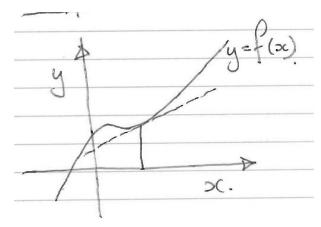
Lecture to Summer Schools

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A long time ago

First need to start with some of the basic mathematical tools.

1 Differentiation



Differentiation is just finding the gradient of a line at any point.

1.1 Consider some examples

Let's

start

with

the

simple

case of a straight line.

$$\frac{\delta y}{\delta x} = \frac{f(x + \delta x) - f(x)}{\delta x}$$

$$= \frac{m(x + \delta x) + c - (mx + c)}{\delta x}$$

$$= \frac{mx + m\delta x + c - mx - c}{\delta x}$$

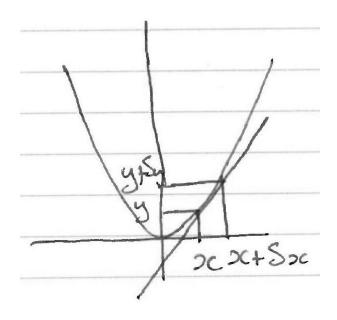
$$= m$$

No Surprise!

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Note constant has no effect.

Lets try $y = x^2$.



$$\frac{\delta y}{\delta x} = \frac{(x + \delta x)^2 - x^2}{\delta x}$$

$$= \frac{x^2 + 2x\delta x + \delta x^2 - x^2}{\delta x}$$

$$= \frac{2x\delta x + \delta x^2}{\delta x}$$

$$= 2x + \delta x.$$

in
$$\mathcal{L}_{\delta x \to 0} \frac{\delta y}{\delta x} \to \frac{dy}{dx} = 2x(+\delta x)^{0}$$

 $\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = 2x \quad \text{for } y = x^{2}.$

Can show that for $y = x^n$ (where n is +ve or -ve or fractional) is $\frac{dy}{dx} = nx^{n-1}$. Also differentiation is additive

So
$$\frac{d}{dx}(x^3 + 2x^2 + 15x + 6) = 3x^2 + 4x + 15$$

Other examples:

$$\frac{d\sqrt{x}}{dx} = \frac{dx^{1/2}}{dx} = \frac{1}{2}x^{-1/2} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$$
$$\frac{d(1/x)}{dx} = \frac{dx^{-1}}{dx} = -1x^{-2} = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

Other functions:

$$\frac{d\sin x}{dx} = \cos x.$$
$$\frac{d\cos x}{dx} = -\sin x.$$

Also
$$\frac{d \sin f(x)}{dx} = f'(x) \cos f(x)$$
 where $f'(x) = \frac{d f(x)}{dx}$
so $\frac{d \sin \omega x}{dx} = \omega \cos \omega x$.

Special example.

$$e^{x} = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \cdots$$

$$\frac{de^{x}}{dx} = e^{x}$$

$$\frac{de^{f(x)}}{dx} = f'(x)e^{f(x)}.$$

Note $\ln(e^x) = x$ also $\frac{d \ln(x)}{dx} = \frac{1}{x}$

2 Integration

Is the opposite to differentiation.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x)$$
 Old fashioned "S" $\to \int dy = \int f(x) dx$.

$$y = \int f(x)dx \leftarrow \text{ indefinite integral}$$

Actually

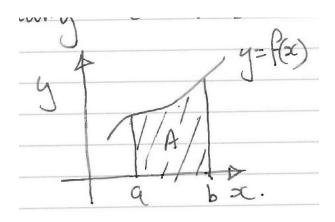
a

measure

of

the

area.



$$A = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx.$$

Definite integral.

3 Solving (Ordinary) Differential Equations (O.D.E.)

Note indefinite integral only defined up to a constant so if $\frac{dy}{dx} = x^2$.

$$\int dy = \int x^2 dx$$
$$= \frac{x^3}{3} + \underline{\underline{c}}$$

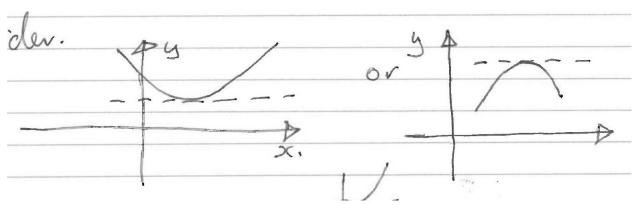
4 Second Order O.D.E.s

Differential of a differential.

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{df(x)}{dx}\right) = \frac{d^2f(x)}{dx^2} = f''(x)$$

4.1 Maxima and minima

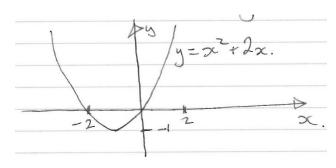
Consider $\frac{dy}{dx}$ for the following cases:



In all case $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ if $\frac{d^2y}{dc^2}$ is +ve it is a min is -ve it is a max

is O can be max or min, or point of inflection.

For example $y = x^2 + 2x$



$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x + 2 = 0 \text{ a min.}$$

$$\therefore \quad x = -1$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}\Big|_{x=-1} = 2$$

i.e. +ve so a minimum

5 Now Consider a physical situation

5.1 Newton's Second Law

$$\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$$

F Depends on the physics, m is just a constant, so let's consider **a** (will also ignore that it is a vector so dropthe bold font).

$$a = \text{rate of change of velocity} = \frac{dv}{dt}$$

but v is rate of change of position.

$$v = \frac{dx}{dt}$$

$$\therefore \quad a = \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right) = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}.$$

$$\therefore \quad F = m\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = m\ddot{x}$$

Aside

Can always write a second order O.D.E. and two first order O.D.E.s

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = F(x)$$

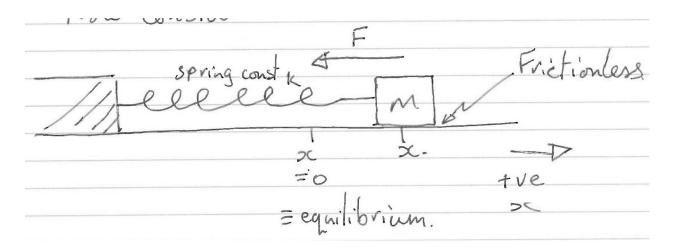
is the same as

$$\frac{\frac{dv(x)}{dt} = F(x)}{\frac{dx}{dt} = v(x) }$$

Something that will be very useful when you are simulating physics.

5.2 Oscillators (Simple Harmonic Motion)

Now consider



$$F = -kx$$

- because it is always in a direction to return to the equilibrium position

$$2^{\text{nd}}$$
 law $m\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = F = -kx$.

So lets try
 $x = \cos \omega t$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -\omega \sin \omega t$$

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = -\omega^2 \cos \omega t$$

So

$$-m\omega^2 \cos \omega t = -kx \cos \omega t$$
$$\Rightarrow \omega^2 = k/m$$
or $\omega = \sqrt{k/m}$.

So what sort of motion is this? Well, in fact could have been. more general and had.

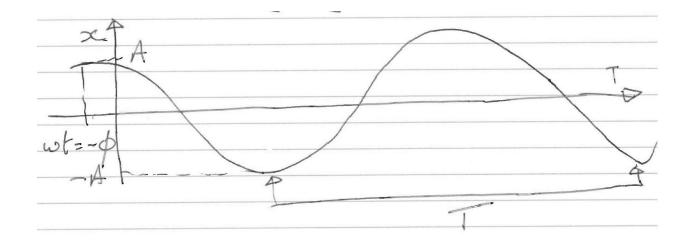
$$x = A\cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

where A is the amplitude, and ϕ is a phase.

Now

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -A\omega\cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

so everything still works!



$$T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$$
$$= 2\pi \sqrt{m/k}.$$

So frequency ν

$$\nu = \omega/2\pi$$

Note: Doesn't depend on amplitude.

5.2.1 Superposition

Could add solutions together.

e.g.
$$x = A_1 \cos(\omega t + \phi_1) + A_2 \cos(\omega t + \phi_2)$$

 A_1, A_2, ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 can have any value but ω is fixed by the physics.

5.2.2 Now lets consider energy

if
$$x = A\cos(\cot + \phi) = A\cos(\omega t)$$
 (setting ϕ to 0 with no loss of generality)
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -A\omega\sin\omega t$$

$$K.E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{A^2\omega^2m\sin^2\omega t}{2}$$

So K.E. Change throughout motion.

Now lets consider P.E. (U(x))

When is U = 0?

Don't forget always offset so really ask when is U minimum?

Clearly when a equilibrium.

So calculate U

F = -dU/dx (discuss this in terms of a valley).

$$U = -\int_0^x F dx = +\int_0^x kx dx.$$
$$U = \frac{1}{2}kx^2 = \frac{1}{2}kA^2\cos^2(\omega t)$$

Note that S.H.M. parabolic potential $U = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$.

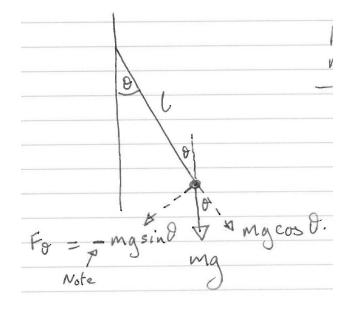
$$E_{\text{Tot}} = K.E. + P.E.$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}A^2\omega^2 m \sin^2(\omega t) + \frac{1}{2}A^2k \cos^2 \omega t$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}A^2\omega^2 m \left(\sin^2(\omega t) + \cos^2(\omega t)\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}A^2\omega^2 m.$$

5.3 Now lets consider a pendulum



Ask about resolving forces.

Rotational movement equivalent of N.2.

So let's consider the rotational displacement $x_{\theta} = l\theta$ so then:

$$v_{\theta} = \dot{x_{\theta}} = l\dot{\theta}$$
$$a_{\theta} = \ddot{x_{\theta}} = l\ddot{\theta}$$

So now consider rotational Newton 2

$$F_{\theta} = ma_{\theta} = m\ddot{x_{\theta}} = ml\ddot{\theta}$$

Rotation equivalent of Force is torque τ

$$\tau = lF_{\theta}$$

Also, the rotational equivalent of mass is moment of inertia $I=ml^2$ so this leads to the rotational equivalent to Newton's 2^{nd} law:

$$\tau = I\ddot{\theta}$$

where I is the moment of inertia, τ is the torque and $\ddot{\theta}$ is the angular acceleration

so now lets look at the forces on a pendulum

$$I = ml^2$$
$$\tau = lF_{\theta}$$

$$lF_{\theta} = ml^2\ddot{\theta}$$

When $\theta \ll 1 \operatorname{rad} \sin \theta \approx \theta$

$$-gm\sin\theta = ml\ddot{\theta}$$
$$-gm\theta = ml\ddot{\theta}$$
$$\ddot{\theta} = -\frac{g}{l}\theta$$

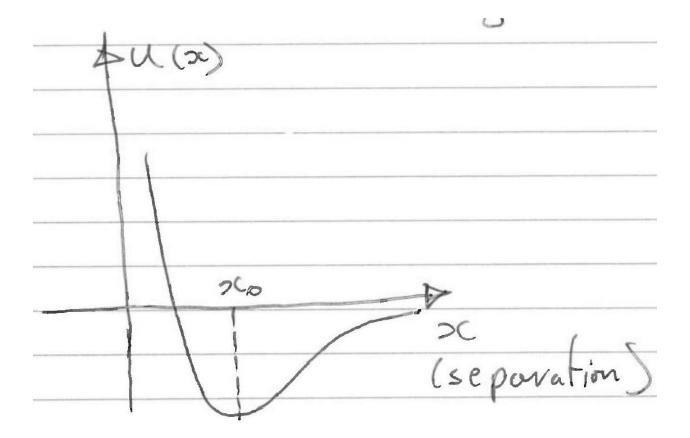
$$\therefore$$
 S. H.M. with $w = \sqrt{g/l}$. or $T = 2\pi\sqrt{l/g}$.

• Note independent of mass (and amplitude as long as $\sin\theta\approx\theta$)

5.4 So why is S. H.M Everywhere?

Consider any potential that has an equilibrium.

E.g. Attraction between neutral molecules in gas



Consider particle held by potential around x_0

Taylor expansion

$$u(x_{0} + \delta x) = u(x_{0}) + \frac{1}{1!} \frac{du(x_{0})}{dx} \delta x + \frac{1}{2!} \frac{d^{2}u(x_{0})}{dx^{2}} \delta x^{2} + \frac{1}{3!} \frac{d^{3}u(x_{0})}{dx \delta^{3}} \delta x^{3} + \cdots$$

But $\frac{du(x_0)}{dx} = 0$

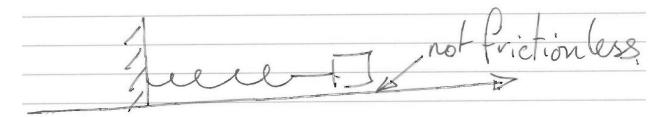
So
$$u(x_0 + \delta x) \approx U(x_0) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 u(x_0)}{dx^2} \delta x^2$$

 $U(x_0)$ is just a const offset and can be set to 0 so we have a parabolic. Note that $\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 u(x_0)}{dx^2}$ is also a constant that depends on the physics.

∴ S.H.M. everywhere.

6 Just consider 2 more cases

6.1 Damped S.H.M.



Typically friction is -bv

So

$$F_{\text{Tot}} = -kx - bv = -kx - b\dot{x}$$

From N2.

$$m\ddot{x} + b\dot{x} + kx = 0$$

or
$$\ddot{x} + \gamma\dot{x} + \omega_0^2 x = 0$$

where

$$\gamma = b/m$$

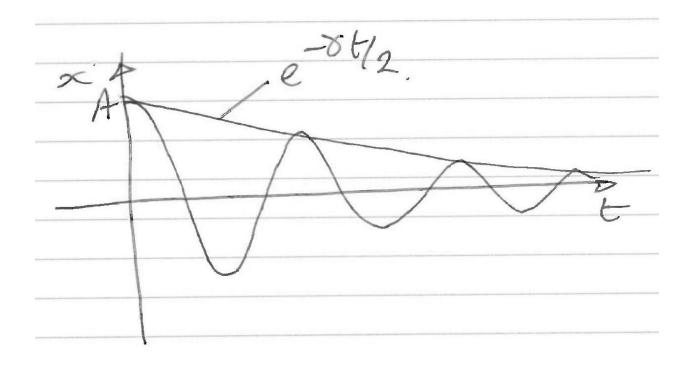
$$\omega_0=k/m$$
"natuval" S. H.M ω

Now actual behaviour depends on level of damping. but in light damping case.

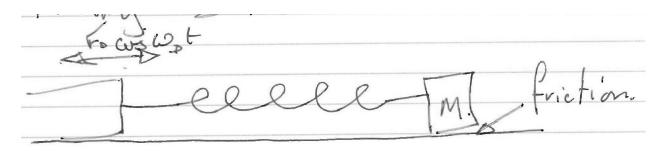
$$x = Ae^{-\gamma t/2}\cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

where

$$\omega = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right)^2}$$
$$= \sqrt{k/m - \frac{b^2}{4m^2}}$$



6.2 Finally Damped and Driven S.H.M.



$$\ddot{x} + \gamma \dot{x} + \omega_0^2 x = F_D \cos(\omega_D t).$$