

# Theoretical Mechanics

# 理论力学

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# Syllabus

■ Chapter 0 Preface

■ Chapter 1 Survey of the Elementary Principles

■ Chapter 2 Variational Principle and Lagrange's Equations

■ Chapter 3 The Central Force Problem

■ Chapter 4 The Kinematics of Rigid Body Motion

Mid-term exam

■ Chapter 5 The Rigid Body Equations of Motion

■ Chapter 6 Oscillations

■ Chapter 7 The Classical Mechanics of the Special Theory of Relativity

■ Chapter 8 The Hamilton Equations of Motion

■ Chapter 9 Canonical Transformations

Final term exam

■ Chapter 10 Introduction to the Lagrangian and Hamiltonian Formulations for Continuous Systems and Fields

# Rotational Motion

We concentrate on the rotational part

Translational part same as a single particle → Easy

Consider total angular momentum  $\mathbf{L} = m_i \mathbf{r}_i \times \mathbf{v}_i$

$\mathbf{v}_i$  is given by the rotation  $\boldsymbol{\omega}$  as  $\mathbf{v}_i = \boldsymbol{\omega} \times \mathbf{r}_i$

**BAC-CAB rule**  
 $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{b}(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c}) - \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})$

$$\mathbf{L} = m_i \mathbf{r}_i \times (\boldsymbol{\omega} \times \mathbf{r}_i) = m_i \left[ \boldsymbol{\omega} r_i^2 - \mathbf{r}_i (\mathbf{r}_i \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}) \right] =$$

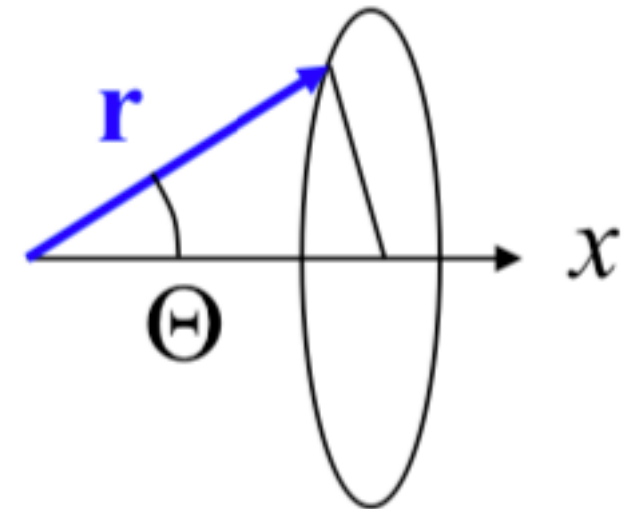
$$\begin{bmatrix} m_i (r_i^2 - x_i^2) & -m_i x_i y_i & -m_i x_i z_i \\ -m_i y_i x_i & m_i (r_i^2 - y_i^2) & -m_i y_i z_i \\ -m_i z_i x_i & -m_i z_i y_i & m_i (r_i^2 - z_i^2) \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\omega}$$

**Inertia tensor  $\mathbf{I}$**   
only dependent on the fix point for a rigid body

# Inertia Tensor

Diagonal components are familiar moment of inertia

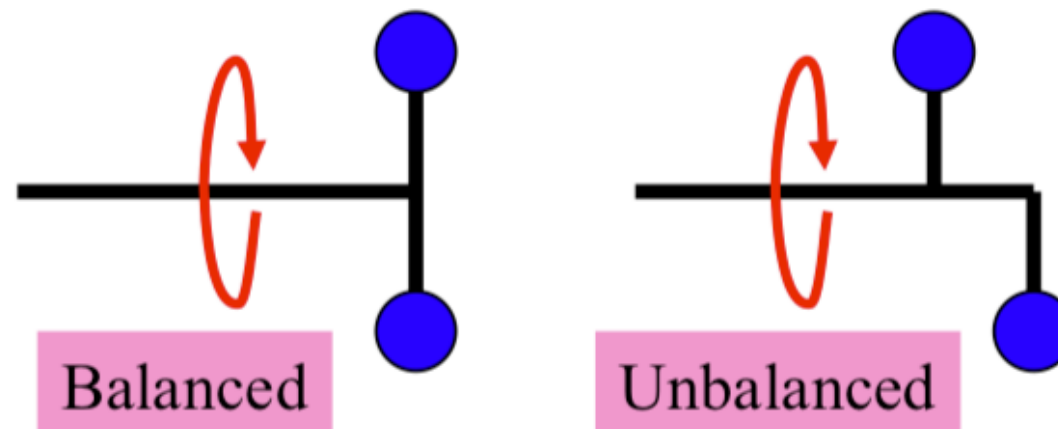
$$I_{xx} = m_i (r_i^2 - x_i^2) = m_i r_i^2 \sin^2 \Theta$$



What are the off-diagonal components?

$I_{yx}$  produces  $L_y$  when the object is turned around  $x$  axis

Imagine turning something like:



Unbalanced one has non-zero off-diagonal components, which represents “wobbliness” of rotation

# Inertia Tensor

Using  $(x_i, y_i, z_i) \rightarrow (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, x_{i3})$

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} m_i (r_i^2 - x_i^2) & -m_i x_i y_i & -m_i x_i z_i \\ -m_i y_i x_i & m_i (r_i^2 - y_i^2) & -m_i y_i z_i \\ -m_i z_i x_i & -m_i z_i y_i & m_i (r_i^2 - z_i^2) \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow$$

$$I_{jk} = m_i (r_i^2 \delta_{jk} - x_{ij} x_{ik})$$

We can also deal with continuous mass distribution  $\rho(\mathbf{r})$

$$I_{jk} = \int \rho(\mathbf{r}) (r^2 \delta_{jk} - x_j x_k) d\mathbf{r}$$

# 5.2 Tensors

$\mathbf{I}$  can be considered as the quotient of  $\mathbf{L}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ , since  $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I}\boldsymbol{\omega}$ .

The quotient of two quantities is often not a member of the same class as the dividing factors, but may belong to a more complicated class.

$\mathbf{I}$  is a new type of quantity, a tensor of the second rank.

A tensor of the first rank is completely equivalent to a vector since  $T'_i = a_{ij}T_j$  where  $\{a_{ij}\} = \mathbf{A}$ .

The 9 components of a tensor of the 2nd-rank transforms as  $T'_{ij} = a_{ik}a_{jl}T_{kl}$ .

## 5.3 The inertia tensor and the moment of inertia

The kinetic energy of motion about a point is

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \sum m_i v_i^2,$$

Where  $\mathbf{v}_i$  is the velocity of the  $i$ th particle relative to the fixed point as measured in the space axes.

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \sum m_i \mathbf{v}_i \cdot (\boldsymbol{\omega} \times \mathbf{r}_i) = \frac{\boldsymbol{\omega}}{2} \cdot \sum m_i (\mathbf{r}_i \times \mathbf{v}_i) = \frac{\boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \mathbf{L}}{2} = \frac{\boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}}{2}$$

If  $\boldsymbol{\omega} = \omega \mathbf{n}$ , then  $T = \frac{\boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}}{2} = \frac{\omega^2}{2} \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{n} = \frac{1}{2} I \omega^2$ , where

$$I \equiv \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{n} = \sum m_i [r_i^2 - (\mathbf{r}_i \cdot \mathbf{n})^2].$$

$I$  is called the moment of inertia about the axis of rotation.

$$I = \sum m_i (\mathbf{r}_i \times \mathbf{n}) \cdot (\mathbf{r}_i \times \mathbf{n}) = \frac{2T}{\omega^2}$$

# Shifting Origin

Origin of body axes does not have to be at the CoM

It's convenient – Separates translational/rotational motion

If it isn't,  $I$  can be easily translated

from origin  $\rightarrow \mathbf{r}_i = \mathbf{R} + \mathbf{r}'_i \leftarrow$  from CoM

$$\begin{aligned} I &= m_i (\mathbf{r}_i \times \mathbf{n})^2 = m_i \left[ (\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{r}'_i) \times \mathbf{n} \right]^2 \\ &= M(\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{n})^2 + m_i (\mathbf{r}'_i \times \mathbf{n})^2 + \cancel{2m_i(\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{n})(\mathbf{r}'_i \times \mathbf{n})} \end{aligned}$$

$I$  of CoM

$I$  from CoM

$$\sum_i \mathbf{r}'_i = 0$$

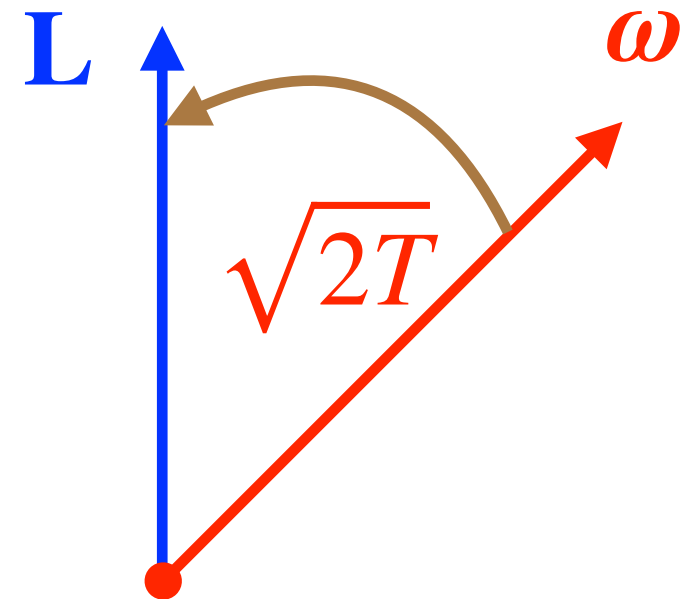


# Geometric view of tensors

We have two fundamental relations of the tensor  $\mathbf{I}$  of a rigid body:

$$(1) \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}$$

$$(2) T = \frac{\boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}}{2}$$



If we ignore the units of  $\mathbf{I}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\omega}$  and  $T$ , then in Eq. (1)  $\mathbf{I}$  maps a vector  $\boldsymbol{\omega}$  to another vector  $\mathbf{L}$  in a 3-dimension vector space; in Eq. (2)  $\mathbf{I}$  maps a vector  $\boldsymbol{\omega}$  to a scalar  $T$ .

Therefore, a tensor  $\mathbf{I}$  is a linear transform operator in Eq. (1) which transform  $\boldsymbol{\omega}$  to  $\mathbf{L}$ ; and a metric tensor in Eq. (2) which defines the “magnitude” of a vector  $\boldsymbol{\omega}$  as  $\sqrt{2T}$ .

# Geometric view of tensors

As we all know, a vector  $\mathbf{A}$  is invariant for the choice of the bases in a vector space. Its geometric interpretation is easily visualized.

In the other word, its algebraic interpretation is

$$\mathbf{A} = A_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + A_2 \mathbf{e}_2 + A_3 \mathbf{e}_3 = A'_1 \mathbf{e}'_1 + A'_2 \mathbf{e}'_2 + A'_3 \mathbf{e}'_3.$$

In matrix form

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & A_2 & A_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_1 \\ \mathbf{e}_2 \\ \mathbf{e}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A'_1 & A'_2 & A'_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}'_1 \\ \mathbf{e}'_2 \\ \mathbf{e}'_3 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ where } A_i \text{ and}$$

$A'_i$  are called as coordinates



$\mathbf{A}$

# Geometric view of tensors

If  $\mathbf{M}$ , a transform matrix, transfers  $\mathbf{e}_i$  to  $\mathbf{e}'_i$ , then we have

$$\mathbf{A} = [A_1 \ A_2 \ A_3] \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{M} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_1 \\ \mathbf{e}_2 \\ \mathbf{e}_3 \end{bmatrix} = [A'_1 \ A'_2 \ A'_3] \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}'_1 \\ \mathbf{e}'_2 \\ \mathbf{e}'_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Remember: if  $\mathbf{M}$  is a **clockwise** rotation, then  $\mathbf{M}^{-1}$  is a **counter clockwise** rotation.

Since there is no absolute bases, two observers usually give different coordinates for a vector  $\mathbf{A}$ .

Therefore the coordinates of a vector in different bases should transfer as

$$\begin{bmatrix} A'_1 \\ A'_2 \\ A'_3 \end{bmatrix} = (\mathbf{M}^{-1})^T \begin{bmatrix} A_1 \\ A_2 \\ A_3 \end{bmatrix} = (\mathbf{M}^T)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} A_1 \\ A_2 \\ A_3 \end{bmatrix},$$

where  $(\mathbf{M}^T)^{-1}$  is the transformation matrix of coordinates.

# Geometric view of tensors

We, physicists, usually ignore the superscripts of  $(\mathbf{M}^T)^{-1}$  and name  $\mathbf{M}$  as the transformation matrix of coordinates. Why?

Then  $A'_i = M_{ij}A_j$ , where  $M_{ij}$  is the components of  $\mathbf{M}$ .

A vector, also a tensor of the first rank, in a Cartesian 3-dimensional space is defined as a quantity having 3 components which transform under an orthogonal transformation of coordinates,  $\mathbf{M}$ , according to the rule  $A'_i = M_{ij}A_j$ .

Why do we define a vector in such a complex way?

Because it makes the different coordinates  $A_i$  and  $A'_i$  refer to the same vector.

# Geometric view of tensors

The meaning of the relation between different coordinates is invariant with the formula forms:

$$A'_i = M_{ij}A_j \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{A} \Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} A'_1 \\ A'_2 \\ A'_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} M_{11} & M_{12} & M_{13} \\ M_{21} & M_{22} & M_{23} \\ M_{31} & M_{32} & M_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A_1 \\ A_2 \\ A_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: From now on,  $\mathbf{A}$  is a  $3 \times 1$  coordinate matrix not  $\mathbf{A} = \sum A_i \mathbf{e}_i$ , although they refer to the same vector!

# Geometric view of tensors

Back to  $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}$

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega} \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I}\boldsymbol{\omega} \Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} L_1 \\ L_2 \\ L_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} I_{11} & I_{12} & I_{13} \\ I_{21} & I_{22} & I_{23} \\ I_{31} & I_{32} & I_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 \\ \omega_2 \\ \omega_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

For another observer, he/she has

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega} \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{L}' = \mathbf{I}'\boldsymbol{\omega}' \Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} L'_1 \\ L'_2 \\ L'_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} I'_{11} & I'_{12} & I'_{13} \\ I'_{21} & I'_{22} & I'_{23} \\ I'_{31} & I'_{32} & I'_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \omega'_1 \\ \omega'_2 \\ \omega'_3 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\text{where } \begin{bmatrix} L'_1 \\ L'_2 \\ L'_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} M_{11} & M_{12} & M_{13} \\ M_{21} & M_{22} & M_{23} \\ M_{31} & M_{32} & M_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} L_1 \\ L_2 \\ L_3 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} \omega'_1 \\ \omega'_2 \\ \omega'_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} M_{11} & M_{12} & M_{13} \\ M_{21} & M_{22} & M_{23} \\ M_{31} & M_{32} & M_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 \\ \omega_2 \\ \omega_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Geometric view of tensors

According to the matrix rules

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I}\omega &= \mathbf{I}\mathbf{M}^{-1}\mathbf{M}\omega \Rightarrow \mathbf{M}\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{I}\mathbf{M}^{-1}\mathbf{M}\omega \\ &\Rightarrow \mathbf{L}' = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{I}\mathbf{M}^{-1}\omega' = \mathbf{I}'\omega'\end{aligned}$$

Here  $\omega' = \mathbf{M}\omega$ .

We have  $\mathbf{I}' = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{I}\mathbf{M}^{-1}$  and then  $I'_{ij} = M_{ik}I_{kl}M_{lj}^{-1} = M_{ik}M_{jl}I_{kl}$ .

Remember:  $\mathbf{M}^{-1} = \mathbf{M}^T = \tilde{\mathbf{M}}$  for an orthogonal transformation matrix  $\mathbf{M}$ .

Although the components of  $\mathbf{I}'$  and  $\mathbf{I}$  are different, they refer to the same quantity.  $\mathbf{I}'$  is naturally similar to  $\mathbf{I}$ .

Unfortunately we cannot show it geometrically.

# Geometric view of tensors

无尽藏是唐朝武周时期的一位比丘尼。

一天，她对六祖慧能说：“我读《涅槃经》好多年了，但仍有许多不明白的地方，希望能得到你的指教。”

慧能回答道：“我不识字，请你把经读给我听，也许我能帮你解疑。”

比丘尼忍不住笑着说：“你连字都不认识，怎么谈得上解释经典呢？”

慧能认真地告诉她：“真理与文字不是一回事。真理就像天上的明月，文字只是指月的手指；手指能指出明月的所在，但手指并不就是明月，看明月也并不一定非用手指不可。”

比丘尼感觉这话很有道理，于是就将经文读给慧能听。慧能一句一句为她解释，使尼师大受启迪。





# Geometric view of tensors

Back to  $T = \frac{\boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}}{2}$

$$T = \frac{\boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}}{2} \Leftrightarrow 2T = \boldsymbol{\omega}^T \mathbf{I} \boldsymbol{\omega} = \boldsymbol{\omega}'^T \hat{\mathbf{I}}' \boldsymbol{\omega}' = \boldsymbol{\omega}^T \mathbf{M}^T \hat{\mathbf{I}}' \mathbf{M} \boldsymbol{\omega}$$

We have  $\mathbf{I} = \mathbf{M}^T \hat{\mathbf{I}}' \mathbf{M}$ .  $\hat{\mathbf{I}}'$  is naturally congruent (合同) to  $\mathbf{I}$ .

We already have  $\mathbf{I}' = \mathbf{M} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{M}^{-1} \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{I}' \mathbf{M}$ .

If  $\mathbf{M}^{-1} = \mathbf{M}^T$ ,  $\hat{\mathbf{I}}' = \mathbf{I}'$ .

$\mathbf{M}$  is an orthogonal transformation matrix!

# Geometric view of tensors

Last but not least, one can find an orthogonal similarity transformation  $\mathbf{M}$  which make  $\mathbf{I}'$  and  $\mathbf{I}$  refer to the **same** tensor in

$$(1) \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}$$

$$(2) T = \frac{\boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}}{2}.$$

The vector space  $V$  of  $\boldsymbol{\omega}$  can be decomposed into a direct sum of 3 invariant subspaces  $U_i$  where  $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega} \in U_i$  if  $\boldsymbol{\omega} \in U_i$ .

The most important task in studying of the motion about a fixed point for a rigid body is to find the 3 **invariant subspaces** so that the tensor  $\mathbf{I}$  can be expressed in the simplest ways.

There is no absolute bases but the simplest set of bases. Why? (Broken symmetry!)



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