CHAPTER 7

Basic Concepts and Kinematics of Rigid Body

Motion

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



The positions are defined by $\underline{r}_{i} = x_{i}\underline{i} + y_{i}\underline{j} + z_{i}\underline{k}$ i = 1, 2, 3. \Rightarrow degrees of freedom = n = 9 = 3N Now, constrain the particles \Rightarrow (three particles placed m_1 at the corners of a Ζ triangle whose sides are formed by rigid massless rods)



 m_2

Now: there are three constraints

 $|\underline{r}_1 - \underline{r}_2| = l_1; \quad |\underline{r}_3 - \underline{r}_2| = l_2; \quad |\underline{r}_1 - \underline{r}_3| = l_3$ or $(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2 - l_1^2 = 0$, etc. \Rightarrow n = 3(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.

⇒ 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 <u>3 translational</u> <u>degrees of freedom</u>.
- rotational motion about the specified point - <u>3 rotational degrees of freedom</u>.

Laws of motion for a system of particles (extended to a rigid body)

- a) $\sum \underline{F} = m \ddot{\underline{r}}_c$
- ⇒ translational motion of the C.M. (3 degrees of freedom)
- b) $\sum \underline{M} = \frac{d}{dt} \underline{H}$ about C.M. or an inertially fixed point
- ⇒ rotational motion about the C.M. (3 rotational degrees of freedom)



Recall: the notation and definitions

The equation for moment about an arbitrary point P is:

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



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Now, the angular momentum about the point P is $\underline{H}_{p} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\rho}{i} \times m_{i} \frac{\dot{\rho}_{i}}{\mu_{i}}$

where \dot{p}_i - velocity of m_i as viewed by a non-rotating observer translating with P. (relative velocity in an inertial frame)

For a rigid body - suppose that P is fixed in the body $\Rightarrow |\underline{\rho}_i| = \text{constant}, \text{ and } \underline{\dot{\rho}}_i = \underline{\omega} \times \underline{\rho}_i$ where $\underline{\omega}$ - angular velocity of the body. Thus, the angular momentum about P is \Rightarrow

Ζ

<u>r</u>p

$$\underline{\mathbf{H}}_{p} = \sum_{t=1}^{N} \mathbf{m}_{i} \underline{\boldsymbol{\rho}}_{i} \times \left(\underline{\boldsymbol{\omega}} \times \underline{\boldsymbol{\rho}}_{i}\right)$$

By analogy: for a rigid body rotating with angular velocity $(\underline{\omega})$

 $\underline{\mathbf{H}}_{\rho} = \int_{\mathbf{V}} \rho(\underline{r}) \underline{\rho} \times (\underline{\omega} \times \underline{\rho}) d\mathbf{V} ; d\mathbf{m} = \rho(\underline{\mathbf{r}}) d\mathbf{V}$

dm

Let us define:
$$I_{xx} = \int_{V} \rho(y^2 + z^2) dV$$

 $I_{yy} = \int_{V} \rho(x^2 + z^2) dV$; $I_{zz} = \int_{V} \rho(x^2 + z^2) dV$

These are the moments of inertia

$$I_{xx} - about x axis$$

$$I_{yy} - about y axis$$

$$I_{zz} - about z axis$$

$$I_{zz} - about z axis$$

Similarly, we define products of Inertia:

$$I_{xy} = I_{yx} = -\int_{V} \rho xy dV$$

$$I_{xz} = I_{zx} = -\int_{V} \rho xz dV$$

$$I_{yz} = I_{zy} = -\int_{V} \rho y z dV$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\mathbf{H}}_{\mathbf{p}} = \mathbf{H}_{\mathbf{x}} \underline{\mathbf{i}} + \mathbf{H}_{\mathbf{y}} \underline{\mathbf{j}} + \mathbf{H}_{\mathbf{z}} \underline{\mathbf{k}}$$

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

Here,
$$H_x = I_{xx}\omega_x + I_{xy}\omega_y + I_{xz}\omega_z$$

 $H_y = I_{yx}\omega_x + I_{yy}\omega_y + I_{yz}\omega_z$
 $H_z = I_{zx}\omega_x + I_{zy}\omega_y + I_{zz}\omega_z$

In compact notation:

$$\underline{\mathbf{H}}_{\mathbf{P}} = \sum_{i=1}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{3} \mathbf{I}_{ij} \boldsymbol{\omega}_{j} \underline{\mathbf{e}}_{i}$$

where $\underline{e}_1 = \underline{i}$, $\underline{e}_2 = \underline{j}$, $\underline{e}_3 = \underline{k}$ and symbols 1, 2, $3 \equiv x$, y, z.

The components of the angular momentum

are
$$H_i = \sum_{j=1}^{3} I_{ij} \omega_j, \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$

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

$$I_{ii} = mk_i^2$$

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 *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.

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• $\omega_x, \omega_y, \omega_z$ <u>as well as</u> I_{ij} 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_{ij} as functions of time, <u>often</u> 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 $\underline{H} = H_x \underline{i} + H_y j + H_z \underline{k}$ If \underline{i} , \underline{j} , \underline{k} are known, the three scalar components H_x, H_y, H_z can be used to represent $\frac{H}{\mathbf{F}} \quad \text{We write } \{H\} = \begin{cases} H_x \\ H_y \\ H_z \end{cases} \text{ as a column vector.}$

• A force \underline{F} can be represented as $\lfloor F \rfloor = \lfloor F_x, F_y, F_z \rfloor$, a row vector.

or
$$\{F\} = \begin{cases} F_x \\ F_y \\ F_z \end{cases}$$
 as a column vector.

A square matrix is a $n \times n$ array of elements: e.g. the elements of inertia I_{ij} can be written as a square matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} I \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I_{xx} & I_{xy} & I_{xz} \\ I_{yx} & I_{yy} & I_{yz} \\ I_{zx} & I_{zy} & I_{zz} \end{bmatrix}$$

This is called an inertia matrix for the body.

The angular velocity vector can be represented as $\{\omega\} = \begin{cases} \omega_x \\ \omega_y \\ \omega_z \end{cases}, \text{ a column vector.}$

• $\{\omega\}^T \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \omega_x & \omega_y & \omega_z \end{bmatrix}$, the transpose of a column vector gives a row vector, etc.

• consider $[m] \{H\}$, the product of a row vector with a column vector

$$\left\lfloor \omega \right\rfloor \left\{ H \right\} = \omega_x H_x + \omega_y H_y + \omega_z H_z \equiv \underline{\omega} \cdot \underline{H}$$

In scalar components, it is easy to see that $\underline{H} = \sum \sum I_{ij} \omega_j \underline{e}_i \quad \text{can be expressed as}$ $\{H\} = [I] \{\omega\}$

Clearly, multiplication of $\{\omega\}$ with [I]transforms $\{\omega\}$ into the vector $\{H\}$, usually with a different magnitude as well as direction.

⇒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 n particles, the kinetic energy

is
$$T = \frac{1}{2}mv_c^2 + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^n m_i \underline{\dot{\rho}}_i \cdot \underline{\dot{\rho}}_i$$

where

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

For a set of particles rigidly connected and the assemblage rotating with angular velocity ω ,

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\underline{\rho}}_{i} &= \underline{\omega} \times \underline{\rho}_{i} \\ \dot{\underline{\rho}}_{i} \Box \dot{\underline{\rho}}_{i} &= (\underline{\omega} \times \underline{\rho}_{i}) \Box (\underline{\omega} \times \underline{\rho}_{i}) = \dot{\underline{\rho}}_{i} \Box (\underline{\omega} \times \underline{\rho}_{i}) \\ \Rightarrow \quad T_{rot} &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i} \dot{\underline{\rho}}_{i} \Box \dot{\underline{\rho}}_{i} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \underline{\omega} \Box \underline{\rho}_{i} \times m_{i} \dot{\underline{\rho}}_{i} \end{aligned}$$

(using permutation in scalar triple product)

Now, for a continuous mass distribution

$$T_{rot} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{V} \rho \,\underline{\omega} \,\Box \rho \times \dot{\rho} \,dV = \frac{1}{2} \,\underline{\omega} \,\Box \int_{V} \rho \,\underline{\rho} \times \dot{\rho} \,dV$$

or $T_{rot} = \frac{1}{2} \,\underline{\omega} \,\Box H_{C}$
If P is a fixed point:
 $T_{rot} = \frac{1}{2} \,\underline{\omega} \,\Box H_{P}$
In vector matrix notation
 $T_{rot} = \frac{1}{2} \,\lfloor \omega \rfloor \{H_{P}\} = \frac{1}{2} \{\omega\}^{T} \{H_{P}\}$

Since
$$\{H_P\} = [I]\{\omega\}, T_{rot} = \frac{1}{2}\{\omega\}^T [I]\{\omega\}$$

If one uses xyz coordinate system located at the center of mass of the rigid body,

$$T_{rot} = \frac{1}{2} \{ \omega \}^{T} [I] \{ \omega \} = [I_{xx} \omega_{x}^{2} + I_{yy} \omega_{y}^{2} + I_{zz} \omega_{z}^{2} + 2I_{xy} \omega_{x} \omega_{y} + 2I_{xz} \omega_{x} \omega_{z} + 2I_{yz} \omega_{y} \omega_{z}]/2$$

In summation, notation

$$T_{rot} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{3} I_{ij} \omega_i \omega_j$$

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

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

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': center of mass: the coordinates of the center of mass in Oxyz system are (x_c, y_c, z_c)

Let I_{xx}, I_{yy}, I_{zz} - moments of inertia about xyz axes system

$$I_{x'x'}, I_{y'y'}, I_{z'z'}$$
 = moments of inertia about centroidal axes

m - mass of the body

Easy to show (read 7.6) that

for moments of inertia $I_{xx} = I_{x'x'} + m(y_c^2 + z_c^2)$ $I_{yy} = I_{y'y'} + m(x_c^2 + z_c^2)$ parallel axis theorem $I_{zz} = I_{z'z'} + m(x_c^2 + y_c^2)$

For products of inertia

$$I_{xy} = I_{x'y'} - mx_c y_c$$
$$I_{xz} = I_{x'z'} - mx_c z_c$$
$$I_{yz} = I_{y'z'} - my_c z_c$$

- 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



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 $\underline{i'}, \underline{j'}, \underline{k'}$ Let $\underline{i} = l_{x'x} \underline{i'} + l_{y'x} \underline{j'} + l_{z'x} \underline{k'}$

• $l_{x'x}$, $l_{y'x}$, $l_{z'x}$ are the cosines of the angles made by the x axis with the x', y' and z' directions, respectively.

Note that,

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



Also, $l_{x'x} = \cos \theta_{x'x}$, $l_{y'x} = \cos \theta_{y'x}$, $l_{z'x} = \cos \theta_{z'x}$

Similarily, we can write

$$\underline{j} = l_{x'y} \underline{i'} + l_{y'y} \underline{j'} + l_{z'y} \underline{k'}$$
$$\underline{k} = l_{x'z} \underline{i'} + l_{y'z} \underline{j'} + l_{z'z} \underline{k'}$$

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

In vector-matrix notation

$$\begin{cases} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{cases} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{x'x} & l_{x'y} & l_{x'z} \\ l_{y'x} & l_{y'y} & l_{y'z} \\ l_{z'x} & l_{z'y} & l_{z'z} \end{bmatrix} \begin{cases} x \\ y \\ z \end{cases}$$

In more compact notation $\{r'\} = [l] \{r\}$ where $\{r\}$ and $\{r'\}$ are representations of \underline{r} and $\underline{r'}$ 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



O =C, the center of mass of the body. There are two coordinate axes, xyz, x'y'z' $\underline{\omega} = \omega_x \underline{i} + \omega_y \underline{j} + \omega_z \underline{k}$ $= \omega_{x'} \underline{i'} + \omega_{y'} \underline{j'} + \omega_{z'} \underline{k'}$

Here $\{\omega\}$ and $\{\omega'\}$ are two representations of the same angular velocity vector.

Then, the kinetic energy expressions in the two coordinate systems are $T_{rot} = \frac{1}{2} \{\omega\}^{T} [I] \{\omega\} = \frac{1}{2} \{\omega'\}^{T} [I'] \{\omega'\}$ Also, $\{\omega'\} = [l] \{\omega\}$ or $\{\omega'\}^T = \{\omega\}^T [l]^T$ $\Rightarrow T_{rot} = \frac{1}{2} \{\omega\}^T [I] \{\omega\} = \frac{1}{2} \{\omega\}^T [I]^T [I'] [l] \{\omega\}$ and $[I] = [l]^T [I'][l]$ In component form, this transformation of inertia matrices is $I_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{3} l_{m'i} l_{n'j} I'_{m'n'}$ 34

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

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} l \end{bmatrix}$$
 (the identity matrix)
or $\begin{bmatrix} l \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} l \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$

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

The relation $[1] = [l]^T [l]$ can be explicitly written as $\sum_{m'=1}^{3} l_{m'i} l_{m'j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$

These are <u>nine</u> relations in the <u>nine</u> components of the matrix [*l*]. Six of the these equations are linearly independent.
→ 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 <u>r</u> that is represented in xyz and x'y'z' axes. The two systems are rotated by 30° with respect to each other.

$$\{r'\} = [l]\{r\} \\ Now \\ x' = l_{x'x}x + l_{x'y}y + l_{x'z}z \\ l_{x'x} = \cos 0 = 1, \\ l_{x'y} = \cos \theta_{x'y} = \cos 90 = 0 \\ l_{x'z} = \cos \theta_{x'z} = \cos 90 = 0 \\ y' = l_{y'x}x + l_{y'y}y + l_{y'z}z$$

$$l_{y'x} = \cos \theta_{y'x} = \cos 90 = 0,$$

$$l_{y'y} = \cos \theta_{y'y} = \cos 30 = \sqrt{3}/2$$

$$l_{y'z} = \cos \theta_{y'z} = \cos 60 = 1/2$$

$$z' = l_{z'x}x + l_{z'y}y + l_{z'z}z$$

$$l_{z'x} = 0, \quad l_{z'y} = \cos 120 = -1/2$$

$$l_{z'z} = \cos 30 = \sqrt{3}/2$$

$$\implies \begin{cases} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{cases} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{3}/2 & 1/2 \\ 0 & -1/2 & \sqrt{3}/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{cases} x \\ y \\ z \end{cases}$$

7.8 Principal Axes consider the inertia properties of a rigid body



$$I_{xx} = \int_{V} \rho(y^2 + z^2) dV$$
$$I_{yy} = \int_{V} \rho(x^2 + z^2) dV$$
$$I_{zz} = \int_{V} \rho(x^2 + y^2) dV$$

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Then, it is easy to see that

$$I_{xx} + I_{yy} + I_{zz} = \int_{V} 2\rho(r^{2}) dV$$

where $r^{2} = x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2} = x'^{2} + y'^{2} + z'^{2} = \left|\underline{\rho}\right|^{2}$

$\implies \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{y}\mathbf{y}} + \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{z}\mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x}'} + \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{y}'\mathbf{y}'} + \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{z}'\mathbf{z}'}$

- i.e., the sum of moments of inertia is invariant to coordinate system rotation.
- More generally, *tr*[I]≡*sum of diagonal terms* is unchanged due to coordinate rotation (an orthogonal transform).
- **Consider products of inertia:**

As an example:
$$I_{xy} = -\int_{V} \rho xy dV$$

A 180 ° rotation about the x-axis \rightarrow



• 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 $[I'] = [l][I][l]^T$

relates the inertia properties in two systems

→ It is possible to find a coordinate system in which the products of inertia vanish simultaneously

→ Such a coordinate system is called the principal axes of the rigid body.

- Consider the relation (alternate way to think) $\{H\} = I\{\omega\}$
- **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

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

$$\mathbf{or} \quad \begin{bmatrix} (I_{xx} - I) & I_{xy} & I_{xz} \\ I_{xy} & (I_{yy} - I) & I_{yz} \\ I_{zx} & I_{zy} & (I_{zz} - I) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \omega_x \\ \omega_y \\ \omega_z \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

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

(this is a characteristic equation, a cubic in I with coefficients I_{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] $\{\omega\}^i = I_i \ \{\omega\}^i$ i = 1, 2, 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 ω_x to be arbitrary and non-zero, the ratios satisfy

$$\begin{bmatrix} (I_{yy} - I_i) & I_{yz} \\ I_{zy} & (I_{zz} - I_i) \end{bmatrix} \begin{cases} \omega_y / \omega_x \\ \omega_z / \omega_x \end{cases} = \begin{cases} -I_{xy} \\ -I_{zx} \end{cases}$$

If one chooses the constraint

$$\omega_x^2 + \omega_y^2 + \omega_z^2 = 1,$$

then the values of ω_x, ω_y and ω_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.,

$$\{\omega\}^{1^T}$$
 $\{\omega\}^2 = 0$ if $I_1 \neq I_2$.

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THE ELLPSOID OF INERTIA Read from the text.

Ex. 7.4 (text)

Consider a given body with a coordinate system



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

located at its centroid.

$$\begin{bmatrix} I \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 150 & 0 & -100 \\ 0 & 250 & 0 \\ -100 & 0 & 300 \end{bmatrix} kg - m^2$$

We want to find the principal moments of inertia and the associated directions; also, the coordinate transformation [*I*], 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 $\begin{bmatrix} 150 - I & 0 & -100 \\ 0 & 250 - I & 0 \\ -100 & 0 & 300 - I \end{bmatrix} = 0$

 $\Rightarrow (250-I) (I^2 - 450I + 3.5 \times 10^4) = 0$ The roots, the principal moments of inertia, are $I_1 = 100 \text{kg} - \text{m}^2, I_2 = 250 \text{kg} - \text{m}^2, I_3 = 350 \text{kg} - \text{m}^2$ We now need to find the eigenvectors, which give directions of the principal axes.

The eigenvalue problem is $\left[\left[I \right] - I \left[1 \right] \right] \left\{ \omega \right\} = 0$ or $(150 - I_i) \omega_x - 100 \omega_z = 0$ (1) $(250 - I_i) \omega_v = 0$ (2) $-100\omega_{r} + (300 - I_{i}) \omega_{z} = 0$ (3)a) Consider the 1st eig.val.: $I_1 = 100 kg - m^2$: $\omega_v = 0$ $(2) \Rightarrow$ (1) $\Rightarrow 50 \omega_x = 100 \omega_z \text{ or } \omega_z / \omega_x = 1/2.$ **Thus** $\{\omega\}^1 = \omega_x \{1, 0, 1/2\}^T$. 52

a) Consider the 2nd eig.val.: $I_2 = 250 \ kg - m^2$: (2) $\Rightarrow \omega_v$ is arbitrary $(1) \Rightarrow -100 \omega_{r} - 100 \omega_{z} = 0$ $(3) \Rightarrow -100 \omega_r + 50 \omega_z = 0$ The only possible solution to these equations is $\omega_x = \omega_z = 0 \Longrightarrow \{\omega\}^2 = \omega_y \{0, 1, 0\}^T.$ c) Consider the 3rd eig.val.: $I_3 = 350 kg - m^2$: (2) $\Rightarrow \omega_v = 0$ Then (1), (3) $\Rightarrow \omega_z / \omega_x = -2$. **Thus,** $\{\omega\}^3 = \omega_x \{1, 0, -2\}^T$.

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

$$\{\omega\}^{II} \{\omega\}^{J} = 0, i \neq j.$$



Note that $\{\omega\}^1, \{\omega\}^3$ are in xz plane

Clearly, x'y'z' is the principal coordinate system

The direction cosines for the x' y' z' system are:

$$l_{x'x} = \cos \theta_{x'x} = \cos \alpha_1 = 2/\sqrt{5}$$

$$l_{x'y} = \cos \theta_{x'y} = \cos 90 = 0$$

$$l_{x'z} = \cos \theta_{x'z} = \sin \alpha_1 = 1/\sqrt{5}$$
Similarly, $l_{y'x} = \cos \theta_{y'x} = \cos 90 = 0$,
$$l_{y'y} = \cos \theta_{y'y} = \cos 0 = 1, \ l_{y'z} = \cos \theta_{y'z} = \cos 90 = 0$$
and $l_{z'x} = -1/\sqrt{5}, \ l_{z'y} = 0, \ l_{z'z} = 2/\sqrt{5}$

These allow us to construct the rotation matrix

Thus,

$$\begin{bmatrix} l \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2/\sqrt{5} & 0 & 1/\sqrt{5} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1/\sqrt{5} & 0 & 2/\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix}$$

• It is easy to check that

$$[I'] = [l][I][l]^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 100 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 250 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 350 \end{bmatrix} kg - m^{2}$$

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 $\underline{r} = x\underline{i} + y\underline{j} + z\underline{k} = x'\underline{i'} + y'\underline{j'} + z'\underline{k'}$ $\Rightarrow \begin{cases} x'\\y'\\z' \end{cases} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{x'x} & l_{x'y} & l_{x'z} \\ l_{y'x} & l_{y'y} & l_{y'z} \\ l_{z'x} & l_{z'y} & l_{z'z} \end{bmatrix} \begin{cases} x\\y\\z \end{cases}$

A natural question: Is there a vector whose coordinates remain unchanged as the coordinate system xyz is rotated to the coordinate system x'y'z'?

If such a vector *r* exists,

 $\underline{r} = x\underline{i} + y\underline{j} + z\underline{k} = x\underline{i'} + y\underline{j'} + z\underline{k'}$ where \underline{i} , \underline{j} , \underline{k} and $\underline{i'}$, $\underline{j'}$, $\underline{k'}$ are the basis vectors that define the two coordinate systems, then, given the rotation matrix [*l*], the relation $\{r'\} = [l]\{r\}$ gives

$$\begin{cases} x \\ y \\ z \end{cases} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{x'x} & l_{x'y} & l_{x'z} \\ l_{y'x} & l_{y'y} & l_{y'z} \\ l_{z'x} & l_{z'y} & l_{z'z} \end{bmatrix} \begin{cases} x \\ y \\ z \end{cases}$$

or
$$1{r}-[l]{r}=0$$
 must be satisfied.

This is an eigenvalue question for matrix [*l*].

Thus, the existence of such a vector {r} (or 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 $\{r'\} = [l]\{r\} \equiv [\Phi]\{r\}$





Suppose we perform two rotations in a sequence:

$$\{r\} \rightarrow \{r'\} = [\Phi_1]\{r\}$$

$$\{r'\} \rightarrow \{r''\} = [\Phi_2]\{r'\} = [\Phi_2][\Phi_1]\{r\}$$

combining $\Rightarrow \{r\} \rightarrow \{r''\} = [\Phi]\{r\}$
where $[\Phi] = [\Phi_2][\Phi_1]$ (combined rotation matrix)

Since matrix multiplication does commute, $[\Phi] = [\Phi_2] [\Phi_1] \neq [\Phi_1] [\Phi_2]$

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. $xyz \rightarrow x'y'z'$. Let us call it $[\Phi_1]$





$$\begin{bmatrix} \Phi_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \varepsilon_z & \sin \varepsilon_z & 0 \\ -\sin \varepsilon_z & \cos \varepsilon_z & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cong \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \varepsilon_z & 0 \\ -\varepsilon_z & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \varepsilon_y & 0 & -\sin \varepsilon_z \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sin \varepsilon_z & 0 & \cos \varepsilon_z \end{bmatrix} \cong \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -\varepsilon_y \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \varepsilon_y & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, the two sequences give: $[\Phi_2][\Phi_1] = ([1] + [\varepsilon_2])([1] + [\varepsilon_1])$ $= [1] + [\mathcal{E}_1] + [\mathcal{E}_2] + [\mathcal{E}_2] [\mathcal{E}_1]$ $\cong [1] + [\mathcal{E}_1] + [\mathcal{E}_2]$ $[\Phi_1][\Phi_2] = ([1] + [\varepsilon_1])([1] + [\varepsilon_2])$ $= [1] + [\mathcal{E}_1] + [\mathcal{E}_2] + [\mathcal{E}_1] [\mathcal{E}_2]$ $\cong [1] + [\mathcal{E}_1] + [\mathcal{E}_2]$

Order not important and rotations can be added vectorially. Infinitesimal rotations → angular velocities add as vectors **Ex: Consider now a sequence of three infinitesimal rotations:**

1. ε_x - about x axis $\{r\} \rightarrow \{r'\} = [\mathcal{E}_x]\{r\}$ 2. ε_v - about y' axis $\{r'\} \to \{r''\} = \left[\varepsilon_{v}\right]\{r'\} = \left[\varepsilon_{v}\right][\varepsilon_{x}]\{r\}$ 3. ε_{7} - about z" axis $\{r''\} \rightarrow \{r'''\} = [\varepsilon_z]\{r''\} = [\varepsilon_z] | \varepsilon_v | [\varepsilon_x]\{r\}$ $\rightarrow \{r'''\} \cong \left| [1] + [\hat{\varepsilon}_{z}] + [\hat{\varepsilon}_{y}] + [\hat{\varepsilon}_{x}] \right| \{r\}$

Here,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\varepsilon}_{x} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \varepsilon_{x} \\ 0 & -\varepsilon_{x} & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\varepsilon}_{y} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -\varepsilon_{y} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \varepsilon_{y} & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\varepsilon}_{z} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \varepsilon_{z} & 0 \\ -\varepsilon_{z} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let

$[\hat{\varepsilon}] = [\hat{\varepsilon}_{x}] + [\hat{\varepsilon}_{y}] + [\hat{\varepsilon}_{z}]$ $Then, [\hat{\varepsilon}] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \varepsilon_{z} & -\varepsilon_{y} \\ -\varepsilon_{z} & 0 & \varepsilon_{x} \\ \varepsilon_{z} & -\varepsilon_{x} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

and the complete relation is $\{r'''\} \cong \left[[1] + [\hat{\varepsilon}_{z}] + [\hat{\varepsilon}_{y}] + [\hat{\varepsilon}_{x}] \right] \{r\} = \left[[1] + [\hat{\varepsilon}] \right] \{r\}$
Now, apply an infinitesimal rotation to a vector \underline{r} of constant length. e.g.: consider a rotation about z axis. Then, $\underbrace{y}_{\underline{r} \\ \underline{\varepsilon}_{z} \\ \underline{\varepsilon}_{z} \\ \underline{\varepsilon}_{z} \\ \underline{r} \\ \underline{\varepsilon}_{z} \\$

$$\{r'\} = [[1] + [\varepsilon]] \{r\}$$

or
$$\{r'\} - \{r\} = [\varepsilon] \{r\}$$



Note: in the above, we considered rotation of coordinate axes with vector fixed in space → any changes in components of <u>r</u> 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

 Δt . Then,

$$\{\dot{r}\} = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\{r'\} - \{r\}}{\Delta t}$$

$$\operatorname{or}\left\{\dot{r}\right\} = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\left[-\varepsilon\right]\left\{r\right\}}{\Delta t} = \left[\omega\right]\left\{r\right\} \quad or \quad \left\{\dot{r}\right\} = \left[\omega\right]\left\{r\right\}$$

Here
$$[\omega] = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{[-\varepsilon]}{\Delta t}$$
 the angular velocity matrix

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

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

and $\{\dot{r}\} = [\omega]\{r\}$

are statements of the same fact in different forms.

Note: $[\omega]$ is a skew symmetric matrix consider the matrix: $[\omega] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\omega_z & \omega_y \\ \omega_z & 0 & -\omega_x \\ -\omega_y & \omega_x & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Then:

$$\left\{ \dot{r} \right\} = \left[\omega \right] \left\{ r \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \left(-\omega_z y + \omega_y z \right) \\ \left(-\omega_z x + \omega_x z \right) \\ \left(-\omega_y x + \omega_x y \right) \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \\ \dot{z} \end{array} \right\}$$

 $\begin{array}{c} \vdots \\ \underline{\dot{r}} = \underline{\omega} \times \underline{r} = \begin{vmatrix} \underline{i} & \underline{j} & \underline{k} \\ \omega_x & \omega_y & \omega_z \\ x & y & z \end{vmatrix}$ Also: $= (-\omega_z y + \omega_y z)\underline{i} + (\omega_z x - \omega_x z) j$ $+(-\omega_{y}x+\omega_{x}y)\underline{k}$