## Principal Moments of Inertia

The moment of inertia  $I_{\mathbf{u}}$  of a solid body V rotating about an axis through the origin in the direction given by the unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$  (counter clockwise when viewed point-on) is the scalar

$$I_{\mathbf{u}} = \int_{V} r^{2} dm = \int_{V} (\mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{u})^{2} dm = \int_{V} (\mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{u})^{2} \rho d\mathbf{x}, \qquad (1)$$

where  $\rho = \rho(\mathbf{x})$  is mass density. The rotational kinetic energy of this body is then

$$T = \frac{\omega^2 I_{\mathbf{u}}}{2},\tag{2}$$

where  $\omega$  is the angular velocity of rotation.

By carrying out the integrations in (1) this moment of inertia is realized by a quadratic form:

$$I_{\mathbf{u}} = \mathbf{u}^T A \mathbf{u}, \tag{3}$$

where  $A^T = A$ . By the spectral theorem we may perform a distance-preserving change of coordinates  $P = (\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_3), P^T P = I$ , so that the form (3) giving the moment of inertia (1) is now diagonal:

$$I_{\mathbf{u}'} = \mathbf{u}'^T \begin{pmatrix} I_1 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & I_2 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & I_3 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{u}'$$
(4)

with  $I_1 \ge I_2 \ge I_3 > 0$ . The eigenvalues  $I_1, I_2, I_3$  are called the *principal moments* of inertia. Their associated eigenvectors  $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_3$  are called the *principal axes*.<sup>1</sup>

**Example.** Think about an American football: One principal axis  $\mathbf{u}_3$  is along the long axis, and the other two principal axes  $\mathbf{u}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{u}_2$  are in the 'equatorial plane,' with  $I_1 = I_2 > I_3$ .

The Charon Principal. If  $I_1 > I_2 > I_3$ , then rotation about the intermediate axis is unstable—asteroids tumble! (See Ian Stewart.)

Question. Are we sure that the orthogonal change of coordinates P has preserved the right-handedness of the coordinate system?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This is historically the form in which the spectral theorem first appeared.

**Fact.** Suppose we have brought the symmetric  $3 \times 3$  matrix A to diagonal form:

$$P^{-1}AP = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3) = \Lambda,$$

where P is orthogonal, i.e.,  $P^{-1} = P^T$ . Then there is a more careful choice of P that is a rotation about some axis.

**Proof.** We may exchange two columns of P, if necessary, to ensure that P has determinant 1. Swapping two columns of P only changes the order of two of the eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$  along the diagonal of  $\Lambda$ . In symbols, if E is the elementary matrix swapping the two columns, then because  $AP = P\Lambda$ , we have  $APE = P\Lambda E = PE(E^T\Lambda E)$ .

Because P is orthogonal, all its eigenvalues lie on the unit circle. Since n = 3, one or all three must be real. But since P has determinant 1, one eigenvalue belonging to a unit eigenvector  $w_0$  must be 1. We now show P is rotation about  $w_0$ .

Because P is orthogonal, it is normal, and hence eigenspaces of P are reducing. In particular, the subspace S orthogonal to  $w_0$  is invariant under P. Find two perpendicular unit vectors  $u_0, v_0 \in S$ . Then with respect this basis P has matrix

$$O^{-1}PO = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a & b \\ 0 & c & d \end{bmatrix},$$

where the lower right  $2 \times 2$  block Q has determinant 1.

The othogonal map P when cut back to S is again orthogonal, hence

$$Q^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} = Q^T = \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence a = d and b = -c giving  $1 = ad - bc = a^2 + b^2$ . Thus  $a = \cos \theta$  and  $b = -\sin \theta$ . Thus P cut back to the plane S is a rotation. Hence P is a rotation about  $w_0$ .