## CHAPTER 7

## Basic Concepts and Kinematics of Rigid Body Motion

7.1 Degrees-of-freedom:
(of a rigid body)
Consider three
unconstrained particles


The positions are defined by

$$
\underline{r}_{i}=x_{i} \underline{i}+y_{i} \underline{j}+z_{i} \underline{k} \quad i=1,2,3 .
$$

$\Rightarrow$ degrees of freedom $=\mathbf{n}=9=3 \mathrm{~N}$
Now, constrain the particles $\Rightarrow$ (three particles placed at the corners of a triangle whose sides are formed by rigid massless rods)


Now: there are three constraints

$$
\left|\underline{r}_{1}-\underline{r}_{2}\right|=l_{1} ; \quad\left|\underline{r}_{3}-\underline{r}_{2}\right|=l_{2} ; \quad\left|\underline{r}_{1}-\underline{r}_{3}\right|=l_{3}
$$

$$
\text { or }\left(x_{2}-x_{1}\right)^{2}+\left(y_{2}-y_{1}\right)^{2}+\left(z_{2}-z_{1}\right)^{2}-l_{1}^{2}=0, \quad \text { etc. }
$$

$\Rightarrow \mathrm{n}=3(\mathrm{~N})-3=6 \Leftarrow$ degrees of freedom.
Now: as another particle is introduced, its position is specified by 3 additional coordinates, but also have 3 additional constraints.
$\Rightarrow$ four rigidly connected particles also have only 6 degrees of freedom.

# In general: a rigid body (any collection of particles whose relative positions are fixed) has 6 degrees of freedom. 

- translational motion of a point on the body - specified by 3 translational degrees of freedom.
- rotational motion about the specified point - $\mathbf{3}$ rotational degrees of freedom.


## Laws of motion for a system of particles

 (extended to a rigid body)a) $\sum \underline{\mathrm{F}}=\mathrm{m} \ddot{\underline{\underline{T}}}_{\text {c }}$
$\Rightarrow$ translational motion of the C.M. (3 degrees of freedom)
b) $\sum \underline{M}=\frac{d}{d t} \underline{H}$ about C.M. or an inertially fixed point
$\Rightarrow$ rotational motion about the C.M. ( 3 rotational degrees of freedom)
7.2 Moments of Inertia

Recall: the notation and definitions

The equation for moment about an
 arbitrary point $P$ is:

$$
\underline{\mathrm{M}}_{\mathrm{p}}=\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dt}} \underline{\mathrm{H}}_{\mathrm{p}}+\underline{\rho}_{\mathrm{c}} \times \mathrm{m} \ddot{\underline{i}}_{\mathrm{p}}
$$

Now, the angular momentum about the point $P$ is

$$
\underline{\mathrm{H}}_{\mathrm{p}}=\sum_{\mathrm{i}=1}^{\mathrm{N}} \underline{\rho}_{\mathrm{i}} \times \mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{i}} \underline{\underline{\dot{\rho}}}_{\mathrm{i}}
$$

where $\underline{\underline{\rho}}_{\mathrm{i}}$ - velocity of $\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{i}}$ as viewed by a non-rotating observer translating with $\mathbf{P}$. (relative velocity in an inertial frame)

For a rigid body - suppose that $P$ is fixed in the body $\Rightarrow\left|\underline{\rho}_{\mathrm{i}}\right|=$ constant, and $\underline{\dot{\rho}}_{\mathrm{i}}=\underline{\omega} \times \underline{\rho}_{\mathrm{i}}$ where $\underline{\omega}$ - angular velocity of the body.

Thus, the angular momentum about $P$ is $\Rightarrow$ $\underline{\mathrm{H}}_{\mathrm{p}}=\sum_{\mathrm{t}=1}^{\mathrm{N}} \mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{i}} \underline{\rho}_{\mathrm{i}} \times\left(\underline{\omega} \times \underline{\rho}_{\mathrm{i}}\right)$ By analogy: for a rigid body rotating with angular velocity $(\underline{\omega})$

$\underline{\mathrm{H}}_{\rho}=\int_{\mathrm{V}} \rho(\underline{r}) \underline{\rho} \times(\underline{\omega} \times \underline{\rho}) \mathrm{dV} ; \mathrm{dm}=\rho(\underline{\mathrm{r}}) \mathrm{dV}$

We now consider the various cases: Reference point $\mathbf{P}$ is at origin:
$\underline{\rho}=x \underline{i}+y \underline{j}+z \underline{k}$
$\underline{\omega}=\omega_{x} \underline{i}+\omega_{y} \underline{j}+\omega_{z} \underline{k}$
Then
$\underline{\rho} \times(\underline{\omega} \times \underline{\rho})=\left[\left(y^{2}+z^{2}\right) \omega_{x}\right.$
$\left.-x y \omega_{y}-x z \omega_{z}\right] \underline{i}+\left[-x y \omega_{x}\right.$
$\left.+\left(x^{2}+z^{2}\right) \omega_{y}-y z \omega_{z}\right] \underline{j}$
$+\left[-x z \omega_{x}-y z \omega_{y}+\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right) \omega_{z}\right] \underline{k}$
$\mathbf{O}=\mathbf{P}$


$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Let us define: } \quad \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{xx}}=\int_{\mathrm{V}} \rho\left(\mathrm{y}^{2}+\mathrm{z}^{2}\right) \mathrm{dV} \\
& \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{yy}}=\int_{\mathrm{V}} \rho\left(\mathrm{x}^{2}+\mathrm{z}^{2}\right) \mathrm{dV} \quad ; \quad \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{zz}}=\int_{\mathrm{V}} \rho\left(\mathrm{x}^{2}+\mathrm{z}^{2}\right) \mathrm{dV}
\end{aligned}
$$

These are the moments of inertia
$\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{xx}}$ - about x axis
$\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{yy}}-$ about y axis through the reference point $\mathrm{O} \equiv \mathrm{P}$ $\mathrm{I}_{z z}$ - about z axis

Similarly, we define products of Inertia:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{xy}} & =\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{yx}}=-\int_{\mathrm{V}} \rho \mathrm{xy} \mathrm{dV} \\
\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{xz}} & =\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{zx}}=-\int_{\mathrm{V}} \rho \mathrm{xzdV} \\
\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{yz}} & =\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{zy}}=-\int_{\mathrm{V}} \rho \mathrm{yzdV} \\
\Rightarrow \underline{\mathrm{H}}_{\mathrm{p}} & =\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{x}} \underline{\mathrm{i}}+\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{y}} \underline{\mathrm{j}}+\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{z}} \underline{\mathrm{k}}
\end{aligned}
$$

(angular momentum vector for the body, or angular momentum about $P$ )

Here, $H_{x}=I_{x x} \omega_{x}+I_{x y} \omega_{y}+I_{x z} \omega_{z}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{y}=I_{y x} \omega_{x}+I_{y y} \omega_{y}+I_{y z} \omega_{z} \\
& H_{z}=I_{z x} \omega_{x}+I_{z y} \omega_{y}+I_{z z} \omega_{z}
\end{aligned}
$$

In compact notation:

$$
\underline{\mathrm{H}}_{\mathrm{P}}=\sum_{\mathrm{i}=1}^{3} \sum_{\mathrm{j}=1}^{3} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{ij}} \omega_{\mathrm{j}} \quad \underline{\mathrm{e}}_{\mathrm{i}}
$$

where $\underline{\mathrm{e}}_{1}=\underline{\mathrm{i}}, \underline{\mathrm{e}}_{2}=\underline{\mathrm{j}}, \underline{\mathrm{e}}_{3}=\underline{\mathrm{k}}$ and symbols $\mathbf{1 , 2 , 3 \equiv x , y , z}$.

The components of the angular momentum are

$$
H_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{3} I_{i j} \omega_{j}, \quad i=1,2,3
$$

Note that $I_{i i}$ is the second moment of the mass distribution with respect to a Cartesian axis.
Radius of gyration
(effective location of
$k_{i} \equiv \sqrt{\frac{I_{i i}}{m}}, \quad i=1,2,3$ a mass point)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { or } \\
& I_{i i}=m k_{i}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Three moments of inertia and three products of inertia specify the inertia properties of a rigid body with regards to rotational motion.

- Note that $P$ is fixed in the rigid body and $\underline{\omega}$ is the angular velocity of the rigid body.
- No assumption is made concerning the rotational motion of the xyz system. The angular velocity in terms of the xyz system,

$$
\underline{\omega}=\omega_{x} \underline{i}+\omega_{y} \underline{j}+\omega_{z} \underline{k}
$$

is valid at the instant considered.

- $\omega_{x}, \omega_{y}, \omega_{z}$ as well as $I_{i j}$ are, in general, functions of time depending on the orientation of xyz relative to the rigid body.
- To avoid the difficulties associated with treating $I_{i j}$ as functions of time, often one chooses xyz system that is fixed to the rigid body and rotates with it.
- Called a body-fixed coordinate system


### 7.3 MATRIX NOTATION:

Consider $\underline{H}=H_{x} \underline{i}+H_{y} \underline{j}+H_{z} \underline{k}$
If $\underline{i}, \underline{j}, \underline{k}$ are known, the three scalar
components $H_{x}, H_{y}, H_{z}$ can be used to represent $\underline{H}$

- We write $\{H\}=\left\{\begin{array}{l}H_{x} \\ H_{y} \\ H_{z}\end{array}\right\}$ as a column vector.
- A force $\underline{F}$ can be represented as

$$
\lfloor F\rfloor=\left\lfloor F_{x}, F_{y}, F_{z}\right\rfloor, \text { a row vector. }
$$

or $\{F\}=\left\{\begin{array}{c}F_{x} \\ F_{y} \\ F_{z}\end{array}\right\}$ as a column vector.
A square matrix is a $\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{n}$ array of elements: e.g. the elements of inertia $I_{i j}$ can be written as a square matrix

$$
[I]=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
I_{x x} & I_{x y} & I_{x z} \\
I_{y x} & I_{y y} & I_{y z} \\
I_{z x} & I_{z y} & I_{z z}
\end{array}\right]
$$

This is called an inertia matrix for the body ${ }_{j}$

The angular velocity vector can be represented as

$$
\{\omega\}=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\omega_{x} \\
\omega_{y} \\
\omega_{z}
\end{array}\right\}, \text { a column vector. }
$$

$\{\omega\}^{T} \equiv\left\lfloor\omega_{x} \omega_{y} \quad \omega_{z}\right\rfloor$, the transpose of a column vector gives a row vector, etc.

- consider $\lceil 0\rceil\{H\}$ 'the product of a row vector with a column vector

$$
\lfloor\omega\rfloor\{H\}=\omega_{x} H_{x}+\omega_{y} H_{y}+\omega_{z} H_{z} \equiv \underline{\omega} \cdot \underline{H}
$$

In scalar components, it is easy to see that $\underline{H}=\Sigma \Sigma I_{i j} \omega_{j} \underline{e}_{i}$ can be expressed as

$$
\{H\}=[I]\{\omega\}
$$

Clearly, multiplication of $\{\omega\}$ with $[I]$ transforms $\{\omega\}$ into the vector $\{H\}$, usually with a different magnitude as well as direction.
$\Rightarrow$ In general, The angular velocity and the angular momentum vectors for a rigid body are in different directions

Assignment: Complete the review of matrix operations in 7.3.
7.4 Kinetic Energy

For a system of $\mathbf{n}$ particles, the kinetic energy
is

$$
T=\frac{1}{2} m v_{c}^{2}+\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i} \dot{\underline{\rho}}_{i} \cdot \underline{\underline{\rho}}_{i}
$$

where

- $v_{C}$ - speed of the center of mass
- $\underline{\dot{\rho}}_{i}$ - velocity of the $t^{\text {th }}$ particle as viewed from the C.M.


## For a set of particles rigidly connected and the

 assemblage rotating with angular velocity $\underline{\omega}$,$$
\underline{\dot{\rho}}_{i}=\underline{\omega} \times \underline{\rho}_{i}
$$

$$
\underline{\underline{\rho}}_{i} \square \underline{\dot{\rho}}_{i}=\left(\underline{\omega} \times \underline{\rho}_{i}\right)\left(\underline{\omega} \times \underline{\rho}_{i}\right)=\underline{\dot{\rho}}_{i}\left[\left(\underline{\omega} \times \underline{\rho}_{i}\right)\right.
$$

$$
\Rightarrow \quad T_{\text {rot }}=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i} \underline{\dot{\rho}}_{i} \square \underline{\dot{p}}_{i}=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \underline{\omega} \square \underline{\rho}_{i} \times m_{i} \underline{\dot{\rho}}_{i}
$$

(using permutation in scalar triple product)
Now, for a continuous mass distribution

$$
\begin{aligned}
& T_{\text {rot }}=\frac{1}{2} \int_{V} \rho \underline{\omega} \square \underline{\rho} \times \underline{\dot{\rho}} d V=\frac{1}{2} \underline{\omega} \underbrace{\int_{V} \rho \underline{\rho} \times \underline{\dot{\rho}} d V}_{V} \\
& \text { or } T_{\text {rot }}=\frac{1}{2} \underline{\omega} \square \underline{H}_{C} \\
& \text { If } \mathbf{P} \text { is a fixed point: } \\
& T_{\text {rot }}=\frac{1}{2} \underline{\omega} \square \underline{H}_{P} \\
& \text { In vector matrix notation }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
T_{\text {rot }}=\frac{1}{2}\lfloor\omega\rfloor\left\{H_{P}\right\}=\frac{1}{2}\{\omega\}^{T}\left\{H_{P}\right\}
$$

Since $\left\{H_{P}\right\}=[I]\{\omega\}, \quad T_{\text {rot }}=\frac{1}{2}\{\omega\}^{T}[I]\{\omega\}$
If one uses xyz coordinate system located at the center of mass of the rigid body,

$$
\begin{aligned}
T_{r o t}= & \frac{1}{2}\{\omega\}^{T}[I]\{\omega\}=\left[I_{x x} \omega_{x}^{2}+I_{y y} \omega_{y}^{2}+I_{z z} \omega_{z}^{2}\right. \\
& \left.+2 I_{x y} \omega_{x} \omega_{y}+2 I_{x z} \omega_{x} \omega_{z}+2 I_{y z} \omega_{y} \omega_{z}\right] / 2
\end{aligned}
$$

In summation, notation

$$
T_{r o t}=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{3} I_{i j} \omega_{i} \omega_{j}
$$

Ex: If $\underline{\omega}$ has the direction of one of the coordinate axes at an instant,

$$
T_{\text {rot }}=\frac{1}{2} I \omega^{2}
$$

Here, I - moment of inertia about the axis of rotation,
$\underline{\omega}$ - instantaneous angular velocity of the rigid body.

## 7-6 Translation of Coordinate Axes



O'x'y'z'- coordinate system located at the centroid of the body;
Oxyz-any other coord system;
O'=C-the centroid
$O^{\prime}$ : center of mass: the coordinates of the center of mass in $\mathbf{O x y z}$ system are $\left(x_{c}, y_{c}, z_{c}\right)$

Let $I_{x x}, I_{y y}, I_{z z}$ - moments of inertia about xyz axes system

$$
I_{x^{\prime} x^{\prime}}, I_{y^{\prime} y^{\prime}}, I_{z^{\prime} z^{\prime}}=\underset{\text { centroidal axes }}{\text { moments of inertia about }}
$$

m - mass of the body
Easy to show (read 7.6) that
for moments of inertia
$I_{x x}=I_{x^{\prime} x^{\prime}}+m\left(y_{c}^{2}+z_{c}^{2}\right)$
$\left.I_{y y}=I_{y^{\prime} y^{\prime}}+m\left(x_{c}^{2}+z_{c}^{2}\right)\right\}$ parallel axis theorem
$\left.I_{z z}=I_{z^{\prime} z^{\prime}}+m\left(x_{c}^{2}+y_{c}^{2}\right)\right)$

## For products of inertia

$$
\begin{aligned}
& I_{x y}=I_{x^{\prime} y^{\prime}}-m x_{c} y_{c} \\
& I_{x z}=I_{x^{\prime} z^{\prime}}-m x_{c} z_{c} \\
& I_{y z}=I_{y^{\prime} z^{\prime}}-m y_{c} z_{c}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Note that the moments of inertia about the centroidal axes are the smallest.
- The products of inertia may increase or decrease compared to those about centroidal axes depending on the particular case.


### 7.7 Rotation of Coordinate Axes

Consider two different coordinate systems. We assume that the origins for the two systems coincide. $\left.z^{\prime}\right|^{z}$

consider a vector:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\underline{r} & =x \underline{i}+y \underline{j}+z \underline{k} \\
& =x^{\prime} \underline{i^{\prime}}+y^{\prime} \underline{j^{\prime}}+z^{\prime} \underline{k^{\prime}}
\end{aligned}
$$

These are two ways of expressing the same vector $\underline{r}$.

The two systems are characterized by unit vectors $\underline{i}, \underline{j}, \underline{k}$ and $\underline{i}^{\prime}, \underline{j^{\prime}}, \underline{k^{\prime}}$
Let $\underline{i}=l_{x^{\prime} x} \underline{i^{\prime}}+l_{y^{\prime} x} \underline{j^{\prime}}+l_{z^{\prime} x} \underline{k^{\prime}}$

- $l_{x^{\prime} x}, l_{y^{\prime} x}, l_{z^{\prime} x}$ are the cosines of the angles made by the x axis with the $x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}$ and $z^{\prime}$ directions, respectively.
Note that,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& |\underline{i}|=\left|l_{x^{\prime} x} i^{\prime}+l_{y^{\prime} x} \underline{j^{\prime}}+l_{z^{\prime} x} \underline{k^{\prime}}\right|=1 \\
& \Rightarrow \quad l_{x^{\prime} x}^{2}+l_{y^{\prime} y}^{2}+l_{z^{\prime} z}^{2}=1
\end{aligned}
$$

## Consider the example:



Also, $\quad l_{x^{\prime} x}=\cos \theta_{x^{\prime} x}, \quad l_{y^{\prime} x}=\cos \theta_{y^{\prime} x}$,

$$
l_{z^{\prime} x}=\cos \theta_{z^{\prime} x}
$$

## Similarily, we can write

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \underline{j}=l_{x^{\prime},} \underline{i^{\prime}}+l_{y^{\prime} y} \underline{j^{\prime}}+l_{z^{\prime},} \underline{k^{\prime}} \\
& \underline{k}=l_{x^{\prime} z} \underline{i^{\prime}}+l_{y^{\prime} z} \underline{j^{\prime}}+l_{z^{\prime} z} \underline{k^{\prime}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, the vector $\underline{r}=x \underline{i}+y \underline{j}+z \underline{k}$ can be written as $\underline{r}=x\left(l_{x^{\prime} x} \underline{i^{\prime}}+l_{y^{\prime} x} \underline{j^{\prime}}+l_{z^{\prime} x} \underline{k^{\prime}}\right)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& +y\left(l_{x^{\prime} y} \underline{i^{\prime}}+l_{y^{\prime} y} \underline{j^{\prime}}+l_{z^{\prime} y} \underline{k^{\prime}}\right) \\
& +z\left(l_{x^{\prime} z} \underline{i^{\prime}}+l_{y^{\prime} z} \underline{j^{\prime}}+l_{z^{\prime} z} \underline{k^{\prime}}\right) \\
& \equiv x^{\prime} \underline{i^{\prime}}+y^{\prime} \underline{j^{\prime}}+z^{\prime} \underline{k^{\prime}}
\end{aligned}
$$

## In vector-matrix notation

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{c}
x^{\prime} \\
y^{\prime} \\
z^{\prime}
\end{array}\right\}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
l_{x^{\prime} x} & l_{x^{\prime} y} & l_{x^{\prime} z} \\
l_{y^{\prime} x} & l_{y^{\prime} y} & l_{y^{\prime} z} \\
l_{z^{\prime} x} & l_{z^{\prime} y} & l_{z^{\prime} z}
\end{array}\right]\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x \\
y \\
z
\end{array}\right\}
$$

In more compact notation

$$
\left\{r^{\prime}\right\}=[l]\{r\}
$$

where $\{r\}$ and $\left\{r^{\prime}\right\}$ are representations of
$\underline{r}$ and $\underline{r}^{\prime}$ in the two coordinate systems.
It provides relation between components of
the same vector in two coordinate systems.

## Ex: As another example, consider the Kinetic

 energy of a rigid body
$\mathrm{O}=\mathrm{C}$, the center of mass of the body. There are two coordinate axes, xyz, $\mathbf{x}^{\prime} \mathbf{y}^{\prime} \mathbf{z}$ '

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \underline{\omega}=\omega_{x} \underline{i}+\omega_{y} \underline{j}+\omega_{z} \underline{k} \\
& =\omega_{x^{\prime}} \underline{i^{\prime}}+\omega_{y^{\prime}} \underline{j^{\prime}}+\omega_{z^{\prime}} \underline{k^{\prime}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Here $\{\omega\}$ and $\left\{\omega^{\prime}\right\}$ are two represe
the same angular velocity vector.

Then, the kinetic energy expressions in the two coordinate systems are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \quad T_{\text {rot }}=\frac{1}{2}\{\omega\}^{T}[I]\{\omega\}=\frac{1}{2}\left\{\omega^{\prime}\right\}^{T}\left[I^{\prime}\right]\left\{\omega^{\prime}\right\} \\
& \text { Also, }\left\{\omega^{\prime}\right\}=[l]\{\omega\} \text { or }\left\{\omega^{\prime}\right\}^{T}=\{\omega\}^{T}[l]^{T} \\
& \Rightarrow T_{\text {rot }}=\frac{1}{2}\{\omega\}^{T}[I]\{\omega\}=\frac{1}{2}\{\omega\}^{T}[l]^{T}\left[I^{\prime}\right][l]\{\omega\} \\
& \text { and } \quad[I]=[l]^{T}\left[I^{\prime}\right][l] \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

In component form, this transformation of
inertia matrices is $I_{i j}=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{m^{\prime}=1}^{3} \sum_{n^{\prime}=1}^{3} l_{m^{\prime} i} l_{n^{\prime} j} I^{\prime}{ }_{m^{\prime} n^{\prime}}$

Some properties of the matrix [ $l]$. It is an orthogonal matrix, i.e.,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[1]=[l]^{T}[l] \quad \text { (the identity matrix) } } \\
\text { or } & {[l]^{T}=[l]^{-1} }
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\operatorname{det}[l]=\operatorname{det}\left([l]^{T}\right), \quad$ (true for any matrix) $(\operatorname{det}[l])^{2}=1 \quad \Rightarrow$ the matrix operation with $[l]$ only rotates a given vector.

The relation $[1]=[l]^{T}[l]$ can be explicitly written as

$$
\sum_{m^{\prime}=1}^{3} l_{m^{\prime} i} l_{m^{\prime} j}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } i=j \\ 0 & \text { if } i \neq j\end{cases}
$$

These are nine relations in the nine components of the matrix [ $l$ ]. Six of the these equations are linearly independent. $\rightarrow$ There are 9-6=3 rotational degrees of freedom for a set of orthogonal coordinate axes (or for a rigid body).

## Ex: Rotation of axes



Consider a vector $\underline{r}$ that is represented in $x y z$ and $x^{\prime} y^{\prime} z '$ axes. The two systems are rotated by $30^{\circ}$ with respect to each other. Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \underline{r}=x^{\prime} \underline{i}^{\prime}+y^{\prime} \underline{j}^{\prime}+z^{\prime} \underline{k}^{\prime} \\
& \left\{r^{\prime}\right\}=[l]\{r\}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\{r^{\prime}\right\}=[l]\{r\} \\
& \text { Now } \\
& x^{\prime}=l_{x^{\prime} x} x+l_{x^{\prime} y} y+l_{x^{\prime} z} z \\
& l_{x^{\prime} x}=\cos 0=1, \\
& l_{x^{\prime} y}=\cos \theta_{x^{\prime} y}=\cos 90=0 \\
& l_{x^{\prime} z}=\cos \theta_{x^{\prime} z}=\cos 90=0 \\
& y^{\prime}=l_{y^{\prime} x} x+l_{y^{\prime} y} y+l_{y^{\prime} z} z
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& l_{y^{\prime} x}=\cos \theta_{y^{\prime} x}=\cos 90=0, \\
& l_{y^{\prime} y}=\cos \theta_{y^{\prime} y}=\cos 30=\sqrt{3} / 2 \\
& l_{y^{\prime} z}=\cos \theta_{y^{\prime} z}=\cos 60=1 / 2 \\
& z^{\prime}=l_{z^{\prime} x} x+l_{z^{\prime} y} y+l_{z^{\prime} z} z \\
& l_{z^{\prime} x}=0, \quad l_{z^{\prime} y}=\cos 120=-1 / 2 \\
& l_{z^{\prime} z}=\cos 30=\sqrt{3} / 2 \\
& \Rightarrow\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x^{\prime} \\
y^{\prime} \\
z^{\prime}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \sqrt{3} / 2 & 1 / 2 \\
0 & -1 / 2 & \sqrt{3} / 2
\end{array}\right]\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x \\
y \\
z
\end{array}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

### 7.8 Principal Axes consider the inertia

 properties of a rigid body

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{xx}}=\int_{\mathrm{V}} \rho\left(\mathrm{y}^{2}+\mathrm{z}^{2}\right) \mathrm{dV} \\
& \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{yy}}=\int_{\mathrm{V}} \rho\left(\mathrm{x}^{2}+\mathrm{z}^{2}\right) \mathrm{dV} \\
& \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{zz}}=\int_{\mathrm{V}} \rho\left(\mathrm{x}^{2}+y^{2}\right) \mathrm{dV}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then, it is easy to see that

$$
\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{xx}}+\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{yy}}+\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{zz}}=\int_{\mathrm{V}} 2 \rho\left(r^{2}\right) \mathrm{dV}
$$

where $r^{2}=\mathrm{x}^{2}+y^{2}+\mathrm{z}^{2}=\mathrm{x}^{\prime 2}+y^{\prime 2}+z^{\prime 2}=|\underline{\rho}|^{2}$

$$
\Rightarrow I_{x x}+I_{y y}+I_{z z}=I_{x^{\prime} x^{\prime}}+I_{y^{\prime} y^{\prime}}+I_{z^{\prime} z^{\prime}}
$$

i.e., the sum of moments of inertia is invariant to coordinate system rotation.
More generally, $\operatorname{tr}[\mathrm{I}] \equiv$ sum of diagonal terms is unchanged due to coordinate rotation (an orthogonal transform).
Consider products of inertia:
As an example: $I_{x y}=-\int_{V} \rho \mathrm{xy} \mathrm{dV}$
A $180^{\circ}$ rotation about the x -axis $\rightarrow$


$$
\Rightarrow I_{x^{\prime} y^{\prime}}=-I_{x y}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& I_{x^{\prime} z^{\prime}}=-I_{x z} \\
& I_{y^{\prime} z^{\prime}}=I_{y z}
\end{aligned}
$$

- In general, the products of inertia have no preferred sign; the sign depends on the orientation of the body with respect to the coordinate system.

For a body with random orientation, positive and negative values of products of inertia are equally likely to occur.

- The moments and products of inertia are a smooth function of the orientation of the coordinate system orientation since

$$
\left[I^{\prime}\right]=[l][I][l]^{T}
$$

relates the inertia properties in two systems
$\rightarrow$ It is possible to find a coordinate system in which the products of inertia vanish simultaneously
$\rightarrow$ Such a coordinate system is called the principal axes of the rigid body.

- Consider the relation (alternate way to think)

$$
\{H\}=I\{\omega\}
$$

$\mathbf{Q}$ : Is it possible to find a coordinate system in which the angular momentum vector is instantaneously parallel to the angular velocity vector?
i.e., can we write $\{H\}=I\{\omega\}$ for some system?

If one can do that, then

$$
[I]\{\omega\}=I\{\omega\}=I[1]\{\omega\}
$$

or

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\left(I_{x x}-I\right) & I_{x y} & I_{x z} \\
I_{x y} & \left(I_{y y}-I\right) & I_{y z} \\
I_{z x} & I_{z y} & \left(I_{z z}-I\right)
\end{array}\right]\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\omega_{x} \\
\omega_{y} \\
\omega_{z}
\end{array}\right\}=0
$$

(This is really the eigenvalue problem for the inertia matrix [I] ).
If $\{\omega\} \neq 0$, i.e., $\underline{\omega} \neq 0$, then $\operatorname{det}([\mathbf{I}]-\mathbf{I}[\mathbf{1}])=\mathbf{0}$

Or

$$
\left|\begin{array}{ccc}
\left(I_{x x}-I\right) & I_{x y} & I_{x z} \\
I_{x y} & \left(I_{y y}-I\right) & I_{y z} \\
I_{z x} & I_{z y} & \left(I_{z z}-I\right)
\end{array}\right|=0
$$

(this is a characteristic equation, a cubic in I with coefficients $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{ij}}$ :

$$
a_{o} I^{3}+a_{1} I^{2}+a_{2} I+a_{3}=0
$$

Let $I_{1}, I_{2}, I_{3}$ be the roots of the cubic and $\{\omega\}^{1},\{\omega\}^{2},\{\omega\}^{3}$ be the eigenvectors associated with the eigenvalues:

They satisfy
[I] $\{\omega\}^{i}=I_{i}\{\omega\}^{i} \quad \mathbf{i}=\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{2}, \mathbf{3}$.
Clearly, the eigenvectors are known only up to an arbitrary constant, i.e., only the ratio of the components are fixed; in particular, if we assume $\omega_{x}$ to be arbitrary and non-zero, the ratios satisfy

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\left(I_{y y}-I_{i}\right) & I_{y z} \\
I_{z y} & \left(I_{z z}-I_{i}\right)
\end{array}\right]\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\omega_{y} / \omega_{x} \\
\omega_{z} / \omega_{x}
\end{array}\right\}=\left\{\begin{array}{c}
-I_{x y} \\
-I_{z x}
\end{array}\right\}
$$

## If one chooses the constraint

$$
\omega_{x}^{2}+\omega_{y}^{2}+\omega_{z}^{2}=1
$$

then the values of $\omega_{x}, \omega_{y}$ and $\omega_{z}$ are direction cosines of $\underline{\omega} \Rightarrow$ they determine the direction of the corresponding principal axis at the reference point $P$.
It is easy to show that if two principal moments of inertia are distinct, the corresponding eigenvectors are orthogonal, i.e.,

$$
\{\omega\}^{1^{T}}\{\omega\}^{2}=0 \text { if } I_{1} \neq I_{2}
$$

## THE ELLPSOID OF INERTIA Read from the text.

## Ex. 7.4 (text)

Consider a given body with a coordinate system
 located at its centroid.

In this coordinate system, the inertia properties of the body are given by a matrix [I].

$$
[I]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
150 & 0 & -100 \\
0 & 250 & 0 \\
-100 & 0 & 300
\end{array}\right] \mathrm{kg}-\mathrm{m}^{2}
$$

We want to find the principal moments of inertia and the associated directions; also, the coordinate transformation [ $l$ ], specified by the rotation matrix, which diagonalizes the inertia matrix.
Essentially, we are considering the eigenvalue problem $[I]\{\omega\}=I\{\omega\}$ for $[I]$.

## The characteristic equation for the matrix [ $I$ ]

 is$$
\left|\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
150-I & 0 & -100 \\
0 & 250-I & 0 \\
-100 & 0 & 300-I
\end{array}\right]\right|=0
$$

$\Rightarrow \quad(250-\mathrm{I})\left(\mathrm{I}^{2}-450 \mathrm{I}+3.5 \times 10^{4}\right)=0$
The roots, the principal moments of inertia, are $\mathrm{I}_{1}=100 \mathrm{~kg}-\mathrm{m}^{2}, \mathrm{I}_{2}=250 \mathrm{~kg}-\mathrm{m}^{2}, \mathrm{I}_{3}=350 \mathrm{~kg}-\mathrm{m}^{2}$
We now need to find the eigenvectors, which give directions of the principal axes.

The eigenvalue problem is

$$
\begin{equation*}
[[\mathrm{I}]-\mathrm{I}[1]]\{\omega\}=0 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

or $\left(150-I_{i}\right) \omega_{x}-100 \omega_{z}=0$
$\left(250-\mathrm{I}_{i}\right) \quad \omega_{y}=0$
a) Consider the 1st eig.val.: $\mathrm{I}_{1}=100 \mathrm{~kg}-\mathrm{m}^{2}$ :
(2) $\Rightarrow \quad \omega_{y}=0$
(1) $\Rightarrow 50 \omega_{x}=100 \omega_{z}$ or $\omega_{z} / \omega_{x}=1 / 2$.

Thus $\{\omega\}^{1}=\omega_{x}\{1,0,1 / 2\}^{T}$.
a) Consider the 2nd eig.val.: $\mathrm{I}_{2}=250 \mathrm{~kg}-\mathrm{m}^{2}$ : (2) $\Rightarrow \omega_{y}$ is arbitrary
(1) $\Rightarrow-100 \omega_{x}-100 \omega_{z}=0$
(3) $\Rightarrow-100 \omega_{x}+50 \omega_{z}=0$

The only possible solution to these equations is
$\omega_{x}=\omega_{z}=0 \Rightarrow\{\omega\}^{2}=\omega_{y}\{0,1,0\}^{T}$.
c) Consider the 3rd eig.val.: $\mathrm{I}_{3}=350 \mathrm{~kg}-\mathrm{m}^{2}$ : (2) $\Rightarrow \omega_{y}=0 \quad$ Then (1), (3) $\Rightarrow \omega_{z} / \omega_{x}=-2$.

Thus, $\quad\{\omega\}^{3}=\omega_{x}\{1,0,-2\}^{T}$.

Note: The three eigenvectors are, as expected, orthogonal to each other.

$$
\{\omega\}^{i T}\{\omega\}^{j}=0, i \neq j
$$



Note that

$$
\{\omega\}^{1},\{\omega\}^{3}
$$ are in $x z$ plane

Clearly, $x^{\prime} y^{\prime} \mathbf{z}^{\prime}$ is the principal coordinate system

The direction cosines for the $x^{\prime} y^{\prime} z^{\prime}$ system are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& l_{x^{\prime} x}=\cos \theta_{x^{\prime} x}=\cos \alpha_{1}=2 / \sqrt{5} \\
& l_{x^{\prime} y}=\cos \theta_{x^{\prime} y}=\cos 90=0 \\
& l_{x^{\prime} z}=\cos \theta_{x^{\prime} z}=\sin \alpha_{1}=1 / \sqrt{5}
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly, $\quad l_{y^{\prime} x}=\cos \theta_{y^{\prime} x}=\cos 90=0$,

$$
l_{y^{\prime} y}=\cos \theta_{y^{\prime} y}=\cos 0=1, l_{y^{\prime} z}=\cos \theta_{y^{\prime} z}=\cos 90=0
$$

and $l_{z^{\prime} x}=-1 / \sqrt{5}, l_{z^{\prime} y}=0, l_{z^{\prime} z}=2 / \sqrt{5}$
These allow us to construct the rotation matrix

Thus,

$$
[l]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
2 / \sqrt{5} & 0 & 1 / \sqrt{5} \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
-1 / \sqrt{5} & 0 & 2 / \sqrt{5}
\end{array}\right]
$$

- It is easy to check that

$$
\left[I^{\prime}\right]=[l][I][l]^{T}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
100 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 250 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 350
\end{array}\right] \mathrm{kg}-\mathrm{m}^{2}
$$

### 7.9 Displacements of a Rigid Body

Euler's Theorem: The most general displacement of a rigid body with one point fixed is equivalent to a single rotation about some axis through that fixed point
Chasles' Theorem: The most general displacement of a rigid body is equivalent to a screw displacement, i.e., translational motion of a reference point followed by rotation about an axis through the ref. point
Assignment: Read the Section 7.9

### 7.10 Axis and Angle of Rotation

- We know that the components of a vector in two different coordinate systems are obtained by the application of a rotation matrix [ $l$ ] whose elements are the direction cosines.



## Then, the vector $\underline{r}$ can be written as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \underline{r}=x \underline{i}+y \underline{j}+z \underline{k}=x^{\prime} \underline{i}^{\prime}+y^{\prime} \underline{j^{\prime}}+z^{\prime} \underline{k^{\prime}} \\
\Rightarrow & \left\{\begin{array}{l}
x^{\prime} \\
y^{\prime} \\
z^{\prime}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
l_{x^{\prime} x} & l_{x^{\prime} y} & l_{x^{\prime} z} \\
l_{y^{\prime} x} & l_{y^{\prime} y} & l_{y^{\prime} z} \\
l_{z^{\prime} x} & l_{z^{\prime} y} & l_{z^{\prime} z}
\end{array}\right]\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x \\
y \\
z \\
z
\end{array}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

A natural question: Is there a vector whose coordinates remain unchanged as the coordinate system xyz is rotated to the coordinate system $x^{\prime} y^{\prime} z^{\prime}$ ?

If such a vector $\underline{r}$ exists,

$$
\underline{r}=x \underline{i}+y \underline{j}+z \underline{k}=x \underline{i}^{\prime}+y \underline{j^{\prime}}+z \underline{k^{\prime}}
$$

where $\underline{i}, \underline{j}, \underline{k}$ and $\underline{i}^{\prime}, \underline{j}^{\prime}, \underline{k^{\prime}}$ are the basis vectors that define the two coordinate systems, then, given the rotation matrix $[l]$, the relation $\left\{r^{\prime}\right\}=[l]\{r\}$ gives

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{c}
x \\
y \\
z
\end{array}\right\}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
l_{x^{\prime} x} & l_{x^{\prime} y} & l_{x^{\prime} z} \\
l_{y^{\prime} x} & l_{y^{\prime} y} & l_{y^{\prime} z} \\
l_{z^{\prime} x} & l_{z^{\prime} y} & l_{z^{\prime} z}
\end{array}\right]\left\{\begin{array}{c}
x \\
y \\
z
\end{array}\right\}
$$

or $\quad 1\{r\}-[l]\{r\}=0 \quad$ must be satisfied.
This is an eigenvalue question for matrix $[l]$.

- Thus, the existence of such a vector $\{r\}$ (or $\underline{r}$ ) is associated with matrix [ $l$ ] having an eigenvalue of 1 . The corresponding eigenvector will then define the direction which remains unchanged due to rotation, and hence, represents the axis of rotation.


### 7.10 Axis and Angle of Rotation

7.11 Reduction of Forces - equivalent forces and couples

Reading Assignments

### 7.12 Infinitesimal Rotations

- Consider a sequence of rotations: the new and old representations of the vector $\underline{r}$ are related by

$$
\left\{r^{\prime}\right\}=[l]\{r\} \equiv[\Phi]\{r\}
$$



## Ex: Consider a counterclockwise rotation

 about the x axis.Then,
$\left\{r^{\prime}\right\}=\left[\Phi_{1}\right]\{r\}$
where,
the rotation matrix is $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}$,
$\left[\Phi_{1}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \phi_{1} & \sin \phi_{1} \\ 0 & -\sin \phi_{1} & \cos \phi_{1}\end{array}\right]$

## Suppose we perform two rotations in a sequence:

$\{r\} \rightarrow\left\{r^{\prime}\right\}=\left[\Phi_{1}\right]\{r\}$
$\left\{r^{\prime}\right\} \rightarrow\left\{r^{\prime \prime}\right\}=\left[\Phi_{2}\right]\left\{r^{\prime}\right\}=\left[\Phi_{2}\right]\left[\Phi_{1}\right]\{r\}$
combining $\Rightarrow\{r\} \rightarrow\left\{r^{\prime \prime}\right\}=[\Phi]\{r\}$
where

$$
[\Phi]=\left[\Phi_{2}\right]\left[\Phi_{1}\right]
$$

(combined rotation matrix)

Since matrix multiplication does commute,

$$
[\Phi]=\left[\Phi_{2}\right]\left[\Phi_{1}\right] \neq\left[\Phi_{1}\right]\left[\Phi_{2}\right]
$$

Thus, the order in which rotations are accomplished is crucial to know for finite rotations.

We now show that infinitesimal rotations commute!!

## Ex: Consider a sequence of two rotations given below:

1. $x y z \rightarrow x^{\prime} y^{\prime} z^{\prime}$.

Let us call it [ $\Phi_{1}$ ]
2. $x^{\prime} y^{\prime} z^{\prime} \rightarrow x " y " z^{\prime \prime}$

Let us call it $\left[\Phi_{2}\right]$


$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[\Phi_{1}\right] \equiv\left[\varepsilon_{z}\right] } & =\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\cos \varepsilon_{z} & \sin \varepsilon_{z} & 0 \\
-\sin \varepsilon_{z} & \cos \varepsilon_{z} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right] \cong\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & \varepsilon_{z} & 0 \\
-\varepsilon_{z} & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right] \\
& =[1]+\left[\varepsilon_{1}\right] \\
{\left[\Phi_{2}\right] \equiv\left[\varepsilon_{y}\right] } & =\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\cos \varepsilon_{y} & 0 & -\sin \varepsilon_{z} \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
\sin \varepsilon_{z} & 0 & \cos \varepsilon_{z}
\end{array}\right] \cong\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & -\varepsilon_{y} \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
\varepsilon_{y} & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right] \\
& =[1]+\left[\varepsilon_{2}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, the two sequences give:

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[\Phi_{2}\right]\left[\Phi_{1}\right] } & =\left([1]+\left[\varepsilon_{2}\right]\right)\left([1]+\left[\varepsilon_{1}\right]\right) \\
& =[1]+\left[\varepsilon_{1}\right]+\left[\varepsilon_{2}\right]+\left[\varepsilon_{2}\right]\left[\varepsilon_{1}\right] \\
& \cong[1]+\left[\varepsilon_{1}\right]+\left[\varepsilon_{2}\right] \\
{\left[\Phi_{1}\right]\left[\Phi_{2}\right] } & =\left([1]+\left[\varepsilon_{1}\right]\right)\left([1]+\left[\varepsilon_{2}\right]\right) \\
& =[1]+\left[\varepsilon_{1}\right]+\left[\varepsilon_{2}\right]+\left[\varepsilon_{1}\right]\left[\varepsilon_{2}\right] \\
& \cong[1]+\left[\varepsilon_{1}\right]+\left[\varepsilon_{2}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Order not important and rotations can be added vectorially. Infinitesimal rotations $\rightarrow$ angular velocities add as vectors

## Ex: Consider now a sequence of three

## infinitesimal rotations:

1. $\varepsilon_{\mathrm{x}}$ - about x axis

$$
\{r\} \rightarrow\left\{r^{\prime}\right\}=\left[\varepsilon_{x}\right]\{r\}
$$

2. $\varepsilon_{\mathbf{y}}$ - about $\mathbf{y}^{\prime}$ axis

$$
\left\{r^{\prime}\right\} \rightarrow\left\{r^{\prime \prime}\right\}=\left[\varepsilon_{y}\right]\left\{r^{\prime}\right\}=\left[\varepsilon_{y}\right]\left[\varepsilon_{x}\right]\{r\}
$$

3. $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{\mathbf{z}}$ - about z " axis

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{r^{\prime \prime}\right\} & \rightarrow\left\{r^{\prime \prime \prime}\right\}=\left[\varepsilon_{z}\right]\left\{r^{\prime \prime}\right\}=\left[\varepsilon_{z}\right]\left[\varepsilon_{y}\right]\left[\varepsilon_{x}\right]\{r\} \\
& \left.\rightarrow\left\{r^{\prime \prime \prime}\right\} \cong[1]+\left[\hat{\varepsilon}_{z}\right]+\left[\hat{\varepsilon}_{y}\right]+\left[\hat{\varepsilon}_{x}\right]\right]\{r\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Here,
$\left[\hat{\varepsilon}_{x}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \varepsilon_{x} \\ 0 & -\varepsilon_{x} & 0\end{array}\right], \quad\left[\hat{\varepsilon}_{y}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}0 & 0 & -\varepsilon_{y} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \varepsilon_{y} & 0 & 0\end{array}\right]$
$\left[\hat{\varepsilon}_{z}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}0 & \varepsilon_{z} & 0 \\ -\varepsilon_{z} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}\right]$

Let
$[\hat{\varepsilon}]=\left[\hat{\varepsilon}_{x}\right]+\left[\hat{\varepsilon}_{y}\right]+\left[\hat{\varepsilon}_{z}\right]$
Then, $[\hat{\varepsilon}]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}0 & \varepsilon_{z} & -\varepsilon_{y} \\ -\varepsilon_{z} & 0 & \varepsilon_{x} \\ \varepsilon_{z} & -\varepsilon_{x} & 0\end{array}\right]$
and the complete relation is
$\left\{\left\{^{m}\right\} \equiv\left[[1]+\left[\hat{\varepsilon}_{\varepsilon}\right]+\left[\hat{\varepsilon}_{y}\right]+\left[\hat{\varepsilon_{i}}\right]\right](r)=[[1]+[\hat{\varepsilon}]](r)\right.$

Now, apply an infinitesimal rotation to a vector $\underline{r}$ of constant length. e.g.: consider a rotation about z axis. Then,

$$
\left\{r^{\prime}\right\}=[[1]+[\varepsilon]]\{r\}
$$


or $\left\{r^{\prime}\right\}-\{r\}=[\varepsilon]\{r\}$

Note: in the above, we considered rotation of coordinate axes with vector fixed in space $\rightarrow$ any changes in components of $\underline{r}$ are entirely due to coordinate axes rotations.
Now: Consider coordinate system fixed and let the vector $\underline{r}$ rotate in opposite direction.
Suppose that this rotation takes place in time
$\Delta t$. Then,

$$
\{\dot{r}\}=\lim _{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\left\{r^{\prime}\right\}-\{r\}}{\Delta t}
$$

or $\{\dot{r}\}=\lim _{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{[-\varepsilon]\{r\}}{\Delta t}=[\omega]\{r\}$ or $\{\dot{r}\}=[\omega]\{r\}$
Here $\quad[\omega]=\lim _{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{[-\varepsilon]}{\Delta t} \quad \begin{aligned} & \text { the angular } \\ & \text { velocity matrix }\end{aligned}$
The negative sign is introduced so that [ $\omega$ ] refers to rotation of $\underline{r}$ and not to that of the coordinate system.
Recall: for a vector of constant length,

$$
\underline{\dot{r}}=\underline{\omega} \times \underline{r}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{lc}
\text { Thus: } & \underline{\dot{r}}=\underline{\omega} \times \underline{r} \\
\text { and } & \{\dot{r}\}=[\omega]\{r\}
\end{array}
$$

## are statements of the same fact in different

 forms.Note: $[\omega]$ is a skew symmetric matrix consider the matrix: $[\omega]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}0 & -\omega_{z} & \omega_{y} \\ \omega_{z} & 0 & -\omega_{x} \\ -\omega_{y} & \omega_{x} & 0\end{array}\right]$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Then: } \\
& \{\dot{r}\}=[\omega]\{r\}\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\left(-\omega_{z} y+\omega_{y} z\right) \\
\left(-\omega_{z} x+\omega_{x} z\right) \\
\left(-\omega_{y} x+\omega_{x} y\right)
\end{array}\right\}=\left\{\begin{array}{c}
\dot{x} \\
\dot{y} \\
\dot{z}
\end{array}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Also:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\underline{\underline{r}}=\underline{\omega} \times \underline{r} & =\left|\begin{array}{ccc}
\underline{i} & \underline{j} & \underline{k} \\
\omega_{x} & \omega_{y} & \omega_{z} \\
x & y & z
\end{array}\right| \\
& =\left(-\omega_{z} y+\omega_{y} z\right) \underline{i}+\left(\omega_{z} x-\omega_{x} z\right) \underline{j} \\
& +\left(-\omega_{y} x+\omega_{x} y\right) \underline{k}
\end{aligned}
$$

