

Going back: ("unreducing")

We chose to work in a frame with the center of mass fixed at the origin and axes such that the orbit lies in the x-y plane. One can "put back" these choices trivially. This is important for applications to distant star-systems (double stars, extra-solar planetary systems, satellites, etc.). The relative orientation + velocity must be fit to observation.

Interesting effects:

projection of A (so T ~~does not~~ ^{+ "A observed"} only bound M+m) motion of both bodies.

$$\vec{r}_1 = \underbrace{\frac{m_1 \vec{r}_1 + m_2 \vec{r}_2}{m_1 + m_2}}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{fixed}}} + \frac{m_2}{m_1 + m_2} (\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2)$$

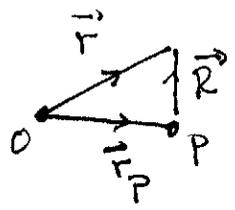
$$\frac{\text{orbit of 1}}{\text{orbit of 2}} \propto \frac{m_2}{m_1}$$

46] Relative Motion: Recollection, and Getting to Rotation

$\vec{F} = m\ddot{\vec{r}}$ in inertial frame. It is often natural, however, to use non-inertial frames - e.g., you may be interested in mechanics in a vehicle (elevator, train, ship, car, rocket) - or on surface of Earth!

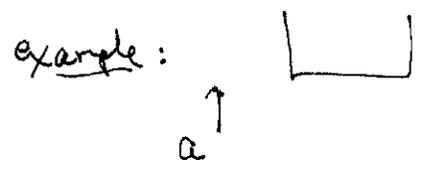
It's important to keep straight two cases:

i) moving origin (but fixed orientation)



$\vec{R} = \vec{r} - \vec{r}_p$ "take out" translation

$m\ddot{\vec{R}} = m\ddot{\vec{r}} - m\ddot{\vec{r}}_p = \vec{F} - m\vec{a}_p$



rising elevator \Rightarrow extra "fictitious" force downward

\Rightarrow equivalence principle, ...

ii) rotating frame (but fixed origin)

$\vec{R}(t) = \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{inverse of rotation} \\ \text{operator}}}{R(t)^{-1}} \vec{r}(t)$

; so if $\vec{r}(t) = R(t)r_0$, it looks constant "taking out" rotation

47] Small rotations around an axis

Consider rotation through $\Delta\phi$ around an axis \hat{n} .
(assumed small)

axis \hat{n} . (The direction is fixed by right-hand rule.)

Then any vector \vec{S} changes by

$$\vec{S} \rightarrow \vec{S} + \Delta\phi \hat{n} \times \vec{S} \quad (!)$$

This gives another nice interpretation of the \times -product.

Why? $\Delta\vec{S} \perp \vec{S}$ and $\perp \hat{n}$ ✓

the piece $\vec{S} \parallel \hat{n}$ has no effect ✓

if $\vec{S} \perp \hat{n}$, rotation by $\Delta\phi$ ✓

example: \hat{z} -axis

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta\vec{S} &= \Delta\phi \hat{z} \times (x, y, z) = \Delta\phi (-y, x, 0) \\ &= \Delta\phi r \underbrace{(-\sin\theta, \cos\theta, 0)}_{\substack{\text{polar} \\ \text{plan coordinates} \\ \text{in } x-y \text{ plane}}} \\ &= \Delta\phi r \hat{\theta} \end{aligned}$$

With $\hat{n} \Delta\phi \equiv \vec{\omega} dt$,

↑
angular velocity vector: $\vec{\omega} \equiv \hat{n} \frac{d\phi}{dt}$

$$\Delta\vec{S} = \vec{\omega} \times \vec{S} dt$$

48 | Master formula for dynamical (time-dependent) vectors in rotating frame

$$\left(\frac{d\vec{S}}{dt}\right)_{\text{inertial}} = \left(\frac{d\vec{S}}{dt}\right)_{\text{rot.}} + \vec{\omega} \times \vec{S}$$

from preceding page!

At one level, very simple: vector changes from change measured within the rotating frame, and from ~~the~~ change associated with motion of frame itself.

But puzzling, perhaps. How can \vec{S} have two different time derivatives??

Really: $\vec{S}(t) = R(t)\vec{S}(t)$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{S}(t+\Delta t) &= R(t+\Delta t)\vec{S}(t+\Delta t) \\ \vec{S}(t) + \frac{d\vec{S}}{dt}\Delta t &= \underbrace{\left[R(t+\Delta t)R^{-1}(t)R(t)\right]}_{\substack{\text{small additional} \\ \text{rotation}}} \left[\vec{S}(t) + \frac{d\vec{S}}{dt}\Delta t\right] \\ &= \left[\mathbb{1} + \vec{\omega} \Delta t \times\right] \left[R(t)\vec{S}(t) + R(t)\frac{d\vec{S}}{dt}\Delta t\right] \\ &\approx R(t)\vec{S}(t) + \left[\vec{\omega} \times R(t)\vec{S} + R(t)\frac{d\vec{S}}{dt}\right]\Delta t \end{aligned}$$

So

$$\frac{d\vec{S}}{dt} = \vec{\omega} \times R\vec{S} + R \frac{d\vec{S}}{dt}$$

The "master formula" results by picking $R(t_0) = 1$ at the moment of interest. The rotating frame is constantly "reinvented"!

49] Master formula for dynamics

We need to apply this to the vectors of interest for dynamics, i.e. velocity and acceleration.

$$\vec{v}_{in.} = \left(\frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}\right)_{in.} = \left(\frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}\right)_{rot.} + \vec{\omega} \times \vec{r} \quad (*)$$

$$\vec{a}_{in} = \left(\frac{d\vec{v}_{in.}}{dt}\right)_{in} = \left(\frac{d\vec{v}_{in.}}{dt}\right)_{rot.} + \vec{\omega} \times \vec{v}_{in.}$$

$\stackrel{using (*)}{=} \left(\frac{d^2\vec{r}}{dt^2}\right)_{rot.} + \frac{d\vec{\omega}}{dt} \times \vec{r} + \vec{\omega} \times \left(\frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}\right)_{rot.} + \vec{\omega} \times \left(\frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}\right)_{rot.} + \vec{\omega} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r})$

[note $\left(\frac{d\vec{\omega}}{dt}\right)_{in.} = \left(\frac{d\vec{\omega}}{dt}\right)_{rot.}$, since $\vec{\omega} \times \vec{\omega} = 0!$]

So, in rotating frame (dropping subscript)

$$\frac{\vec{F}}{m} = \frac{d^2\vec{r}}{dt^2} + \frac{d\vec{\omega}}{dt} \times \vec{r} + 2\vec{\omega} \times \vec{v} + \vec{\omega} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r})$$

a

$m \frac{d^2\vec{r}}{dt^2} = \vec{F} - m \frac{d\vec{\omega}}{dt} \times \vec{r} - 2m\vec{\omega} \times \vec{v} - m\vec{\omega} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r})$
$\begin{matrix} \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \text{"gyro"} & & \text{Coriolis} & & \text{centrifugal} \end{matrix}$

This contains a wealth of phenomena. Let's get oriented with semi-familiar cases:

i) $\vec{v} = 0, \vec{\omega} = \text{const.} = (0, 0, \omega)$

$$\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r} = (0, 0, \omega) \times (x, y, z) = (-\omega y, \omega x, 0)$$

$$\vec{\omega} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}) = (-\omega^2 x, -\omega^2 y, 0) \text{ gives non-vanishing term.}$$

This is the "centrifugal force" for constant rotation

$$\text{(that is, } -m\vec{\omega} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}) = m\omega^2(x, y, 0)$$

ii) $\frac{d\vec{\omega}}{dt} \neq 0$, but still in \hat{z} direction

$$\frac{d\vec{\omega}}{dt} = (0, 0, \alpha) \leftarrow \text{angular acceleration}$$

$$\text{New term } -m \frac{d\vec{\omega}}{dt} \times \vec{r} = m(\alpha y, -\alpha x) = -m r \alpha \hat{\theta}$$

just corrects for acceleration in $\hat{\theta}$ direction!

(67)

[note: r -dependent]

Note that if a body has large $\vec{\omega}$, changing it requires large forces in strange directions.

is the origin of gyroscopic phenomena.

↑ this
(due to "gyro"
term.)