

Lecture III: Rigid-Body Physics

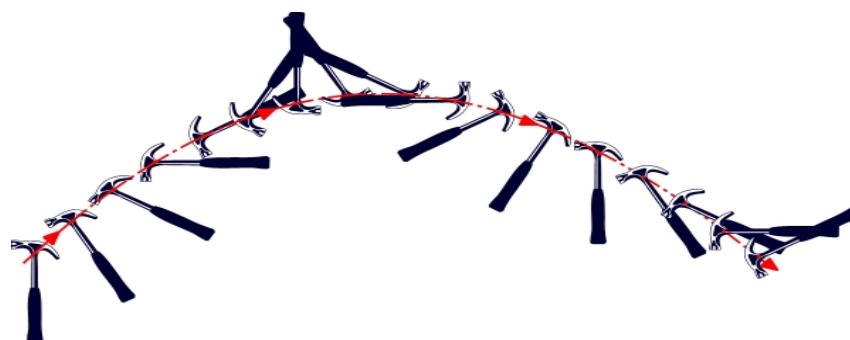
Rigid-Body Motion

- Previously: Point dimensionless objects moving through a trajectory.
- Today: Objects with dimensions, moving as one piece.



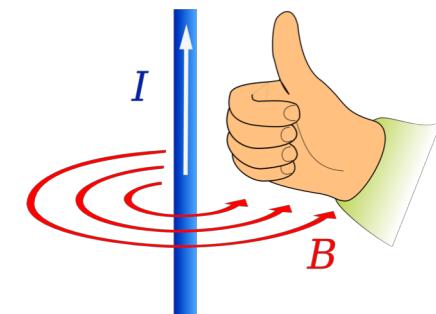
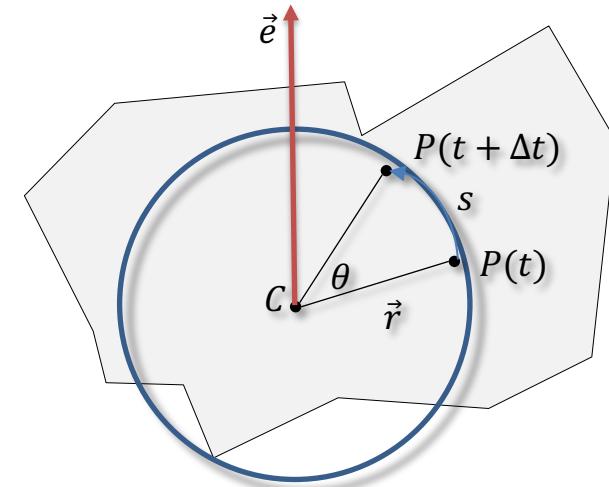
Rigid-Body Kinematics

- Objects as **sets of points**.
- Relative distances between all points are **invariant** to rigid movement.
- Movement has two components:
 - **Linear trajectory** of a central point (“translation”).
 - **Relative rotation** around the point (“rotation”).



Rotational Motion

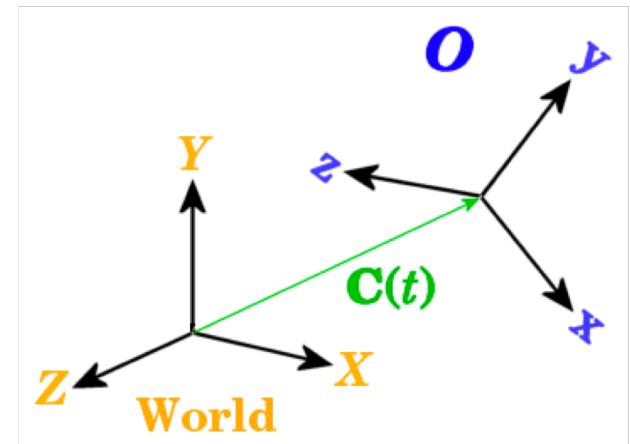
- \vec{P} a point on to the object.
- \vec{C} is the **center of rotation**.
- Distance vector $\vec{r} = \vec{P} - \vec{C}$.
 - $r = \|\vec{r}\|$: distance.
- Object rotates $\Leftrightarrow P$ travels along a **circular path**.
- Unit-length **axis of rotation**: \vec{e} .
 - 2D: $\vec{e} = \hat{z}$ (“out” from the screen).
 - “Positive” Rotation: **counterclockwise**.
 - right-hand rule.



$$\vec{r} \times \frac{d\vec{P}}{dt} \parallel \vec{e}$$

Rigid-Body Kinematics

- Object coordinate system.
- Describing rigid-body motion:
 - Moving origin
 - Rotating orientation.
- Both defined w.r.t. another frame!
 - i.e., the canonical “world coordinates”.



Representing Orientation

- Object axis system (rows):

$$R_o(t) = \begin{pmatrix} \widehat{x}_o(t) \\ \widehat{y}_o(t) \\ \widehat{z}_o(t) \end{pmatrix}.$$

- Changes with time t .
- An **orthonormal** (rotation matrix).
- Rotations are orientations!
- Canonical ($t = 0$) axes: can be arbitrary.
 - The canonical choice $R_o(0) = I_{3 \times 3}$ is default (“world coordinates”).

Axis-Angle Representation

- Every rotation can be represented by an **axis** \hat{e} and a **angle** θ .
- Angle-axis → rotation matrix:

$$R = I + \sin \theta K + (1 + \cos \theta)K^2$$

$$\bullet \quad K = [\hat{e}]_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\hat{e}_z & \hat{e}_y \\ \hat{e}_z & 0 & -\hat{e}_x \\ -\hat{e}_y & \hat{e}_x & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

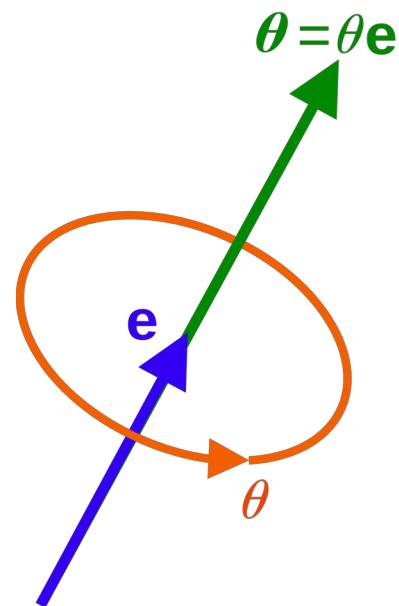
- The **cross-product matrix**: $Kv = \hat{e} \times v$

- Rotation matrix ← angle axis:

$$\theta = \arccos\left(\frac{\text{tr}(R) - 1}{2}\right)$$

$$\hat{e} = \frac{1}{2\sin\theta} \begin{pmatrix} R_{32} - R_{23} \\ R_{13} - R_{31} \\ R_{21} - R_{12} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Not unique! Why?



Quaternions

- Quaternions: $q = (r, \vec{v})$
 - **Real** part: scalar r .
 - **Imaginary** part: vector $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^3$.
- Unit quaternions: $|q|^2 = r^2 + |\vec{v}|^2 = 1$.
- Quaternion multiplication:
$$p \cdot q = (r_p r_q - \langle \vec{v}_p, \vec{v}_q \rangle, r_q \vec{v}_p + r_p \vec{v}_q + \vec{v}_p \times \vec{v}_q)$$
- Not commutative! $p \cdot q \neq q \cdot p$.
- Commutative **iff** $\vec{v}_p \times \vec{v}_q = 0$ (parallel vector parts).
- Inverse and conjugate: $\bar{p} = (r, -\vec{v}), p^{-1} = \bar{p}/|p|^2$.

Quaternions as rotations

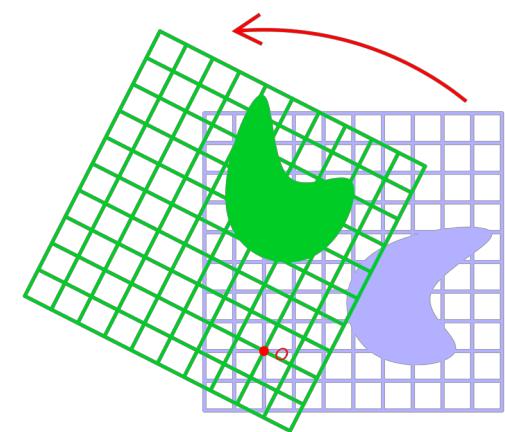
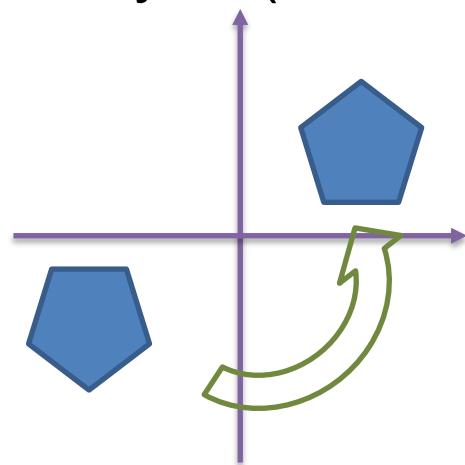
- Rotations as unit quaternions:

$$\mathbf{q} = \left(\cos \frac{\theta}{2}, \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \hat{\mathbf{e}} \right)$$

- Vectors $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \Leftrightarrow$ imaginary quaternions $(0, \vec{a})$.
- Rotating vector \vec{a} by θ , $\hat{\mathbf{e}}$ into vector \vec{b} : $\vec{b} = \mathbf{q}\vec{a}\mathbf{q}^{-1}$.
- Rotation composition: subsequent **multiplication**:
 - Rotation of \mathbf{q} and then \mathbf{p} : $\vec{c} = \mathbf{p}\vec{b}\mathbf{p}^{-1} = \mathbf{p}\mathbf{q}\vec{a}\mathbf{q}^{-1}\mathbf{p}^{-1}$
 $= \mathbf{p}\mathbf{q}\vec{a}(\mathbf{p}\mathbf{q})^{-1} = \mathbf{s}\vec{a}\mathbf{s}^{-1}$
 - Where $\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{p}\mathbf{q}$.
- Quaternions \Leftrightarrow rotation matrices with same axis-angle.
 - Mutual conversion: a bit technical.

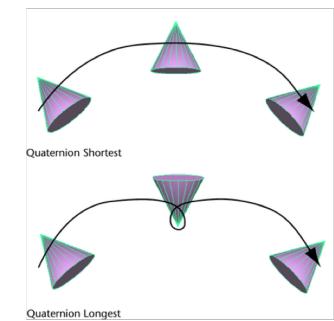
Special case: 2D

- Axis is always $\hat{e} = \hat{z}$.
- Quaternion $q = \left(\cos \frac{\theta}{2}, \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \hat{z} \right)$ reduces to **complex number** $c = e^{i\theta/2}$.
- Rotation of (complex) vector: $\vec{b} = c^2 \vec{a}$.
- Remember $e^{i\pi} = -1$?
 - Rotation by π ! (reflection through point).



Key-framing

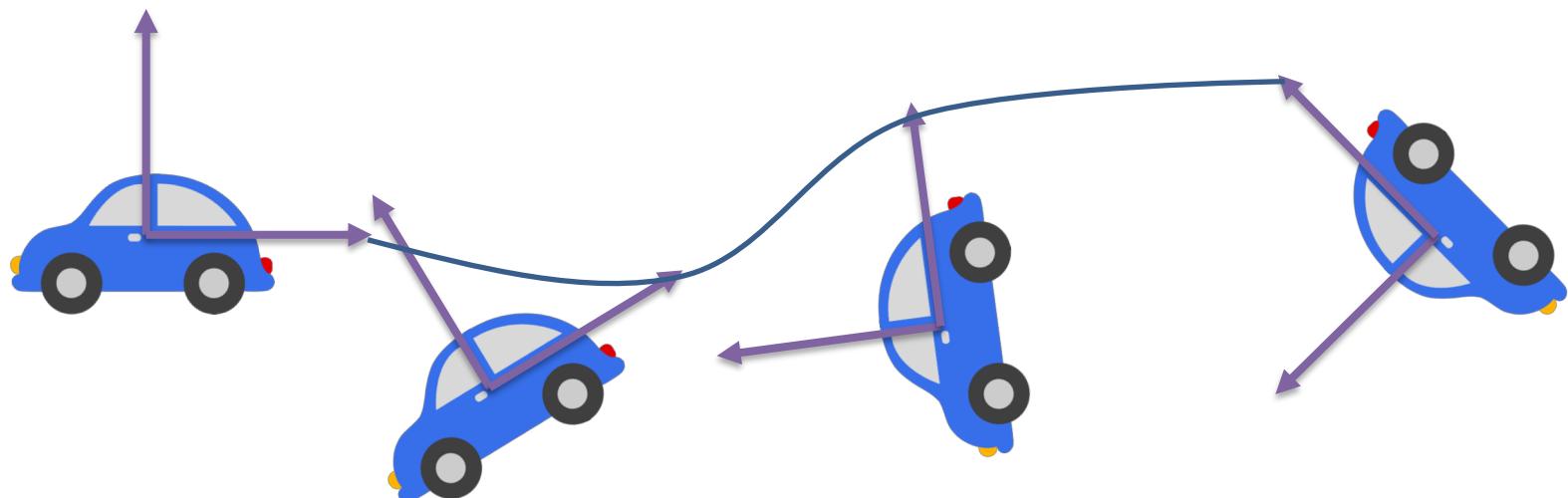
- Interpolating between orientation quaternions $q(t)$ and $q(t + \Delta t)$?
- No single option!
 - Not even in 2D...
- Shortest rotation: $\Delta q(t) = q(t + \Delta t) q(t)^{-1}$
- Can be applied: $q(t + \Delta t) = \Delta q(t) q(t)$.
- What happens continuously?



<http://help.autodesk.com/cloudhelp/2016/ENU/Maya/images/GUID-FC3CA5CD-1E25-4108-A002-712201DB0FF6.png>

Instantaneous Rotation

- A body goes through orientations $\mathbf{q}(t)$ (quaternion).
- The change of orientation, or derivative $\frac{d\mathbf{q}}{dt}$:
$$\frac{d\mathbf{q}}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} (0, \vec{\omega}) \mathbf{q}$$
- What is $\vec{\omega}$?

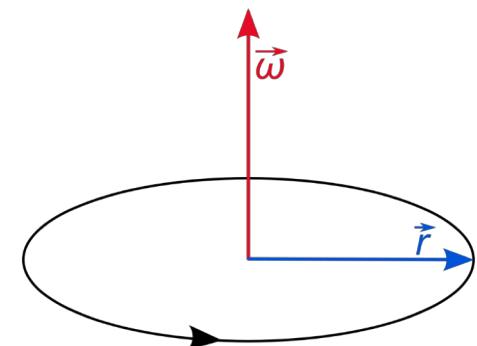


Angular Velocity

- The speed of rotation around the rotation axis:

$$\vec{\omega}(t) = \omega(t)\hat{e}(t).$$

- The **angular velocity vector** is collinear with the rotation axis:
- unit is rad/sec.
- $\hat{e}(t)$: the **instantaneous axis of rotation**.



Angular Acceleration

- **Angular acceleration:** the rate of change of the angular velocity:

$$\vec{\alpha} = \frac{d\vec{\omega}}{dt}$$

- Paralleling definition of linear acceleration.
- Unit is rad/s^2

Tangential and Angular Velocities

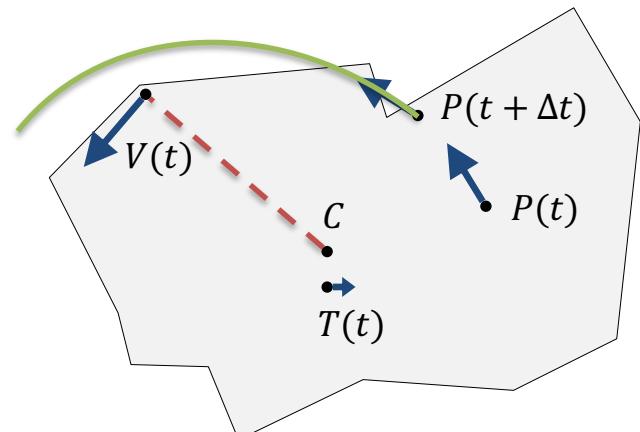
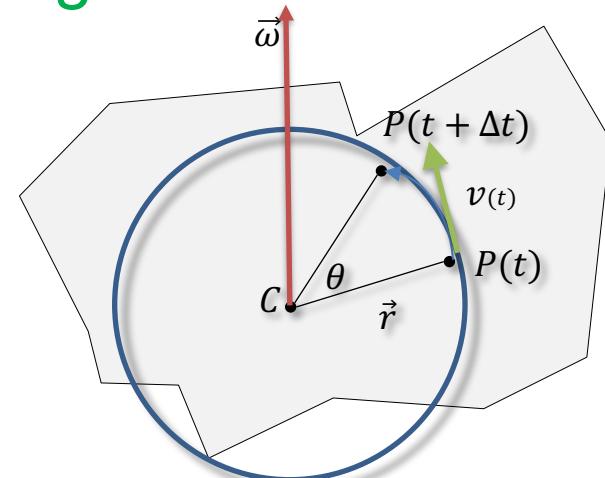
- Every point moves with the same angular velocity.
 - Direction of vector: \vec{e} .
- Tangential velocity vector:

$$\vec{v}^\perp = \vec{\omega} \times \vec{r} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}$$

Or:

$$\vec{\omega} = \frac{\vec{r} \times \vec{v}}{r^2}$$

- $\omega = v^\perp/r$ (abs. values)



Decomposing Movement

- Define original (object) coordinate system and orientation $\vec{c}(0), \mathbf{q}(0)$.

- Position in world coordinates:

$$\vec{x}(t) = \vec{c}(t) + \vec{r}(t) = \vec{c}(t) + \mathbf{q}(t)\vec{r}(0)\mathbf{q}^{-1}(t).$$

- $\vec{r} = \vec{x} - \vec{c}$.

- Combined velocity $\vec{v}(t)$:

- Linear (translational) component: $\vec{v}^{\parallel}(t) = \frac{d\vec{c}(t)}{dt}$

- Rotational component: $\vec{v}^{\perp}(t) = \frac{d\vec{r}(t)}{dt} = \vec{\omega}(t) \times \vec{r}(t)$.

- But, are these always distinguishable?

- Yes!

- $\vec{r}(t)$ only depends on $\mathbf{q}(t)$ and $\vec{r}(0)$ and not on $\vec{c}(t)$.

Combined Movement

- Position of every point

$$\vec{p}(t) = \vec{p}_0 + \int_0^t \left(\vec{v}^\perp(t) + \vec{v}^\parallel(t) \right) dt$$

Combined velocity \vec{v}

- $\vec{v}^\parallel(t)$: **translation** of the object axis system.
- $\vec{v}^\perp(t) = \vec{\omega}(t) \times \vec{r}(t)$: obj. axis system **rotation** around its “origin” $\vec{c}(t)$.
- **Question:** how does the choice of obj. system (axes+origin) matter?

Invariance of Angular Velocity

- $\vec{v}^\perp(t) = \frac{d\vec{r}(t)}{dt} = \vec{\omega}(t) \times \vec{r}(t)$
- What is the angular velocity $\vec{\omega}$ for all points of the object?
- **The same!** Since q is the same:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d\vec{r}(t)}{dt} &= \frac{dq(t)}{dt} \vec{r}(0) q^{-1}(t) + q(t) \vec{r}(0) \frac{dq^{-1}(t)}{dt} = \\ \frac{1}{2} (0, \vec{\omega}) \vec{r}(t) + \frac{1}{2} \vec{r}(t) (0, -\vec{\omega}) &= (0, \vec{\omega}(t) \times \vec{r}(t))\end{aligned}$$

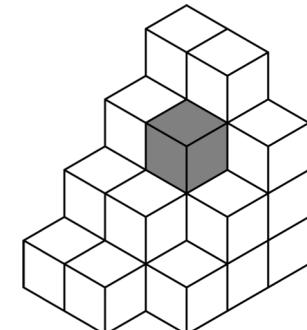
- How does the choice of center $\vec{c}(0)$ matters for $\vec{\omega}$?
 - Or the choice of $\vec{r}(0)$.
 - And why?
- **Note:** $\vec{\omega}$ is still represented in a (global, stationary, maybe canonical) axis system!
- Another world system = another representation = “different” $\vec{\omega}$.

Mass

- The **measure** of the amount of matter in the **volume** of an object:

$$m = \int_V \rho \, dV$$

- ρ : the **density** of each point the object volume V .
- dV : the **volume element**.
- **Equivalently**: a measure of resistance to motion or change in motion.



Mass

- For a 3D object, mass is the integral over its volume:

$$m = \int \int \int \rho(x, y, z) dx dy dz$$

- For **uniform density** (ρ constant):

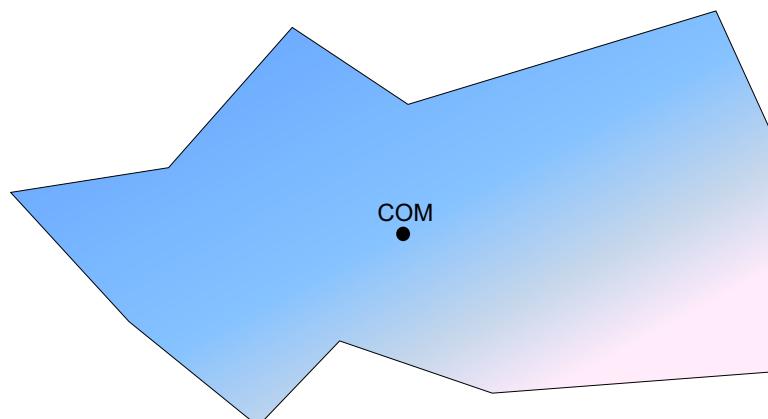
$$m = \rho \cdot V$$

Center of Mass

- The center of mass (COM) is the “average” point of the object, weighted by density:

$$\overrightarrow{COM} = \frac{1}{m} \int_V \rho \cdot \vec{p} \, dV$$

- p : point coordinates.
- Point of balance for the object.
- Uniform density: COM \Leftrightarrow centroid.



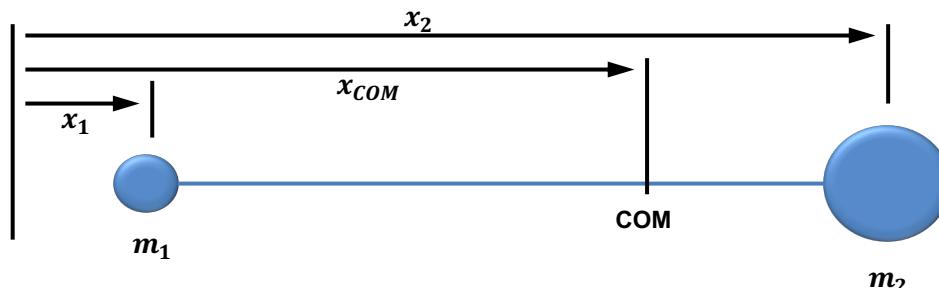
Center of Mass of System

- A system of bodies has a mutual center of mass:

$$COM = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \vec{p}_i$$

- m_i : mass of each body.
- p_i : location of individual COM.
- $m = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i$.
- Example: two spheres in 1D

$$x_{COM} = \frac{m_1 x_1 + m_2 x_2}{m_1 + m_2}$$

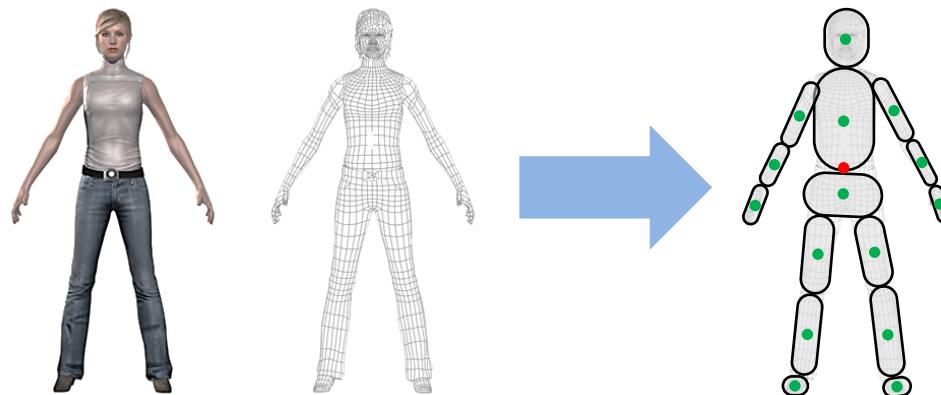


Center of Mass

- Quite easy to determine for primitive shapes

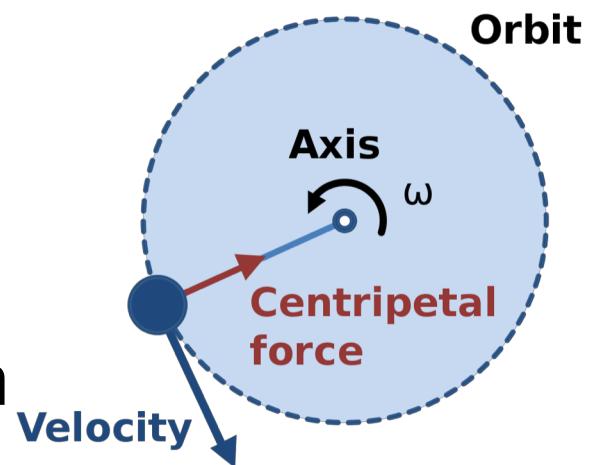


- What about complex surface based models?



Dynamics

- The **centripetal force** creates curved motion.
- In the direction of (negative) \vec{r}
 - Object is **in orbit**.
- Constant force \Leftrightarrow circular rotation with constant **tangential velocity**.
 - Why?



Tangential & Centripetal Accelerations

- Tangential acceleration $\vec{\alpha}$ holds:

$$\vec{a} = \vec{\alpha} \times \vec{r}$$

- cf. velocity equation $\vec{v} = \vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}$.
- The centripetal acceleration drives the rotational movement:

$$\vec{a}_n = \frac{v^2}{r} \hat{r} = -\omega^2 \vec{r}.$$

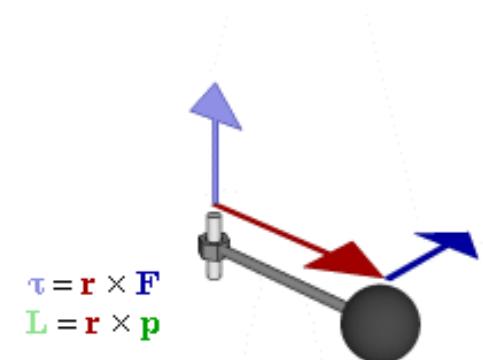
- What is the “centrifugal” force?

Angular Momentum

- Linear motion → linear momentum: $\vec{p} = m\vec{v}$.
- Rotational motion → angular momentum about any fixed relative point (to which \vec{r} is measured):

$$\vec{L} = \int_V (\vec{r} \times \vec{p}) \rho dV$$

- unit is $N \cdot m \cdot s$
- $\rho dV = dm$ (mass element)
- Angular momentum is **conserved!**
 - Just like the linear momentum.
- **Caveat:** conserved w.r.t. the same axis system.



Angular Momentum

- Plugging in angular velocity:

$$(\vec{r} \times \vec{p})dV = (\vec{r} \times \vec{v})dm = (\vec{r} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}))dm$$

- Integrating, we get:

$$\vec{L} = \int_V \vec{r} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r})dm$$

- Note: The **angular momentum** and the **angular velocity** are not generally collinear!

The inertia Tensor

- Define: $\vec{r} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$ and $\vec{\omega} = \begin{pmatrix} \omega_x \\ \omega_y \\ \omega_z \end{pmatrix}$
- For a single rotating body: the angular velocity is **constant**.
- We get:

$$\vec{L} = \int_V \vec{r} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}) dm = \int \begin{pmatrix} (y^2 + z^2)\omega_x - xy\omega_y - xz\omega_z \\ -yx\omega_x + (z^2 + x^2)\omega_y - yz\omega_z \\ -zx\omega_x - zy\omega_y + (x^2 + y^2)\omega_z \end{pmatrix} dm =$$

$$\int \begin{pmatrix} (y^2 + z^2) & -xy & -xz \\ -yx & (z^2 + x^2) & -yz \\ -zx & -zy & (x^2 + y^2) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \omega_x \\ \omega_y \\ \omega_z \end{pmatrix} dm =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{xx} & -\mathbf{I}_{xy} & -\mathbf{I}_{xz} \\ -\mathbf{I}_{yx} & \mathbf{I}_{yy} & -\mathbf{I}_{yz} \\ -\mathbf{I}_{zx} & -\mathbf{I}_{zy} & \mathbf{I}_{zz} \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \omega_x \\ \omega_y \\ \omega_z \end{pmatrix}.$$

- **Note:** replacing integral with a (constant) matrix operating on a vector!

$$\vec{r} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$$

The Inertia Tensor

- The **inertia tensor I** only depends on the **geometry** of the object and the **relative axis system** (often, COM with principal axes):

$$I_{xx} = \int (y^2 + z^2)dm \quad I_{xy} = I_{yx} = \int (xy)dm$$

$$I_{yy} = \int (z^2 + x^2)dm \quad I_{xz} = I_{zx} = \int (xz)dm$$

$$I_{zz} = \int (x^2 + y^2)dm \quad I_{yz} = I_{zy} = \int (yz)dm$$

The Inertia Tensor

- Compact form:

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} \int(y^2 + z^2)dm & -\int(xy)dm & -\int(xz)dm \\ -\int(xy)dm & \int(z^2 + x^2)dm & -\int(yz)dm \\ -\int(xz)dm & -\int(yz)dm & \int(x^2 + y^2)dm \end{bmatrix}$$

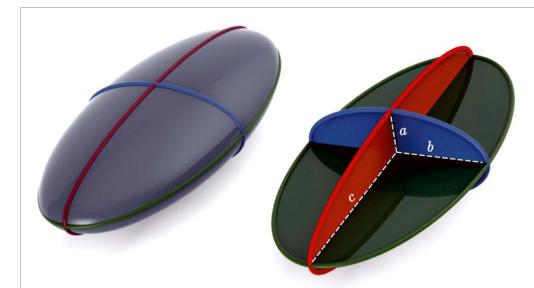
- The diagonal elements are called the (principal) moment of inertia.
- The off-diagonal elements are called products of inertia.

The Inertia Tensor

- Equivalently, we separate mass elements to **density** and **volume** elements:

$$\mathbf{I} = \int_V \rho(x, y, z) \begin{bmatrix} y^2 + z^2 & -xy & -xz \\ -xy & z^2 + x^2 & -yz \\ -xz & -yz & x^2 + y^2 \end{bmatrix} dx dy dz$$

- The diagonal elements: distances to the respective **principal axes**.
- The non-diagonal elements: products of the **perpendicular distances to the respective planes**.

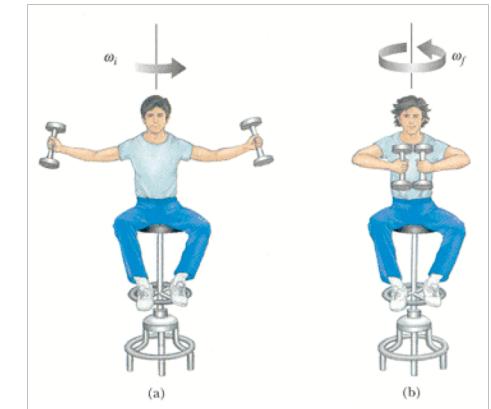


Moment of Inertia

- The **moment of inertia** I_e , with respect to a rotation axis \vec{e} , measures how much the mass “spreads out”:

$$I_e = \int_V (r_e)^2 dm$$

- r_e : perpendicular distance to axis.
- Through the central rotation origin point.



- Measures ability to **resist change** in rotational motion.
 - The angular equivalent to mass!

Moment and Tensor

- We have: $(r_e)^2 = |(\vec{e} \times \vec{r})|^2$ for any point \vec{q} .
 - Remember: \vec{r} is origin $\rightarrow \vec{q}$.
 - Then, $\vec{e} \times \vec{r}$ is closest point on axis $\rightarrow \vec{q}$.
- We get:

$$\mathbf{I}_e = \int_M |(\vec{e} \times \vec{r})|^2 dm = \vec{e}^T \mathbf{I} \vec{e}$$

- The scalar angular momentum around the axis is then $L_e = \mathbf{I}_e \omega_e$.
 - ω_e is the angular speed around \vec{e} .
- Reducible to a planar problem (axis as Z axis).

Change of coordinates

- Suppose we have \mathbf{I} , $\vec{\omega}$ in some system.
- How do we find them in a **rotated system R** ?
- $\vec{\omega}_R = R^T \vec{\omega}$.
 - Just a rotation of the axis!
- Insight: $\mathbf{I} = \int_V [|\vec{r}|^2 I_{3 \times 3} - \vec{r} \cdot \vec{r}^T] dm$
Note: identity matrix $I_{3 \times 3}$, not \mathbf{I} !
- As $\vec{r}_R = R^T \vec{r}$:
$$\begin{aligned} I_R &= |\vec{r}|^2 I_{3 \times 3} - R^T \vec{r} \cdot \vec{r}^T R = \\ &= R^T (|\vec{r}|^2 I_{3 \times 3} - \vec{r} \cdot \vec{r}^T) R = R^T \mathbf{I} R. \end{aligned}$$
- Angular momentum is then:
$$L_R = \mathbf{I}_R \vec{\omega}_R = R^T \mathbf{I} R R^T \vec{\omega} = R^T L$$
- Just the **rotated vector!**

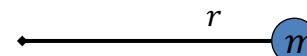
Warning

- We said that angular velocity is the same regardless of the chosen (moving) center in the object axis system.
- But that is the angular velocity **around this center**.
- It **does not mean** that it is the same as the angular velocity around the origin of the world!
- Angular velocity appears even without “rotation”.
- Always know who \vec{r} and \vec{v} are measured against.
 - **More geometrically:** who is the axis of rotation.
 - Look at chalkboard.

Moment of Inertia

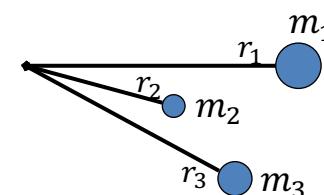
- For a mass point:

$$I = m \cdot r_u^2$$



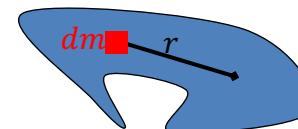
- For a collection of mass points:

$$I = \sum_i m_i r_i^2$$



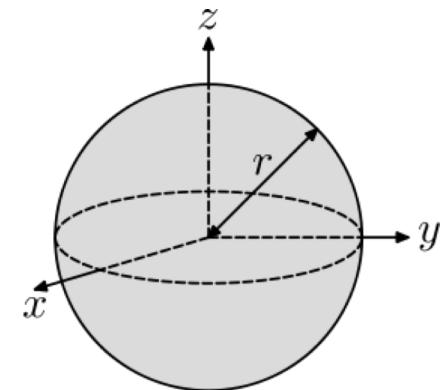
- For a continuous mass distribution on the plane:

$$I = \int_M r_u^2 dm$$



Inertia of Primitive Shapes

- For primitive shapes, the inertia can be expressed with the parameters of the shape
- Illustration on a solid sphere
 - Calculating inertia by integration of **thin discs** along one axis (e.g. z).
 - Surface equation: $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = R^2$



Inertia of Primitive Shapes

- Distance to axis of rotation is the radius of the disc at the cross section along z : $r^2 = x^2 + y^2 = R^2 - z^2$.
- Summing moments of inertia of small cylinders of inertia $I_Z = \frac{r^2 m}{2}$ along the z -axis:

$$dI_Z = \frac{1}{2} r^2 dm = \frac{1}{2} r^2 \rho dV = \frac{1}{2} r^2 \rho \pi r^2 dz$$

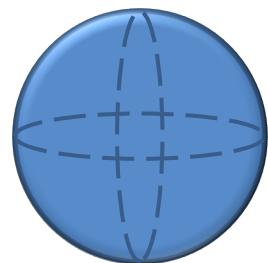
- We get:

$$\begin{aligned} I_Z &= \frac{1}{2} \rho \pi \int_{-R}^R r^4 dz = \frac{1}{2} \rho \pi \int_{-R}^R (R^2 - z^2)^2 dz = \frac{1}{2} \rho \pi [R^4 z - 2R^2 z^3/3 \\ &\quad + z^5/5]_{-R}^R = \rho \pi (1 - 2/3 + 1/5) R^5. \end{aligned}$$

- As $m = \rho(4/3)\pi R^3$, we finally obtain: $I_Z = \frac{2}{5} m R^2$.

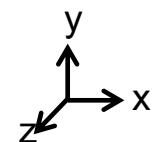
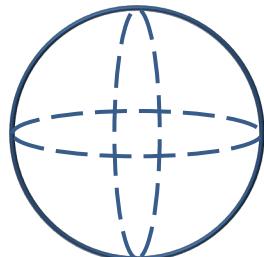
Inertia of Primitive Shapes

- Solid sphere, radius r and mass m :



$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{5}mr^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{2}{5}mr^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{2}{5}mr^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

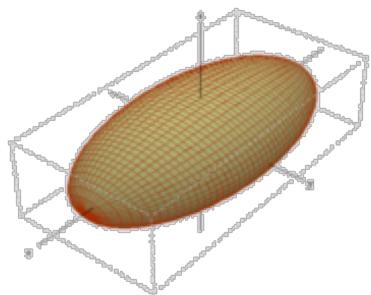
- Hollow sphere, radius r and mass m :



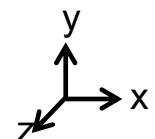
$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3}mr^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{2}{3}mr^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{2}{3}mr^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Inertia of Primitive Shapes

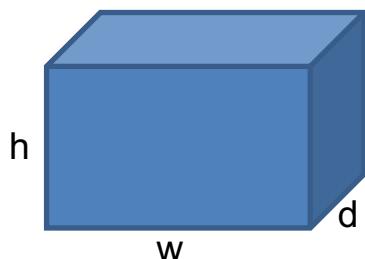
- Solid ellipsoid, semi-axes a, b, c and mass m :



$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{5}m(b^2+c^2) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{5}m(a^2+c^2) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{5}m(a^2+b^2) \end{bmatrix}$$



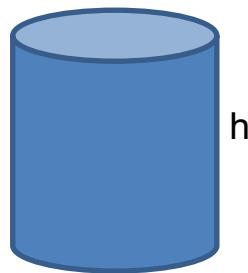
- Solid box, width w , height h , depth d and mass m :



$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{12}m(h^2+d^2) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{12}m(w^2+d^2) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{12}m(w^2+h^2) \end{bmatrix}$$

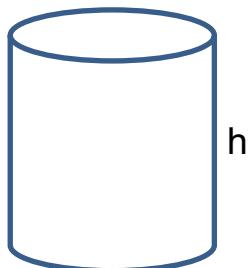
Inertia of Primitive Shapes

- Solid cylinder, radius r , height h and mass m :



$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{12}m(3r^2+h^2) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{12}m(3r^2+h^2) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2}mr^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Hollow cylinder, radius r , height h and mass m :

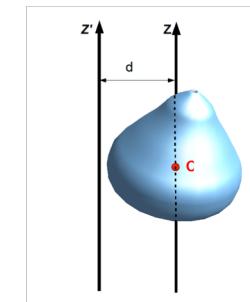


$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{12}m(6r^2+h^2) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{12}m(6r^2+h^2) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & mr^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Parallel-Axis Theorem

- We can compute the moment of inertia around an axis \vec{z} going through the COM.
- How to efficiently calculate it for any parallel axis \vec{z}' ?
- parallel axis theorem:

$$I_{z'} = I_z + md^2$$



- d is the **distance** between the axes.
- **Summary:** it is easy to find the moment of inertia for every axis and center from the “built-in” one.

Parallel-Axis Theorem

- More generally, for point displacements:
 (d_x, d_y, d_z)

$$I_{xx} = \int (y^2 + z^2)dm + md_x^2 \quad I_{xy} = \int (xy)dm + md_x d_y$$

$$I_{yy} = \int (z^2 + x^2)dm + md_y^2 \quad I_{xz} = \int (xz)dm + md_x d_z$$

$$I_{zz} = \int (x^2 + y^2)dm + md_z^2 \quad I_{yz} = \int (yz)dm + md_y d_z$$

Torque

- A force \vec{F} applied at a distance r from the origin.
- Tangential part causes tangential acceleration:

$$\vec{F}_\perp = m \cdot \vec{a}_\perp$$

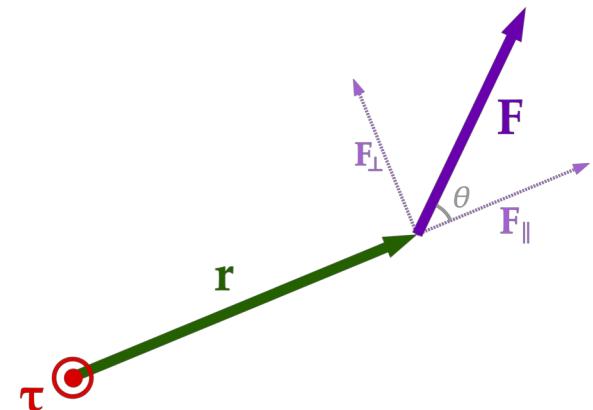
- The torque $\vec{\tau}$ is defined as:

$$\vec{\tau} = \vec{r} \times \vec{F}$$

- So we get

$$\tau = m \cdot (r \cdot \alpha) \cdot r = mr^2\alpha.$$

- unit is $N \cdot m$
- Induces the rotation of the system.

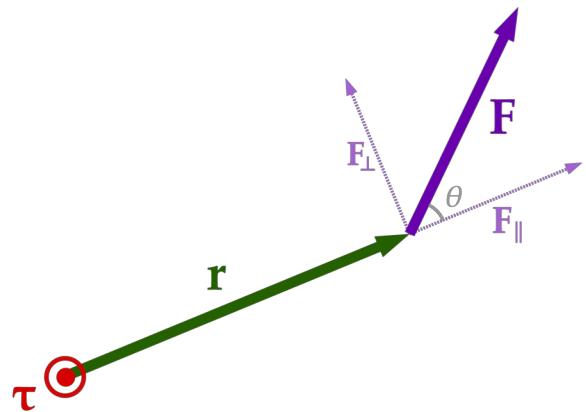


Newton's Second Law

- The law $\vec{F} = m \cdot \vec{a}$ has an equivalent formulation with the **inertia tensor** and **torque**:

$$\vec{\tau} = \mathbf{I} \vec{\alpha}$$

- Force** \Leftrightarrow linear acceleration
- Torque** \Leftrightarrow angular acceleration



Torque and Angular Momentum

- **Reminder:** linear: $\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}$ (\vec{p} : linear momentum).
- Similarly with **torque** and **angular momentum**:

$$\frac{d\vec{L}}{dt} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} \times \vec{p} + \vec{r} \times \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = \vec{v} \times m\vec{v} + \vec{r} \times \vec{F} = 0 + \vec{\tau}$$

- Momentum-torque relation:

$$\frac{d\vec{L}}{dt} = \frac{d(\mathbf{I}\vec{\omega})}{dt} = \mathbf{I} \frac{d\vec{\omega}}{dt} = \mathbf{I}\vec{\alpha} = \vec{\tau}$$

- **Force** \Leftrightarrow derivative of linear momentum.
- **Torque** \Leftrightarrow derivative of angular momentum.

Rotational Kinetic Energy

- Translating energy formulas to rotational motion.
- The **rotational kinetic energy** is defined as:

$$E_{Kr} = \frac{1}{2} \vec{\omega}^T \cdot \mathbf{I} \cdot \vec{\omega}$$

Conservation of Mechanical Energy

- Adding rotational kinetic energy

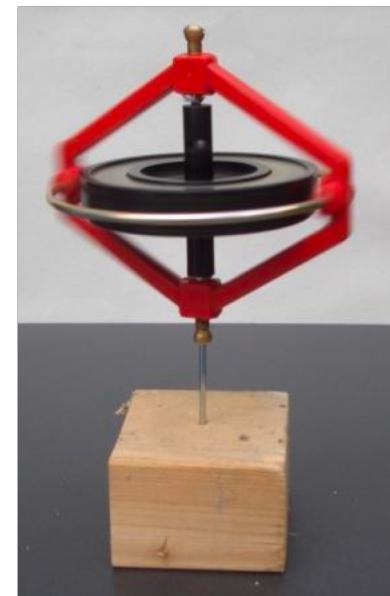
$$\begin{aligned} E_{Kt}(t + \Delta t) + E_P(t + \Delta t) + E_{Kr}(t + \Delta t) \\ = E_{Kt}(t) + E_P(t) + E_{Kr}(t) + E_O \end{aligned}$$

- E_{Kt} is the **translational kinetic** energy.
- E_P is the **potential** energy.
- E_{Kr} is the **rotational kinetic** energy.
- E_O the “lost” energies (surface friction, air resistance etc.).

Torque Impulse

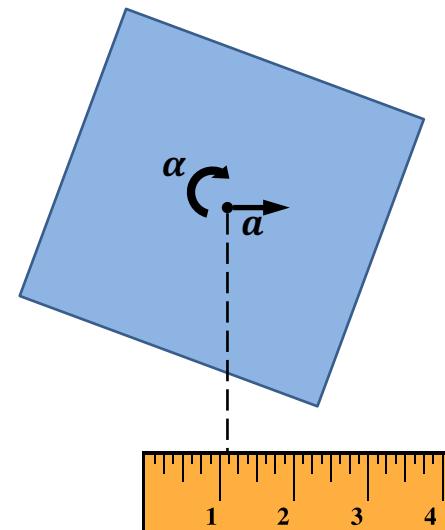
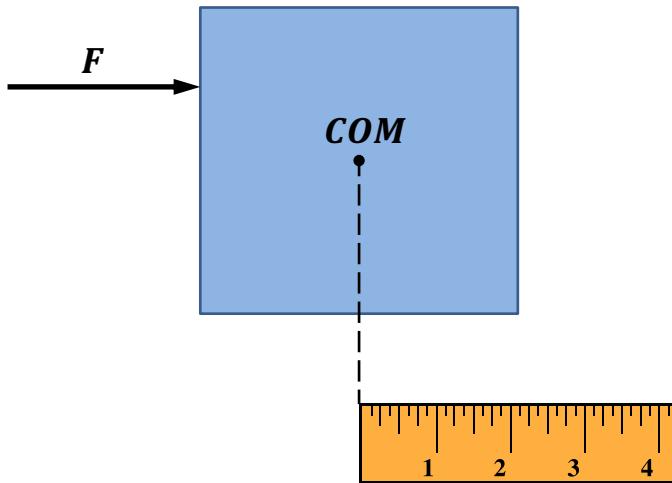
- We may apply off-center forces for a very short amount of time.
 - Or as a collision.
- torque impulse → instantaneous change in angular momentum, *i.e.* in angular velocity:

$$\tau \Delta t = \Delta L$$



Rigid Body Forces

- A force can be applied anywhere on the object, producing also a rotational motion.
- Q: how come two non-rotating objects can cause a rotation?



Complex Objects

- When an object consists of multiple primitive shapes:
 - Calculate the individual moment inertia of each shape around a the prescribed axis in the same coordinates system, and their individual origins.
 - Use **parallel axis theorem** to transform to inertia to unified object coordinates.
 - Add the moments together.

