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#### Equations of Motion in a Rotating Noninertial Reference Frame

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To demonstrate how "fictitious" forces arise from a frame of reference that isn't in a state of inertia, a familiar model is constructed in the form of a rotating planet.

- Describe the motion of a sphere rotating about a stationary axis
- Determine the equations of motion of an object moving in the frame of the planet's surface
- Test the solutions with expectations under different parameters

### Introduction

Newton's first law of mechanics states that a body remains at rest or in uniform motion unless acted upon by a force. Though not explicitly stated, this law defines an inertial reference frame. If a reference frame is subject to acceleration intrinsic to its motion, like the surface of a rotating sphere, it is a *noninertial* frame of reference. Seemingly measurable forces that manifest from this frame are termed *fictitious* forces and are artificial corrections required due to attempts to extend Newton's equations to a noninertial system [1].



Figure 1: The path an object traces changes when experiencing "fictitious" forces induced by a noninertial frame of reference. A target due south on a globe (a) is deflected from a straight path (b) by the rotational motion of the globe. © Encyclopædia Britannica

# **Equations of Motion in a Rotating Noninertial Reference Frame**

## The Coriolis Force

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#### **Homogeneous Solution**

When solving differential equations, a general solution for the equation  $\frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = \mathbf{A}\vec{v}$  is,

$$\vec{v}_h = e^{\mathbf{A}t} \vec{v}_o \ . \tag{1}$$

As a differential vector equation,  $\mathbf{A}$  must be a matrix. Interpreting the equation as written can be done by diagonalization and power series expansion such that,

$$e^{t\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{V} \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_{1}t} & 0 & 0\\ 0 & e^{\lambda_{2}t} & 0\\ 0 & 0 & e^{\lambda_{3}t} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{V}^{-1} , \qquad (2)$$

where matrix  $\mathbf{V}$  is a composite of the eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{V}^{-1}$  is its inverse, and  $\lambda_n$  are the eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

#### **Complete Solution**

$$v_x = g \frac{s_\alpha \sin^2 \omega t}{\omega} + v_{xo} \cos 2\omega t + v_{yo} c_\alpha \sin 2\omega t - v_{zo} s_\alpha \sin 2\omega t - v_{zo} s_\alpha \sin 2\omega t + v_{yo} (c_\alpha^2 \cos 2\omega t)) + v_{xo} c_\alpha \sin 2\omega t + v_{yo} (c_\alpha^2 \cos 2\omega t) + v_{zo} s_\alpha \sin 2\omega t + v_{yo} s_{2\alpha} \sin^2 \omega t + v_{$$

#### **Change of Frame Transformation**

If the rotating sphere is embedded in a "fixed" frame the equation that relates measurements from an observer rotating on the surface to that of a celestial, "fixed", observer is as follows:

$$\left(\frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}\right)_{\text{fixed}} = \left(\frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}\right)_{\text{rotating}} + \vec{\omega} \times \vec{r} \qquad (4)$$

The velocity,  $\frac{dr}{dt}$ , as measured by the fixed observer is dependant on the angular velocity of the sphere. To derive the *fictitious* forces, the same process can be carried out to determine acceleration,  $\frac{d\vec{v}}{dt}$ , corrections between the frames.

$$\vec{F}_{\text{effective}} = \vec{F} - m\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r} - m\vec{\omega} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}) - 2m\vec{\omega} \times \vec{v}_r \quad (5)$$

Each term in equation 5 can be interpreted physically as,

F : sum of the forces acting on the object

as measured in the fixed system

 $-m\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}$ : result of rotational acceleration  $-m\vec{\omega} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \vec{r})$ : centrifugal force

 $-2m\vec{\omega} \times \vec{v}_r$ : Coriolis force.

Explicit values for the aforementioned equations are as follows:

#### **Particular Solution**

The particular solution can be represented with a linear operator such that  $L_{op}\vec{v}_p = \vec{g}(t)$ , and solved using a Green's function.

$$L_{op}G(t, t_o) = \delta(t - t_o) \tag{3}$$

A function can be rewritten with a Dirac delta so that,

$$\begin{split} L_{op} \vec{v}_p &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(t - t_o) \mathbf{I} \ \vec{g}(t_o) \ dt_o \\ \vec{v}_p &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \mathbf{G}(t, t_o) \ \vec{g}(t_o) \ dt_o \\ &= \int_0^t e^{\mathbf{A}(t - t_o)} \vec{g}(t_o) \ dt_o \end{split}$$

$2\omega t$	$\alpha = 90^{\circ} - \phi$
$t + s_{\alpha}^2 + v_{zo} s_{2\alpha} \sin^2 \omega t$	$c_{\alpha} = \cos \alpha$
$\omega t + v_{zo} \left( c_{\alpha}^2 + s_{\alpha}^2 \cos 2\omega t \right)$	$s_{\alpha} = \sin \alpha$

#### Results



To test whether these solutions agree with expectations,  $\alpha$  and  $\omega$  can be altered. If an object is dropped over a pole ( $\alpha = 0$ ) it should only be effected by gravity. If dropped at the equator  $(\alpha = \frac{\pi}{2})$  an additional easterly velocity should occur. If there is no rotation, only the gravity term should survive. Additionally, in the Northern Hemisphere a particle projected in a horizontal plane will be directed towards the right of the particle's motion [1]. All deflections in the Southern Hemisphere are opposite to the Northern. For the velocity vector function,  $\vec{v}(\vec{v_o}, \alpha, \omega)$ , these constraints result in:

$$\vec{v}(0,0,\omega) = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\0\\-gt \end{pmatrix} \qquad \vec{v}\left(\frac{\pi}{2},0,\omega\right) = \begin{pmatrix} g\omega^{-1}\sin^2\omega t\\0\\-gt\sin 2\omega t \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\vec{v}(\vec{v_o},\alpha,0) = \begin{pmatrix} v_{xo}\\v_{yo}\\v_{zo} - gt \end{pmatrix}$$



The southerly deflection is on the order of a million times smaller than the easterly deflection. Despite many attempts, no credible evidence that the southerly deflection has been detected has been correctly measured |2|.





Figure 2: Easterly deflection demonstrated by the change in velocity,  $v_x$ , over one minute. Motion in the Northern Hemisphere deflects to the right, while motion in the southern hemisphere deflects left.

#### **Additional Information**

References