

University Physics 226N/231N Old Dominion University The Gravitational Force

Dr. Todd Satogata (ODU/Jefferson Lab)

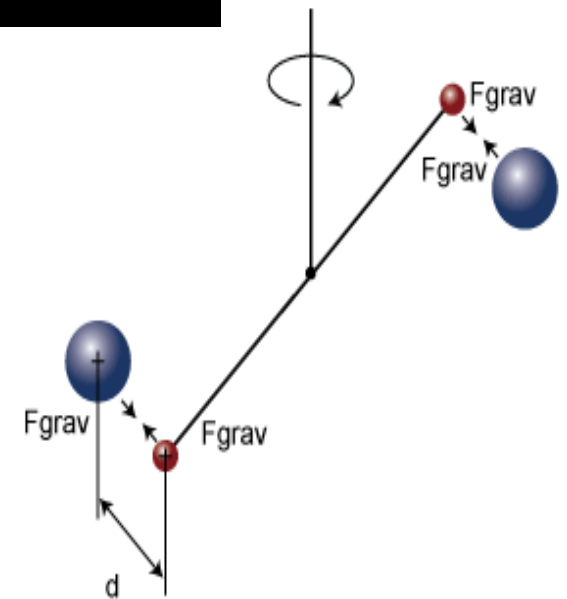
satogata@jlab.org

<http://www.toddsatogata.net/2012-ODU>

Wednesday, October 10 2012

Happy Birthday to **Henry Cavendish**, Ryan Mathews, Yoenis Céspedes (Go A's!), and Thelonious Monk!

Happy Cake Decorating Day, Double Tenth Day, and Oppa Gangnam Style Day!



Jefferson Lab

(Okay, I really made up the Oppa Gangnam Style Day thing)

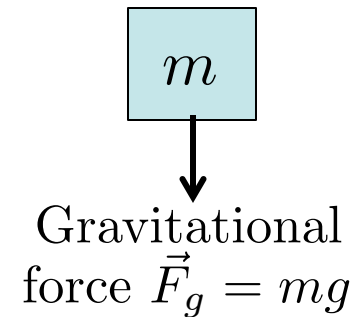
Prof. Satogata / Fall 2012

ODU University Physics 226N/231N 1

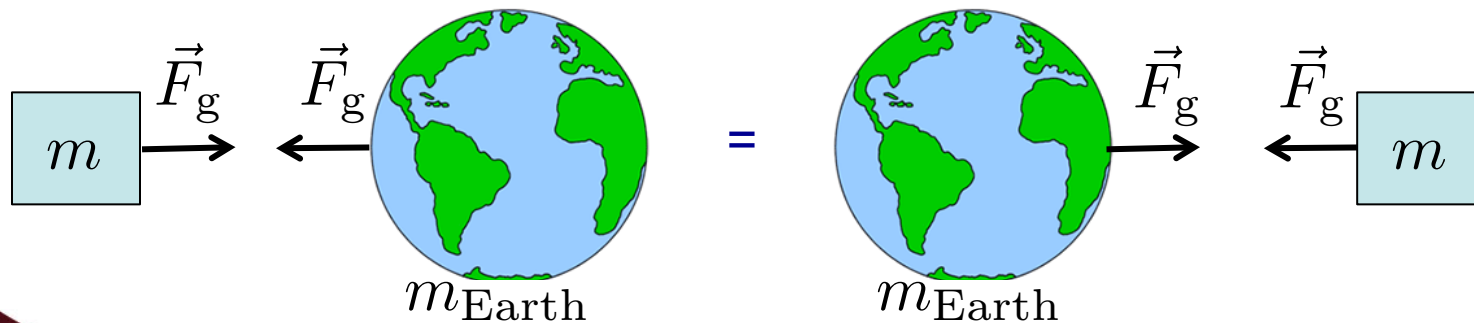


Gravity Reconsidered

- We've learned a lot about gravity so far
 - But what we've learned about it **must be an approximation**
 - We've assumed the gravitational force is independent of height and the mass of the earth, m_{Earth}



- But Newton's third law tells us that the box also exerts an equal and opposite force on the earth
 - Gravitational forces should be the same if we interchange the masses of the earth and box: g is proportional to m_{Earth} !

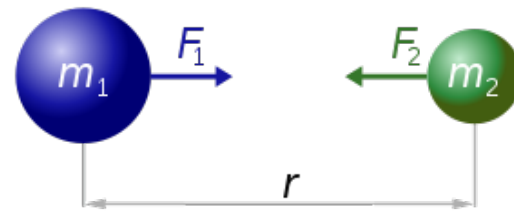


Gravity Reconsidered

- The gravitational force must also get weaker when objects are further apart
 - Otherwise we'd live in a very crowded little universe
 - Some experiments showed that our original approximation of the gravitational force between two objects is more generally

$$F_g = \frac{Gm_1m_2}{r^2}$$

$$G = 6.67384 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-2}$$



$$F_1 = F_2 = G \frac{m_1 \times m_2}{r^2}$$

- This becomes our more familiar $F_g = m_1a = m_1g$ when

$$m_2 = m_{\text{Earth}} = 5.972 \times 10^{24} \text{ kg}$$

$$\text{and } r = r_{\text{Earth}} \approx 6371 \text{ km}$$



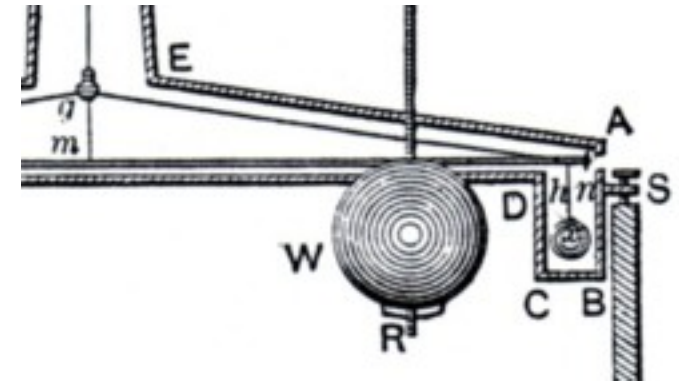
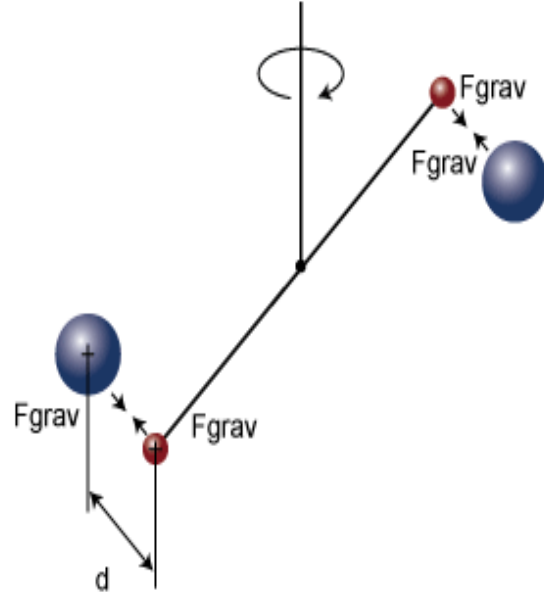
Ponderable

- How do you devise an **experiment** to measure a force that's this weak?
 - For two 1 kg objects 1m apart, $F_g = 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \text{ N}$
 - Earth's gravity on one of those is $W = mg = 9.8 \text{ N}$
 - That's a huge difference!
- And yet Henry Cavendish devised an experiment to measure the force of gravity between a 158 kg ball and a 0.73 kg ball.

... in 1797.

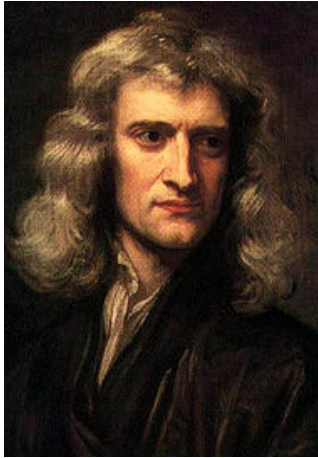


1797: The Cavendish Experiment



- A balance used to measure force or weight has friction
- Cavendish invented the **torsion balance** to measure gravity
 - The twisting angle on a string is proportional to the force applied times the distance the force is applied at
 - His balance was exquisite for its time, with a sensitivity of less than 10^{-8} N, or the weight of a very small grain of sand





A Law of Universal Gravitation

$$F_g = \frac{Gm_1m_2}{r^2}$$

$$G = 6.67384 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-2}$$

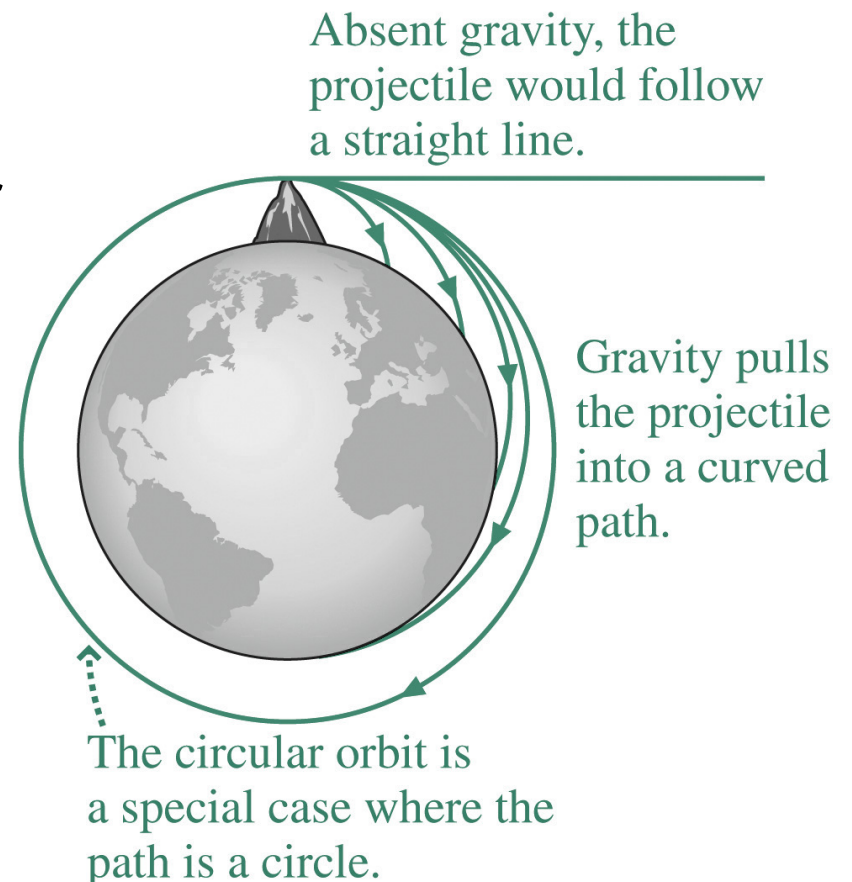


- This formula for the general gravitational force was developed by Newton (1687)
 - It's a much much better approximation, but again only an approximation!
 - Superseded by Einstein's general theory of relativity (1916)
 - But this equation works well enough to pretty much all everyday phenomena
- Technically for point particles, but works perfectly well for spheres where centers are distance r apart
 - Gravity is always attractive along the vector \vec{r}
 - We know of no classic examples of anti-gravity
 - Not even anti-matter, which still has positive mass: $E = mc^2$



Orbits: Our Old Ponderable

- Newton explained orbits using universal gravitation and his laws of motion:
 - Bound orbits are generally elliptical.
 - In the special case of a circular orbit, the orbiting object “falls” around a gravitating mass, always accelerating toward its center with the magnitude of its acceleration remaining constant.
 - Unbound orbits are hyperbolic or (borderline case) parabolic.

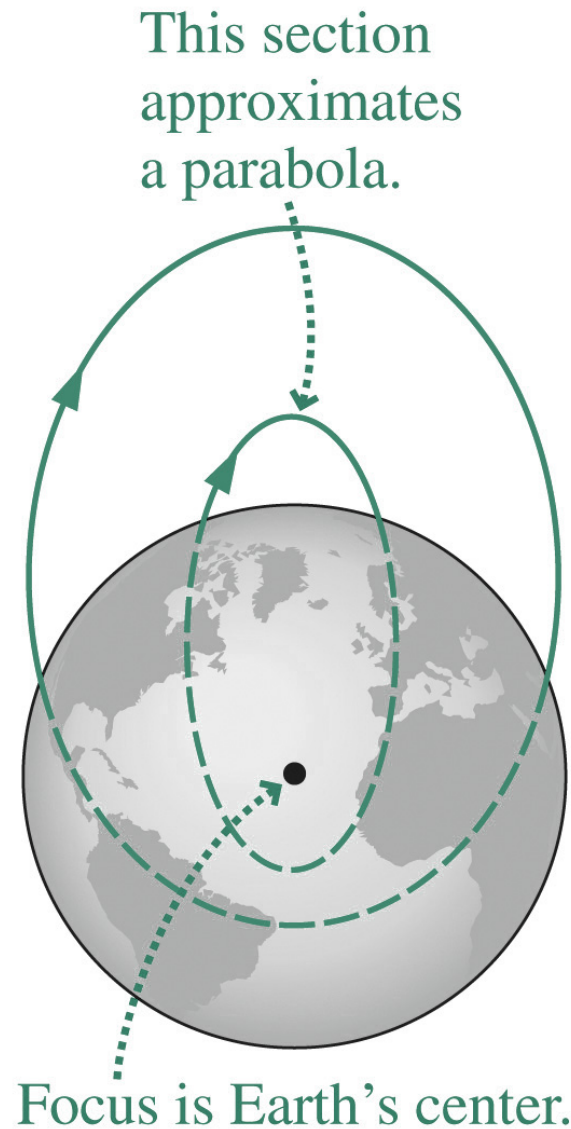


© 2012 Pearson Education, Inc.



Projectile Motion and Orbits

- The “parabolic” trajectories of projectiles near Earth’s surface are actually sections of elliptical orbits that intersect Earth.
- The trajectories are parabolic only in the approximation that we can neglect Earth’s curvature and the variation in gravity with distance from Earth’s center.



© 2012 Pearson Education, Inc.



Circular Orbits

- In a circular orbit, gravity provides the centripetal force of magnitude $F_{\text{centrip}} = mv^2/r$ needed to keep an object of mass m in its circular path about a much more massive object of mass M :

$$F_g = F_{\text{centrip}} \Rightarrow \frac{GMm}{r^2} = \frac{mv^2}{r}$$

- Orbital speed v (solve for v):

$$v = \sqrt{GM/r}$$

- Orbital period (time to go $2\pi r$ with velocity v):

$$T^2 = \frac{4\pi^2 r^3}{GM}$$

- This is a derivation of Kepler's **observation** for planetary motion that the period squared goes like the orbit radius cubed:

$$T^2 \propto r^3$$

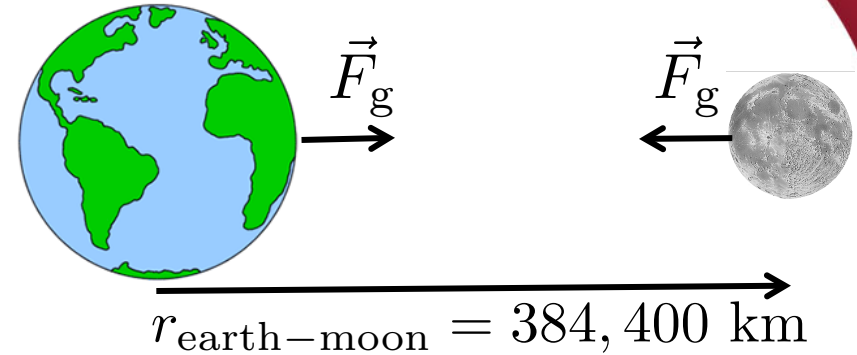
- For satellites in low-Earth orbit, the period T is about 90 minutes.



Ponderable

$$F_g = \frac{Gm_1m_2}{r^2}$$

$$G = 6.67384 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-2}$$



- What is the gravitational force between the Earth and its moon?

$$m_{\text{Earth}} = 5.9722 \times 10^{24} \text{ kg} \quad m_{\text{moon}} = 7.3477 \times 10^{22} \text{ kg}$$

- What is the gravitational force between Todd and his laptop?

$$m_{\text{Todd}} = 100 \text{ kg} \quad m_{\text{laptop}} = 1.8 \text{ kg} \quad r = 0.5 \text{ m}$$

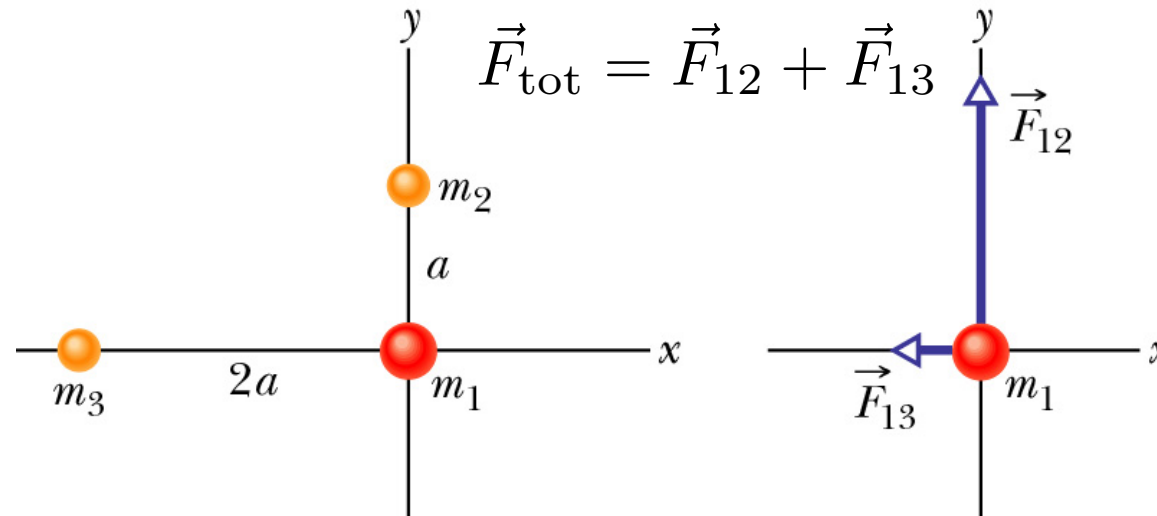
- What is the altitude of geosynchronous satellites above Earth?

$$r_{\text{Earth}} = 6370 \text{ km} \quad T^2 = \frac{4\pi^2 r^3}{GM}$$



Multiple Objects

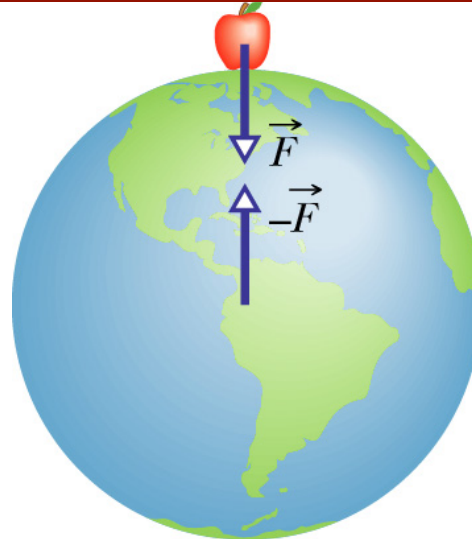
- To calculate the total gravitational force from many objects, we add together the vectors of their individual forces
 - This is known as the **principle of superposition**
 - This is (mostly) a general rule for vectors that you already know



- This summation extends to any number of forces: integral!
 - We can calculate the gravitational force between any two oddly shaped objects by adding up (integrating) gravitational forces between all the combinations of all their pieces



Gravity and Spheres



- Newton had invented calculus so he could do these sums for simple geometric objects
- One cool result was **Newton's Shell Theorem**
 - A uniform spherical shell of matter attracts an object that is outside the shell as if all the shell's mass was concentrated at its center
- This is why we can dodge calculus and simplify calculations of the force of gravity for spherical objects (like planets)



Revisiting g

- Recall that we have $F_g = mg$ near Earth's surface
- And gravity says $F_g = \frac{Gmm_{\text{Earth}}}{r^2}$
- So $g = \frac{Gm_{\text{Earth}}}{r_{\text{Earth}}^2}$ on the surface of the Earth
- This applies to any nearly spherical cosmic body!
 - Again, an approximation (spherical, uniform mass, rotation...)

- On Mars:

$$m_{\text{Mars}} = 6.4 \times 10^{23} \text{ kg}$$

$$r_{\text{Mars}} = 3400 \text{ km}$$

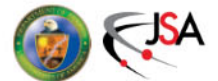
$$g_{\text{Mars}} = 3.7 \text{ m/s}^2 \\ = 0.38 g_{\text{Earth}}$$

- On Moon:

$$m_{\text{Moon}} = 7.3 \times 10^{22} \text{ kg}$$

$$r_{\text{Moon}} = 1737 \text{ km}$$

$$g_{\text{Moon}} = 1.6 \text{ m/s}^2 \\ = 0.16 g_{\text{Earth}}$$



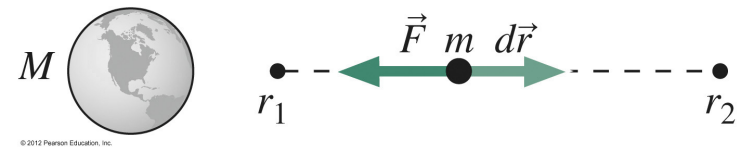
Gravitational Potential Energy

- Because the gravitational force changes with distance, it's necessary to integrate to calculate how gravitational potential energy U changes over large distances. This integration gives

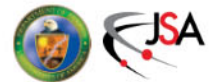
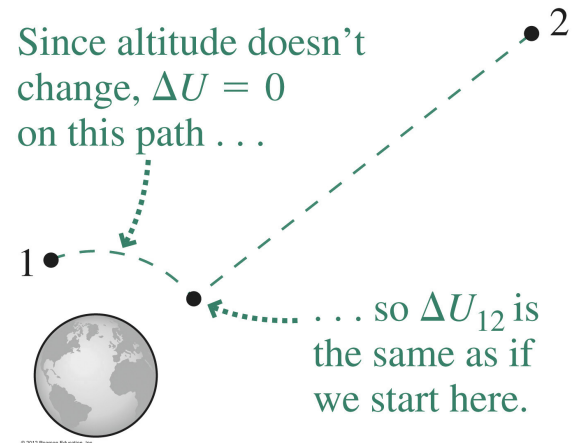
$$\Delta U_{12} = Gm_1m_2 \int_{r_1}^{r_2} r^{-2} dr = Gm_1m_2(-r^{-1}) \Big|_{r_1}^{r_2} = Gm_1m_2 \left(\frac{1}{r_1} - \frac{1}{r_2} \right)$$

- This result holds regardless of whether the two points are on the same radial line.
- It's convenient to take the zero of gravitational potential energy at infinity. Then the gravitational potential energy becomes

$$U(r) = -\frac{Gm_1m_2}{r}$$

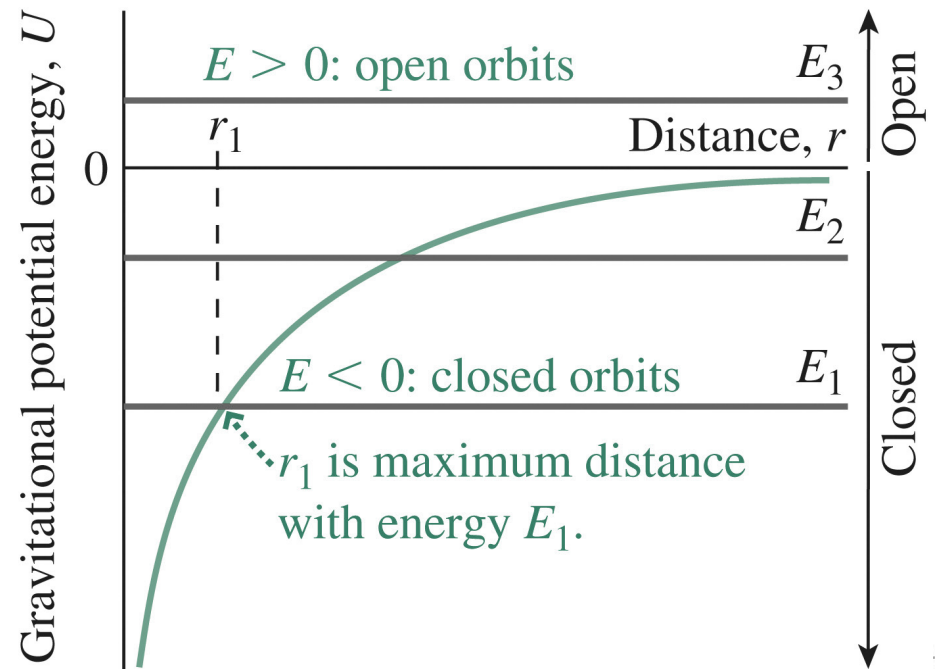
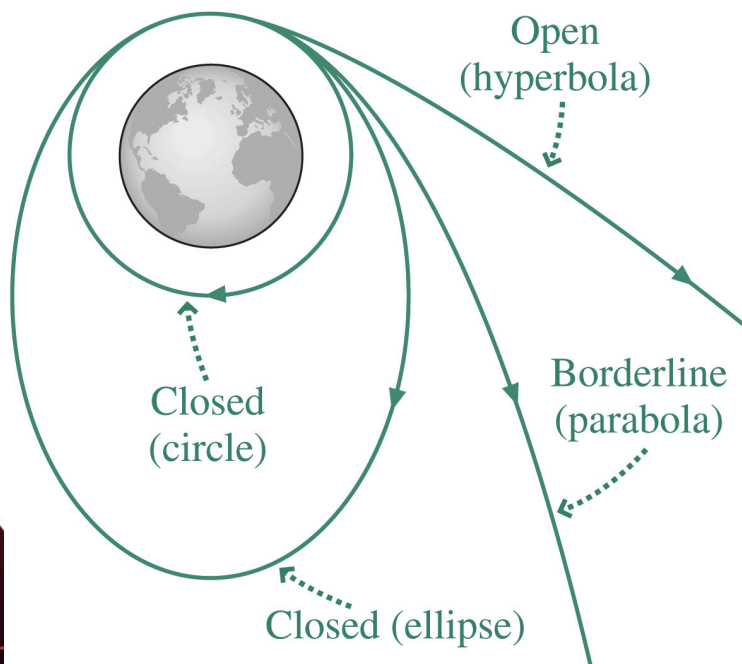


Since altitude doesn't change, $\Delta U = 0$ on this path ...



Energy and Orbits

- The total energy $E = K + U$, the sum of kinetic energy K and potential energy U , determines the type of orbit:
 - $E < 0$: The object is in a bound, elliptical orbit.
 - Special cases include circular orbits and the straight-line paths of falling objects.
 - $E > 0$: The orbit is unbound and hyperbolic.
 - $E = 0$: The borderline case gives a parabolic orbit.



Escape Velocity

- An object with total energy E less than zero is in a bound orbit and can't escape from the gravitating center.
- With energy E greater than zero, the object is in an unbound orbit and can escape to infinitely far from the gravitating center.
- The minimum speed (launching directly away from the center of the earth) required to escape is given by

$$0 = K + U = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{GMm}{r}$$

- Solving for v gives the escape velocity:

$$v_{\text{esc}} = \sqrt{\frac{2GM}{r}}$$

– Escape velocity from Earth's surface is about 11 km/s.



Energy in Circular Orbits

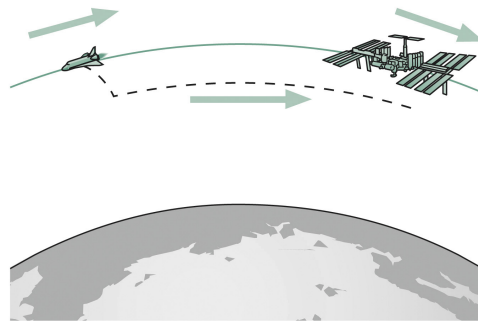
- In the special case of a circular orbit, kinetic energy and potential energy are precisely related:

$$U = -2K$$

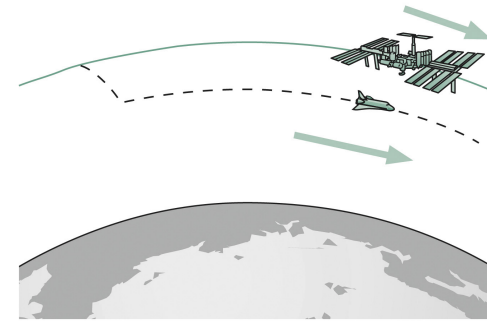
- Thus in a circular orbit the total energy is

$$E = K + U = -K = \frac{1}{2}U = -\frac{GMm}{2r}$$

- This negative energy shows that the orbit is bound.
- The lower the orbit, the lower the total energy—but the faster the orbital speed.
 - This means an orbiting spacecraft needs to lose energy to gain speed.



(a)

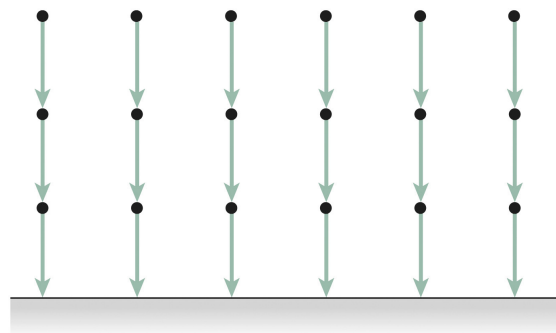


(b)

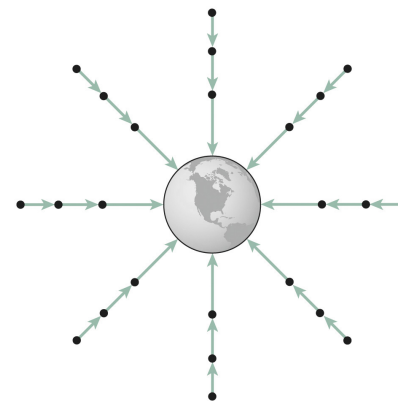


The Gravitational Field

- It's convenient to describe gravitation not in terms of “action at a distance” but rather in terms of a **gravitational field** that results from the presence of mass and that exists at all points in space.
 - A massive object creates a gravitational field in its vicinity, and other objects respond to the field *at their immediate locations*.
 - The gravitational field can be visualized with a set of vectors giving its strength (in N/kg; equivalently, m/s^2) and its direction.



Near Earth's surface



On a larger scale



Millennium Simulation

- <http://www.mpa-garching.mpg.de/galform/press/>
- The biggest and most detailed supercomputer simulation of the evolution of the Universe from a few hundred thousand years after the Big Bang to the present day.
- The Millennium Simulation used 10 billion particles to track the evolution of 20 million galaxies over the history of the universe.
- A 3-dimensional visualization of the Millennium Simulation. The movie shows a journey through the simulated universe. During the two minutes of the movie, we travel a distance for which light would need more than 2.4 billion years.

