

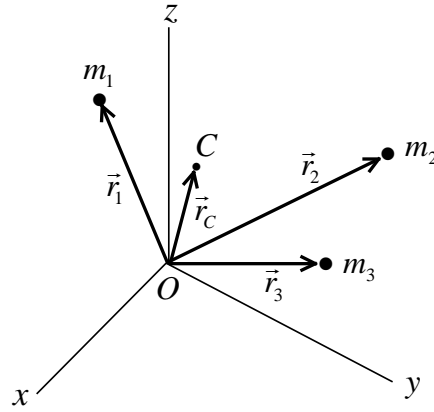
Center of mass of a system of particles

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1. Definition of the center of mass

Consider a system of particles of masses m_1, m_2, m_3, \dots . Assume that at some particular moment the particles are located at the points of space with corresponding position vectors $\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, \vec{r}_3, \dots$, relative to a reference point O which is typically chosen to be the origin of an inertial¹ frame of reference (see figure).



The total mass of the system is

$$M = m_1 + m_2 + m_3 + \dots = \sum_i m_i \quad (1)$$

The *center of mass* of the system is defined as the point C of space having the position vector

$$\vec{r}_C = \frac{1}{M} (m_1 \vec{r}_1 + m_2 \vec{r}_2 + \dots) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_i m_i \vec{r}_i \quad (2)$$

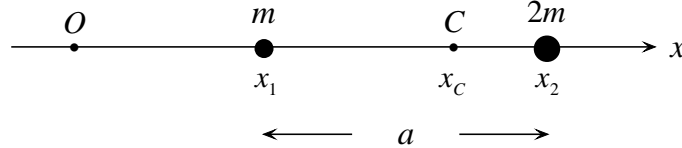
In relation (2) the position vectors of the particles and of the center of mass are defined with respect to the fixed origin O of our coordinate system. If we choose a different reference point O' , these position vectors will, of course, change. However, as will be shown below, the position of the center of mass C *relative to the system of particles* will remain the same, regardless of the choice of reference point.

¹ At least, insofar as Newton's laws are to be used.

If (x_i, y_i, z_i) and (x_C, y_C, z_C) are the coordinates of m_i and C , respectively, we can replace the vector relation (2) with three scalar equations:

$$x_C = \frac{1}{M} \sum_i m_i x_i, \quad y_C = \frac{1}{M} \sum_i m_i y_i, \quad z_C = \frac{1}{M} \sum_i m_i z_i \quad (3)$$

As an example, consider two particles of masses $m_1=m$ and $m_2=2m$, located at points x_1 and x_2 of the x -axis. Call $a = x_2 - x_1$ the distance between these particles:



The total mass of the system is $M=m_1+m_2=3m$. From relations (3) it follows that the center of mass C of the system is located on the x -axis. Indeed, $y_i=z_i=0$ ($i=1,2$) so that $y_C=z_C=0$ (the y and z -axes have not been drawn). Furthermore,

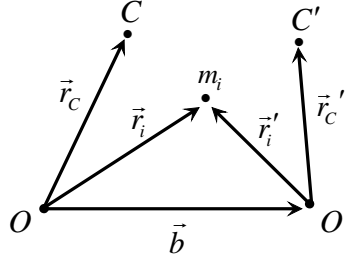
$$x_C = \frac{1}{M} (m_1 x_1 + m_2 x_2) = \frac{1}{3} (x_1 + 2x_2) = x_1 + \frac{2}{3} a$$

where we have used the fact that $x_2 = x_1 + a$. Thus, the center of mass C is located at a distance $2a/3$ from m . Note that the position of C relative to the system of particles does not depend on the choice of the reference point O with respect to which the coordinates of the particles are determined.

As the above example demonstrates, the position of the center of mass does not necessarily coincide with the position of a particle of the system. (Give examples of systems in which a particle is located at C , as well as of systems where no such coincidence occurs.)

2. Independence from the point of reference

We must now show that the location of C in space does not depend on the choice of the reference point O . Let us assume for the moment, however, that the position of C does depend on the choice of reference point. So, let C and C' be two different positions of the center of mass, corresponding to the reference points O and O' . We call \vec{r}_C and $\vec{r}_{C'}$ the position vectors of C and C' with respect to O and O' , respectively, and we let \vec{r}_i and \vec{r}'_i be the position vectors of the particle m_i relative to O and O' . For convenience, we denote by \vec{b} the vector $\overrightarrow{OO'}$ (see figure).



The defining equation (2), expressed successively for O and O' , yields

$$\vec{r}_c = \frac{1}{M} \sum_i m_i \vec{r}_i, \quad \vec{r}'_c = \frac{1}{M} \sum_i m_i \vec{r}'_i$$

where $\vec{r}'_i = \vec{r}_i - \vec{b}$. Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{CC'} &= \overline{CO} + \overline{OO'} + \overline{O'C'} = -\vec{r}_c + \vec{b} + \vec{r}'_c \Rightarrow \\ \overline{CC'} &= -\frac{1}{M} \sum_i m_i \vec{r}_i + \vec{b} + \frac{1}{M} \sum_i m_i \vec{r}'_i = \vec{b} - \frac{1}{M} \sum_i m_i (\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}'_i) \\ &= \vec{b} - \frac{1}{M} \sum_i m_i \vec{b} = \vec{b} - \frac{1}{M} \left(\sum_i m_i \right) \vec{b} = \vec{b} - \frac{1}{M} M \vec{b} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

which suggests that the points C and C' coincide. Hence, the center of mass of the system is a uniquely determined point of space, independent of the origin of our coordinate system.

3. Center of mass and Newton's laws

We define the *total (linear) momentum* of the system at time t , relative to an inertial reference frame, as the vector sum

$$\vec{P} = \sum_i \vec{p}_i = \sum_i m_i \vec{v}_i \quad (4)$$

Let \vec{F}_i be the *external* force acting on m_i at this instant. The *total external force* acting on the system at time t is $\vec{F}_{\text{ext}} = \sum_i \vec{F}_i$. By Newton's 2nd and 3rd laws we find that

$$\frac{d\vec{P}}{dt} = \vec{F}_{\text{ext}} \quad (5)$$

[see, e.g., Papachristou (2020)]. We now prove the following:

1. *The total momentum of the system is equal to the momentum of a hypothetical particle having mass equal to the total mass M of the system and moving with the velocity of the center of mass of the system.*
2. *The equation of motion of the center of mass of the system is that of a hypothetical particle of mass equal to the total mass M of the system, subject to the total external force \vec{F}_{ext} acting on the system.*

Proof:

1. Differentiating (2) with respect to time, we find the velocity of the center of mass of the system:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{v}_C &= \frac{d\vec{r}_C}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{M} \sum_i m_i \vec{r}_i \right) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_i m_i \frac{d\vec{r}_i}{dt} \Rightarrow \\ \vec{v}_C &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_i m_i \vec{v}_i = \frac{1}{M} \sum_i \vec{p}_i\end{aligned}\quad (6)$$

Combining this with (4), we have:

$$\vec{P} = M \vec{v}_C \quad (7)$$

2. Differentiating (7), we have:

$$\frac{d\vec{P}}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} (M \vec{v}_C) = M \frac{d\vec{v}_C}{dt} = M \vec{a}_C$$

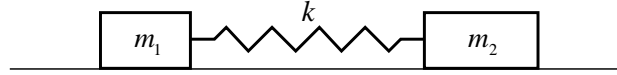
where \vec{a}_C is the acceleration of the center of mass. Hence, by (5),

$$\vec{F}_{\text{ext}} = M \vec{a}_C \quad (8)$$

A system of particles is said to be *isolated* if (a) it is not subject to any external interactions (a situation that is only theoretically possible) or (b) the total external force on the system is zero: $\vec{F}_{\text{ext}} = 0$. In this case, relations (5) and (7) lead to the following conclusions:

1. *The total momentum of an isolated system of particles retains a constant value relative to an inertial frame of reference (principle of conservation of momentum).*
2. *The center of mass C of an isolated system of particles moves with constant velocity relative to an inertial reference frame.*

As an example, consider two masses m_1 and m_2 connected to each other with a spring. The masses can move on a frictionless horizontal plane, as shown in the figure:



The system may be considered isolated since the total external force on it is zero (explain this!). Thus, the total momentum of the system and the velocity of the center of mass C remain constant while the two masses move on the plane. Note that the *internal* force $F_{\text{int}}=k\Delta l$, where Δl is the deformation of the spring relative to its natural length, *cannot* produce any change to the total momentum and the velocity of C .

4. Center of mass and angular momentum

The *total angular momentum* of the system at time t , relative to an arbitrary point O , is defined as

$$\vec{L} = \sum_i \vec{L}_i = \sum_i m_i (\vec{r}_i \times \vec{v}_i) \quad (9)$$

In particular, the total angular momentum relative to the center of mass C of the system is

$$\vec{L}' = \sum_i m_i (\vec{r}'_i \times \vec{v}'_i) \quad (10)$$

where primed quantities are measured with respect to C . We have:

$$\vec{r}_i = \vec{r}'_i + \vec{r}_C \quad , \quad \vec{v}_i = \vec{v}'_i + \vec{v}_C \quad .$$

Substituting these into (9) and using (1) and (10), we get:

$$\vec{L} = \vec{L}' + M(\vec{r}_C \times \vec{v}_C) + \left[\left(\sum_i m_i \vec{r}'_i \right) \times \vec{v}_C \right] + \left[\vec{r}_C \times \sum_i m_i \vec{v}'_i \right] .$$

But, $\sum m_i \vec{r}'_i = 0$ and $\sum m_i \vec{v}'_i = 0$, since these quantities are proportional to the position vector and the velocity, respectively, of the center of mass C relative to C itself. Thus, finally,

$$\vec{L} = \vec{L}' + M(\vec{r}_C \times \vec{v}_C) \quad (11)$$

We may interpret this result as follows:

The total angular momentum of the system, with respect to a point O , is the sum of the angular momentum relative to the center of mass (“spin angular momentum”) and the angular momentum relative to O , of a hypothetical particle of mass equal to the total mass of the system, moving with the center of mass (“orbital angular momentum”).

Now, suppose O is the origin of an *inertial* reference frame. Let \vec{F}_i be the external force acting on m_i at time t . The *total external torque* acting on the system at this time, relative to O , is given by

$$\vec{T}_{\text{ext}} = \sum_i \vec{r}_i \times \vec{F}_i \quad (12)$$

If we make the assumption that all *internal* forces in the system are *central* (as the case is in most physical situations of interest), then the following relation exists between the total angular momentum and the total external torque, both quantities measured relative to O [see, e.g., Papachristou (2020)]:

$$\frac{d\vec{L}}{dt} = \vec{T}_{\text{ext}} \quad (13)$$

Equation (13) is strictly valid relative to the origin O of an *inertial* frame. If the system of particles is *isolated*, the center of mass C moves with constant velocity (relative to O) thus is a proper choice of point of reference for the vector relation (13). That is, (13) is valid with respect to the center of mass of an isolated system. But, what if the system of particles is *not* isolated? Then C is *accelerating* (relative to O) and it would appear that (13) is not valid relative to C in this case. This is not so, however:

Equation (13) is always valid with respect to the center of mass C , even when C is accelerating (i.e., even if the system of particles is not isolated)!

Indeed, by differentiating (11) with respect to time and by using (13), (12) and (8), we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\vec{L}}{dt} &= \frac{d\vec{L}'}{dt} + M(\vec{r}_C \times \vec{a}_C) \left(+M(\vec{v}_C \times \vec{v}_C) \text{ which vanishes} \right) \Rightarrow \\ \vec{T}_{\text{ext}} &\equiv \sum_i \vec{r}_i \times \vec{F}_i = \frac{d\vec{L}'}{dt} + (\vec{r}_C \times \vec{F}_{\text{ext}}) \Rightarrow \\ \frac{d\vec{L}'}{dt} &= \sum_i \vec{r}_i \times \vec{F}_i - \left(\vec{r}_C \times \sum_i \vec{F}_i \right) = \sum_i (\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_C) \times \vec{F}_i \\ &= \sum_i \vec{r}'_i \times \vec{F}_i = \vec{T}'_{\text{ext}} \end{aligned}$$

where \vec{T}'_{ext} is the total external torque relative to the center of mass.

This observation justifies using (13) to analyze, e.g., the motion of a rolling body on an inclined plane by choosing an axis of rotation that passes through the *accelerating* center of mass of the body.

5. Center of mass and kinetic energy

The *total kinetic energy* of the system relative to an external observer O is

$$E_k = \sum_i \frac{1}{2} m_i v_i^2 \quad (14)$$

The total kinetic energy with respect to the center of mass C is

$$E_k' = \sum_i \frac{1}{2} m_i v_i'^2 \quad (15)$$

(as before, primed quantities are measured with respect to C). We have:

$$\vec{v}_i = \vec{v}_i' + \vec{v}_C \Rightarrow v_i^2 = \vec{v}_i \cdot \vec{v}_i = v_i'^2 + v_C^2 + 2\vec{v}_i' \cdot \vec{v}_C .$$

Substituting this into (14) and using (1) and (15), we get:

$$E_k = E_k' + \frac{1}{2} M v_C^2 + \left(\sum_i m_i \vec{v}_i' \right) \cdot \vec{v}_C .$$

But, as noted previously, the sum in the last term vanishes, being proportional to the velocity of the center of mass C relative to C . Thus, finally,

$$E_k = E_k' + \frac{1}{2} M v_C^2 \quad (16)$$

This may be interpreted as follows:

The total kinetic energy of the system, relative to an observer O , is the sum of the kinetic energy relative to the center of mass and the kinetic energy relative to O , of a hypothetical particle of mass equal to the total mass of the system, moving with the center of mass.

6. Adding a particle at – or removing a particle from – the center of mass

We now prove the following:

(a) Consider a system of N particles of masses m_1, m_2, \dots, m_N . Let C be the center of mass of the system. If a new particle, of mass m , is placed at C , the center of mass of the enlarged system of $(N+1)$ particles will still be at C .

(b) Consider a system of N particles of masses m_1, m_2, \dots, m_N . It is assumed that the location of one of the particles, say of m_N , coincides with the center of mass C of the system. If we now remove this particle from the system, the center of mass of the remaining system of $(N-1)$ particles will still be at C .

Proof:

(a) The total mass of the original system of N particles is $M=m_1+m_2+\dots+m_N$. The center of mass of this system is located at the point C with position vector

$$\vec{r}_C = \frac{1}{M} (m_1 \vec{r}_1 + m_2 \vec{r}_2 + \dots + m_N \vec{r}_N)$$

relative to some fixed reference point O . For the additional particle, which we name m_{N+1} , we are given that $m_{N+1}=m$ and $\vec{r}_{N+1} = \vec{r}_C$. The total mass of the enlarged system of $(N+1)$ particles $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_N, m_{N+1}$ is $M' = M+m$, and the center of mass of this system, relative to O , is located at

$$\vec{r}'_C = \frac{1}{M'} (m_1 \vec{r}_1 + \dots + m_N \vec{r}_N + m \vec{r}_C) .$$

Now, $m_1 \vec{r}_1 + \dots + m_N \vec{r}_N = M \vec{r}_C$, so that

$$\vec{r}'_C = \frac{1}{M+m} (M \vec{r}_C + m \vec{r}_C) = \vec{r}_C .$$

(b) Although this statement is obviously a corollary of part (a), we will prove this independently. Here we are given that $\vec{r}_N = \vec{r}_C$. Thus,

$$\frac{1}{M} (m_1 \vec{r}_1 + \dots + m_N \vec{r}_N) = \vec{r}_N .$$

The mass of the reduced system of $(N-1)$ particles m_1, m_2, \dots, m_{N-1} is $M' = M-m_N$, while the center of mass of this system is located at

$$\vec{r}'_C = \frac{1}{M'} (m_1 \vec{r}_1 + \dots + m_{N-1} \vec{r}_{N-1}) .$$

But, $m_1 \vec{r}_1 + \dots + m_{N-1} \vec{r}_{N-1} + m_N \vec{r}_N = M \vec{r}_N \Rightarrow$

$$m_1 \vec{r}_1 + \dots + m_{N-1} \vec{r}_{N-1} = (M - m_N) \vec{r}_N = M' \vec{r}_N .$$

Thus, finally,

$$\vec{r}'_C = \frac{1}{M'} M' \vec{r}_N = \vec{r}_N = \vec{r}_C .$$

7. Center of mass of a continuous mass distribution

A *rigid body* is a physical object the structure of which exhibits a *continuous* mass distribution. Such an object can be considered as a system consisting of an enormous (practically infinite) number of particles of infinitesimal masses dm_i , placed in such a way that the distance between any two neighboring particles is zero. The total mass of the body is

$$M = \sum_i dm_i = \int dm$$

where the sum has been replaced by an integral due to the fact that the dm_i are infinitesimal and the distribution of mass is continuous.

A point in a rigid body can be specified by its position vector \vec{r} , or its coordinates (x, y, z) , relative to the origin O of some frame of reference. Let dV be an infinitesimal volume centered at $\vec{r} \equiv (x, y, z)$, and let dm be the infinitesimal mass contained in this volume element. The *density* ρ of the body at point \vec{r} is defined by

$$\rho(\vec{r}) = \rho(x, y, z) = \frac{dm}{dV} .$$

Then,

$$dm = \rho(\vec{r}) dV$$

and the total mass of the body is written

$$M = \int \rho(\vec{r}) dV$$

where the integration takes place over the entire volume of the body. (The integral is in fact a *triple* one since, in Cartesian coordinates, $dV = dx dy dz$.) The center of mass C of the body is found by using (2):

$$\vec{r}_c = \frac{1}{M} \sum_i (dm_i) \vec{r}_i = \frac{1}{M} \int \vec{r} dm \quad \Rightarrow$$

$$\vec{r}_c = \frac{1}{M} \int \vec{r} \rho(\vec{r}) dV \quad (17)$$

where the \vec{r} and \vec{r}_c are measured relative to the origin O of our coordinate system. (Remember, however, that the location of C with respect to the body is uniquely determined and is independent of the choice of the reference point O .)

In a *homogeneous* body the density has a constant value ρ , independent of \vec{r} . Then,

$$M = \int \rho dV = \rho \int dV = \rho V$$

where V is the total volume of the body. Also, from (17) we have:

$$\vec{r}_C = \frac{\rho}{M} \int \vec{r} dV = \frac{1}{V} \int \vec{r} dV \quad (18)$$

Imagine now that, instead of a mass distribution in space, we have a *linear* distribution of mass (e.g., a very thin rod) along the x -axis. We define the *linear density* of the distribution by

$$\rho(x) = \frac{dm}{dx} .$$

The total mass of the distribution is

$$M = \int dm = \int \rho(x) dx .$$

The position of the center of mass of the distribution is given by

$$x_C = \frac{1}{M} \int x dm = \frac{1}{M} \int x \rho(x) dx \quad (19)$$

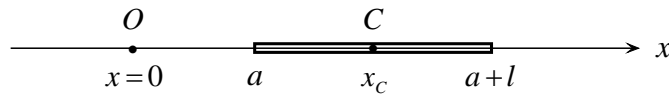
If the density ρ is constant, independent of x , then

$$M = \int \rho dx = \rho \int dx = \rho l$$

where l is the total length of the distribution. Furthermore,

$$x_C = \frac{\rho}{M} \int x dx = \frac{1}{l} \int x dx \quad (20)$$

As an example, consider a thin, homogeneous rod of length l , placed along the x -axis from $x=a$ to $x=a+l$, as shown in the figure:



By equation (20),

$$x_C = \frac{1}{l} \int_a^{a+l} x dx = \frac{1}{2l} [(a+l)^2 - a^2] = a + \frac{l}{2} .$$

That is, the center of mass C of the rod is located at the center of the rod. Note that the location of C on the rod is uniquely determined, independently of the choice of the origin O of the x -axis (although the value of the coordinate x_C does, of course, depend on this choice).

8. Center of mass and center of gravity

We have seen that the center of mass C of a system of particles moves in space as if it were a particle of mass equal to the total mass M of the system, subject to the total external force acting on the system. The same is true for a rigid body. Let us assume that the only external forces that act on the system (or the rigid body) are those due to gravity. The total external force is then equal to the *total weight* of the system:

$$\vec{w} = \sum_i \vec{w}_i = \sum_i (m_i \vec{g}) = \left(\sum_i m_i \right) \vec{g} \Rightarrow$$

$$\vec{w} = M \vec{g} \quad \text{where} \quad M = \sum_i m_i .$$

The acceleration of gravity \vec{g} is constant in a region of space where the gravitational field may be considered uniform.

Note that \vec{w} is a sum of forces that act on separate particles (or elementary masses dm_i in the case of a rigid body) located at various points of space. The question now is whether there exists some specific point of application of the total weight \vec{w} of the system and, in particular, of a rigid body. A reasonable assumption is that this point could be the center of mass C of the body, given that, as mentioned above, the point C behaves as if it concentrates the entire mass M of the body and the total external force acting on it. And, in our case, \vec{w} is indeed the total external force due to gravity.

There is a subtle point here, however: In contrast to a point particle (such as the hypothetical “particle” of mass M moving with the center of mass C) that simply changes its location in space, a rigid body may execute a more complex motion, specifically, a combination of translation and rotation. The *translational* motion of the body under the action of gravity is indeed represented by the motion of the center of mass C , if this point is regarded as a “particle” of mass M on which the total force \vec{w} is applied. For the *rotational* motion of the body, however, it is the *torques* of the external forces, rather than the forces themselves, that are responsible. Where should we place the total force \vec{w} in order that the rotational motion it produces on the body be the same as that caused by the simultaneous action of the elementary gravitational forces $d\vec{w}_i = (dm_i)\vec{g}$? Equivalently, where should we place \vec{w} in order that its torque *with respect to any point* O be equal to the total torque of the $d\vec{w}_i$ with respect to O ?

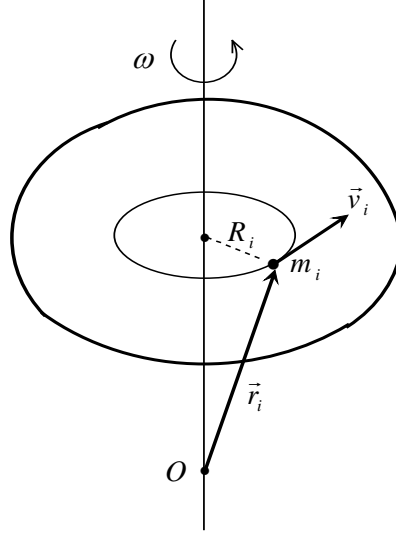
You may have guessed the answer already: at the center of mass C ! [See, e.g., Papachristou (2020).] In conclusion:

By placing the total weight \vec{w} of the body at the center of mass C we manage to describe not only the translational but also the rotational motion of the body under the action of gravity.

It is for this reason that C is frequently called the *center of gravity* of the body. Note that this point does *not necessarily* belong to the body (consider, for example, the cases of a ring and a spherical shell).

9. Mechanical energy of a rigid body

Consider a rigid body rotating with angular velocity ω about an axis passing from a fixed point O of space:



During rotation, every elementary mass m_i in the body moves circularly about the axis of rotation, with the common angular velocity ω . If R_i is the perpendicular distance of m_i from the axis (thus, the radius of the circular path of m_i), the speed of this mass element is $v_i = R_i \omega$. The total *kinetic energy of rotation* is the sum of the kinetic energies of all elementary masses m_i contained in the body:

$$E_{k,rot} = \sum_i \left(\frac{1}{2} m_i v_i^2 \right) = \sum_i \left(\frac{1}{2} m_i R_i^2 \omega^2 \right) = \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 \sum_i m_i R_i^2 \Rightarrow$$

$$E_{k,rot} = \frac{1}{2} I \omega^2 \quad (21)$$

where

$$I = \sum_i m_i R_i^2$$

is the *moment of inertia* of the body relative to the axis of rotation.

Relation (21) represents the total kinetic energy of the body when the latter executes *pure rotation* about a fixed axis. A more general kind of motion is a rotation about an axis that is moving in space. Specifically, assume that the axis of rotation passes from the center of mass C of the body, while C itself moves in space with velocity \vec{v}_C . The body thus executes a composite motion consisting of a *translation* of the center of mass C and a *rotation* about C . According to equation (16), the total kinetic energy of the body is the sum of two quantities: a *kinetic energy of translation*,

$$E_{k,trans} = \frac{1}{2} M v_C^2$$

(where M is the mass of the body and v_C is the speed of the center of mass C) and a *kinetic energy of rotation about C* ,

$$E_{k,rot} = \frac{1}{2} I_C \omega^2$$

(where ω is the angular velocity of rotation about an axis passing from C , while I_C is the moment of inertia of the body relative to this axis²). Hence, the total kinetic energy of the body is

$$E_k = E_{k,trans} + E_{k,rot} = \frac{1}{2} M v_C^2 + \frac{1}{2} I_C \omega^2 \quad (22)$$

If the body is subject to external forces that are conservative, we can define an *external potential energy* E_p as well as a *total mechanical energy* E , the latter assuming a constant value during the motion of the body:

$$E = E_k + E_p = \frac{1}{2} M v_C^2 + \frac{1}{2} I_C \omega^2 + E_p = \text{const.} \quad (23)$$

For example, if the body moves under the sole action of gravity, its potential energy is

$$E_p = M g y_C$$

where y_C is the vertical distance (the height) of the center of mass C with respect to an arbitrary horizontal plane of reference. Indeed, by relation (3),

$$y_C = \frac{1}{M} \sum_i m_i y_i$$

where y_i is the height of the point of location of the elementary mass m_i in the body. The total gravitational potential energy of the body, equal to the sum of the potential energies of all elementary masses m_i , is then

$$E_p = \sum_i (m_i g y_i) = g \sum_i m_i y_i = M g y_C .$$

The total mechanical energy of the body is constant and equal to

$$E = \frac{1}{2} M v_C^2 + \frac{1}{2} I_C \omega^2 + M g y_C \quad (24)$$

² The moment of inertia I relative to an axis parallel to this axis is given by the *parallel-axis theorem* [see, e.g., Papachristou (2020)]. Specifically, $I = I_C + M a^2$, where a is the perpendicular distance between the two axes.

Suggested Bibliography

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³ <http://metapublishing.org/index.php/MP/catalog/book/68>

⁴ <https://nausivios.snd.edu.gr/docs/2012C2.pdf> ; new version: <https://arxiv.org/abs/1205.2326>