

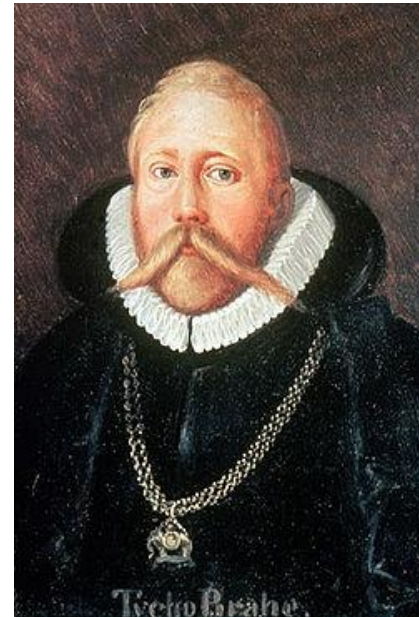
Kinetics

Central Force Motion & Space Mechanics



Outline

- Central Force Motion
- Orbital Mechanics
- Examples

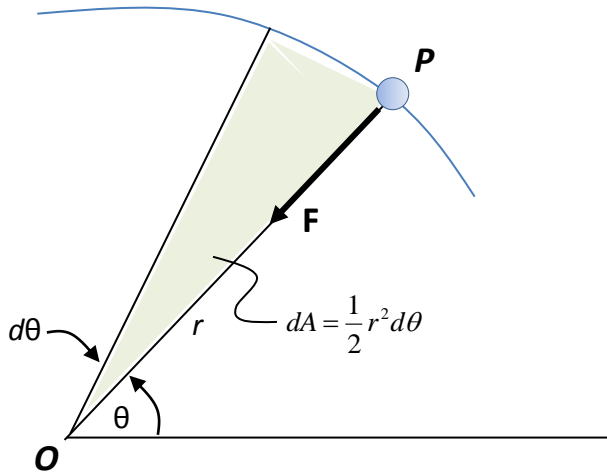


Central-Force Motion

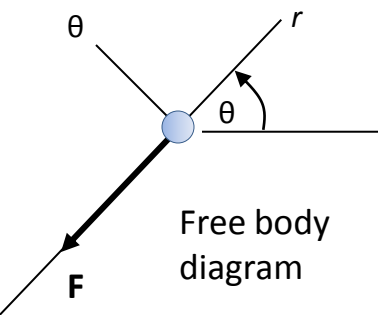
- If a particle travels under the influence of a force that has a line of action directed towards a fixed point, then the motion is called *central-force motion*
- Examples: planetary motion, electrostatic forces, centrifuge



Central-Force Motion



- Consider a particle of mass m acted on by a force F , with center O
- Using the Equations of Motion for Cylindrical Coordinates, it can be shown that (derivation omitted here, student please review):



$$\sum F_r = ma_r \Rightarrow -F_r = m \left[\frac{d^2 r}{dt^2} - r \left(\frac{d\theta}{dt} \right)^2 \right] \quad (13-11a)$$

$$\sum F_\theta = ma_\theta \Rightarrow 0 = m \left(r \frac{d^2 \theta}{dt^2} - 2 \frac{dr}{dt} \frac{d\theta}{dt} \right) \quad (13-11b)$$

Central-Force Motion

We may re-write Eqn 13-11b in the form

$$\frac{1}{r} \left[\frac{d}{dt} \left(r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dt} \right) \right] = 0$$

then by integration

$$r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dt} = h \quad (13-12)$$

where h is the constant of integration

Central-Force Motion

- Since the particle sweeps through angle $d\theta$ in time interval dt

$$dA = \frac{1}{2} r^2 d\theta$$

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{h}{2}$$

- dA/dt is called the *areal velocity*. It remains constant for a particle in central-force motion
- This means the particle sweeps through equal areas in equal time as it travels along the path

Central-Force Motion

- Let us derive the *path of motion* r as a function of θ
- By the chain rule (Calculus 101 !)

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{dr}{d\theta} \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{h}{r^2} \frac{dr}{d\theta}$$

$$\frac{d^2r}{dt^2} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{h}{r^2} \frac{dr}{d\theta} \right) = \frac{d}{d\theta} \left(\frac{h}{r^2} \frac{dr}{d\theta} \right) \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \left[\frac{d}{d\theta} \left(\frac{h}{r^2} \frac{dr}{d\theta} \right) \right] \frac{h}{r^2}$$

- Let us denote $\frac{1}{r} = \xi$

Central-Force Motion

- So that we obtain

$$\frac{d^2 r}{dt^2} = -h^2 \xi^2 \frac{d^2 \xi}{d\theta^2}$$

- also the square of Eqn 13-12 becomes

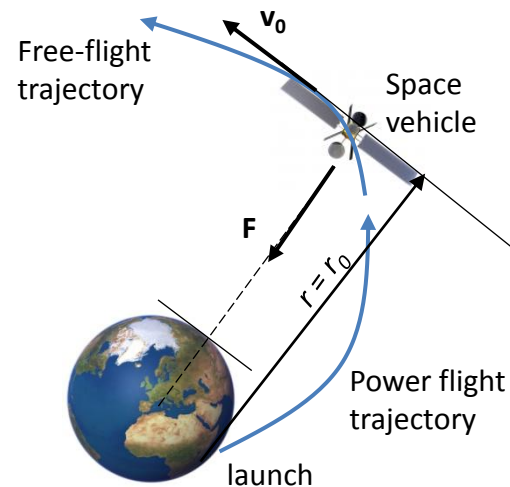
$$\left(\frac{d\theta}{dt} \right)^2 = h^2 \xi^4$$

- Substituting the above in Eqn 13-11a we obtain a differential equation which can be solved to determine the *path of motion*

$$-h^2 \xi^2 \frac{d^2 \xi}{d\theta^2} - h^2 \xi^3 = -\frac{F}{m} \quad \mathbf{OR} \quad \frac{d^2 \xi}{d\theta^2} + \xi = \frac{F}{mh^2 \xi^2} \quad (13-14)$$

Orbital Mechanics

- Consider a space vehicle of mass m launched into free-flight orbit with initial velocity \mathbf{v}_0 .
- Assume \mathbf{v}_0 acts parallel to the tangent to the earth surface
- Neglect gravitational attractions of sun and moon



Orbital Mechanics

- At the instant just after release into free flight the only force acting on it is the gravitational attraction from the earth

- According to Newton's law of gravitation;

$$F = G \frac{M_e m}{r^2}$$

- To obtain the orbital path, substitute into Eqn 13-14

$$\frac{d^2 \xi}{d\theta^2} + \xi = \frac{GM_e}{h^2}$$

Orbital Mechanics

- The above differential equation can be solved as the sum of the complementary and particular solutions (Review your Differential Equations)
- Solution is:

$$\xi = \frac{1}{r} = C \cos(\theta - \phi) + \frac{GM_e}{h^2} \quad (13-16)$$



Orbital Mechanics

- Eqn 13-16 is the equation of a conic section [student, please review your Pre-Cal materials]
- By definition, Eccentricity

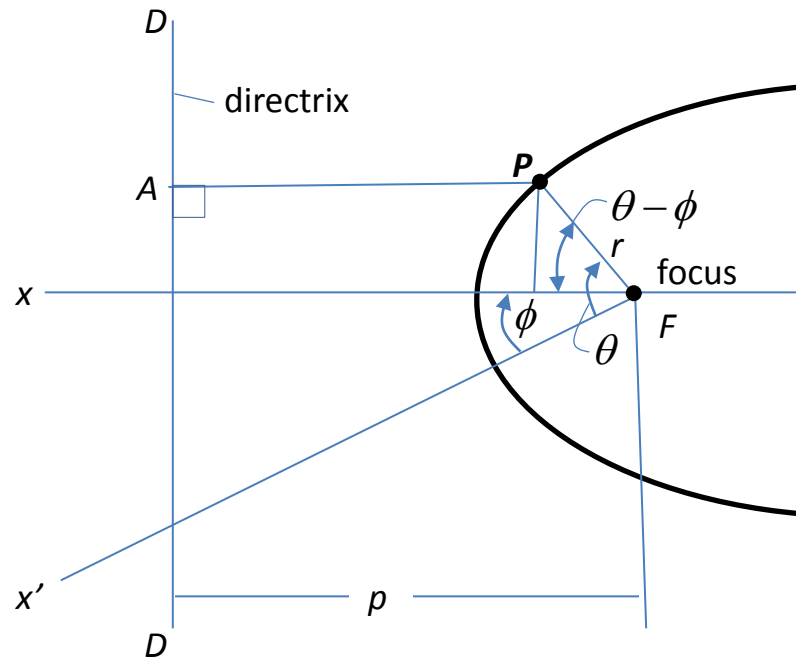
$$e = \frac{FP}{PA}$$

$$r = e(PA)$$

$$r = e[p - r \cos(\theta - \phi)]$$

or

$$\frac{1}{r} = \frac{1}{p} \cos(\theta - \phi) + \frac{1}{ep}$$



Orbital Motion

- Comparing with Eqn 13-16;

$$p = \frac{1}{C} \quad (13-17)$$

and

$$e = \frac{Ch^2}{GM_e} \quad (13-18)$$

- Provided θ is measured from the x-axis which is perpendicular to the directrix (and an axis of symmetry), then $\phi = 0$, and Eqn 13-16 reduces to

$$\frac{1}{r} = C \cos(\theta) + \frac{GM_e}{h^2} \quad (13-19)$$

Orbital Motion

- The constants C and h are determined from the boundary conditions at the end of the *power-flight trajectory*
- At the beginning of free-flight $r = r_0$, $v = v_0$; if $\theta = \phi = 0$, then from curvilinear motion-cylindrical components

$$v_0 = r_0 \left(\frac{d\theta}{dt} \right)$$

$$h = r_0^2 \frac{d\theta}{dt}$$

$$\text{or } h = r_0 v_0$$

(13-20)

Orbital Motion

- Substituting Eqn 13-20, $r = r_0$, $\theta = 0$, into Eqn 13-19

$$C = \frac{1}{r_0} \left(1 - \frac{GM_e}{r_0 v_0^2} \right) \quad (13-21)$$

- The equation for the free-flight trajectory therefore becomes

$$\frac{1}{r} = \frac{1}{r_0} \left(1 - \frac{GM_e}{r_0 v_0^2} \right) \cos \theta + \frac{GM_e}{r_0 v_0^2} \quad (13-22)$$

Orbital Motion

- The type of path traveled by the space vehicle depends on the value of the eccentricity

$e = 0$	\Rightarrow	circle	(13-23)
$e = 1$	\Rightarrow	parabola	
$e < 1$	\Rightarrow	ellipse	
$e > 1$	\Rightarrow	hyperbola	

- [Students, plug in these values to the appropriate equations and verify these conclusions]

Orbital Motion

- Parabolic path: The spacecraft is on the borderline of never returning to its starting point.
- The initial velocity required for a parabolic path is called the escape velocity
- Plugging $e = 1$, Eqns 13-21 and 13-22 into Eqn 13-18;

$$v_e = \sqrt{\frac{2GM_e}{r_0}}$$

(13-24)

Orbital Motion

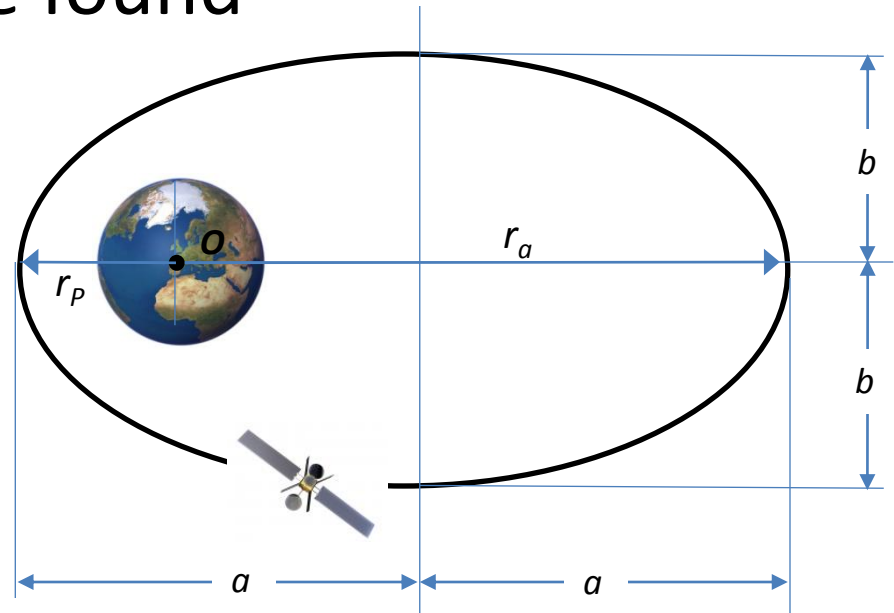
- Similarly, for Circular Motion

$$v_c = \sqrt{\frac{GM_e}{r_0}} \quad (13-25)$$

- Note that $v_0 \geq v_e$ will result in vehicle escaping earth's gravitational pull
- On the other hand if $v_0 < v_c$ the vehicle will fail to reach orbit, reenter earth atmosphere, and crash or burn up in the heat of reentry

Elliptical Orbit

- All planets and most artificial satellites orbit in an elliptical path.
- For the space craft the minimum distance to the center of the earth (with earth at a focus of the ellipse), r_p can be found by plugging $\theta = 0$ into Eqn 13.22
- Using $\theta = 180^\circ$ we get the max distance r_a



Elliptical Orbit

$$r_p = r_0 \quad (13-26)$$

- r_p is called the perigee (generally periapsis)

$$r_a = \frac{r_0}{(2GM_e / r_0 v_0^2) - 1} \quad (13-27)$$

- r_a is called the apogee (generally apoapsis)
- Half the length of the major axis

$$a = \frac{r_p + r_a}{2} \quad (13-28)$$

Elliptical Orbit

- It can also be shown that

$$b = \sqrt{r_p r_a} \quad (13-29)$$

(Students, verify on your own)

- By integration, the area of the ellipse is

$$A = \pi a b = \frac{\pi}{2} (r_p + r_a) \sqrt{r_p r_a} \quad (13-30)$$

Elliptical Motion

- The areal velocity was defined in Eqn 13-13 as

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{h}{2} \quad \text{or} \quad \int \frac{dA}{dt} = \int \frac{h}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow A = \frac{hT}{2}$$

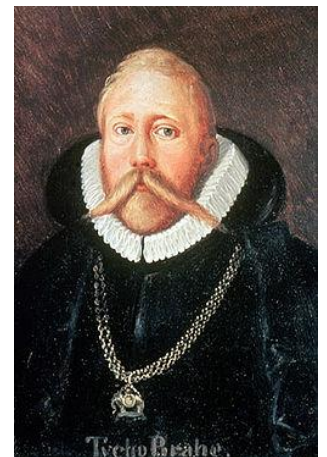
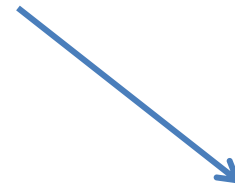
where T is the time to make one orbital revolution (aka orbital period).

- From 13-30:

$$T = \frac{\pi}{h} (r_p + r_a) \sqrt{r_p r_a} \quad (13-31)$$

Laws of Planetary Motion

- The theory developed in this chapter was first presented by Johannes Kepler in 1621, 6 clear decades before Newton's *Principia*
- Kepler developed the laws of planetary motion over 20 years by studying planetary data collected by his mentor Tycho Brahe



Laws of Planetary Motion

- Planets travel in elliptical orbits with the sun at a focus of the ellipse (Eqn 13-22)
- Planets travel in an orbit such that they sweep equal areas in equal time intervals (Eqn 13-13)
- The square of the period of any planet is directly proportional to the cube of the major axis of its orbit (Eqns 13-31, 13-19, 13-28, 13-29)



Questions & Comments

