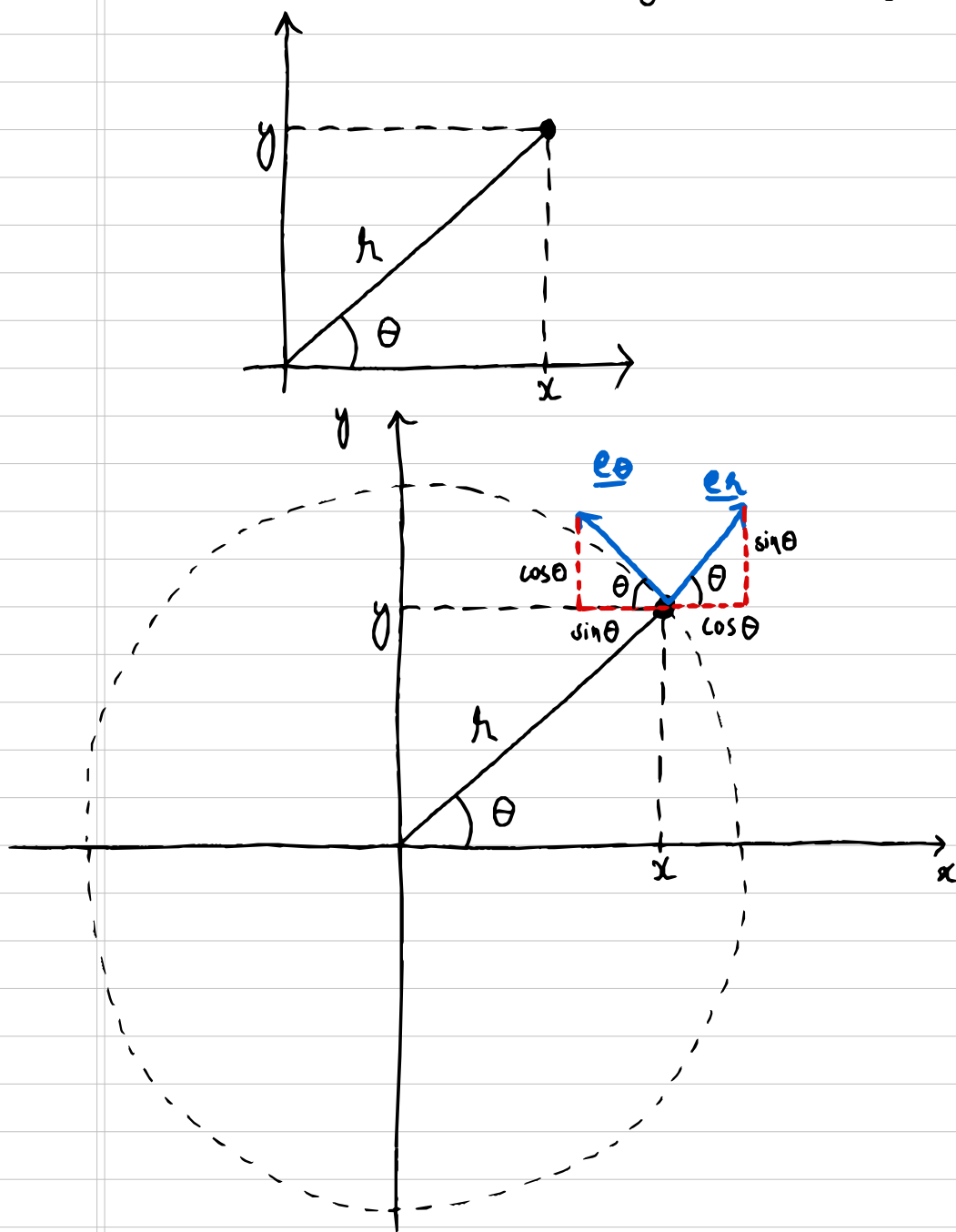


5) Polar  
Coordinates

## 5.1) Basics of Polar Coordinates

Sometimes it is more convenient to use polar coordinates  $(r, \theta)$  rather than Cartesian coordinates  $(x, y)$



The relation between polar and Cartesian coordinates is given by

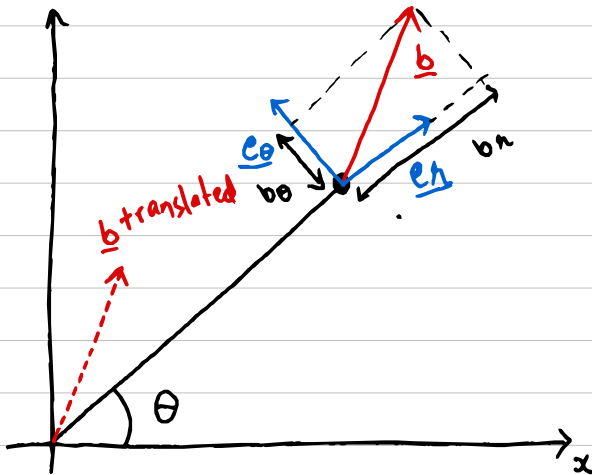
$$x = r \cos \theta \quad y = r \sin \theta$$

→ Just like  $\underline{i}$  and  $\underline{j}$ ,  $\underline{e}_\theta$  and  $\underline{e}_r$  form a basis of the 2D plane

→ Just like  $\{\underline{i}, \underline{j}\}$ ,  $\{\underline{e}_\theta, \underline{e}_r\}$  form an orthonormal basis

At any position  $\underline{x}$  on the  $xy$  plane we can introduce two unit vectors  $\underline{e}_r$  and  $\underline{e}_\theta$  (unit vectors in radial and azimuthal directions) as shown in Fig on page 1.

Any vector associated with point  $\underline{x}$  (eg the velocity of particle  $\dot{\underline{x}}(t)$  whose position at time  $t$  is  $\underline{x}(t)$ ) can be presented in the form



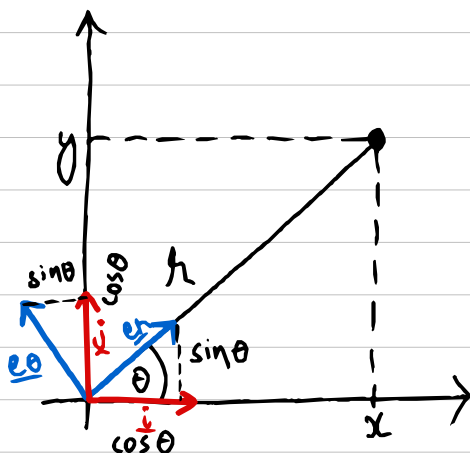
Any vector  $\underline{b} \in \mathbb{R}^2$  can be expressed as a linear combination of  $\underline{e}_\theta$  and  $\underline{e}_r$

$$\underline{b} = b_r \underline{e}_r + b_\theta \underline{e}_\theta$$

Scalars:  $b_r$  is the radial component

$b_\theta$  is the azimuthal component  
of vector  $\underline{b}$

Unit vectors  $\underline{e}_\theta$  and  $\underline{e}_\phi$  can be expressed in terms of cartesian basis vectors  $\underline{i}$  and  $\underline{j}$ .



$$\underline{e}_\theta = 1 \cdot \cos\theta \underline{i} + 1 \cdot \sin\theta \underline{j}$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$\underline{e}_\theta = \cos\theta \underline{i} + \sin\theta \underline{j}$$

$$\underline{e}_\phi = \pm \sin\theta \underline{i} \mp \cos\theta \underline{j} \quad (\text{since } \underline{e}_\phi \text{ is perpendicular to } \underline{e}_\theta)$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$\underline{e}_\phi = \sin\theta \underline{i} - \cos\theta \underline{j} \quad (\text{from diagram})$$

Note:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \text{ is perpendicular to } \lambda \begin{pmatrix} -y \\ x \end{pmatrix} \text{ or } \lambda \begin{pmatrix} y \\ -x \end{pmatrix} \\ \lambda \neq 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

So

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{e}_\theta &= \cos\theta \underline{i} + \sin\theta \underline{j} \\ \underline{e}_\phi &= \sin\theta \underline{i} - \cos\theta \underline{j} \end{aligned}$$

Assume that polar angle  $\theta$  changes with time i.e. polar angle is a function of time  $\theta(t)$

Computing  $\underline{\dot{e}}_r$  and  $\underline{\dot{e}}_\theta$

$$\underline{\dot{e}}_r = \frac{d}{dt} (\cos(\theta) \underline{i} + \sin(\theta) \underline{j})$$

$$= -\sin(\theta) \dot{\theta} \underline{i} + \cos(\theta) \dot{\theta} \underline{j}$$

$$= \dot{\theta} (-\sin(\theta) \underline{i} + \cos(\theta) \underline{j})$$

$$= \dot{\theta} \underline{e}_\theta$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\dot{e}}_r = \dot{\theta} \underline{e}_\theta = -\sin(\theta) \dot{\theta} \underline{i} + \cos(\theta) \dot{\theta} \underline{j}$$

Similarly


$$\underline{\dot{e}}_\theta = \frac{d}{dt} (-\sin(\theta) \underline{i} + \cos(\theta) \underline{j})$$

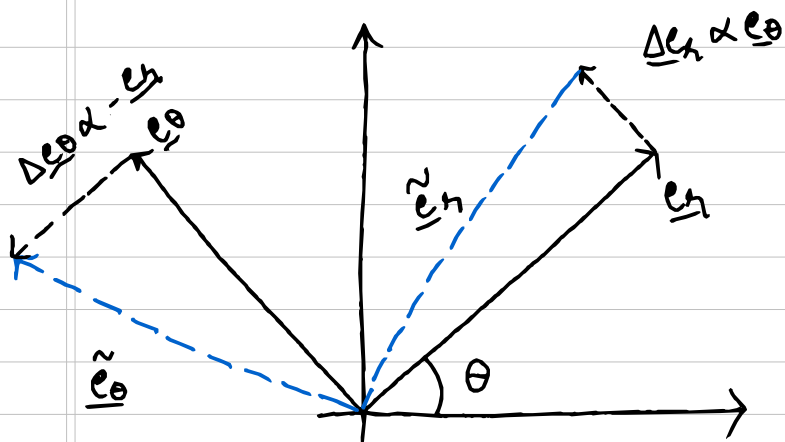
$$= -\cos(\theta) \dot{\theta} \underline{i} - \sin(\theta) \dot{\theta} \underline{j}$$

$$= -\dot{\theta} (\cos(\theta) \underline{i} + \sin(\theta) \underline{j})$$

$$= -\dot{\theta} \underline{e}_r$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\dot{e}}_\theta = -\dot{\theta} \underline{e}_r = -\cos(\theta) \dot{\theta} \underline{i} - \sin(\theta) \dot{\theta} \underline{j}$$

( Using  $\frac{d\underline{i}}{dt} = \frac{d\underline{j}}{dt} = 0$ , i.e. they are constant)



As we can see from the above diagram and previous eqn

$\Delta \underline{e_0} \propto \underline{e_1}$  : Change in  $\underline{e_0}$  is proportional to the opposite direction of  $\underline{e_1}$

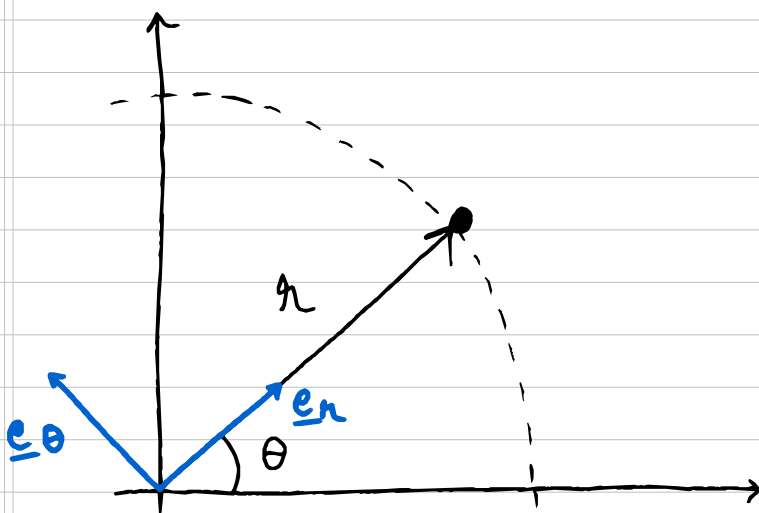
$\Delta \underline{e_1} \propto \underline{e_0}$  : Change in  $\underline{e_1}$  is proportional to  $\underline{e_0}$

## 5.2) Kinematics in Polar Coordinates

Defn: Position vector in polar coordinates:

In polar coordinates, the position vector of a particle is simply

$$\underline{x} = r \cdot \underline{e}_r$$



Computing velocity vector in polar coordinates

$$\underline{v}(t) = \dot{\underline{x}}(t)$$

$$\underline{v}(t) = \dot{\underline{x}}(t) = \frac{d}{dt} (r \cdot \underline{e}_r) \quad (\text{apply product rule})$$

$$= \dot{r} \underline{e}_r + r \dot{\theta} \underline{e}_\theta$$

linear / radial velocity      rotational velocity

Defn: Velocity vector in polar coordinates

$$\underline{v}(t) = \underline{\dot{x}}(t) = \dot{r}\underline{e}_r + r\dot{\theta}\underline{e}_\theta$$

Computing acceleration vector  $\underline{a}(t)$

$$\underline{a}(t) = \underline{\ddot{x}} = \frac{d}{dt}(\underline{\dot{x}}(t))$$

$$= \frac{d}{dt}(\dot{r}\underline{e}_r + r\dot{\theta}\underline{e}_\theta) \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{Apply product} \\ \text{rule} \end{array} \right)$$

$$= \ddot{r}\underline{e}_r + \dot{r}\dot{\underline{e}}_r + \dot{r}\dot{\theta}\underline{e}_\theta + r\ddot{\theta}\underline{e}_\theta + r\dot{\theta}\dot{\underline{e}}_\theta$$

$$= \ddot{r}\underline{e}_r + \dot{r}\dot{\theta}\underline{e}_\theta + \dot{r}\dot{\theta}\underline{e}_\theta + r\ddot{\theta}\underline{e}_\theta - r\dot{\theta}^2\underline{e}_r$$

$$= (\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2)\underline{e}_r + (2\dot{r}\dot{\theta} + r\ddot{\theta})\underline{e}_\theta$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{a}(t) = \underline{\ddot{x}}(t) = (\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2)\underline{e}_r + (2\dot{r}\dot{\theta} + r\ddot{\theta})\underline{e}_\theta$$

motion with no  
rotation

centripetal  
acceleration

Coriolis  
effect

Defn: Acceleration vector in polar coordinates

$$\underline{a}(t) = \underline{\ddot{x}}(t) = (\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2)\underline{e}_r + (2\dot{r}\dot{\theta} + r\ddot{\theta})\underline{e}_\theta$$



## Defn: Centripetal acceleration

$$\text{In } \underline{a}(t) = \underline{\ddot{x}}(t) = (\ddot{r} - \underbrace{r\dot{\theta}^2}_1) \underline{e}_r + (r\ddot{\theta} + \underbrace{2\dot{r}\dot{\theta}}_2) \underline{e}_\theta$$

the term

$$-r\dot{\theta}^2$$

is the centripetal acceleration

Note:  $r > 0$  and  $\dot{\theta}^2 > 0$

$$\Rightarrow -r\dot{\theta}^2 < 0, \text{ i.e. it is negative.}$$

So opposite to direction of  $\underline{e}_r$ , i.e. centripetal acceleration is towards origin

Centripetal acceleration is present for instance when particle is moving in a circle.

The second additional term,

$$2\dot{r}\dot{\theta}$$

is the Coriolis effect.

↳ explains why eg a ball thrown from a merry go round seems to curve.

Note:  $2\dot{r}\dot{\theta}\underline{e}_\theta$  is non-zero only if both  $\dot{r}$  and  $\dot{\theta}$  are non-zero.

$$\text{i.e. } 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta}\underline{e}_\theta \neq 0 \Rightarrow \dot{r} \neq 0 \text{ and } \dot{\theta} \neq 0$$

i.e. for Coriolis effect  $r$  and  $\theta$  both must change

Defn: Equations of motion in polar coordinates

$$\underline{F} = m \underline{\ddot{x}} = m \begin{pmatrix} \ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2 \\ r\ddot{\theta} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} F_r \\ F_\theta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow m \begin{pmatrix} \ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2 \\ r\ddot{\theta} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} F_r \\ F_\theta \end{pmatrix}$$

Another way of writing

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{F} = m \underline{\ddot{x}} &= m((\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2)\underline{e}_r + (r\ddot{\theta} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta})\underline{e}_\theta) \\ &= F_r \underline{e}_r + F_\theta \underline{e}_\theta \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$\begin{cases} m(\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2) = F_r \\ m(2\dot{r}\dot{\theta} + r\ddot{\theta}) = F_\theta \end{cases}$$

- $F_r$  is the radial component of force in direction  $\underline{e}_r$

$$F_r = m(\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2)$$

- $F_\theta$  is azimuthal component of force in direction  $\underline{e}_\theta$

$$F_\theta = m(r\ddot{\theta} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta})$$

## 5.3) Circular Motion

In circular motion,  $r$  is constant, i.e.

$$\dot{r} = 0$$

i.e. particle lies on circle with fixed radius from origin

So velocity vector gets reduced to

$$\underline{v}(t) = \underline{\dot{x}}(t) = \cancel{r\dot{\theta}}\underline{e}_r + r\dot{\theta}\underline{e}_\theta$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{v}(t) = r\dot{\theta}\underline{e}_\theta$$

Defn: Velocity vector in circular motion

In circular motion velocity is

$$\underline{v}(t) = \underline{\dot{x}}(t) = r\dot{\theta}\underline{e}_\theta$$

The acceleration vector reduces to

$$\underline{a}(t) = \underline{\ddot{x}}(t) = (\cancel{\ddot{r}} - r\dot{\theta}^2)\underline{e}_r + (\cancel{2\dot{r}\dot{\theta}} + r\ddot{\theta})\underline{e}_\theta$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{a}(t) = -r\dot{\theta}^2\underline{e}_r + r\ddot{\theta}\underline{e}_\theta$$

Defn: Acceleration vector in circular motion

In circular motion, velocity is

$$\underline{a}(t) = \underline{\ddot{x}}(t) = -r\dot{\theta}^2\underline{e}_r + r\ddot{\theta}\underline{e}_\theta$$

### 5.3.1 Constant Circular Motion:

$$\text{If } \dot{\theta} = \omega = \text{const} \quad (\dot{\theta}(t) = \omega)$$

let

$$\underline{\dot{x}} = \underline{v} = r\omega \underline{e}_\theta = \dot{x}(t)\underline{i} + \dot{y}(t)\underline{j}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\dot{x}}(t) = r\omega(-\sin\theta\underline{i} + \cos\theta\underline{j}) = \dot{x}\underline{i} + \dot{y}\underline{j}$$

$$\Rightarrow -r\omega\sin\theta\underline{i} + r\omega\cos\theta\underline{j} = \dot{x}\underline{i} + \dot{y}\underline{j}$$

Therefore we get

$$\dot{x}(t) = -r\omega\sin(\theta)$$

$$\dot{y}(t) = r\omega\cos(\theta)$$

These are  
Cartesian components

$$\dot{\theta}(\omega) = \omega \Rightarrow \theta(t) = \omega t + \theta_0$$

$$\dot{x}(t) = -r\omega\sin(\omega t + \theta_0)$$

$$\dot{y}(t) = r\omega\cos(\omega t + \theta_0)$$



$$x(t) = r\cos(\omega t) + \theta_0$$

$$y(t) = r\sin(\omega t) + \theta_0$$

↳ circular motion solution

## 5.4) Planets and Pendula

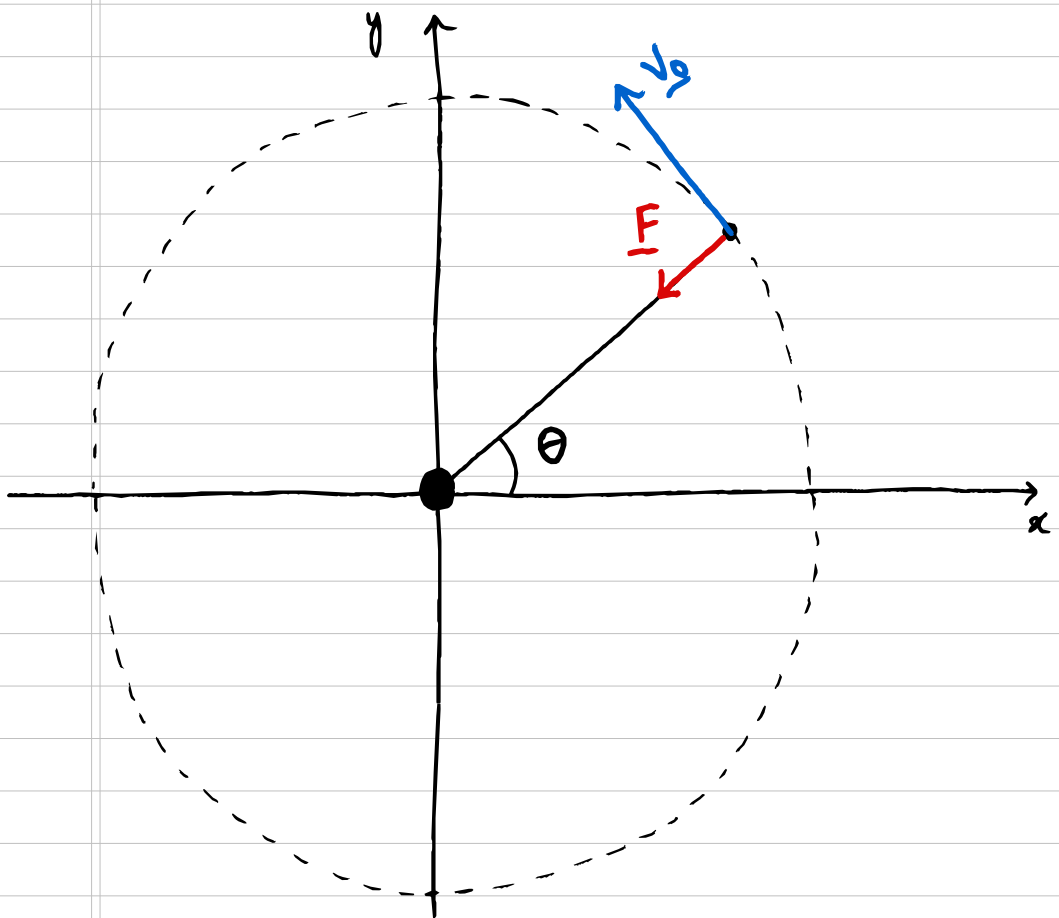
Example problem 1: (Circular motion):

Consider a planet of mass  $m$  which is moving with constant speed  $v_0$  along a circular orbit. Let the radius of the orbit be  $R$ .

what is azimuthal velocity  $v_0$ ?

Solution:

Let the centre of the star be the origin of polar coordinates  $(r, \theta)$



The only force affecting the planet is given by

$$\underline{F} = -\frac{GMm}{r^2} \underline{e}_r$$

So the eqn of motion becomes

$$m(\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2) = F_r = -\frac{GMm}{r^2} \quad (*)$$

$$m(r\ddot{\theta} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta}) = F_\theta = 0 \quad (**)$$

Moving with constant speed  $v_0$ .

Constant radius  $r(t) = R \Rightarrow \dot{r} = 0$  and  $\ddot{r} = 0$

So: we get from (\*)

$$m(\cancel{\ddot{r}} - r\dot{\theta}^2) = -\frac{GMm}{R^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow -R\dot{\theta}^2 = -\frac{GM}{R^2} \quad (***)$$

From (\*\*) we get

$$mR\ddot{\theta} = 0 \Rightarrow \ddot{\theta} = 0 \quad (***)$$

Solving (\*4)

$$\ddot{\theta} = 0 \Rightarrow \theta = \omega t + \theta_0$$

(using initial conditions  
 $\theta(0) = \theta_0, \dot{\theta}(0) = \omega$ )

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\theta(t) = \omega t + \theta_0}$$

Solving (\*3)

$$\dot{\theta}^2 = \frac{GMm}{R^3} \Rightarrow \dot{\theta}(t) = \sqrt{\frac{GM}{R^3}} = \omega$$

$$\Rightarrow \dot{\theta}(t) = \sqrt{\frac{GM}{R^3}} = \omega$$

↳ constant

$$\dot{\theta}(t) = \sqrt{\frac{GM}{R^3}}$$

$$\underline{v}_0 = r \dot{\theta} \underline{e}_\theta \Rightarrow v_0 = |\underline{v}_0|$$

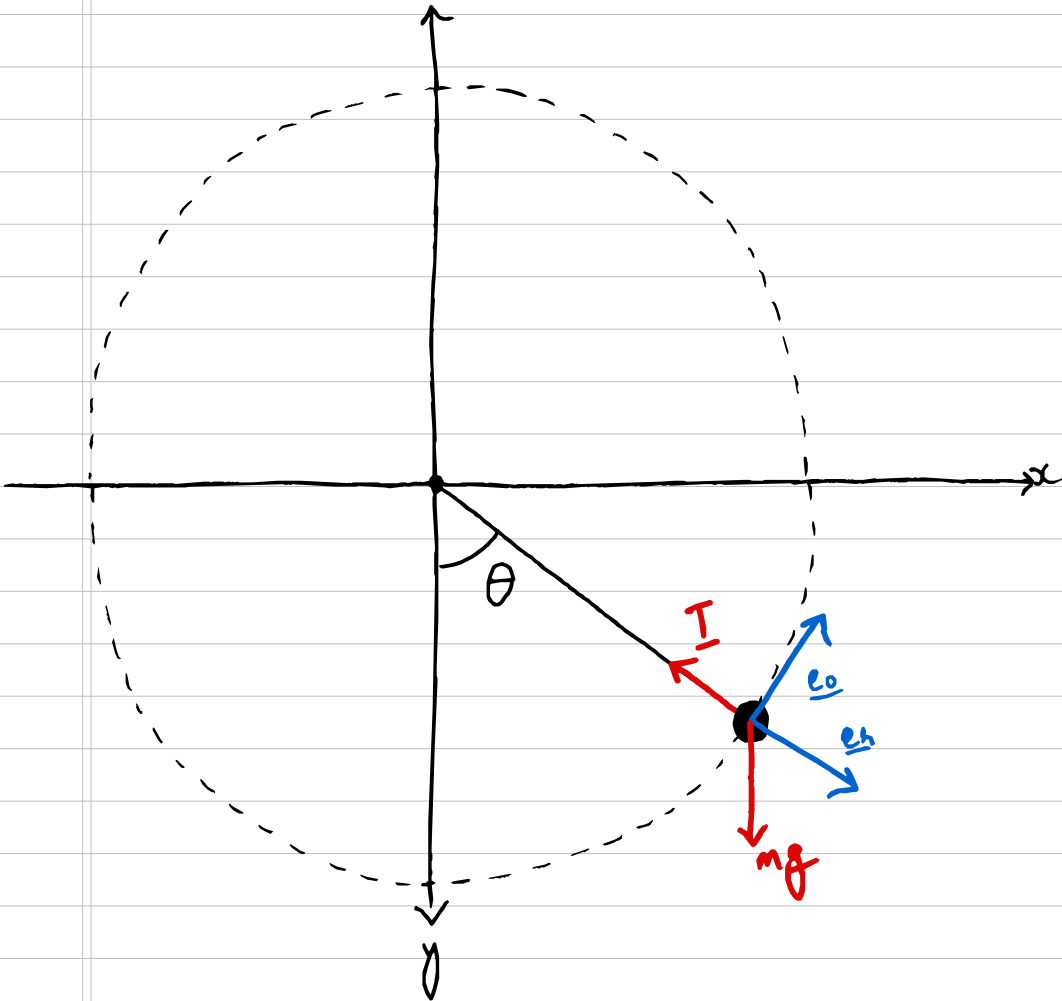
$$\Rightarrow v_0 = |R \dot{\theta}| |\underline{e}_\theta|$$

$$\Rightarrow v_0 = R \cdot \sqrt{\frac{GM}{R^3}}$$

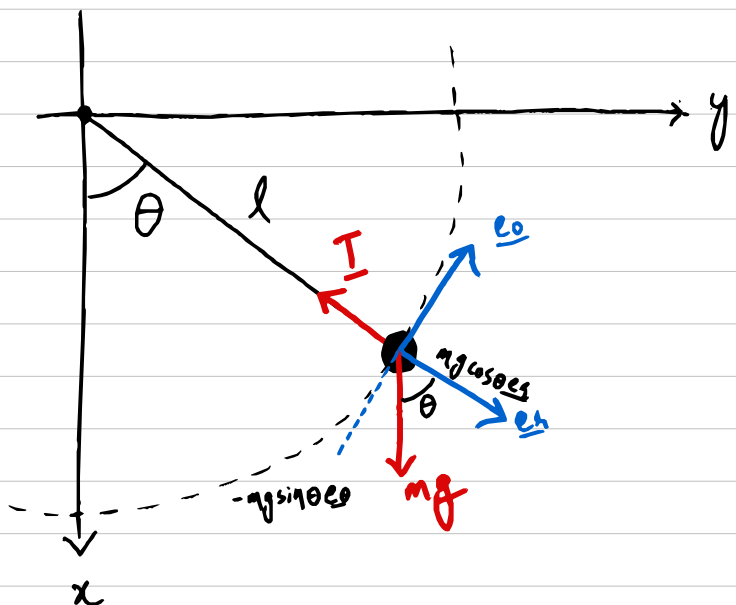
$$\Rightarrow v_0 = \sqrt{\frac{GM}{R}}$$

## Example problem 2: (Simple pendulum):

Consider the motion of an ideal pendulum shown in figure below.



Making a zoomed in diagram:



Therefore from the following observations

- $\underline{T} = -T \underline{e}_r$
- $\underline{F} = m\underline{g} = m(mg \cos \theta \underline{e}_r - mg \sin \theta \underline{e}_\theta)$
- Length is constant  $\Rightarrow r(t) = l$   
 $\Rightarrow \dot{r} = \ddot{r} = 0$

So total force on body is

$$\underline{F} = \underline{T} - m\underline{g}$$

$$\Rightarrow m \begin{pmatrix} \ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2 \\ r\ddot{\theta} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} mg \cos \theta - T \\ -mg \sin \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

Imposing circular motion: length is constant.

$$r(t) \equiv l \Rightarrow \dot{r} \equiv 0 \Rightarrow \ddot{r} = 0$$

We get the following eqns of motion

$$-ml\dot{\theta}^2 = mg \cos \theta - T \quad (*)$$

$$ml\ddot{\theta} = -mg \sin \theta \quad (**)$$

(\*) First of these allow us to determine  $T$  when  $\theta(t)$  is known.

From (\*)

$$-ml\dot{\theta}^2 = -T + mg \cos \theta \Rightarrow T = mg \cos \theta - ml\dot{\theta}^2$$

(\*\*) The second serves as an effective eqn of motion in azimuthal coordinate  $\theta$ . It is convenient to rewrite it as

$$\ddot{\theta} = -\frac{g}{l} \sin \theta \quad (***)$$

$\uparrow$  exact differential eqn for  $\underline{\theta}(t)$



Remark:

Note that eqn

$$\ddot{\theta} = -\frac{g}{l} \sin \theta$$

can be treated as one dimensional motion of particle of unit mass  $m=1$  in the potential

$$v(\theta) = -\frac{g}{l} \cos \theta$$

so that we can write down the "energy"

$$\tilde{E} = \frac{\dot{\theta}^2}{2} + v(\theta)$$

and analyze motion qualitatively like in 3.7

- Evidently  $\theta=0$  is a constant soln of (\*3).  
In other words,  $\theta=0$  is an equilibrium position of the pendulum.
- Looking at motion near pendulum:

Assuming small oscillations, i.e.  $|\theta| \ll 1$  i.e.  $\theta$  is small,

By the fundamental theorem of engineering

$$\sin \theta \approx \theta$$

(Note: exam tip: small oscillations imply simple harmonic motion about stable equilibria)

As a result we obtain the following ODE (approximate ODE):

$$\ddot{\theta} = -\frac{g}{l} \theta$$

upto the notation this is the same as the eqn of a simple harmonic oscillator. It describes small oscillations of the pendulum with angular frequency  $\omega = \sqrt{g/l}$  and period

$$T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega} = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{l}{g}}$$

### Example problem 3: (planetary motion)

Consider a planet of mass  $m$  moving around a fixed star of mass  $M$ .

Let centre of star be the origin of polar coordinates  $(r, \theta)$

The only force acting on the planet is Newtonian gravitational force.

$$\underline{F} = -\frac{GMm}{r^2} \underline{e}_r$$

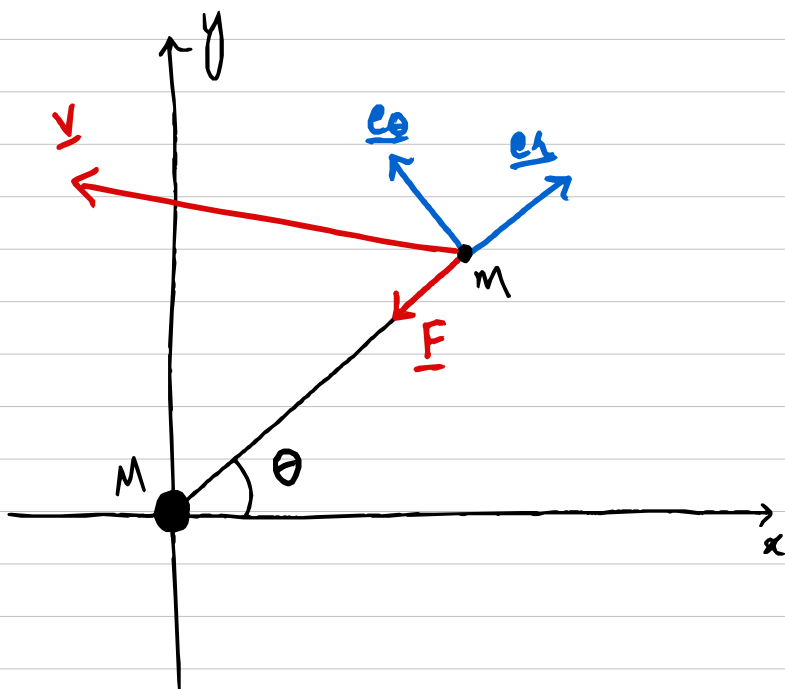
Equation of motion becomes

$$m(\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2) = -\frac{GMm}{r^2} \quad (*)$$

and

$$m(r\ddot{\theta} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta}) = 0 \quad (**)$$

Diagram is drawn on next page



Dividing (\*) by  $m$  and multiplying by  $\dot{r}$ , we find that

$$\ddot{r} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt}(r^2\dot{\theta}) = 0$$

Let  $L = r^2\dot{\theta}$

This means that  $L = r^2\dot{\theta}$  is a constant of motion, since

$$\dot{L} = \frac{d}{dt}(r^2\dot{\theta}) = 0$$

Therefore

$$L(t) = L(0)$$

Defn: Angular momentum:

$L = mL = m\dot{\theta} r^2$  is called angular momentum.  
It is conserved in above example.

$$L = mL = m\dot{\theta} r^2$$

We can use conservation of  $L$  to simplify example problem 3.

Since  $L$  is a constant we have

$$\dot{\theta}(t) = \frac{L}{r^2(t)}$$

Substituting into first eqn (\*) and dividing by  $m$ , we get

$$\ddot{r} = -\frac{\gamma}{r^2} + \frac{L^2}{r^3} \quad (*)$$

where  $GM = \gamma$

Eqn (\*3)

$$\ddot{r} = \frac{-\gamma}{r^2} + \frac{L^2}{r^3} \quad (*)4$$

is called the equation of radial motion, and describes one-dimensional motion in radial direction. It can be solved (subject to appropriate initial conditions).

↳ This will then gives us  $r(t)$

Then  $r(t)$  is substituted into  $\dot{\theta}(t)$  and by integration we find  $\theta(t)$  such that

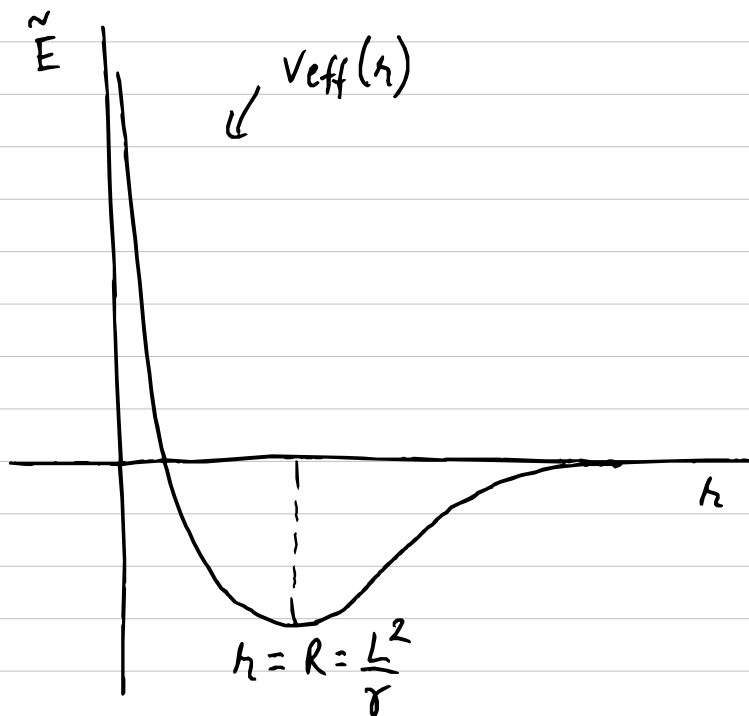
$$\theta(t) = \theta(0) + L \int_0^t \frac{ds}{r^2(s)} \quad (*)5$$

Thus (\*)4 and (\*)5 we can find potential. Since this is 1D, force is conservative

From (\*)4

$$F_r = -dV_{\text{eff}}(r)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow V_{\text{eff}}(r) &= -m \int \left( \frac{-\gamma}{s^2} + \frac{L^2}{s^3} \right) ds \\ &= -\frac{m\gamma}{r} + \frac{mL^2}{2r^2} + C \end{aligned}$$



Indeed

$$V'_{\text{eff}}(r) = \frac{m\gamma}{r^2} - \frac{mL^2}{r^3}$$

So we can see from (\*)

$$\ddot{r} = -V'_{\text{eff}}(r)$$

The energy of the particle moving  $V_{\text{eff}}(x)$  is

$$\tilde{E} = \frac{m\dot{x}^2}{2} + V_{\text{eff}}(x)$$

Now we can use what we already know about motion in a potential in one dimension

The sketch of  $V_{\text{eff}}(r)$  is shown in Figure on previous page

The potential has a minimum point at

$$r = R = \frac{L^2}{\gamma}$$

$$V_{\text{eff}}(R) = \frac{L^2}{2R^2} - \frac{\gamma}{R} = -\frac{\gamma^2}{2L^2}$$

Note: This equilibrium point of radial motion is not a true equilibrium: It corresponds to a circular motion orbit of radius  $R$  such that azimuthal velocity is constant and equal to

$$R\dot{\theta} = \frac{L}{R} = \frac{\gamma}{L}$$

It follows that from the sketch of  $V_{\text{eff}}(r)$  that the motion of the particle is finite, i.e., takes place in a bounded region of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , if  $\tilde{E} < 0$

- $\tilde{E} < 0$ , bound motion, planet's orbit is ellipse
- $\tilde{E} \geq 0$ : planet's motion escapes to  $\infty$ 
  - ↳ •  $\tilde{E} = 0 \Rightarrow$  hyperbola
  - $\tilde{E} > 0 \Rightarrow$  parabola