## <u>Chapter 8</u> <u>Rotational Motion I Chapter Review</u>

## EQUATIONS:

- $v = r \omega$  [This is the relationship between the magnitude of the velocity v of a point moving in a circular path of radius r and the magnitude of the motion's angular velocity  $\omega$  about the center of motion. Note that the center must be a *fixed point* in the system.]
- $a = r \alpha$  [This is the relationship between the magnitude of the acceleration *a* of a point moving in a circular path of radius *r* and the magnitude of the motion's angular acceleration  $\alpha$  about the center of motion. Note that the center must be a *fixed point* in the system.]
- $\omega = -5i$  [This is an angular velocity vector, where 5 is the magnitude, *i* is the direction of the *axis about which the rotation occurs*, and the negative sign signifies that the rotation is *clockwise* as viewed from the +*i* side of the coordinate axis.]
- $\alpha_{instantaneous} = \alpha_{average} = \alpha$  [If the angular acceleration is CONSTANT, the instantaneous angular acceleration and the average angular acceleration are equal. In such cases, both angular acceleration terms are characterized with an  $\alpha$ .]
- $\alpha = \frac{\Delta \omega}{\Delta t}$ , or  $\omega_2 = \omega_1 + \alpha t$  [This rotational kinematic equation comes from the fact that the instantaneous angular acceleration  $\alpha$  and the average angular acceleration  $\frac{\Delta \omega}{\Delta t}$  over any

interval will be the same, given the *angular acceleration* is *constant*. REMEMBER whenever you see a *time variable*, whether presented as *t* or  $\Delta t$ , you are *always* dealing with a TIME INTERVAL.]

- $\Delta \theta = \omega_1 t + \frac{1}{2} \alpha t^2$  or  $\theta_2 = \theta_1 + \omega_1 t + \frac{1}{2} \alpha t^2$  [This rotational kinematic equation relates angular displacement  $\Delta \theta$  (i.e., the change of angular position between *time 1* and *time 2*), the initial angular velocity  $\omega_1$  (i.e., the angular velocity at *time 1*), the angular acceleration  $\alpha$ , and the time interval *t*.]
- $\omega_2^2 = \omega_1^2 + 2\alpha(\theta_2 \theta_1)$  [This rotational kinematic equation relates angular velocities at two different points in time to the angular acceleration  $\alpha$  and the angular displacement  $\Delta \theta$  during that interval.]
- $\omega_{avg} = \frac{\omega_2 + \omega_1}{2}$  [This rotational kinematic equation is RARELY USED. It relates the average angular velocity  $\omega_{avg}$  over an interval to the initial and final angular velocities-- $\omega_1$  and  $\omega_2$ --associated with that interval.]

- $\Delta \theta = \omega_{avg} \Delta t$  [This rotational kinematic equation is RARELY USED. It relates the average angular velocity  $\omega_{avg}$  over time interval  $\Delta t$  to the angular displacement  $\Delta \theta$  during that time interval.]
- $I = \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i r_i^2$  [This is the definition of the moment of inertia of *n* discrete pieces of mass about a given axis, where  $m_i$  is the *i*<sup>th</sup> mass in the system and  $r_i$  is the perpendicular

about a given axis, where  $m_i$  is the  $i^{-1}$  mass in the system and  $r_i$  is the perpendicular distance (i.e., the shortest distance) between that mass and the axis in question.]

- $I = mr^2$  [This is the moment of inertia of a point mass *m* about an axis, where *r* is the perpendicular distance from the mass to the axis in question.]
- $I = \int r^2 dm$  [This expression is used to derive the moment of inertia of a continuous, solid object about some axis, where *r* is the perpendicular distance from the mass dm to the axis in question.]
- λ = mass/unit length = dm/dl [Called a linear density function, λ (lambda) is a RATIO that quantifies the amount of mass per unit length there is along some linear structure. Differentially, λ = dm/dl with dm being the differential mass involved in a differential length dl. The expression is useful because it allows you to express dm in terms of λ and dl, or dm = λdl. This function is used whenever there is mass variation in one dimension only, specifically for rod-like structures. If the structure is homogeneous (i.e., the mass is uniformly distributed throughout), λ also equals the total mass in the structure divided by the total length of the structure, or M/L. If the structure is inhomogeneous, M/L is nonsense and a function must be provided for λ (i.e., something like λ = kx, where k is a constant and x is a variable that defines the distance between dm and an axis of interest). In any case, the dm = λdl relationship is ALWAYS true.]

•  $\sigma = \frac{mass}{unit area} = \frac{dm}{dA}$  [Called an *area density function*,  $\sigma$  (sigma) is a RATIO that quantifies the amount of *mass per unit area* there is behind a given area on the surface of a body. Differentially,  $\sigma = \frac{dm}{dA}$  with dm being the differential mass behind the differential surface area dA. This function is used whenever there is mass variation in two dimensions, or in uniformly distributed three-dimensional situations that just *look* easier to do in two dimensions--a rectangular solid is a good example. The expression is useful because it allows you to write dm in terms  $\sigma$  and dA, or  $dm = \sigma dA$ . If the structure is homogeneous,  $\sigma$  is equal to the total mass within the structure divided by the total surface area of the structure, or M/A. If the structure is inhomogeneous, M/A is nonsense and a function is required to tell you how the density acts from point to point (something like  $\sigma = kr$ , where k is a constant and r is a distance variable that makes sense relative to the coordinate system). In any case, the  $dm = \sigma dA$  expression is ALWAYS true.] •  $\rho = \frac{mass}{unit volume} = \frac{dm}{dV}$  [Called a *volume density function*,  $\rho$  (rho) is a RATIO that quantifies the amount of *mass per unit volume* associated with a distribution of mass. Differentially,  $\rho = \frac{dm}{dV}$  with dm being the differential mass associated with the differential volume dV. The expression is useful because it allows you to write dm in terms of  $\rho$  and dV, or  $dm = \rho dV$ . If the structure is homogeneous (i.e., the mass is uniformly distributed throughout),  $\rho$  also equals the total mass in the structure divided by the total volume, or M/V. If, on the other hand, the structure is inhomogeneous, M/V is nonsense and a function for  $\rho$  must be provided (i.e., something like  $\rho = kr$ , where k is a constant and r is a variable that defines the distance between dm and an axis of interest). In any case, the  $dm = \rho dV$  expression is ALWAYS true.]

## COMMENTS, HINTS, and THINGS to be aware of:

- The rotational kinematic equations--what are they?
  - --These are rotational relationships between the angular displacement  $\Delta\theta$ , angular velocity  $\omega$ , angular acceleration  $\alpha$ , and time *t*, that are applicable ONLY when the angular acceleration is CONSTANT (i.e., when  $\alpha$  is not, say, a function of  $\theta$ ).
- $v = r \omega$  is predicated on the **assumption** that the angular velocity of an object is measured as the object sweeps circularly about a **fixed point**. The same is true of  $a = r \alpha$ .
- In theory, the **integral form** of the **moment of inertia** expression says the following: Take all of the mass you can find that is located within a tiny differential volume dV a distance r units from the axis in question (or, if you are using an area density function, within a tiny differential area dA a distance r units from the axis . . . or, if you are working with a linear density function, in a tiny differential length dr a distance r units from the axis), call that differential mass dm, multiply dm by  $r^2$ , do that for all possible r's, then sum (i.e., integrate--the final expression will look like  $I = \int r^2 dm$ ).