What if the angle were 90° (that is, if the balls were in free fall)?

Quick Quiz 11.2

Which gets to the bottom first: a ball rolling without sliding down incline A or a box sliding down a frictionless incline B having the same dimensions as incline A?

11.2 THE VECTOR PRODUCT AND TORQUE

2.7 Consider a force **F** acting on a rigid body at the vector position **r** (Fig. 11.7). **The origin *O* is assumed to be in an inertial frame, so Newton's first law is valid in this case.** As we saw in Section 10.6, the *magnitude* of the torque due to this force relative to the origin is, by definition, $rF \sin\phi$, where ϕ is the angle between **r** and **F**. The axis about which **F** tends to produce rotation is perpendicular to the plane formed by **r** and **F**. If the force lies in the xy plane, as it does in Figure 11.7, the torque $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ is represented by a vector parallel to the z axis. The force in Figure 11.7 creates a torque that tends to rotate the body counterclockwise about the z axis; thus the direction of $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ is toward increasing z, and $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ is therefore in the positive z direction. If we reversed the direction of **F** in Figure 11.7, then $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ would be in the negative z direction.

The torque $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ involves the two vectors **r** and **F**, and its direction is perpendicular to the plane of **r** and **F**. We can establish a mathematical relationship between $\boldsymbol{\tau}$, **r**, and **F**, using a new mathematical operation called the **vector product,** or **cross product:**

Torque

$$\boldsymbol{\tau} \equiv \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F} \qquad \textbf{(11.7)}$$

[1] Although a coordinate system whose origin is at the center of mass of a rolling object is not an inertial frame, the expression $\tau_{CM} = I\alpha$ still applies in the center-of-mass frame.

We now give a formal definition of the vector product. Given any two vectors **A** and **B**, the **vector product A × B** is defined as a third vector **C**, the magnitude of which is $AB \sin\theta$, where θ is the angle between **A** and **B**. That is, if **C** is given by

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} \tag{11.8}$$

then its magnitude is

$$C \equiv AB \sin\theta \tag{11.9}$$

The quantity $AB \sin\theta$ is equal to the area of the parallelogram formed by **A** and **B**, as shown in Figure 11.8. The *direction* of **C** is perpendicular to the plane formed by **A** and **B**, and the best way to determine this direction is to use the right-hand rule illustrated in Figure 11.8. The four fingers of the right hand are pointed along **A** and then "wrapped" into **B** through the angle θ. The direction of the erect right thumb is the direction of **A × B = C.** Because of the notation, **A × B** is often read "**A** cross **B**"; hence, the term *cross product.*

Some properties of the vector product that follow from its definition are as follows:

Properties of the vector product

1. Unlike the scalar product, the vector product is *not* commutative. Instead, the order in which the two vectors are multiplied in a cross product is important:

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = -\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A} \tag{11.10}$$

   Therefore, if you change the order of the vectors in a cross product, you must change the sign. You could easily verify this relationship with the right-hand rule.
2. If **A** is parallel to **B** ($\theta = 0°$ or $180°$), then $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = 0$; therefore, it follows that $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{A} = 0$.
3. If **A** is perpendicular to **B**, then $|\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}| = AB$.
4. The vector product obeys the distributive law:

$$\mathbf{A} \times (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{C} \tag{11.11}$$

5. The derivative of the cross product with respect to some variable such as t is

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{A} \times \frac{d\mathbf{B}}{dt} + \frac{d\mathbf{A}}{dt} \times \mathbf{B} \tag{11.12}$$

where it is important to preserve the multiplicative order of **A** and **B**, in view of Equation 11.10.

It is left as an exercise to show from Equations 11.9 and 11.10 and from the definition of unit vectors that the cross products of the rectangular unit vectors **i**,

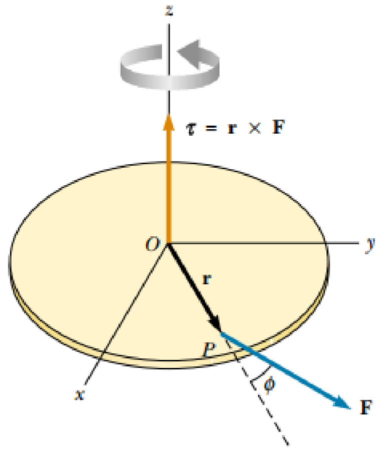


Figure 11.7 The torque vector $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ lies in a direction perpendicular to the plane formed by the position vector **r** and the applied force vector **F**.

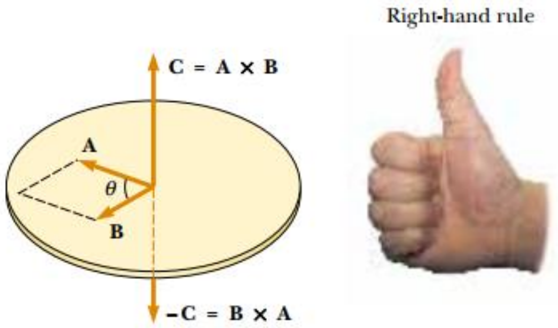


Figure 11.8 The vector product **A × B** is a third vector **C** having a magnitude $AB \sin\theta$ equal to the area of the parallelogram shown. The direction of **C** is perpendicular to the plane formed by **A** and **B**, and this direction is determined by the right-hand rule.

$\mathbf{j}$, and $\mathbf{k}$ obey the following rules:

Cross products of unit vectors

$$\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{k} = 0 \tag{11.13a}$$

$$\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j} = -\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{k} \tag{11.13b}$$

$$\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{k} = -\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{i} \tag{11.13c}$$

$$\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{i} = -\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{j} \tag{11.13d}$$

Signs are interchangeable in cross products. For example, $\mathbf{A} \times (-\mathbf{B}) = -\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$ and $\mathbf{i} \times (-\mathbf{j}) = -\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j}$.

The cross product of any two vectors $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ can be expressed in the following determinant form:

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ A_x & A_y & A_z \\ B_x & B_y & B_z \end{vmatrix} = \mathbf{i}\begin{vmatrix} A_y & A_z \\ B_y & B_z \end{vmatrix} - \mathbf{j}\begin{vmatrix} A_x & A_z \\ B_x & B_z \end{vmatrix} + \mathbf{k}\begin{vmatrix} A_x & A_y \\ B_x & B_y \end{vmatrix}$$

Expanding these determinants gives the result

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = (A_yB_z - A_zB_y)\mathbf{i} - (A_xB_z - A_zB_x)\mathbf{j} + (A_xB_y - A_yB_x)\mathbf{k} \tag{11.14}$$

EXAMPLE 11.3 The Cross Product

Two vectors lying in the xy plane are given by the equations $\mathbf{A} = 2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{B} = -\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j}$. Find $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$ and verify that $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = -\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A}$.

Solution Using Equations 11.13a through 11.13d, we obtain

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = (2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}) \times (-\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j})$$

$$= 2\mathbf{i} \times 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{j} \times (-\mathbf{i}) = 4\mathbf{k} + 3\mathbf{k} = \boxed{7\mathbf{k}}$$

(We have omitted the terms containing $\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{j}$ because, as Equation 11.13a shows, they are equal to zero.)

We can show that $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = -\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A}$, since

$$\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A} = (-\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j}) \times (2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j})$$

$$= -\mathbf{i} \times 3\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{j} \times 2\mathbf{i} = -3\mathbf{k} - 4\mathbf{k} = \boxed{-7\mathbf{k}}$$

Therefore, $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = -\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A}$.

As an alternative method for finding $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$, we could use Equation 11.14, with $A_x = 2$, $A_y = 3$, $A_z = 0$ and $B_x = -1$, $B_y = 2$, $B_z = 0$:

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = (0)\mathbf{i} - (0)\mathbf{j} + [(2)(2) - (3)(-1)]\mathbf{k} = 7\mathbf{k}$$

Exercise Use the results to this example and Equation 11.9 to find the angle between $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$.

Answer 60.3°

11.3 ANGULAR MOMENTUM OF A PARTICLE

7.8

Imagine a rigid pole sticking up through the ice on a frozen pond (Fig. 11.9). A skater glides rapidly toward the pole, aiming a little to the side so that she does not hit it. As she approaches a point beside the pole, she reaches out and grabs the pole, an action that whips her rapidly into a circular path around the pole. Just as the idea of linear momentum helps us analyze translational motion, a rotational analog—*angular momentum*—helps us describe this skater and other objects undergoing rotational motion.

To analyze the motion of the skater, we need to know her mass and her velocity, as well as her position relative to the pole. In more general terms, consider a particle of mass m located at the vector position $\mathbf{r}$ and moving with linear velocity $\mathbf{v}$ (Fig. 11.10).

The instantaneous angular momentum $\mathbf{L}$ of the particle relative to the origin O is defined as the cross product of the particle's instantaneous position vector $\mathbf{r}$ and its instantaneous linear momentum $\mathbf{p}$:

$$\mathbf{L} \equiv \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p} \tag{11.15}$$

Angular momentum of a particle

The SI unit of angular momentum is kg·m²/s. It is important to note that both the magnitude and the direction of $\mathbf{L}$ depend on the choice of origin. Following the right-hand rule, note that the direction of $\mathbf{L}$ is perpendicular to the plane formed by $\mathbf{r}$ and $\mathbf{p}$. In Figure 11.10, $\mathbf{r}$ and $\mathbf{p}$ are in the xy plane, and so $\mathbf{L}$ points in the z direction. Because $\mathbf{p} = m\mathbf{v}$, the magnitude of $\mathbf{L}$ is

$$L = mvr \sin \phi \tag{11.16}$$

where ϕ is the angle between $\mathbf{r}$ and $\mathbf{p}$. It follows that L is zero when $\mathbf{r}$ is parallel to $\mathbf{p}$ ($\phi = 0$ or $180°$). In other words, when the linear velocity of the particle is along a line that passes through the origin, the particle has zero angular momentum with respect to the origin. On the other hand, if $\mathbf{r}$ is perpendicular to $\mathbf{p}$ ($\phi = 90°$), then $L = mvr$. At that instant, the particle moves exactly as if it were on the rim of a wheel rotating about the origin in a plane defined by $\mathbf{r}$ and $\mathbf{p}$.

Figure 11.9 As the skater passes the pole, she grabs hold of it. This causes her to swing around the pole rapidly in a circular path.

Quick Quiz 11.3

Recall the skater described at the beginning of this section. What would be her angular momentum relative to the pole if she were skating directly toward it?

In describing linear motion, we found that the net force on a particle equals the time rate of change of its linear momentum, $\Sigma\mathbf{F} = d\mathbf{p}/dt$ (see Eq. 9.3). We now show that the net torque acting on a particle equals the time rate of change of its angular momentum. Let us start by writing the net torque on the particle in the form

$$\sum \boldsymbol{\tau} = \mathbf{r} \times \sum \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{r} \times \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} \tag{11.17}$$

Now let us differentiate Equation 11.15 with respect to time, using the rule given by Equation 11.12:

$$\frac{d\mathbf{L}}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{r} \times \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} + \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} \times \mathbf{p}$$

Remember, it is important to adhere to the order of terms because $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = -\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A}$. The last term on the right in the above equation is zero because $\mathbf{v} = d\mathbf{r}/dt$ is parallel to $\mathbf{p} = m\mathbf{v}$ (property 2 of the vector product). Therefore,

$$\frac{d\mathbf{L}}{dt} = \mathbf{r} \times \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} \tag{11.18}$$

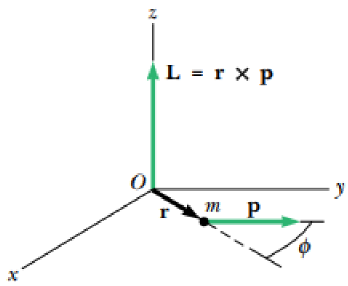


Figure 11.10 The angular momentum $\mathbf{L}$ of a particle of mass m and linear momentum $\mathbf{p}$ located at the vector position $\mathbf{r}$ is a vector given by $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p}$. The value of $\mathbf{L}$ depends on the origin about which it is measured and is a vector perpendicular to both $\mathbf{r}$ and $\mathbf{p}$.

Comparing Equations 11.17 and 11.18, we see that

$$\sum \boldsymbol{\tau} = \frac{d\mathbf{L}}{dt} \tag{11.19}$$

The net torque equals time rate of change of angular momentum which is the rotational analog of Newton's second law, $\Sigma\mathbf{F} = d\mathbf{p}/dt$. Note that torque causes the angular momentum $\mathbf{L}$ to change just as force causes linear momentum $\mathbf{p}$ to change. This rotational result, Equation 11.19, states that

the net torque acting on a particle is equal to the time rate of change of the particle's angular momentum.

It is important to note that Equation 11.19 is valid only if $\Sigma\boldsymbol{\tau}$ and $\mathbf{L}$ are measured about the same origin. (Of course, the same origin must be used in calculating all of the torques.) Furthermore, **the expression is valid for any origin fixed in an inertial frame.**

Angular Momentum of a System of Particles

The total angular momentum of a system of particles about some point is defined as the vector sum of the angular momenta of the individual particles:

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{L}_1 + \mathbf{L}_2 + \cdots + \mathbf{L}_n = \sum_i \mathbf{L}_i$$

where the vector sum is over all n particles in the system.

Because individual angular momenta can change with time, so can the total angular momentum. In fact, from Equations 11.18 and 11.19, we find that the time rate of change of the total angular momentum equals the vector sum of all torques acting on the system, both those associated with internal forces between particles and those associated with external forces. However, the net torque associated with all internal forces is zero. To understand this, recall that Newton's third law tells us that internal forces between particles of the system are equal in magnitude and opposite in direction. If we assume that these forces lie along the line of separation of each pair of particles, then the torque due to each action–reaction force pair is zero. That is, the moment arm d from O to the line of action of the forces is equal for both particles. In the summation, therefore, we see that the net internal torque vanishes. We conclude that the total angular momentum of a system can vary with time only if a net external torque is acting on the system, so that we have

$$\sum \boldsymbol{\tau}_{\text{ext}} = \sum_i \frac{d\mathbf{L}_i}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}\sum_i \mathbf{L}_i = \frac{d\mathbf{L}}{dt} \qquad \textbf{(11.20)}$$

That is,

the time rate of change of the total angular momentum of a system about some origin in an inertial frame equals the net external torque acting on the system about that origin.

Note that Equation 11.20 is the rotational analog of Equation 9.38, $\Sigma\mathbf{F}_{\text{ext}} = d\mathbf{p}/dt$, for a system of particles.

EXAMPLE 11.4 Circular Motion

A particle moves in the xy plane in a circular path of radius r, as shown in Figure 11.11. (a) Find the magnitude and direction of its angular momentum relative to O when its linear velocity is $\mathbf{v}$.

Solution You might guess that because the linear momentum of the particle is always changing (in direction, not magnitude), the direction of the angular momentum must also change. In this example, however, this is not the case. The magnitude of $\mathbf{L}$ is given by

$$L = mvr\sin 90° = \boxed{mvr} \qquad \text{(for } \mathbf{r} \text{ perpendicular to } \mathbf{v}\text{)}$$

This value of L is constant because all three factors on the right are constant. The direction of $\mathbf{L}$ also is constant, even though the direction of $\mathbf{p} = m\mathbf{v}$ keeps changing. You can visualize this by sliding the vector $\mathbf{v}$ in Figure 11.11 parallel to itself until its tail meets the tail of $\mathbf{r}$ and by then applying the right-hand rule. (You can use $\mathbf{v}$ to determine the direction of $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p}$ because the direction of $\mathbf{p}$ is the same as the direction of $\mathbf{v}$.) Line up your fingers so that they point along $\mathbf{r}$ and wrap your fingers into the vector $\mathbf{v}$. Your thumb points upward and away from the page; this is the direction of $\mathbf{L}$. Hence, we can write the vector expression $\mathbf{L} = (mvr)\mathbf{k}$. If the particle were to move clockwise, $\mathbf{L}$ would point downward and into the page.

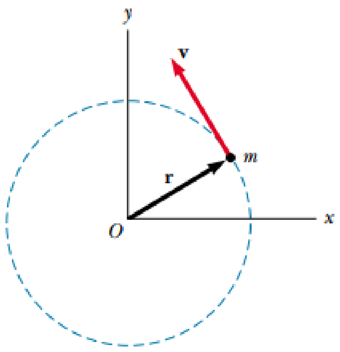


Figure 11.11 A particle moving in a circle of radius r has an angular momentum about O that has magnitude mvr. The vector $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p}$ points *out* of the diagram.

(b) Find the magnitude and direction of $\mathbf{L}$ in terms of the particle's angular speed ω.

Solution Because $v = r\omega$ for a particle rotating in a circle, we can express L as

$$L = mvr = mr^2\omega = \boxed{I\omega}$$

where I is the moment of inertia of the particle about the z axis through O. Because the rotation is counterclockwise, the direction of $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ is along the z axis (see Section 10.1). The direction of $\mathbf{L}$ is the same as that of $\boldsymbol{\omega}$, and so we can write the angular momentum as $\mathbf{L} = I\boldsymbol{\omega} = I\omega\mathbf{k}$.

Exercise A car of mass 1 500 kg moves with a linear speed of 40 m/s on a circular race track of radius 50 m. What is the magnitude of its angular momentum relative to the center of the track?

Answer $3.0 \times 10^6\ \text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}$

11.4 ANGULAR MOMENTUM OF A ROTATING RIGID OBJECT

Consider a rigid object rotating about a fixed axis that coincides with the z axis of a coordinate system, as shown in Figure 11.12. Let us determine the angular momentum of this object. Each particle of the object rotates in the xy plane about the z axis with an angular speed ω. The magnitude of the angular momentum of a particle of mass m_i about the origin O is $m_i v_i r_i$. Because $v_i = r_i\omega$, we can express the magnitude of the angular momentum of this particle as

$$L_i = m_i r_i^2 \omega$$

The vector $\mathbf{L}_i$ is directed along the z axis, as is the vector $\boldsymbol{\omega}$.

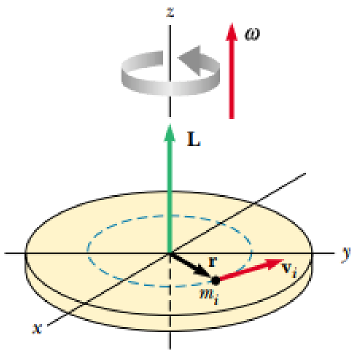


Figure 11.12 When a rigid body rotates about an axis, the angular momentum **L** is in the same direction as the angular velocity $\boldsymbol{\omega}$, according to the expression $\mathbf{L} = I\boldsymbol{\omega}$.

We can now find the angular momentum (which in this situation has only a z component) of the whole object by taking the sum of L_i over all particles:

$$L_z = \sum_i m_i r_i^2 \omega = \left(\sum_i m_i r_i^2\right)\omega$$

$$L_z = I\omega \qquad \textbf{(11.21)}$$

where I is the moment of inertia of the object about the z axis.

Now let us differentiate Equation 11.21 with respect to time, noting that I is constant for a rigid body:

$$\frac{dL_z}{dt} = I\frac{d\omega}{dt} = I\alpha \qquad \textbf{(11.22)}$$

where α is the angular acceleration relative to the axis of rotation. Because dL_z/dt is equal to the net external torque (see Eq. 11.20), we can express Equation 11.22 as

$$\sum \tau_{\text{ext}} = \frac{dL_z}{dt} = I\alpha \qquad \textbf{(11.23)}$$

That is, the net external torque acting on a rigid object rotating about a fixed axis equals the moment of inertia about the rotation axis multiplied by the object's angular acceleration relative to that axis.

Equation 11.23 also is valid for a rigid object rotating about a moving axis provided the moving axis (1) passes through the center of mass and (2) is a symmetry axis.

You should note that if a symmetrical object rotates about a fixed axis passing through its center of mass, you can write Equation 11.21 in vector form as $\mathbf{L} = I\boldsymbol{\omega}$, where **L** is the total angular momentum of the object measured with respect to the axis of rotation. Furthermore, the expression is valid for any object, regardless of its symmetry, if **L** stands for the component of angular momentum along the axis of rotation.[2]

EXAMPLE 11.5 Bowling Ball

Estimate the magnitude of the angular momentum of a bowling ball spinning at 10 rev/s, as shown in Figure 11.13.

Solution We start by making some estimates of the relevant physical parameters and model the ball as a uniform solid sphere. A typical bowling ball might have a mass of 6 kg and a radius of 12 cm. The moment of inertia of a solid sphere about an axis through its center is, from Table 10.2,

$$I = \tfrac{2}{5}MR^2 = \tfrac{2}{5}(6\text{ kg})(0.12\text{ m})^2 = 0.035\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2$$

Therefore, the magnitude of the angular momentum is

[2] In general, the expression $\mathbf{L} = I\boldsymbol{\omega}$ is not always valid. If a rigid object rotates about an arbitrary axis, **L** and $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ may point in different directions. In this case, the moment of inertia cannot be treated as a scalar. Strictly speaking, $\mathbf{L} = I\boldsymbol{\omega}$ applies only to rigid objects of any shape that rotate about one of three mutually perpendicular axes (called *principal axes*) through the center of mass. This is discussed in more advanced texts on mechanics.

$$L = I\omega = (0.035\ \text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2)(10\ \text{rev/s})(2\pi\ \text{rad/rev})$$
$$= 2.2\ \text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}$$

Because of the roughness of our estimates, we probably want to keep only one significant figure, and so $L \approx \boxed{2\ \text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}}$.

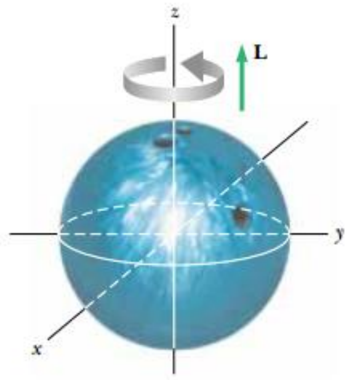


Figure 11.13 A bowling ball that rotates about the z axis in the direction shown has an angular momentum $\mathbf{L}$ in the positive z direction. If the direction of rotation is reversed, $\mathbf{L}$ points in the negative z direction.

EXAMPLE 11.6 Rotating Rod

A rigid rod of mass M and length ℓ is pivoted without friction at its center (Fig. 11.14). Two particles of masses m_1 and m_2 are connected to its ends. The combination rotates in a vertical plane with an angular speed ω. (a) Find an expression for the magnitude of the angular momentum of the system.

Solution This is different from the last example in that we now must account for the motion of more than one object. The moment of inertia of the system equals the sum of the moments of inertia of the three components: the rod and the two particles. Referring to Table 10.2 to obtain the expression for the moment of inertia of the rod, and using the expression $I = mr^2$ for each particle, we find that the total moment of inertia about the z axis through O is

$$I = \frac{1}{12}M\ell^2 + m_1\left(\frac{\ell}{2}\right)^2 + m_2\left(\frac{\ell}{2}\right)^2$$
$$= \frac{\ell^2}{4}\left(\frac{M}{3} + m_1 + m_2\right)$$

Therefore, the magnitude of the angular momentum is

$$L = I\omega = \boxed{\frac{\ell^2}{4}\left(\frac{M}{3} + m_1 + m_2\right)\omega}$$

(b) Find an expression for the magnitude of the angular acceleration of the system when the rod makes an angle θ with the horizontal.

Solution If the masses of the two particles are equal, then the system has no angular acceleration because the net torque on the system is zero when $m_1 = m_2$. If the initial angle θ is exactly $\pi/2$ or $-\pi/2$ (vertical position), then the rod will be in equilibrium. To find the angular acceleration of the system at any angle θ, we first calculate the net torque on the system and then use $\Sigma\tau_{\text{ext}} = I\alpha$ to obtain an expression for α.

The torque due to the force m_1g about the pivot is

$$\tau_1 = m_1 g\frac{\ell}{2}\cos\theta \qquad (\boldsymbol{\tau}_1 \text{ out of page})$$

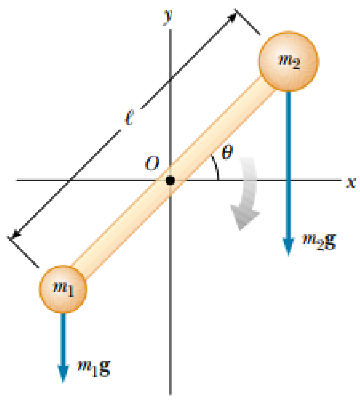


Figure 11.14 Because gravitational forces act on the rotating rod, there is in general a net nonzero torque about O when $m_1 \neq m_2$. This net torque produces an angular acceleration given by $\alpha = \Sigma\tau_{\text{ext}}/I$.

The torque due to the force m_2g about the pivot is

$$\tau_2 = -m_2 g\frac{\ell}{2}\cos\theta \qquad (\boldsymbol{\tau}_2 \text{ into page})$$

Hence, the net torque exerted on the system about O is

$$\sum\tau_{\text{ext}} = \tau_1 + \tau_2 = \tfrac{1}{2}(m_1 - m_2)g\ell\cos\theta$$

The direction of $\Sigma\boldsymbol{\tau}_{\text{ext}}$ is out of the page if $m_1 > m_2$ and is into the page if $m_2 > m_1$.

To find α, we use $\Sigma\tau_{\text{ext}} = I\alpha$, where I was obtained in part (a):

$$\alpha = \frac{\Sigma\tau_{\text{ext}}}{I} = \boxed{\frac{2(m_1 - m_2)g\cos\theta}{\ell(M/3 + m_1 + m_2)}}$$

Note that α is zero when θ is $\pi/2$ or $-\pi/2$ (vertical position) and is a maximum when θ is 0 or π (horizontal position).

Exercise If $m_2 > m_1$, at what value of θ is ω a maximum?

Answer $\theta = -\pi/2$.

EXAMPLE 11.7 Two Connected Masses

A sphere of mass m_1 and a block of mass m_2 are connected by a light cord that passes over a pulley, as shown in Figure 11.15. The radius of the pulley is R, and the moment of inertia about its axle is I. The block slides on a frictionless, horizontal surface. Find an expression for the linear acceleration of the two objects, using the concepts of angular momentum and torque.

Solution We need to determine the angular momentum of the system, which consists of the two objects and the pulley. Let us calculate the angular momentum about an axis that coincides with the axle of the pulley.

At the instant the sphere and block have a common speed v, the angular momentum of the sphere is m_1vR, and that of the block is m_2vR. At the same instant, the angular momentum of the pulley is $I\omega = Iv/R$. Hence, the total angular momentum of the system is

$$(1) \qquad L = m_1vR + m_2vR + I\frac{v}{R}$$

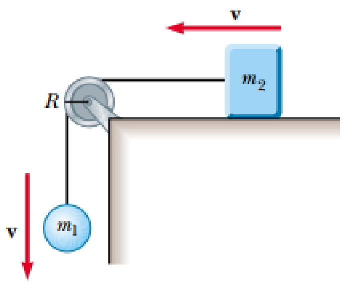


Figure 11.15

Now let us evaluate the total external torque acting on the system about the pulley axle. Because it has a moment arm of zero, the force exerted by the axle on the pulley does not contribute to the torque. Furthermore, the normal force acting on the block is balanced by the force of gravity $m_2\mathbf{g}$, and so these forces do not contribute to the torque. The force of gravity $m_1\mathbf{g}$ acting on the sphere produces a torque about the axle equal in magnitude to m_1gR, where R is the moment arm of the force about the axle. (Note that in this situation, the tension is *not* equal to m_1g.) This is the total external torque about the pulley axle; that is, $\Sigma\tau_{\text{ext}} = m_1gR$. Using this result, together with Equation (1) and Equation 11.23, we find

$$\sum \tau_{\text{ext}} = \frac{dL}{dt}$$

$$m_1gR = \frac{d}{dt}\left[(m_1 + m_2)Rv + I\frac{v}{R}\right]$$

$$(2) \qquad m_1gR = (m_1 + m_2)R\frac{dv}{dt} + \frac{I}{R}\frac{dv}{dt}$$

Because $dv/dt = a$, we can solve this for a to obtain

$$a = \frac{m_1g}{(m_1 + m_2) + I/R^2}$$

You may wonder why we did not include the forces that the cord exerts on the objects in evaluating the net torque about the axle. The reason is that these forces are internal to the system under consideration, and we analyzed the system as a whole. Only external torques contribute to the change in the system's angular momentum.

11.5 CONSERVATION OF ANGULAR MOMENTUM

7.9

In Chapter 9 we found that the total linear momentum of a system of particles remains constant when the resultant external force acting on the system is zero. We have an analogous conservation law in rotational motion:

Conservation of angular momentum

The total angular momentum of a system is constant in both magnitude and direction if the resultant external torque acting on the system is zero.

This follows directly from Equation 11.20, which indicates that if

$$\sum \tau_{\text{ext}} = \frac{d\mathbf{L}}{dt} = 0 \qquad \textbf{(11.24)}$$

then

$$\mathbf{L} = \text{constant} \qquad \textbf{(11.25)}$$

For a system of particles, we write this conservation law as $\Sigma\, \mathbf{L}_n =$ constant, where the index n denotes the nth particle in the system.

If the mass of an object undergoes redistribution in some way, then the object's moment of inertia changes; hence, its angular speed must change because $L = I\omega$. In this case we express the conservation of angular momentum in the form

$$\mathbf{L}_i = \mathbf{L}_f = \text{constant} \tag{11.26}$$

If the system is an object rotating about a *fixed* axis, such as the z axis, we can write $L_z = I\omega$, where L_z is the component of $\mathbf{L}$ along the axis of rotation and I is the moment of inertia about this axis. In this case, we can express the conservation of angular momentum as

$$I_i\omega_i = I_f\omega_f = \text{constant} \tag{11.27}$$

This expression is valid both for rotation about a fixed axis and for rotation about an axis through the center of mass of a moving system as long as that axis remains parallel to itself. We require only that the net external torque be zero.

Although we do not prove it here, there is an important theorem concerning the angular momentum of an object relative to the object's center of mass:

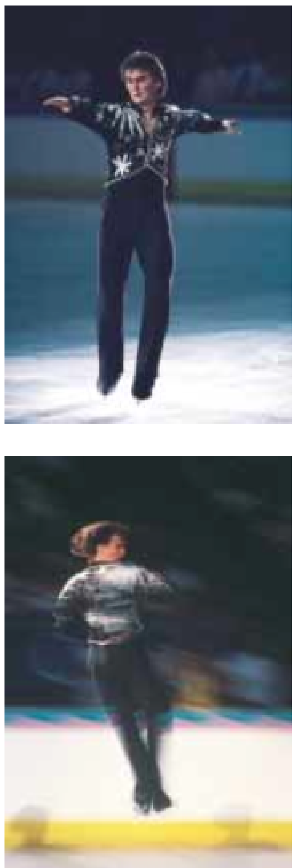
> The resultant torque acting on an object about an axis through the center of mass equals the time rate of change of angular momentum regardless of the motion of the center of mass.

This theorem applies even if the center of mass is accelerating, provided $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ and $\mathbf{L}$ are evaluated relative to the center of mass.

In Equation 11.26 we have a third conservation law to add to our list. We can now state that the energy, linear momentum, and angular momentum of an isolated system all remain constant:

$$\left.\begin{aligned} K_i + U_i &= K_f + U_f \\ \mathbf{p}_i &= \mathbf{p}_f \\ \mathbf{L}_i &= \mathbf{L}_f \end{aligned}\right\} \quad \text{For an isolated system}$$

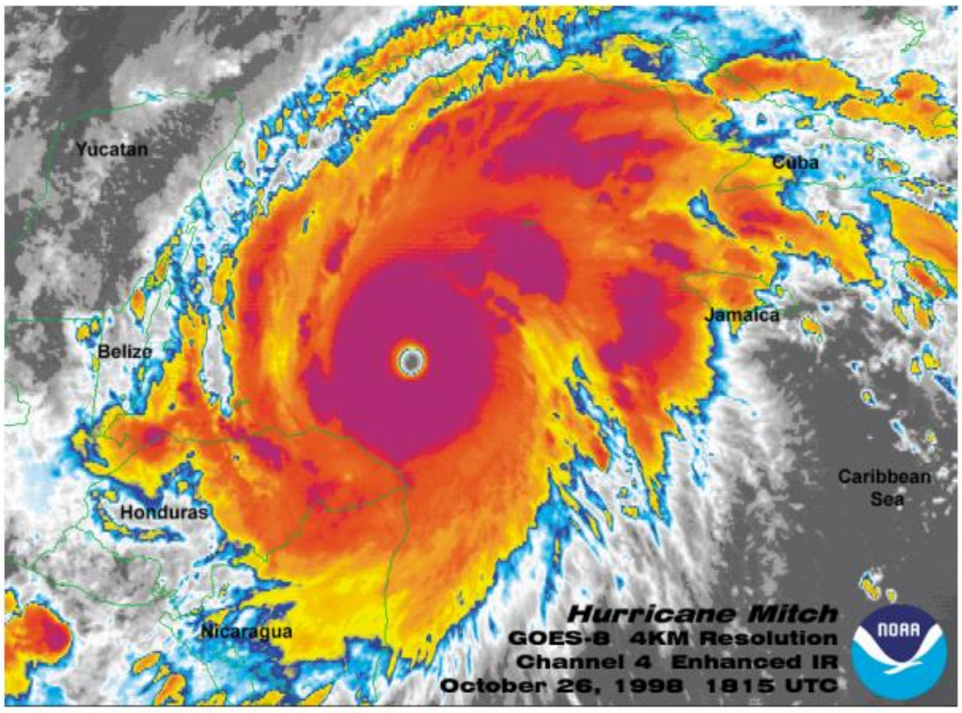
There are many examples that demonstrate conservation of angular momentum. You may have observed a figure skater spinning in the finale of a program. The angular speed of the skater increases when the skater pulls his hands and feet close to his body, thereby decreasing I. Neglecting friction between skates and ice, no external torques act on the skater. The change in angular speed is due to the fact that, because angular momentum is conserved, the product $I\omega$ remains constant, and a decrease in the moment of inertia of the skater causes an increase in the angular speed. Similarly, when divers or acrobats wish to make several somersaults, they pull their hands and feet close to their bodies to rotate at a higher rate. In these cases, the external force due to gravity acts through the center of mass and hence exerts no torque about this point. Therefore, the angular momentum about the center of mass must be conserved—that is, $I_i\omega_i = I_f\omega_f$. For example, when divers wish to double their angular speed, they must reduce their moment of inertia to one-half its initial value.



Angular momentum is conserved as figure skater Todd Eldredge pulls his arms toward his body. *(© 1998 David Madison)*

Quick Quiz 11.4

A particle moves in a straight line, and you are told that the net torque acting on it is zero about some unspecified point. Decide whether the following statements are true or false: (a) The net force on the particle must be zero. (b) The particle's velocity must be constant.



A color-enhanced, infrared image of Hurricane Mitch, which devastated large areas of Honduras and Nicaragua in October 1998. The spiral, nonrigid mass of air undergoes rotation and has angular momentum. *(Courtesy of NOAA)*

EXAMPLE 11.8 Formation of a Neutron Star

A star rotates with a period of 30 days about an axis through its center. After the star undergoes a supernova explosion, the stellar core, which had a radius of 1.0×10^4 km, collapses into a neutron star of radius 3.0 km. Determine the period of rotation of the neutron star.

Solution The same physics that makes a skater spin faster with his arms pulled in describes the motion of the neutron star. Let us assume that during the collapse of the stellar core, (1) no torque acts on it, (2) it remains spherical, and (3) its mass remains constant. Also, let us use the symbol T for the period, with T_i being the initial period of the star and T_f being the period of the neutron star. The period is the length of time a point on the star's equator takes to make one complete circle around the axis of rotation. The angular speed of a star is given by $\omega = 2\pi/T$. Therefore, because I is proportional to r^2, Equation 11.27 gives

$$T_f = T_i\left(\frac{r_f}{r_i}\right)^2 = (30\text{ days})\left(\frac{3.0\text{ km}}{1.0 \times 10^4\text{ km}}\right)^2$$

$$= 2.7 \times 10^{-6}\text{ days} = \boxed{0.23\text{ s}}$$

Thus, the neutron star rotates about four times each second; this result is approximately the same as that for a spinning figure skater.

EXAMPLE 11.9 The Merry-Go-Round

A horizontal platform in the shape of a circular disk rotates in a horizontal plane about a frictionless vertical axle (Fig. 11.16). The platform has a mass $M = 100$ kg and a radius $R = 2.0$ m. A student whose mass is $m = 60$ kg walks slowly from the rim of the disk toward its center. If the angular speed of the system is 2.0 rad/s when the student is at the rim, what is the angular speed when he has reached a point $r = 0.50$ m from the center?

Solution The speed change here is similar to the increase in angular speed of the spinning skater when he pulls his arms inward. Let us denote the moment of inertia of the platform as I_p and that of the student as I_s. Treating the student as a point mass, we can write the initial moment of inertia I_i of the system (student plus platform) about the axis of rotation:

$$I_i = I_{pi} + I_{si} = \tfrac{1}{2}MR^2 + mR^2$$

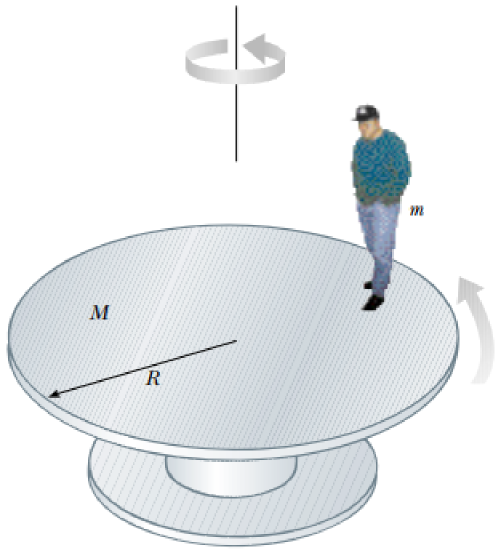


Figure 11.16 As the student walks toward the center of the rotating platform, the angular speed of the system increases because the angular momentum must remain constant.

When the student has walked to the position $r < R$, the moment of inertia of the system reduces to

$$I_f = I_{pf} + I_{sf} = \tfrac{1}{2}MR^2 + mr^2$$

Note that we still use the greater radius R when calculating I_{pf} because the radius of the platform has not changed. Because no external torques act on the system about the axis of rotation, we can apply the law of conservation of angular momentum:

$$I_i\omega_i = I_f\omega_f$$

$$\left(\tfrac{1}{2}MR^2 + mR^2\right)\omega_i = \left(\tfrac{1}{2}MR^2 + mr^2\right)\omega_f$$

$$\omega_f = \left(\frac{\tfrac{1}{2}MR^2 + mR^2}{\tfrac{1}{2}MR^2 + mr^2}\right)\omega_i$$

$$\omega_f = \left(\frac{200 + 240}{200 + 15}\right)(2.0\text{ rad/s}) = \boxed{4.1\text{ rad/s}}$$

As expected, the angular speed has increased.

Exercise Calculate the initial and final rotational energies of the system.

Answer $K_i = 880$ J; $K_f = 1.8 \times 10^3$ J.

Quick Quiz 11.5

Note that the rotational energy of the system described in Example 11.9 increases. What accounts for this increase in energy?

EXAMPLE 11.10 The Spinning Bicycle Wheel

In a favorite classroom demonstration, a student holds the axle of a spinning bicycle wheel while seated on a stool that is free to rotate (Fig. 11.17). The student and stool are initially at rest while the wheel is spinning in a horizontal plane with an initial angular momentum $\mathbf{L}_i$ that points upward. When the wheel is inverted about its center by 180°, the student and stool start rotating. In terms of $\mathbf{L}_i$, what are the magnitude and the direction of $\mathbf{L}$ for the student plus stool?

Figure 11.17 The wheel is initially spinning when the student is at rest. What happens when the wheel is inverted?

Solution The system consists of the student, the wheel, and the stool. Initially, the total angular momentum of the system $\mathbf{L}_i$ comes entirely from the spinning wheel. As the wheel is inverted, the student applies a torque to the wheel, but this torque is internal to the system. No external torque is acting on the system about the vertical axis. Therefore, the angular momentum of the system is conserved. Initially, we have

$$\mathbf{L}_{\text{system}} = \mathbf{L}_i = \mathbf{L}_{\text{wheel}} \qquad \text{(upward)}$$

After the wheel is inverted, we have $\mathbf{L}_{\text{inverted wheel}} = -\mathbf{L}_i$. For angular momentum to be conserved, some other part of the system has to start rotating so that the total angular momentum remains the initial angular momentum $\mathbf{L}_i$. That other part of the system is the student plus the stool she is sitting on. So, we can now state that

$$\mathbf{L}_f = \mathbf{L}_i = \mathbf{L}_{\text{student+stool}} - \mathbf{L}_i$$

$$\mathbf{L}_{\text{student+stool}} = \boxed{2\mathbf{L}_i}$$

EXAMPLE 11.11 Disk and Stick

A 2.0-kg disk traveling at 3.0 m/s strikes a 1.0-kg stick that is lying flat on nearly frictionless ice, as shown in Figure 11.18. Assume that the collision is elastic. Find the translational speed of the disk, the translational speed of the stick, and the rotational speed of the stick after the collision. The moment of inertia of the stick about its center of mass is 1.33 kg·m^2.

Solution Because the disk and stick form an isolated system, we can assume that total energy, linear momentum, and angular momentum are all conserved. We have three unknowns, and so we need three equations to solve simultaneously. The first comes from the law of the conservation of linear momentum:

$$p_i = p_f$$

$$m_d v_{di} = m_d v_{df} + m_s v_s$$

$$(2.0\text{ kg})(3.0\text{ m/s}) = (2.0\text{ kg})v_{df} + (1.0\text{ kg})v_s$$

$$(1) \qquad 6.0\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m/s} - (2.0\text{ kg})v_{df} = (1.0\text{ kg})v_s$$

Now we apply the law of conservation of angular momentum, using the initial position of the center of the stick as our reference point. We know that the component of angular momentum of the disk along the axis perpendicular to the plane of the ice is negative (the right-hand rule shows that $\mathbf{L}_d$ points into the ice).

$$L_i = L_f$$

$$-rm_d v_{di} = -rm_d v_{df} + I\omega$$

$$-(2.0\text{ m})(2.0\text{ kg})(3.0\text{ m/s}) = -(2.0\text{ m})(2.0\text{ kg})v_{df} + (1.33\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2)\omega$$

$$-12\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s} = -(4.0\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m})v_{df} + (1.33\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2)\omega$$

$$(2) \qquad -9.0\text{ rad/s} + (3.0\text{ rad/m})v_{df} = \omega$$

We used the fact that radians are dimensionless to ensure consistent units for each term.

Finally, the elastic nature of the collision reminds us that kinetic energy is conserved; in this case, the kinetic energy consists of translational and rotational forms:

$$K_i = K_f$$

$$\tfrac{1}{2}m_d v_{di}^2 = \tfrac{1}{2}m_d v_{df}^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}m_s v_s^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}I\omega^2$$

$$\tfrac{1}{2}(2.0\text{ kg})(3.0\text{ m/s})^2 = \tfrac{1}{2}(2.0\text{ kg})v_{df}^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}(1.0\text{ kg})v_s^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}(1.33\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s})\omega^2$$

$$(3) \qquad 54\text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2 = 6.0v_{df}^2 + 3.0v_s^2 + (4.0\text{ m}^2)\omega^2$$

In solving Equations (1), (2), and (3) simultaneously, we find that $v_{df} = 2.3$ m/s, $v_s = 1.3$ m/s, and $\omega = -2.0$ rad/s. These values seem reasonable. The disk is moving more slowly than it was before the collision, and the stick has a small translational speed. Table 11.1 summarizes the initial and final values of variables for the disk and the stick and verifies the conservation of linear momentum, angular momentum, and kinetic energy.

Exercise Verify the values in Table 11.1.

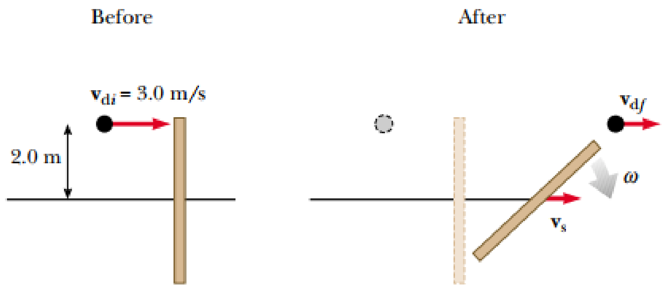


Figure 11.18 Overhead view of a disk striking a stick in an elastic collision, which causes the stick to rotate.

TABLE 11.1 Comparison of Values in Example 11.11 Before and After the Collision[a]

	v (m/s)	ω (rad/s)	p (kg·m/s)	L (kg·m^2/s)	K_{trans} (J)	K_{rot} (J)
Before						
Disk	3.0	—	6.0	−12	9.0	—
Stick	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	—	—	6.0	−12	9.0	0
After						
Disk	2.3	—	4.7	−9.3	5.4	—
Stick	1.3	−2.0	1.3	−2.7	0.9	2.7
Total	—	—	6.0	−12	6.3	2.7

[a] Notice that linear momentum, angular momentum, and total kinetic energy are conserved.

Optional Section

11.6 THE MOTION OF GYROSCOPES AND TOPS

A very unusual and fascinating type of motion you probably have observed is that of a top spinning about its axis of symmetry, as shown in Figure 11.19a. If the top spins very rapidly, the axis rotates about the z axis, sweeping out a cone (see Fig. 11.19b). The motion of the axis about the vertical—known as **precessional motion**—is usually slow relative to the spin motion of the top.

Precessional motion

It is quite natural to wonder why the top does not fall over. Because the center of mass is not directly above the pivot point O, a net torque is clearly acting on the top about O—a torque resulting from the force of gravity $M\mathbf{g}$. The top would certainly fall over if it were not spinning. Because it is spinning, however, it has an angular momentum $\mathbf{L}$ directed along its symmetry axis. As we shall show, the motion of this symmetry axis about the z axis (the precessional motion) occurs because the torque produces a change in the *direction* of the symmetry axis. This is an excellent example of the importance of the directional nature of angular momentum.

The two forces acting on the top are the downward force of gravity $M\mathbf{g}$ and the normal force $\mathbf{n}$ acting upward at the pivot point O. The normal force produces no torque about the pivot because its moment arm through that point is zero. However, the force of gravity produces a torque $\boldsymbol{\tau} = \mathbf{r} \times M\mathbf{g}$ about O, where the direction of $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ is perpendicular to the plane formed by $\mathbf{r}$ and $M\mathbf{g}$. By necessity, the vector $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ lies in a horizontal xy plane perpendicular to the angular momentum vector. The net torque and angular momentum of the top are related through Equation 11.19:

$$\boldsymbol{\tau} = \frac{d\mathbf{L}}{dt}$$

From this expression, we see that the nonzero torque produces a change in angular momentum $d\mathbf{L}$—a change that is in the same direction as $\boldsymbol{\tau}$. Therefore, like the torque vector, $d\mathbf{L}$ must also be at right angles to $\mathbf{L}$. Figure 11.19b illustrates the resulting precessional motion of the symmetry axis of the top. In a time Δt, the change in angular momentum is $\Delta\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{L}_f - \mathbf{L}_i = \boldsymbol{\tau}\,\Delta t$. Because $\Delta\mathbf{L}$ is perpendicular to $\mathbf{L}$, the magnitude of $\mathbf{L}$ does not change $(|\mathbf{L}_i| = |\mathbf{L}_f|)$. Rather, what is changing is the *direction* of $\mathbf{L}$. Because the change in angular momentum $\Delta\mathbf{L}$ is in the direction of $\boldsymbol{\tau}$, which lies in the xy plane, the top undergoes precessional motion.

The essential features of precessional motion can be illustrated by considering the simple gyroscope shown in Figure 11.20a. This device consists of a wheel free to spin about an axle that is pivoted at a distance h from the center of mass of the wheel. When given an angular velocity $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ about the axle, the wheel has an angular momentum $\mathbf{L} = I\boldsymbol{\omega}$ directed along the axle as shown. Let us consider the torque acting on the wheel about the pivot O. Again, the force $\mathbf{n}$ exerted by the support on the axle produces no torque about O, and the force of gravity $M\mathbf{g}$ produces a torque of magnitude Mgh about O, where the axle is perpendicular to the support. The direction of this torque is perpendicular to the axle (and perpendicular to $\mathbf{L}$), as shown in Figure 11.20a. This torque causes the angular momentum to change in the direction perpendicular to the axle. Hence, the axle moves in the direction of the torque—that is, in the horizontal plane.

To simplify the description of the system, we must make an assumption: The total angular momentum of the precessing wheel is the sum of the angular momentum $I\boldsymbol{\omega}$ due to the spinning and the angular momentum due to the motion of

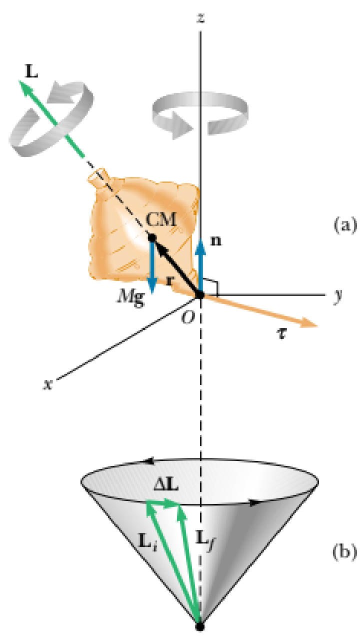


Figure 11.19 Precessional motion of a top spinning about its symmetry axis. (a) The only external forces acting on the top are the normal force $\mathbf{n}$ and the force of gravity $M\mathbf{g}$. The direction of the angular momentum $\mathbf{L}$ is along the axis of symmetry. The right-hand rule indicates that $\boldsymbol{\tau} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{r} \times M\mathbf{g}$ is in the xy plane. (b). The direction of $\Delta\mathbf{L}$ is parallel to that of $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ in part (a). The fact that $\mathbf{L}_f = \Delta\mathbf{L} + \mathbf{L}_i$ indicates that the top precesses about the z axis.

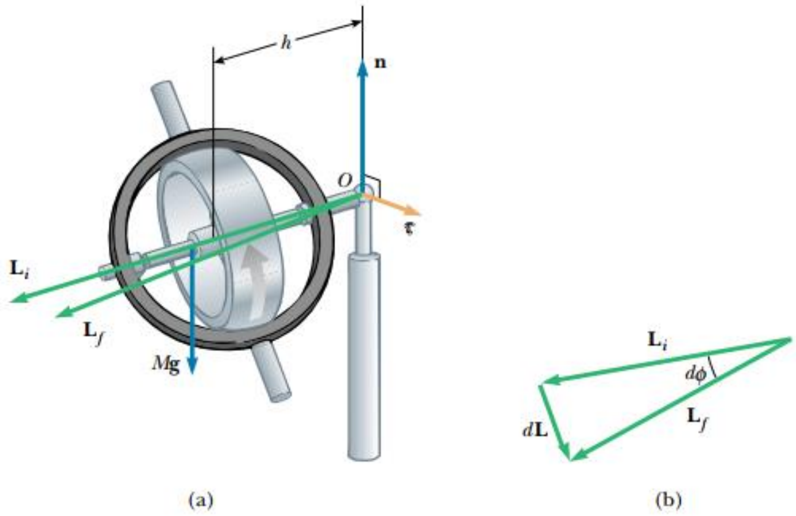
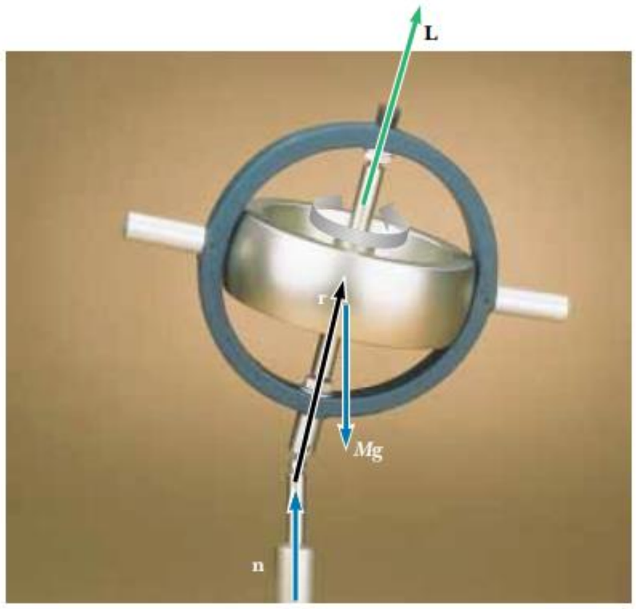


Figure 11.20 (a) The motion of a simple gyroscope pivoted a distance h from its center of mass. The force of gravity $M\mathbf{g}$ produces a torque about the pivot, and this torque is perpendicular to the axle. (b) This torque results in a change in angular momentum $d\mathbf{L}$ in a direction perpendicular to the axle. The axle sweeps out an angle $d\phi$ in a time dt.



This toy gyroscope undergoes precessional motion about the vertical axis as it spins about its axis of symmetry. The only forces acting on it are the force of gravity $M\mathbf{g}$ and the upward force of the pivot $\mathbf{n}$. The direction of its angular momentum $\mathbf{L}$ is along the axis of symmetry. The torque and $\Delta\mathbf{L}$ are directed into the page. *(Courtesy of Central Scientific Company)*

the center of mass about the pivot. In our treatment, we shall neglect the contribution from the center-of-mass motion and take the total angular momentum to be just $I\boldsymbol{\omega}$. In practice, this is a good approximation if $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ is made very large.

In a time dt, the torque due to the gravitational force changes the angular momentum of the system by $d\mathbf{L} = \boldsymbol{\tau}\, dt$. When added vectorially to the original total angular momentum $I\boldsymbol{\omega}$, this additional angular momentum causes a shift in the direction of the total angular momentum.

The vector diagram in Figure 11.20b shows that in the time dt, the angular momentum vector rotates through an angle $d\phi$, which is also the angle through which the axle rotates. From the vector triangle formed by the vectors $\mathbf{L}_i$, $\mathbf{L}_f$, and $d\mathbf{L}$, we see that

$$\sin (d\phi) \approx d\phi = \frac{dL}{L} = \frac{(Mgh)\,dt}{L}$$

where we have used the fact that, for small values of any angle θ, $\sin \theta \approx \theta$. Dividing through by dt and using the relationship $L = I\omega$, we find that the rate at which the axle rotates about the vertical axis is

$$\omega_p = \frac{d\phi}{dt} = \frac{Mgh}{I\omega} \qquad (11.28)$$

Precessional frequency

The angular speed ω_p is called the **precessional frequency.** This result is valid only when $\omega_p \ll \omega$. Otherwise, a much more complicated motion is involved. As you can see from Equation 11.28, the condition $\omega_p \ll \omega$ is met when $I\omega$ is great compared with Mgh. Furthermore, note that the precessional frequency decreases as ω increases—that is, as the wheel spins faster about its axis of symmetry.

Quick Quiz 11.6

How much work is done by the force of gravity when a top precesses through one complete circle?

Optional Section

11.7 ANGULAR MOMENTUM AS A FUNDAMENTAL QUANTITY

We have seen that the concept of angular momentum is very useful for describing the motion of macroscopic systems. However, the concept also is valid on a submicroscopic scale and has been used extensively in the development of modern theories of atomic, molecular, and nuclear physics. In these developments, it was found that the angular momentum of a system is a fundamental quantity. The word *fundamental* in this context implies that angular momentum is an intrinsic property of atoms, molecules, and their constituents, a property that is a part of their very nature.

To explain the results of a variety of experiments on atomic and molecular systems, we rely on the fact that the angular momentum has discrete values. These discrete values are multiples of the fundamental unit of angular momentum $\hbar = h/2\pi$, where h is called Planck's constant:

$$\text{Fundamental unit of angular momentum} = \hbar = 1.054 \times 10^{-34}\ \text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}$$

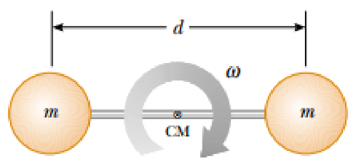


Figure 11.21 The rigid-rotor model of a diatomic molecule. The rotation occurs about the center of mass in the plane of the page.

Let us accept this postulate without proof for the time being and show how it can be used to estimate the angular speed of a diatomic molecule. Consider the O_2 molecule as a rigid rotor, that is, two atoms separated by a fixed distance d and rotating about the center of mass (Fig. 11.21). Equating the angular momentum to the fundamental unit $\hbar$, we can estimate the lowest angular speed:

$$I_{CM}\omega \approx \hbar \qquad \text{or} \qquad \omega \approx \frac{\hbar}{I_{CM}}$$

In Example 10.3, we found that the moment of inertia of the O_2 molecule about this axis of rotation is 1.95×10^{-46} kg·m^2. Therefore,

$$\omega \approx \frac{\hbar}{I_{CM}} = \frac{1.054 \times 10^{-34} \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}}{1.95 \times 10^{-46} \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2} = 5.41 \times 10^{11} \text{ rad/s}$$

Actual angular speeds are multiples of this smallest possible value.

This simple example shows that certain classical concepts and models, when properly modified, might be useful in describing some features of atomic and molecular systems. A wide variety of phenomena on the submicroscopic scale can be explained only if we assume discrete values of the angular momentum associated with a particular type of motion.

The Danish physicist Niels Bohr (1885–1962) accepted and adopted this radical idea of discrete angular momentum values in developing his theory of the hydrogen atom. Strictly classical models were unsuccessful in describing many properties of the hydrogen atom. Bohr postulated that the electron could occupy only those circular orbits about the proton for which the orbital angular momentum was equal to $n\hbar$, where n is an integer. That is, he made the bold assumption that orbital angular momentum is quantized. From this simple model, the rotational frequencies of the electron in the various orbits can be estimated (see Problem 43).

SUMMARY

The **total kinetic energy** of a rigid object rolling on a rough surface without slipping equals the rotational kinetic energy about its center of mass, $\frac{1}{2}I_{CM}\omega^2$, plus the translational kinetic energy of the center of mass, $\frac{1}{2}Mv_{CM}^2$:

$$K = \tfrac{1}{2}I_{CM}\omega^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}Mv_{CM}^2 \qquad \textbf{(11.4)}$$

The **torque** $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ due to a force $\mathbf{F}$ about an origin in an inertial frame is defined to be

$$\boldsymbol{\tau} \equiv \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F} \qquad \textbf{(11.7)}$$

Given two vectors $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$, the **cross product** $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$ is a vector $\mathbf{C}$ having a magnitude

$$C \equiv AB \sin\theta \qquad \textbf{(11.9)}$$

where θ is the angle between $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$. The direction of the vector $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$ is perpendicular to the plane formed by $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$, and this direction is determined by the right-hand rule.

The **angular momentum** $\mathbf{L}$ of a particle having linear momentum $\mathbf{p} = m\mathbf{v}$ is

$$\mathbf{L} \equiv \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p} \qquad \textbf{(11.15)}$$

where $\mathbf{r}$ is the vector position of the particle relative to an origin in an inertial frame.

The **net external torque** acting on a particle or rigid object is equal to the time rate of change of its angular momentum:

$$\sum \boldsymbol{\tau}_{\text{ext}} = \frac{d\mathbf{L}}{dt} \qquad \textbf{(11.20)}$$

The *z component* of **angular momentum** of a rigid object rotating about a fixed *z* axis is

$$L_z = I\omega \qquad \textbf{(11.21)}$$

where I is the moment of inertia of the object about the axis of rotation and ω is its angular speed.

The **net external torque** acting on a rigid object equals the product of its moment of inertia about the axis of rotation and its angular acceleration:

$$\sum \tau_{\text{ext}} = I\alpha \quad \textbf{(11.23)}$$

If the net external torque acting on a system is zero, then the total angular momentum of the system is constant. Applying this **law of conservation of angular momentum** to a system whose moment of inertia changes gives

$$I_i\omega_i = I_f\omega_f = \text{constant} \quad \textbf{(11.27)}$$