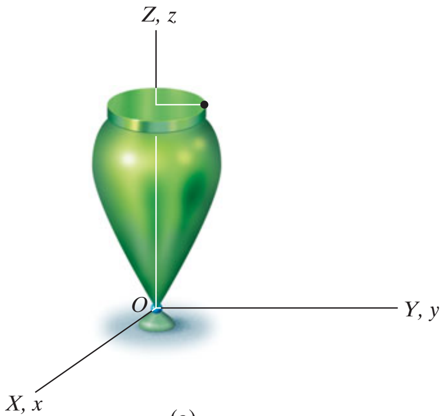
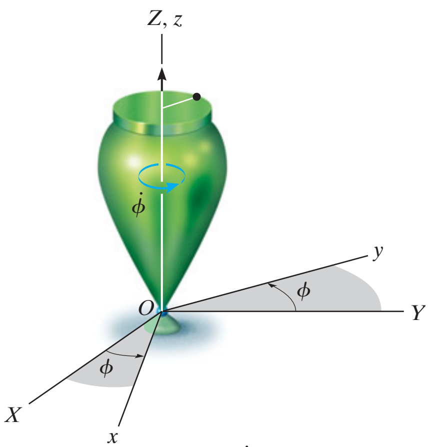


(a)



Precession $\dot{\phi}$

(b)

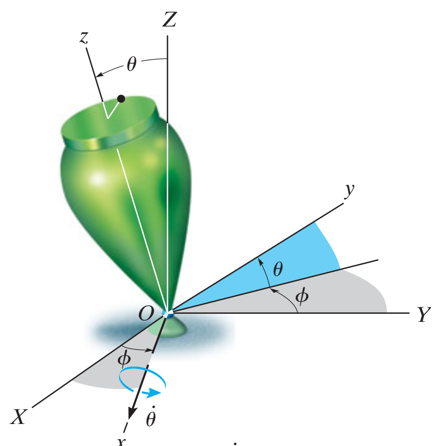
*21.5 Gyroscopic Motion

In this section we will develop the equations defining the motion of a body (top) which is symmetrical with respect to an axis and rotating about a fixed point. These equations also apply to the motion of a particularly interesting device, the gyroscope.

The body's motion will be analyzed using *Euler angles* ϕ, θ, ψ (phi, theta, psi). To illustrate how they define the position of a body, consider the top shown in Fig. 21–15*a*. To define its final position, Fig. 21–15*d*, a second set of *x, y, z* axes is fixed in the top. Starting with the *X, Y, Z* and *x, y, z* axes in coincidence, Fig. 21–15*a*, the final position of the top can be determined using the following three steps:

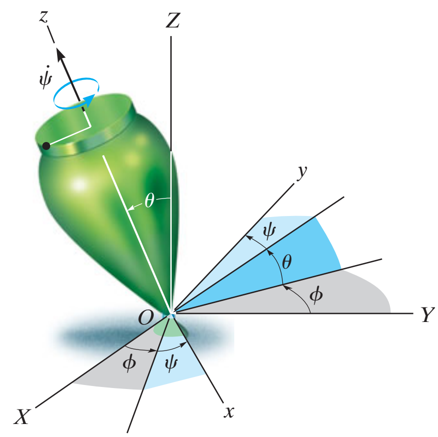
1. Rotate the top about the Z (or z) axis through an angle ϕ $(0 \leq \phi < 2\pi)$, Fig. 21–15*b*.
2. Rotate the top about the x axis through an angle θ $(0 \leq \theta \leq \pi)$, Fig. 21–15*c*.
3. Rotate the top about the z axis through an angle ψ $(0 \leq \psi < 2\pi)$ to obtain the final position, Fig. 20–15*d*.

The sequence of these three angles, ϕ, θ, then ψ, must be maintained, since finite rotations are *not vectors* (see Fig. 20–1). Although this is the case, the differential rotations $d\boldsymbol{\phi}$, $d\boldsymbol{\theta}$, and $d\boldsymbol{\psi}$ are vectors, and thus the angular velocity $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ of the top can be expressed in terms of the time derivatives of the Euler angles. The angular-velocity components $\dot{\phi}$, $\dot{\theta}$, and $\dot{\psi}$ are known as the *precession, nutation*, and *spin*, respectively.



Nutation $\dot{\theta}$

(c)



Spin $\dot{\psi}$

(d)

Fig. 21–15

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Their positive directions are shown in Fig. 21–16. It is seen that these vectors are not all perpendicular to one another; however, $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ of the top can still be expressed in terms of these three components.

Since the body (top) is symmetric with respect to the z or spin axis, there is no need to attach the x, y, z axes to the top since the inertial properties of the top will remain constant with respect to this frame during the motion. Therefore $\boldsymbol{\Omega} = \boldsymbol{\omega}_p + \boldsymbol{\omega}_n$, Fig. 21–16. Hence, the angular velocity of the body is

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{\omega} &= \omega_x\mathbf{i} + \omega_y\mathbf{j} + \omega_z\mathbf{k} \\ &= \dot{\theta}\mathbf{i} + (\dot{\phi}\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + (\dot{\phi}\cos\theta + \dot{\psi})\mathbf{k} \qquad (21\text{–}27)\end{aligned}$$

And the angular velocity of the axes is

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{\Omega} &= \Omega_x\mathbf{i} + \Omega_y\mathbf{j} + \Omega_z\mathbf{k} \\ &= \dot{\theta}\mathbf{i} + (\dot{\phi}\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + (\dot{\phi}\cos\theta)\mathbf{k} \qquad (21\text{–}28)\end{aligned}$$

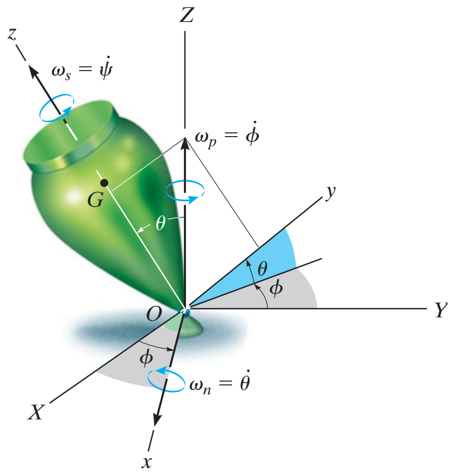

Fig. 21–16

Have the x, y, z axes represent principal axes of inertia for the top, and so the moments of inertia will be represented as $I_{xx} = I_{yy} = I$ and $I_{zz} = I_z$. Since $\boldsymbol{\Omega} \neq \boldsymbol{\omega}$, Eqs. 21–26 are used to establish the rotational equations of motion. Substituting into these equations the respective angular-velocity components defined by Eqs. 21–27 and 21–28, their corresponding time derivatives, and the moment of inertia components, yields

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma M_x &= I(\ddot{\theta} - \dot{\phi}^2\sin\theta\cos\theta) + I_z\dot{\phi}\sin\theta(\dot{\phi}\cos\theta + \dot{\psi}) \\ \Sigma M_y &= I(\ddot{\phi}\sin\theta + 2\dot{\phi}\dot{\theta}\cos\theta) - I_z\dot{\theta}(\dot{\phi}\cos\theta + \dot{\psi}) \qquad (21\text{–}29) \\ \Sigma M_z &= I_z(\ddot{\psi} + \ddot{\phi}\cos\theta - \dot{\phi}\dot{\theta}\sin\theta)\end{aligned}$$

Each moment summation applies only at the fixed point O or the center of mass G of the body. Since the equations represent a coupled set of nonlinear second-order differential equations, in general a closed-form solution may not be obtained. Instead, the Euler angles ϕ, θ, and ψ may be obtained graphically as functions of time using numerical analysis and computer techniques.

A special case, however, does exist for which simplification of Eqs. 21–29 is possible. Commonly referred to as *steady precession*, it occurs when the nutation angle θ, precession $\dot{\phi}$, and spin $\dot{\psi}$ all remain *constant*. Equations 21–29 then reduce to the form

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$$\boxed{\Sigma M_x = -I\dot{\phi}^2\sin\theta\cos\theta + I_z\dot{\phi}\sin\theta(\dot{\phi}\cos\theta + \dot{\psi})} \qquad (21\text{–}30)$$

$$\Sigma M_y = 0$$

$$\Sigma M_z = 0$$

Equation 21–30 can be further simplified by noting that, from Eq. 21–27, $\omega_z = \dot{\phi}\cos\theta + \dot{\psi}$, so that

$$\Sigma M_x = -I\dot{\phi}^2 \sin\theta\cos\theta + I_z\dot{\phi}\,(\sin\theta)\omega_z$$

or

$$\boxed{\Sigma M_x = \dot{\phi}\sin\theta(I_z\omega_z - I\dot{\phi}\cos\theta)} \qquad (21\text{–}31)$$

It is interesting to note what effects the spin $\dot{\psi}$ has on the moment about the x axis. To show this, consider the spinning rotor in Fig. 21–17. Here $\theta = 90°$, in which case Eq. 21–30 reduces to the form

$$\Sigma M_x = I_z\dot{\phi}\dot{\psi}$$

or

$$\boxed{\Sigma M_x = I_z\Omega_y\omega_z} \qquad (21\text{–}32)$$

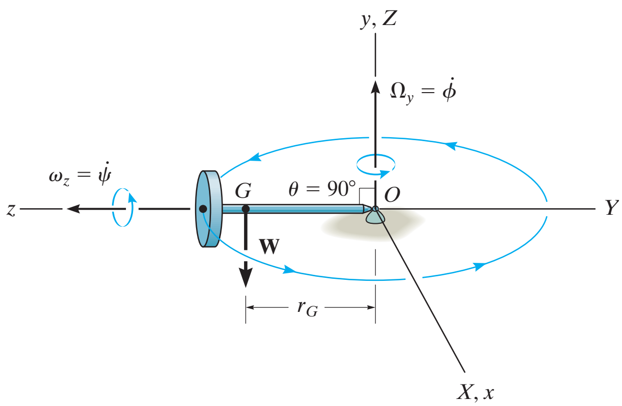


Fig. 21–17

From the figure it can be seen that $\mathbf{\Omega}_y$ and $\boldsymbol{\omega}_z$ act along their respective *positive axes* and therefore are mutually perpendicular. Instinctively, one would expect the rotor to fall down under the influence of gravity! However, this is not the case at all, provided the product $I_z\Omega_y\omega_z$ is correctly chosen to counterbalance the moment $\Sigma M_x = Wr_G$ of the rotor's weight about O. This unusual phenomenon of rigid-body motion is often referred to as the *gyroscopic effect*.

Perhaps a more intriguing demonstration of the gyroscopic effect comes from studying the action of a *gyroscope*, frequently referred to as a *gyro*. A gyro is a rotor which spins at a very high rate about its axis of symmetry. This rate of spin is considerably greater than its precessional rate of rotation about the vertical axis. Hence, for all practical purposes, the angular momentum of the gyro can be assumed directed along its axis of spin. Thus, for the gyro rotor shown in Fig. 21–18, $\omega_z \gg \Omega_y$, and the magnitude of the angular momentum about point O, as determined from Eqs. 21–11, reduces to the form $H_O = I_z\omega_z$. Since both the magnitude and direction of $\mathbf{H}_O$ are constant as observed from x, y, z, direct application of Eq. 21–22 yields

$$\boxed{\Sigma\mathbf{M}_x = \mathbf{\Omega}_y \times \mathbf{H}_O} \qquad (21\text{–}33)$$

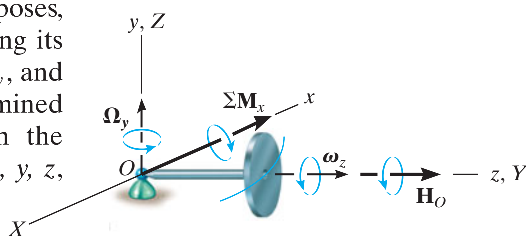
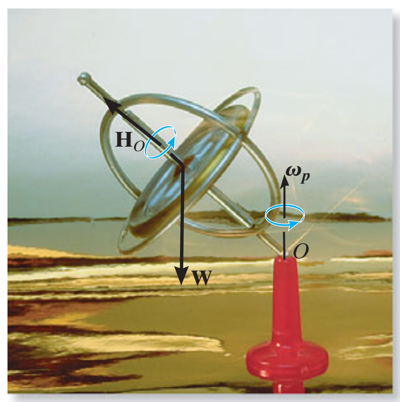


Fig. 21–18

Using the right-hand rule applied to the cross product, it can be seen that $\mathbf{\Omega}_y$ always swings $\mathbf{H}_O$ (or $\boldsymbol{\omega}_z$) toward the sense of $\Sigma\mathbf{M}_x$. In effect, the *change in direction* of the gyro's angular momentum, $d\mathbf{H}_O$, is equivalent to the angular impulse caused by the gyro's weight about O, i.e., $d\mathbf{H}_O = \Sigma\mathbf{M}_x\,dt$, Eq. 21–20. Also, since $H_O = I_z\omega_z$ and $\Sigma\mathbf{M}_x$, $\mathbf{\Omega}_y$, and $\mathbf{H}_O$ are mutually perpendicular, Eq. 21–33 reduces to Eq. 21–32.

When a gyro is mounted in gimbal rings, Fig. 21–19, it becomes *free* of external moments applied to its base. Thus, in theory, its angular momentum $\mathbf{H}$ will never precess but, instead, maintain its same fixed orientation along the axis of spin when the base is rotated. This type of gyroscope is called a *free gyro* and is useful as a gyrocompass when the spin axis of the gyro is directed north. In reality, the gimbal mechanism is never completely free of friction, so such a device is useful only for the local navigation of ships and aircraft. The gyroscopic effect is also useful as a means of stabilizing both the rolling motion of ships at sea and the trajectories of missiles and projectiles. Furthermore, this effect is of significant importance in the design of shafts and bearings for rotors which are subjected to forced precessions.



The spinning of the gyro within the frame of this toy gyroscope produces angular momentum $\mathbf{H}_O$, which is changing direction as the frame precesses $\boldsymbol{\omega}_p$ about the vertical axis. The gyroscope will not fall down since the moment of its weight $\mathbf{W}$ about the support is balanced by the change in the direction of $\mathbf{H}_O$.

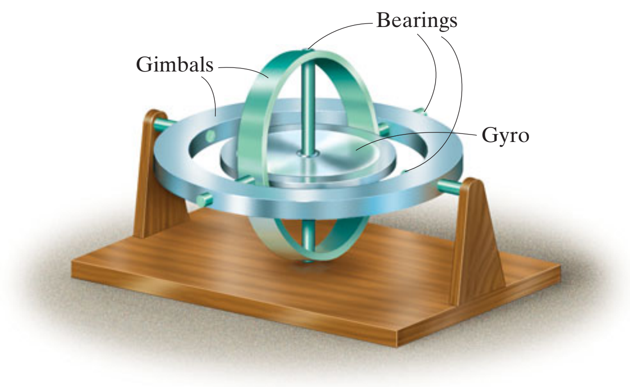


Fig. 21–19

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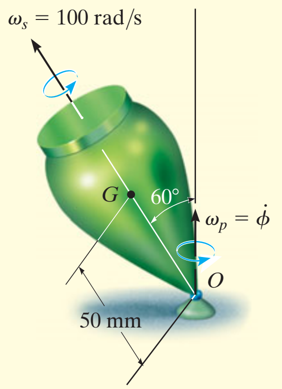
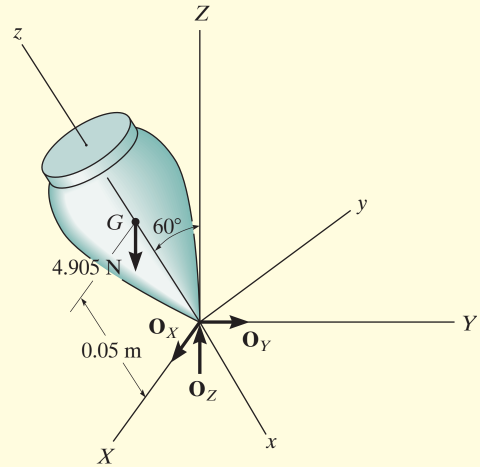
EXAMPLE 21.7



(a)

Fig. 21–20

The top shown in Fig. 21–20*a* has a mass of 0.5 kg and is precessing about the vertical axis at a constant angle of $\theta = 60°$. If it spins with an angular velocity $\omega_s = 100$ rad/s, determine the precession $\boldsymbol{\omega}_p$. Assume that the axial and transverse moments of inertia of the top are $0.45(10^{-3})\ \text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2$ and $1.20(10^{-3})\ \text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2$, respectively, measured with respect to the fixed point O.



(b)

SOLUTION

Equation 21–30 will be used for the solution since the motion is *steady precession*. As shown on the free-body diagram, Fig. 21–20*b*, the coordinate axes are established in the usual manner, that is, with the positive z axis in the direction of spin, the positive Z axis in the direction of precession, and the positive x axis in the direction of the moment ΣM_x (refer to Fig. 21–16). Thus,

$$\Sigma M_x = -I\dot{\phi}^2 \sin\theta\cos\theta + I_z\dot{\phi}\sin\theta(\dot{\phi}\cos\theta + \dot{\psi})$$

$$4.905\ \text{N}(0.05\ \text{m})\sin 60° = -[1.20(10^{-3})\ \text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2\ \dot{\phi}^2]\sin 60°\cos 60°$$

$$+\ [0.45(10^{-3})\ \text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2]\dot{\phi}\sin 60°(\dot{\phi}\cos 60° + 100\ \text{rad/s})$$

or

$$\dot{\phi}^2 - 120.0\dot{\phi} + 654.0 = 0 \qquad (1)$$

Solving this quadratic equation for the precession gives

$$\dot{\phi} = 114\ \text{rad/s} \qquad \text{(high precession)} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

and

$$\dot{\phi} = 5.72\ \text{rad/s} \qquad \text{(low precession)} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

NOTE: In reality, low precession of the top would generally be observed, since high precession would require a larger kinetic energy.

EXAMPLE 21.8

The 1-kg disk shown in Fig. 21–21*a* spins about its axis with a constant angular velocity $\omega_D = 70$ rad/s. The block at B has a mass of 2 kg, and by adjusting its position s one can change the precession of the disk about its supporting pivot at O while the shaft remains horizontal. Determine the position s that will enable the disk to have a constant precession $\omega_p = 0.5$ rad/s about the pivot. Neglect the weight of the shaft.

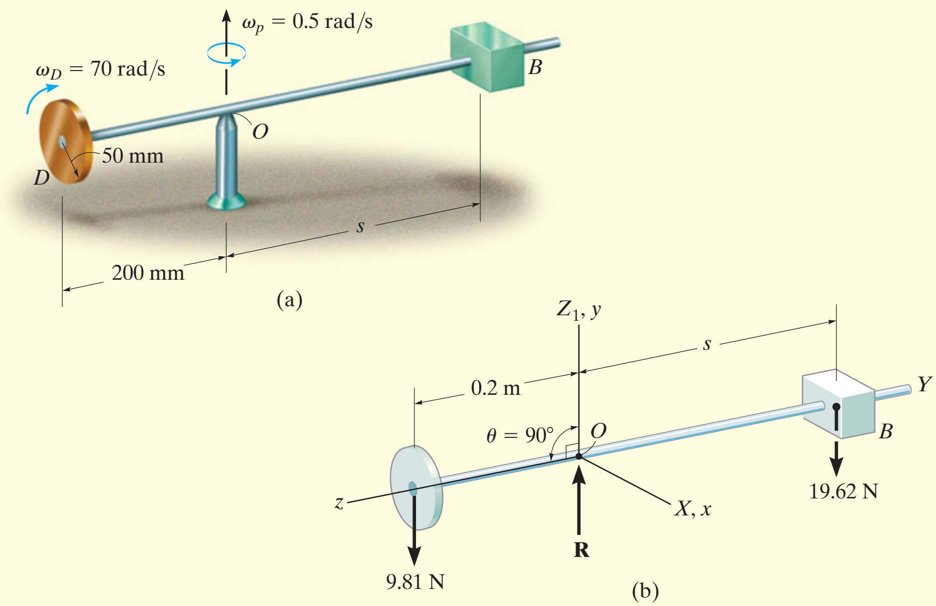


Fig. 21–21

SOLUTION

The free-body diagram of the assembly is shown in Fig. 21–21*b*. The origin for both the x, y, z and X, Y, Z coordinate systems is located at the fixed point O. In the conventional sense, the Z axis is chosen along the axis of precession, and the z axis is along the axis of spin, so that $\theta = 90°$. Since the precession is *steady*, Eq. 21–32 can be used for the solution.

$$\Sigma M_x = I_z \Omega_y \omega_z$$

Substituting the required data gives

$$(98.1 \text{ N})\,(0.2 \text{ m}) - (19.62 \text{ N})s = \left[\tfrac{1}{2}(1 \text{ kg})(0.05 \text{ m})^2\right]0.5 \text{ rad/s}(-70 \text{ rad/s})$$

$$s = 0.102 \text{ m} = 102 \text{ mm} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

21

21.6 Torque-Free Motion

When the only external force acting on a body is caused by gravity, the general motion of the body is referred to as *torque-free motion*. This type of motion is characteristic of planets, artificial satellites, and projectiles—provided air friction is neglected.

In order to describe the characteristics of this motion, the distribution of the body's mass will be assumed *axisymmetric*. The satellite shown in Fig. 21–22 is an example of such a body, where the z axis represents an axis of symmetry. The origin of the x, y, z coordinates is located at the mass center G, such that $I_{zz} = I_z$ and $I_{xx} = I_{yy} = I$. Since gravity is the only external force present, the summation of moments about the mass center is zero. From Eq. 21–21, this requires the angular momentum of the body to be constant, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{H}_G = \text{constant}$$

At the instant considered, it will be assumed that the inertial frame of reference is oriented so that the positive Z axis is directed along $\mathbf{H}_G$ and the y axis lies in the plane formed by the z and Z axes, Fig. 21–22. The Euler angle formed between Z and z is θ, and therefore, with this choice of axes the angular momentum can be expressed as

$$\mathbf{H}_G = H_G \sin\theta\,\mathbf{j} + H_G \cos\theta\,\mathbf{k}$$

Furthermore, using Eqs. 21–11, we have

$$\mathbf{H}_G = I\omega_x\mathbf{i} + I\omega_y\mathbf{j} + I_z\omega_z\mathbf{k}$$

Equating the respective $\mathbf{i}$, $\mathbf{j}$, and $\mathbf{k}$ components of the above two equations yields

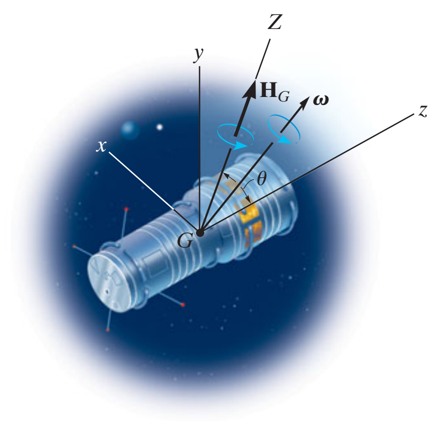


Fig. 21–22

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$$\omega_x = 0 \qquad \omega_y = \frac{H_G \sin\theta}{I} \qquad \omega_z = \frac{H_G \cos\theta}{I_z} \tag{21–34}$$

or

$$\boxed{\boldsymbol{\omega} = \frac{H_G \sin\theta}{I}\mathbf{j} + \frac{H_G \cos\theta}{I_z}\mathbf{k}} \tag{21–35}$$

In a similar manner, equating the respective **i**, **j**, **k** components of Eq. 21–27 to those of Eq. 21–34, we obtain

$$\dot{\theta} = 0$$
$$\dot{\phi}\sin\theta = \frac{H_G \sin\theta}{I}$$
$$\dot{\phi}\cos\theta + \dot{\psi} = \frac{H_G \cos\theta}{I_z}$$

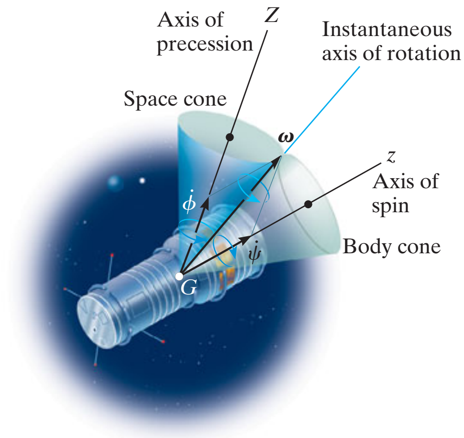
Solving, we get

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} \theta &= \text{constant} \\ \dot{\phi} &= \frac{H_G}{I} \\ \dot{\psi} &= \frac{I - I_z}{I I_z} H_G \cos\theta \end{aligned}} \tag{21–36}$$

Thus, for torque-free motion of an axisymmetrical body, the angle θ formed between the angular-momentum vector and the spin of the body remains constant. Furthermore, the angular momentum $\mathbf{H}_G$, precession $\dot{\phi}$, and spin $\dot{\psi}$ for the body remain constant at all times during the motion.

Eliminating H_G from the second and third of Eqs. 21–36 yields the following relation between the spin and precession:

$$\boxed{\dot{\psi} = \frac{I - I_z}{I_z}\dot{\phi}\cos\theta} \tag{21–37}$$



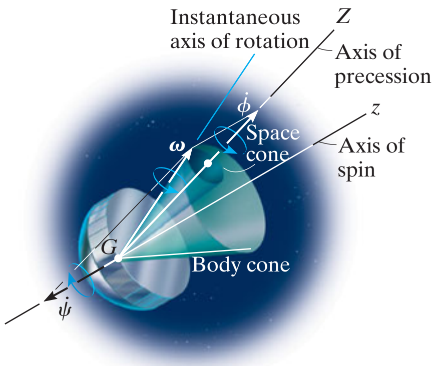
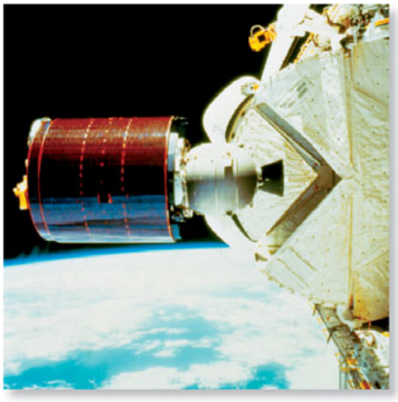


Fig. 21–23

These two components of angular motion can be studied by using the body and space cone models introduced in Sec. 20.1. The *space cone* defining the precession is fixed from rotating, since the precession has a fixed direction, while the outer surface of the *body cone* rolls on the space cone's outer surface. Try to imagine this motion in Fig. 21–23*a*. The interior angle of each cone is chosen such that the resultant angular velocity of the body is directed along the line of contact of the two cones. This line of contact represents the instantaneous axis of rotation for the body cone, and hence the angular velocity of both the body cone and the body must be directed along this line. Since the spin is a function of the moments of inertia I and I_z of the body, Eq. 21–36, the cone model in Fig. 21–23*a* is satisfactory for describing the motion, provided $I > I_z$. Torque-free motion which meets these requirements is called *regular precession*. If $I < I_z$, the spin is negative and the precession positive. This motion is represented by the satellite motion shown in Fig. 21–23*b* ($I < I_z$). The cone model can again be used to represent the motion; however, to preserve the correct vector addition of spin and precession to obtain the angular velocity $\boldsymbol{\omega}$, the inside surface of the body cone must roll on the outside surface of the (fixed) space cone. This motion is referred to as *retrograde precession*.

Satellites are often given a spin before they are launched. If their angular momentum is not collinear with the axis of spin, they will exhibit precession. In the photo on the left, regular precession will occur since $I > I_z$, and in the photo on the right, retrograde precession will occur since $I < I_z$.



EXAMPLE 21.9

The motion of a football is observed using a slow-motion projector. From the film, the spin of the football is seen to be directed 30° from the horizontal, as shown in Fig. 21–24*a*. Also, the football is precessing about the vertical axis at a rate $\dot{\phi} = 3$ rad/s. If the ratio of the axial to transverse moments of inertia of the football is $\frac{1}{3}$, measured with respect to the center of mass, determine the magnitude of the football's spin and its angular velocity. Neglect the effect of air resistance.

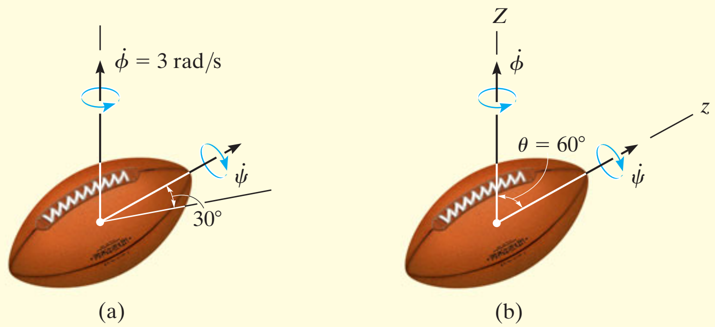


Fig. 21–24

SOLUTION

Since the weight of the football is the only force acting, the motion is torque-free. In the conventional sense, if the z axis is established along the axis of spin and the Z axis along the precession axis, as shown in Fig. 21–24*b*, then the angle $\theta = 60°$. Applying Eq. 21–37, the spin is

$$\dot{\psi} = \frac{I - I_z}{I_z}\dot{\phi}\cos\theta = \frac{I - \frac{1}{3}I}{\frac{1}{3}I}(3)\cos 60°$$

$$= 3 \text{ rad/s} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

Using Eqs. 21–34, where $H_G = \dot{\phi}I$ (Eq. 21–36), we have

$$\omega_x = 0$$

$$\omega_y = \frac{H_G \sin\theta}{I} = \frac{3I\sin 60°}{I} = 2.60 \text{ rad/s}$$

$$\omega_z = \frac{H_G\cos\theta}{I_z} = \frac{3I\cos 60°}{\frac{1}{3}I} = 4.50 \text{ rad/s}$$

Thus,

$$\omega = \sqrt{(\omega_x)^2 + (\omega_y)^2 + (\omega_z)^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{(0)^2 + (2.60)^2 + (4.50)^2}$$

$$= 5.20 \text{ rad/s} \qquad \textit{Ans.}$$

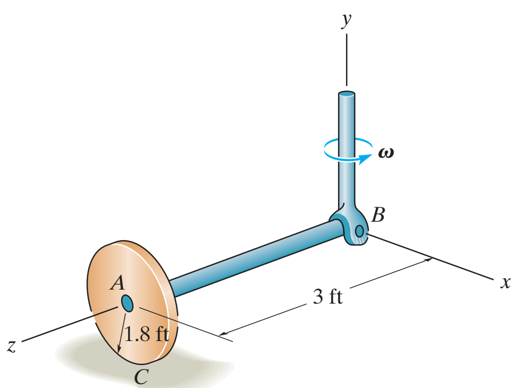
PROBLEMS

21–61. Show that the angular velocity of a body, in terms of Euler angles ϕ, θ, and ψ, can be expressed as $\omega = (\dot{\phi}\sin\theta\sin\psi + \dot{\theta}\cos\psi)\mathbf{i} + (\dot{\phi}\sin\theta\cos\psi - \dot{\theta}\sin\psi)\mathbf{j} + (\dot{\phi}\cos\theta + \dot{\psi})\mathbf{k}$, where $\mathbf{i}$, $\mathbf{j}$, and $\mathbf{k}$ are directed along the x, y, z axes as shown in Fig. 21–15*d*.

21–62. A thin rod is initially coincident with the Z axis when it is given three rotations defined by the Euler angles $\phi = 30°$, $\theta = 45°$, and $\psi = 60°$. If these rotations are given in the order stated, determine the coordinate direction angles α, β, γ of the axis of the rod with respect to the X, Y, and Z axes. Are these directions the same for any order of the rotations? Why?

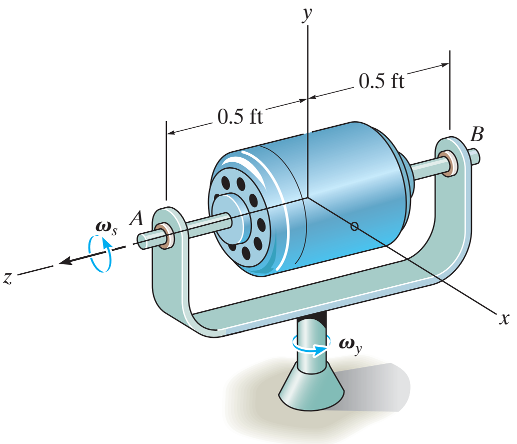
21–63. The 30-lb wheel rolls without slipping. If it has a radius of gyration $k_{AB} = 1.2$ ft about its axle AB, and the vertical drive shaft is turning at 8 rad/s, determine the normal reaction the wheel exerts on the ground at C. Neglect the mass of the axle.

***21–64.** The 30-lb wheel rolls without slipping. If it has a radius of gyration $k_{AB} = 1.2$ ft about its axle AB, determine its angular velocity $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ so that the normal reaction at C becomes 60 lb. Neglect the mass of the axle.



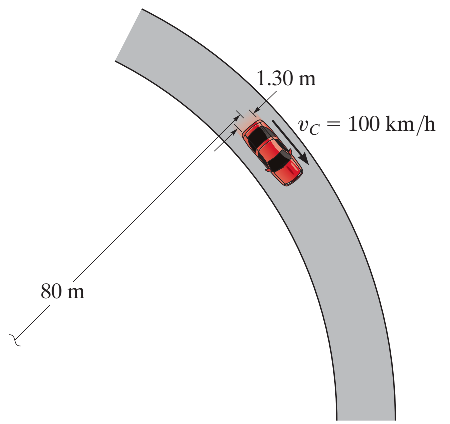
Probs. 21–63/64

•**21–65.** The motor weighs 50 lb and has a radius of gyration of 0.2 ft about the z axis. The shaft of the motor is supported by bearings at A and B, and spins at a constant rate of $\boldsymbol{\omega}_s = \{100\mathbf{k}\}$ rad/s, while the frame has an angular velocity of $\boldsymbol{\omega}_y = \{2\mathbf{j}\}$ rad/s. Determine the moment which the bearing forces at A and B exert on the shaft due to this motion.



Prob. 21–65

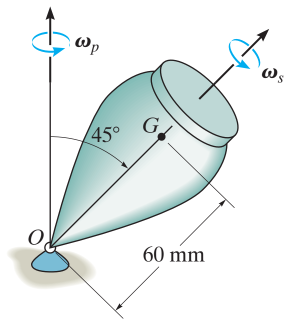
21–66. The car travels at a constant speed of $v_C = 100$ km/h around the horizontal curve having a radius of 80 m. If each wheel has a mass of 16 kg, a radius of gyration $k_G = 300$ mm about its spinning axis, and a radius of 400 mm, determine the difference between the normal forces of the rear wheels, caused by the gyroscopic effect. The distance between the wheels is 1.30 m.



Prob. 21–66

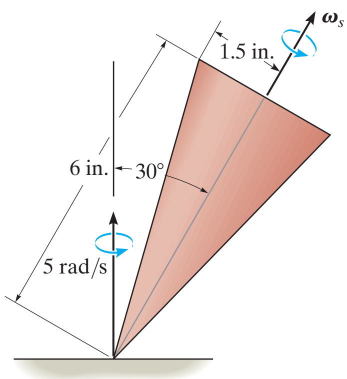
21

21–67. The top has a mass of 90 g, a center of mass at G, and a radius of gyration $k = 18$ mm about its axis of symmetry. About any transverse axis acting through point O the radius of gyration is $k_t = 35$ mm. If the top is connected to a ball-and-socket joint at O and the precession is $\omega_p = 0.5$ rad/s, determine the spin $\boldsymbol{\omega}_s$.



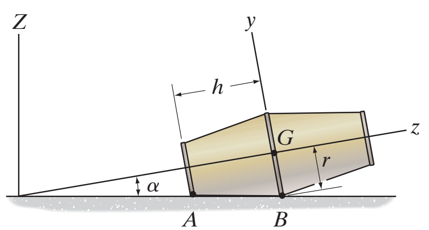
Prob. 21–67

*__21–68.__ The top has a weight of 3 lb and can be considered as a solid cone. If it is observed to precess about the vertical axis at a constant rate of 5 rad/s, determine its spin.



Prob. 21–68

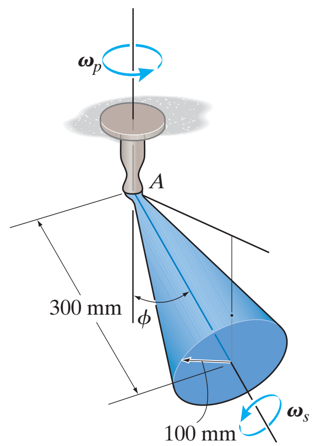
•**21–69.** The empty aluminum beer keg has a mass of m, center of mass at G, and radii of gyration about the x and y axes of $k_x = k_y = \frac{5}{4}r$, and about the z axis of $k_z = \frac{1}{4}r$, respectively. If the keg rolls without slipping with a constant angular velocity, determine its largest value without having the rim A leave the floor.



Prob. 21–69

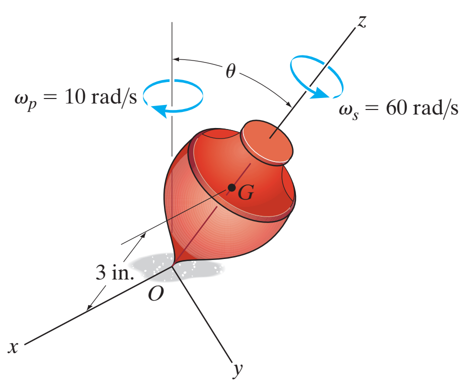
21–70. The 10-kg cone spins at a constant rate of $\omega_s = 150$ rad/s. Determine the constant rate ω_p at which it precesses if $\phi = 90°$.

21–71. The 10-kg cone is spinning at a constant rate of $\omega_s = 150$ rad/s. Determine the constant rate ω_p at which it precesses if $\phi = 30°$.



Probs. 21–70/71

*__21–72.__ The 1-lb top has a center of gravity at point G. If it spins about its axis of symmetry and precesses about the vertical axis at constant rates of $\omega_s = 60$ rad/s and $\omega_p = 10$ rad/s, respectively, determine the steady state angle θ. The radius of gyration of the top about the z axis is $k_z = 1$ in., and about the x and y axes it is $k_x = k_y = 4$ in.



Prob. 21–72

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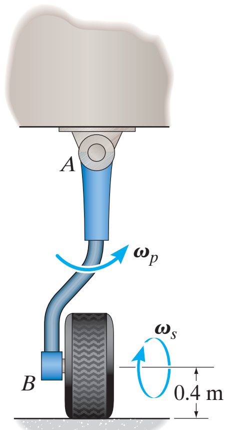
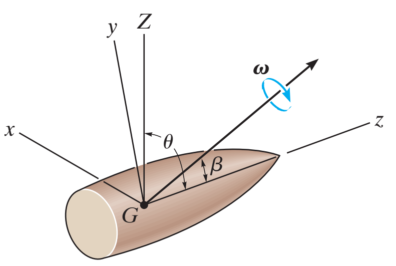
•**21–73.** At the moment of take off, the landing gear of an airplane is retracted with a constant angular velocity of $\omega_p = 2$ rad/s, while the wheel continues to spin. If the plane takes off with a speed of $v = 320$ km/h, determine the torque at A due to the gyroscopic effect. The wheel has a mass of 50 kg, and the radius of gyration about its spinning axis is $k = 300$ mm.



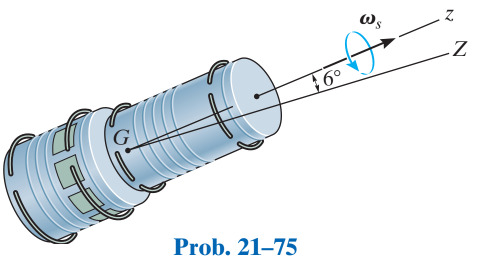
Prob. 21–73

21–74. The projectile shown is subjected to torque-free motion. The transverse and axial moments of inertia are I and I_z, respectively. If θ represents the angle between the precessional axis Z and the axis of symmetry z, and β is the angle between the angular velocity $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ and the z axis, show that β and θ are related by the equation $\tan\theta = (I/I_z)\tan\beta$.



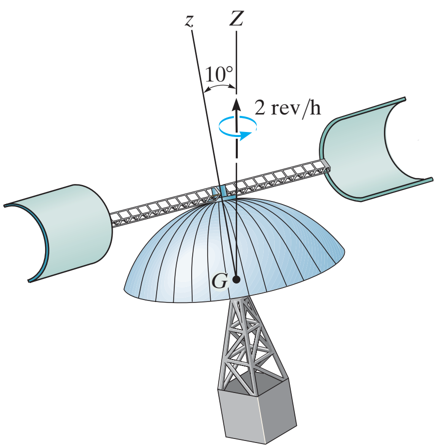
Prob. 21–74

21–75. The space capsule has a mass of 3.2 Mg, and about axes passing through the mass center G the axial and transverse radii of gyration are $k_z = 0.90$ m and $k_t = 1.85$ m, respectively. If it spins at $\omega_s = 0.8$ rev/s, determine its angular momentum. Precession occurs about the Z axis.



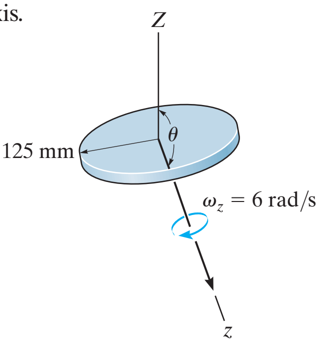
Prob. 21–75

*__21–76.__ The radius of gyration about an axis passing through the axis of symmetry of the 2.5-Mg satellite is $k_z = 2.3$ m, and about any transverse axis passing through the center of mass G, $k_t = 3.4$ m. If the satellite has a steady-state precession of two revolutions per hour about the Z axis, determine the rate of spin about the z axis.



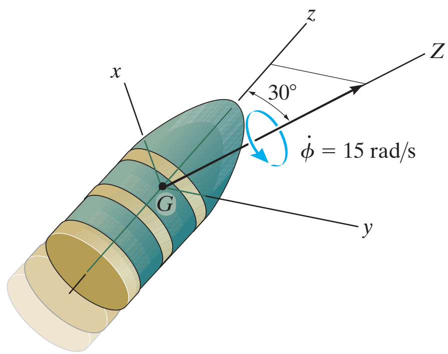
Prob. 21–76

•**21–77.** The 4-kg disk is thrown with a spin $\omega_z = 6$ rad/s. If the angle θ is measured as 160°, determine the precession about the Z axis.



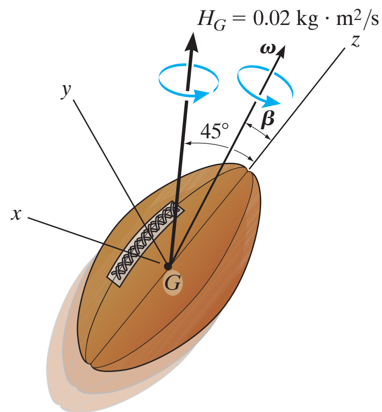
Prob. 21–77

21–78. The projectile precesses about the Z axis at a constant rate of $\dot{\phi} = 15$ rad/s when it leaves the barrel of a gun. Determine its spin $\dot{\psi}$ and the magnitude of its angular momentum $\mathbf{H}_G$. The projectile has a mass of 1.5 kg and radii of gyration about its axis of symmetry (z axis) and about its transverse axes (x and y axes) of $k_z = 65$ mm and $k_x = k_y = 125$ mm, respectively.



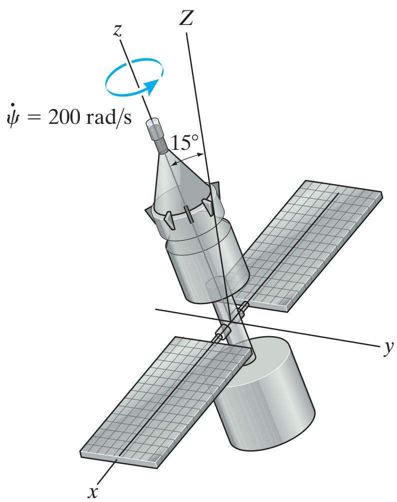
Prob. 21–78

*__21–80.__ The football has a mass of 450 g and radii of gyration about its axis of symmetry (z axis) and its transverse axes (x or y axis) of $k_z = 30$ mm and $k_x = k_y = 50$ mm, respectively. If the football has an angular momentum of $H_G = 0.02\ \text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}$, determine its precession $\dot{\phi}$ and spin $\dot{\psi}$. Also, find the angle β that the angular velocity vector makes with the z axis.



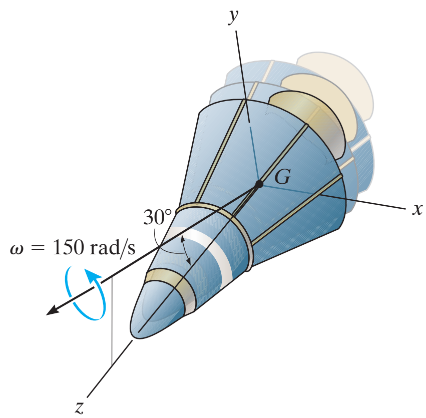
Prob. 21–80

21–79. The satellite has a mass of 100 kg and radii of gyration about its axis of symmetry (z axis) and its transverse axes (x or y axis) of $k_z = 300$ mm and $k_x = k_y = 900$ mm, respectively. If the satellite spins about the z axis at a constant rate of $\dot{\psi} = 200$ rad/s, and precesses about the Z axis, determine the precession $\dot{\phi}$ and the magnitude of its angular momentum $\mathbf{H}_G$.



Prob. 21–79

•**21–81.** The space capsule has a mass of 2 Mg, center of mass at G, and radii of gyration about its axis of symmetry (z axis) and its transverse axes (x or y axis) of $k_z = 2.75$ m and $k_x = k_y = 5.5$ m, respectively. If the capsule has the angular velocity shown, determine its precession $\dot{\phi}$ and spin $\dot{\psi}$. Indicate whether the precession is regular or retrograde. Also, draw the space cone and body cone for the motion.



Prob. 21–81

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CHAPTER REVIEW

Moments and Products of Inertia
A body has six components of inertia for any specified x, y, z axes. Three of these are moments of inertia about each of the axes, I_{xx}, I_{yy}, I_{zz}, and three are products of inertia, each defined from two orthogonal planes, I_{xy}, I_{yz}, I_{xz}. If either one or both of these planes are planes of symmetry, then the product of inertia with respect to these planes will be zero.

$$I_{xx} = \int_m r_x^2\,dm = \int_m (y^2 + z^2)\,dm \qquad I_{xy} = I_{yx} = \int_m xy\,dm$$

$$I_{yy} = \int_m r_y^2\,dm = \int_m (x^2 + z^2)\,dm \qquad I_{yz} = I_{zy} = \int_m yz\,dm$$

$$I_{zz} = \int_m r_z^2\,dm = \int_m (x^2 + y^2)\,dm \qquad I_{xz} = I_{zx} = \int_m xz\,dm$$

The moments and products of inertia can be determined by direct integration or by using tabulated values. If these quantities are to be determined with respect to axes or planes that do not pass through the mass center, then parallel-axis and parallel-plane theorems must be used.

Provided the six components of inertia are known, then the moment of inertia about any axis can be determined using the inertia transformation equation.

$$I_{Oa} = I_{xx}u_x^2 + I_{yy}u_y^2 + I_{zz}u_z^2 - 2I_{xy}u_xu_y - 2I_{yz}u_yu_z - 2I_{zx}u_zu_x$$

Principal Moments of Inertia
At any point on or off the body, the x, y, z axes can be oriented so that the products of inertia will be zero. The resulting moments of inertia are called the principal moments of inertia, one of which will be a maximum and the other a minimum.

$$\begin{pmatrix} I_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & I_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I_z \end{pmatrix}$$

Principle of Impulse and Momentum
The angular momentum for a body can be determined about any arbitrary point A.

Once the linear and angular momentum for the body have been formulated, then the principle of impulse and momentum can be used to solve problems that involve force, velocity, and time.

$$m(\mathbf{v}_G)_1 + \Sigma\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \mathbf{F}\,dt = m(\mathbf{v}_G)_2 \qquad (\mathbf{H}_O)_1 + \Sigma\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \mathbf{M}_O\,dt = (\mathbf{H}_O)_2$$

$$\mathbf{H}_O = \int_m \boldsymbol{\rho}_O \times (\boldsymbol{\omega} \times \boldsymbol{\rho}_O)\,dm$$

Fixed Point O

$$\mathbf{H}_G = \int_m \boldsymbol{\rho}_G \times (\boldsymbol{\omega} \times \boldsymbol{\rho}_G)\,dm$$

Center of Mass

$$\mathbf{H}_A = \boldsymbol{\rho}_{G/A} \times m\mathbf{v}_G + \mathbf{H}_G$$

Arbitrary Point

where

$$H_x = I_{xx}\omega_x - I_{xy}\omega_y - I_{xz}\omega_z$$
$$H_y = -I_{yx}\omega_x + I_{yy}\omega_y - I_{yz}\omega_z$$
$$H_z = -I_{zx}\omega_x - I_{zy}\omega_y + I_{zz}\omega_z$$

Principle of Work and Energy
The kinetic energy for a body is usually determined relative to a fixed point or the body's mass center.

$$T = \tfrac{1}{2}I_x\omega_x^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}I_y\omega_y^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}I_z\omega_z^2$$

Fixed Point

$$T = \tfrac{1}{2}mv_G^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}I_x\omega_x^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}I_y\omega_y^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}I_z\omega_z^2$$

Center of Mass

These formulations can be used with the principle of work and energy to solve problems that involve force, velocity, and displacement.

$$T_1 + \Sigma U_{1-2} = T_2$$

Equations of Motion

There are three scalar equations of translational motion for a rigid body that moves in three dimensions.

$$\Sigma F_x = m(a_G)_x$$
$$\Sigma F_y = m(a_G)_y$$
$$\Sigma F_z = m(a_G)_z$$

The three scalar equations of rotational motion depend upon the motion of the x, y, z reference. Most often, these axes are oriented so that they are principal axes of inertia. If the axes are fixed in and move with the body so that $\Omega = \omega$, then the equations are referred to as the Euler equations of motion.

$$\Sigma M_x = I_x\dot{\omega}_x - (I_y - I_z)\omega_y\omega_z$$
$$\Sigma M_y = I_y\dot{\omega}_y - (I_z - I_x)\omega_z\omega_x$$
$$\Sigma M_z = I_z\dot{\omega}_z - (I_x - I_y)\omega_x\omega_y$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Omega} = \boldsymbol{\omega}$$

$$\Sigma M_x = I_x\dot{\omega}_x - I_y\Omega_z\omega_y + I_z\Omega_y\omega_z$$
$$\Sigma M_y = I_y\dot{\omega}_y - I_z\Omega_x\omega_z + I_x\Omega_z\omega_x$$
$$\Sigma M_z = I_z\dot{\omega}_z - I_x\Omega_y\omega_x + I_y\Omega_x\omega_y$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Omega} \neq \boldsymbol{\omega}$$

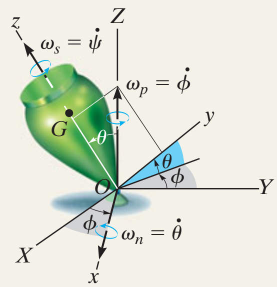
A free-body diagram should always accompany the application of the equations of motion.

Gyroscopic Motion

The angular motion of a gyroscope is best described using the three Euler angles ϕ, θ, and ψ. The angular velocity components are called the precession $\dot{\phi}$, the nutation $\dot{\theta}$, and the spin $\dot{\psi}$.

If $\dot{\theta} = 0$ and $\dot{\phi}$ and $\dot{\psi}$ are constant, then the motion is referred to as steady precession.

It is the spin of a gyro rotor that is responsible for holding a rotor from falling downward, and instead causing it to precess about a vertical axis. This phenomenon is called the gyroscopic effect.



$$\Sigma M_x = -I\dot{\phi}^2 \sin\theta\cos\theta + I_z\dot{\phi}\sin\theta(\dot{\phi}\cos\theta + \dot{\psi})$$

$$\Sigma M_y = 0,\ \Sigma M_z = 0$$

Torque-Free Motion

A body that is only subjected to a gravitational force will have no moments on it about its mass center, and so the motion is described as torque-free motion. The angular momentum for the body about its mass center will remain constant. This causes the body to have both a spin and a precession. The motion depends upon the magnitude of the moment of inertia of a symmetric body about the spin axis, I_z, versus that about a perpendicular axis, I.

$$\theta = \text{constant}$$

$$\dot{\phi} = \frac{H_G}{I}$$

$$\dot{\psi} = \frac{I - I_z}{II_z} H_G \cos\theta$$

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