

### III. ROTATIONAL MOTION & MECHANICS OF RIGID BODY

#### A. Fixed-axis rotation

By definition, the distance between any two points in a Rigid Body is constant. Let the axis of rotation be fixed and its direction be given by the unit vector  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ . The rotation angle  $\theta$  is the natural generalized coordinate. The velocity of any point of the rigid body is,

$$\dot{\mathbf{r}}_a = \frac{d\theta (\hat{\mathbf{n}} \times \mathbf{r}_a)}{dt} = \boldsymbol{\omega} \times \mathbf{r}_a \quad (67)$$

Here the origin of the coordinate system belongs to the axis of rotation, and the vectorial angular velocity is introduced as  $\boldsymbol{\omega} = \hat{\mathbf{n}}\dot{\theta}$ . (can be done only in 3D).

- **Moment of inertia.** Kinetic energy can be expressed as:

$$T = \sum_a \frac{m_a \dot{\mathbf{r}}_a^2}{2} = \left( \sum_a m_a r_{a\perp}^2 \right) \frac{\boldsymbol{\omega}^2}{2} = \frac{I_{\hat{\mathbf{n}}} \boldsymbol{\omega}^2}{2}. \quad (68)$$

$I_{\hat{\mathbf{n}}}$  is called *moment of inertia* with respect to the given axis:

$$I_{\hat{\mathbf{n}}} = \sum_a m_a r_{a\perp}^2 = \sum_a m_a \left[ r_a^2 - (\hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \mathbf{r}_a)^2 \right]. \quad (69)$$

By definition,  $I$  depends on the orientation of the axis of rotation, and its distance from the center of mass,  $R_{cm}$ :

$$T = \left( \sum_a m_a \right) \frac{\dot{\mathbf{R}}_{cm}^2}{2} + \sum_a \frac{m_a (\dot{\mathbf{r}}_a - \dot{\mathbf{R}}^{(cm)})^2}{2} = \frac{(MR_{cm}^2 + I_{\hat{\mathbf{n}}}^{(cm)}) \boldsymbol{\omega}^2}{2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad I_{\hat{\mathbf{n}}} = MR_{cm}^2 + I_{\hat{\mathbf{n}}}^{(cm)}. \quad (70)$$

Here  $M = \sum_a m_a$  is the total mass, and  $I_{\hat{\mathbf{n}}}^{(cm)}$  is the moment of inertia with respect to the same-orientation axis coming through the CM.

- **Equation of motion.** *Generalized momentum* conjugated to  $\theta$  is the component of angular momentum parallel to  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ :

$$p_\theta = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\theta}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\omega}} \sum_a (\boldsymbol{\omega} \times \mathbf{r}_a) \cdot \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\mathbf{r}}_a} = \hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \mathbf{L} \quad (71)$$

Since  $\mathcal{L} = T - U$ ,

$$L_{\hat{\mathbf{n}}} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial \boldsymbol{\omega}} = I_{\hat{\mathbf{n}}} \boldsymbol{\omega} \quad (72)$$

The generalized force is called torque:

$$f_\theta = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \theta} = \frac{\partial}{\partial (\delta\theta)} \sum_a (\delta\theta \mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{r}_a) \cdot \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{r}_a} = \hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \sum_a \mathbf{r}_a \times \mathbf{f}_a \equiv \tau_{\hat{\mathbf{n}}} \quad (73)$$

Thus, Lagrange equation is,

$$\frac{d}{dt} (I_{\hat{\mathbf{n}}} \boldsymbol{\omega}) = \tau_{\hat{\mathbf{n}}} \quad (74)$$

#### B. Fixed-point rotation

If only one point of the body is fixed, the direction of the angular velocity may be arbitrary. One can the kinetic energy in terms of vector  $\boldsymbol{\omega}$

$$T = \frac{\boldsymbol{\omega}^2}{2} \sum_a m_a \left[ r_a^2 - (\hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \mathbf{r}_a)^2 \right] = \frac{\boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{I}} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}}{2} \quad (75)$$

Here  $\hat{M}$  is called inertia tensor:

$$I_{ij} = \sum_a m_a [r_a^2 \delta_{ij} - r_{ai} r_{aj}] \quad (76)$$

As one can see,  $I_{\hat{\mathbf{n}}} = \hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \hat{M} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}$ , and

$$\hat{\mathbf{I}} = M \left[ R^{(cm)2} - R_i^{(cm)} R_j^{(cm)} \right] + \hat{\mathbf{I}}^{(cm)} \quad (77)$$

Let  $\Theta = (\delta\theta_x, \delta\theta_y, \delta\theta_z)$  be the vector of infinitesimal rotations ( $\varpi = \dot{\Theta}$ ). One can obtain the equations of motion in a standard manner:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\Theta}} = \mathbf{L} = \hat{\mathbf{I}} \cdot \varpi \quad (78)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \Theta} = \sum_a \mathbf{r}_a \times \mathbf{f}_a \equiv \tau \quad (79)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \hat{\mathbf{I}} \cdot \varpi = \tau \quad (80)$$

### C. Euler equations

Any vector "nailed" to the rotating reference frame is transformed by rotation as  $\dot{\mathbf{A}} = \varpi \times \mathbf{A}$ . Therefore,

$$\left( \frac{d\mathbf{L}}{dt} \right)_{Lab} = \left( \frac{d\mathbf{L}}{dt} \right)_{\mathbf{r}} + \varpi \times \mathbf{L} = \hat{\mathbf{I}} \cdot \dot{\varpi} + \varpi \times \hat{\mathbf{I}} \cdot \varpi = \tau \quad (81)$$

Here  $(d/dt)_{\mathbf{r}}$  is the time derivative at the rotating Reference Frame. Note that  $(d\varpi/dt)_{Lab} = (d\varpi/dt)_{\mathbf{r}} + \varpi \times \varpi = (d\varpi/dt)_{\mathbf{r}}$ . We obtain Euler equations:

$$\hat{\mathbf{I}} \cdot \frac{d\varpi}{dt} = \tau - \varpi \times \hat{\mathbf{I}} \cdot \varpi. \quad (82)$$

If  $\hat{\mathbf{I}}$  is diagonalized and  $I_1, I_2, I_3$  are its eigenvalues, than this system of equations can be rewritten as:

$$I_1 \dot{\varpi}_1 = \tau_1 + \varpi_2 \varpi_3 (I_2 - I_3); \quad (83)$$

$$I_2 \dot{\varpi}_2 = \tau_2 + \varpi_3 \varpi_1 (I_3 - I_1); \quad (84)$$

$$I_3 \dot{\varpi}_3 = \tau_3 + \varpi_1 \varpi_2 (I_1 - I_2). \quad (85)$$

- **Precession of a free symmetric top.** If  $\tau = \mathbf{0}$  (free motion), and  $I_1 = I_2$  (symmetric spinning top), we obtain  $\varpi_3 = const$ , and

$$\dot{\varpi}_1 = -\Omega \varpi_2; \quad (86)$$

$$\dot{\varpi}_2 = \Omega \varpi_1, \quad (87)$$

where  $\Omega = \varpi_3 (I_3/I_1 - 1)$ . The solution to these equations is precession of the angle  $\varpi$  with frequency  $\Omega$  (in rotating reference frame):

$$\varpi_1 = \varpi' \cos \Omega t, \quad \varpi_2 = \varpi' \sin \Omega t \quad (88)$$

In stationary reference frame, precession rate is different since  $\varpi_1$  and  $\varpi_2$  are defined in with respect to the principle axes 1 and 2, and those axes are rotating about the axis 3 one with angular velocity  $\varpi_3$ . Therefore, the projection of angular velocity of precession  $\mathbf{\Omega}_{pr}$ , onto the direction of the third axis,  $\hat{n}_3$ , is:

$$\hat{n}_3 \cdot \mathbf{\Omega}_{pr} = \Omega + \varpi_3 = \frac{I_3 \varpi_3}{I_1} = \frac{\hat{n}_3 \cdot \mathbf{L}}{I_1} \quad \text{hence, } \mathbf{\Omega}_{pr} = \frac{\mathbf{L}}{I_1} \quad (89)$$

- **Asymmetric tops.** If  $I_1 > I_2 > I_3$ , the character of the motion can be determined by geometrical analysis. The conservation laws can be written as:

$$L_1^2 + L_2^2 + L_3^2 = \text{const} = \mathbf{L}^2 \quad (90)$$

$$\frac{L_1^2}{I_1} + \frac{L_2^2}{I_2} + \frac{L_3^2}{I_3} = \text{const} = 2E \quad (91)$$

The first equation describes a sphere of radius  $L$ , the other one is an ellipsoid. If  $E$  is fixed and  $\mathbf{L}^2$  is increasing, the first intersection of the two surfaces occurs when  $L^2 = 2EI_3$ . After that, the trajectory corresponds to precession around the direction of minimal moment of inertia,  $I_3$ . At  $L^2 = 2EI_2$  the orbits change the orientation, and precession occurs around the axis of maximum moment of inertia,  $I_1$ . The rotation about the intermediate axis is unstable!

#### D. Heavy Spinning Top

Consider a symmetric spinning top ( $I_1 = I_2 \neq I_3$ ) under the influence of a uniform gravitational force,  $mg$ . Our generalized coordinates will be Euler angles  $(\theta, \phi, \psi)$ . Here  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  are the azimuthal and polar angles which define the orientation of certain axis  $z'$  of the rigid body, in regular spherical coordinates. For the symmetric top, we choose  $z'$  to be the axis of symmetry. The third Euler angle  $\psi$  parameterizes the axial rotation around  $z'$ .

The Lagrangian can be written as

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{I_\perp}{2} (\dot{\theta}^2 + \dot{\phi}^2 \sin^2 \theta) + \frac{I_\parallel}{2} (\dot{\psi} + \dot{\phi} \cos \theta)^2 - mgl \cos \theta \quad (92)$$

Here  $l$  is the distance between the fixed point of the body and the center of mass.  $\dot{\psi}$ ,  $\dot{\phi}$  and  $\dot{\theta}$  corresponds to *rotation*, *precession* and *nutation*, respectively. Since  $\partial \mathcal{L} / \partial \phi = \partial \mathcal{L} / \partial \psi = 0$ , we can identify two conservation laws:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\psi}} = L_\parallel = I_\parallel (\dot{\psi} + \dot{\phi} \cos \theta) = \text{const}, \quad (93)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} = L_\phi = I_\perp \dot{\phi} \sin^2 \theta + L_\parallel \cos \theta = \text{const} \quad \implies \quad \dot{\phi} = \frac{L_\phi - L_\parallel \cos \theta}{I_\perp \sin^2 \theta} = \Omega \frac{p_0 - \cos \theta}{\sin^2 \theta}, \quad (94)$$

where  $\Omega = L_\parallel / I_\perp = (I_\parallel / I_\perp) \varpi_\parallel$ , and  $p_0 = L_\phi / L_\parallel$ . One more conserved quantity, as usual, is energy:

$$E = \frac{I_\perp}{2} \left[ \dot{\theta}^2 + \Omega^2 \frac{(p_0 - \cos \theta)^2}{\sin^2 \theta} \right] + \frac{L_\parallel^2}{2I_\parallel} + mgl \cos \theta. \quad (95)$$

It is convenient to describe *nutation* in terms of variable  $p = \cos \theta$ :

$$\dot{p}^2 = 2\omega_0^2 (1 - p^2) (p_E - p) - \Omega^2 (p_0 - p)^2. \quad (96)$$

Here  $p_E = (E - L_\parallel^2 / 2I_\parallel) / mgl$ , and  $\omega_0 = \sqrt{mgl / I_\perp}$  is the frequency of small oscillations for  $\Omega = 0$ , i.e. when the top becomes a regular physical pendulum. In a typical case, the right hand side has two roots in the physical interval of  $p$ :  $-1 \leq p_1 \leq p_2 \leq +1$ . The period of nutation can be found as:

$$T = 2 \int_{p_1}^{p_2} \frac{dp}{\sqrt{2\omega_0^2 (1 - p^2) (p_E - p) - \Omega^2 (p_0 - p)^2}}, \quad (97)$$

The corresponding precession rate can be found as  $\dot{\phi} = \Omega (p_0 - p) / (1 - p^2)$ . Note that it changes sign at  $p = p_0$ . In general, the above result can be expressed in terms of an elliptic integral.

- **Example 1.** Determine the minimal  $\Omega$  at which the potential energy maximum ( $p = +1$ ) is a stable point. Since  $\dot{p} = 0$  at  $p = 1$ , we obtain  $p_0 = 1$ . All the kinetic energy at  $p = 1$  is only due to spinning, therefore  $p_E = \left(E - L_{\parallel}^2/2I_{\parallel}\right)/mgl = mgl/mgl = 1$ . Hence,

$$\dot{p}^2 = 2\omega_0^2 \left[1 + p - \frac{\Omega^2}{2\omega_0^2}\right] (p-1)^2. \quad (98)$$

One can see the point  $p = 1$  gets unstable when  $p + 1 - \Omega^2/2\omega_0^2 \geq 0$ , i.e. for  $\Omega \leq \Omega_c = 2\omega_0$ . After that, a periodic nutation occurs between  $p = 1$  and  $p = \Omega^2/2\omega_0^2 - 1$

- **Example 2.** Consider a motion of a fast spinning top ( $\Omega \gg \omega_0$ ), whose axis is released with no initial nutation or precession ( $\dot{\phi} = \dot{\theta} = 0$ ) from the original position  $\cos\theta = p^*$ . Since  $\dot{\phi} = \dot{\theta} = 0$  initially, we conclude that  $p_E = p_0 = p^*$ . This gives:

$$\dot{p}^2 = (p_0 - p) [2\omega_0^2 (1 - p^2) - \Omega^2 (p_0 - p)] \simeq \Omega^2 (p_0 - p) (p - p_0 + 2\Delta) = \Omega^2 [\Delta^2 - (p - p_0 + \Delta)^2], \quad (99)$$

where  $\Delta = (\omega_0/\Omega)^2 (1 - p_0^2)$ . Upon our favorite substitution,  $p = p_0 + \Delta [\cos\vartheta - 1]$ , we obtain:

$$t = \int \frac{dp}{\dot{p}} = \frac{\vartheta}{\Omega} + const \quad (100)$$

Given the initial condition ( $p = p^*$ ),  $\vartheta = \Omega t$ . Therefore,

$$\cos\theta(t) = p(t) = p_0 + \frac{\omega_0^2}{\Omega^2} (1 - p_0^2) [\cos\Omega t - 1]. \quad (101)$$

$$\dot{\phi} = \frac{\Omega(p_0 - p)}{1 - p^2} \simeq \frac{mgl}{L_{\parallel}} [\cos\Omega t - 1] \implies \langle \dot{\phi} \rangle = \frac{mgl}{2L_{\parallel}} \quad (102)$$

## E. Non-inertial Reference Frames

A non-inertial reference frame can be characterized by velocity of its origin,  $\mathbf{v}_0(t)$ , and the angular velocity  $\boldsymbol{\Omega}(t)$ . Its local motion is,  $\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \mathbf{v}_0(t) + \boldsymbol{\Omega}(t) \times \mathbf{r}$ . If  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  is the position of a particle in this reference frame,

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{m(\dot{\mathbf{r}} + \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}))^2}{2} - U(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{m\dot{\mathbf{r}}^2}{2} + m\dot{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \mathbf{v} + \frac{m\mathbf{v}^2}{2} - U(\mathbf{r})$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\mathbf{r}}} = m \left( \ddot{\mathbf{r}} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\mathbf{v}_0(t) + \boldsymbol{\Omega}(t) \times \mathbf{r}) + \boldsymbol{\Omega}(t) \times \dot{\mathbf{r}} \right);$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{r}} = m \frac{\partial (\dot{\mathbf{r}} \times \boldsymbol{\Omega}) \cdot \mathbf{r}}{\partial \mathbf{r}} + \frac{m}{2} \frac{\partial (\boldsymbol{\Omega} \times \mathbf{r})^2}{\partial \mathbf{r}} - \frac{\partial U(\mathbf{r})}{\partial \mathbf{r}} = m\dot{\mathbf{r}} \times \boldsymbol{\Omega} - \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{r}} \left[ U(\mathbf{r}) - \frac{m\Omega^2 \mathbf{r}_{\perp}^2}{2} \right]$$

Lagrange equation gives:

$$m\ddot{\mathbf{r}} = -m\mathbf{a} + 2m\dot{\mathbf{r}} \times \boldsymbol{\Omega} + m\Omega^2 \mathbf{r}_{\perp} - \mathbf{F}$$

Here  $\mathbf{a} = \partial \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}) / \partial t$ , the second term in r.h.s. is called Coriolis force, the third term is centrifugal one, and  $\mathbf{F}$  is a regular mechanical force.