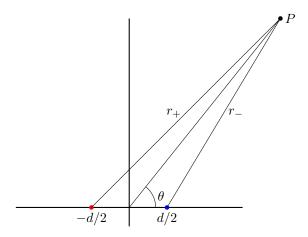
In lecture we saw how to use Taylor approximations to find the potential along the axis of an electric dipole. In this problem we will expand on this analysis to study electric multipoles. Recall that the potential due to a *single* point charge q a distance r away is given by

$$V = \frac{kq}{r}$$

Consider an electric dipole consisting of a positive charge +q on the x-axis at x=d/2 and an equal and opposite negative charge -q on the x-axis at x = d/2 as shown.

a) Find the lowest-order approximation to the potential at a general point $(x,y) = (r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta)$ when $r \gg d$.

Solution: Let us define two quantities r_+ and r_- defined as shown in the diagram below



From the diagram, we can use cosine law:

$$r_{-}^{2} = \left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^{2} + r^{2} - 2r\frac{d}{2}\cos\theta = \left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^{2} + r^{2} - rd\cos\theta$$
$$r_{+}^{2} = \left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^{2} + r^{2} - 2r\frac{d}{2}\cos(\pi - \theta) = \left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^{2} + r^{2} + rd\cos\theta$$

The first order approximation is sufficient here so we can neglect the $(\frac{d}{2})^2$ term, which then allows us to factor out r^2 from both expressions:

$$r_{+}^{2} = r^{2} + rd\cos\theta = r^{2}\left(1 + \frac{d}{r}\cos\theta\right) \implies r_{+} = r\left(1 + \frac{d}{r}\cos\theta\right)^{1/2}$$
$$r_{-}^{2} = r^{2} - rd\cos\theta = r^{2}\left(1 - \frac{d}{r}\cos\theta\right) \implies r_{-} = r\left(1 - \frac{d}{r}\cos\theta\right)^{1/2}$$

Now let's go back to the potential and add up the contributions due to the positive and negative charges:

$$V = \frac{kq}{r_{-}} - \frac{kq}{r_{+}} = kq \left(\frac{1}{r_{-}} - \frac{1}{r_{+}} \right)$$

Now we can substitute what we have for r_+ and r_- , while letting $\epsilon = \frac{d}{r}$:

$$V = kq \left[\frac{1}{r(1 - \epsilon \cos \theta)^{1/2}} - \frac{1}{r(1 + \epsilon \cos \theta)^{1/2}} \right]$$

$$= \frac{kq}{r} \left[(1 - \epsilon \cos \theta)^{-1/2} - (1 + \epsilon \cos \theta)^{-1/2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{kq}{r} \left[1 + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \cos \theta - (1 - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \cos \theta) \right]$$

$$= \frac{kq}{r} (\epsilon \cos \theta)$$

$$= \frac{kqd \cos \theta}{r^2}$$

Next consider a *linear electric quadrupole*, with a point charge +2q at the origin, a point charge -q at x = +d and a point charge -q at x = -d. Consider a point P at position x on the x-axis and a good distance to the right of the quadrupole so $x \gg d$.

b) Find the lowest-order approximation to the potential at point P when $x \gg d$.

Solution: First we write the potential out fully:

$$V = k\left(-\frac{q}{x-d} + \frac{2q}{x} - \frac{q}{x+d}\right) = kq\left(\frac{2}{x} - \frac{1}{x-d} - \frac{1}{x+d}\right)$$

Then since $\frac{d}{x} \ll 1$, then let $\epsilon = \frac{d}{x} \implies d = \epsilon x$. Substituting this in:

$$V = \frac{kq}{x} \left(2 - \frac{1}{1 - \epsilon} - \frac{1}{1 + \epsilon} \right)$$

The taylor expansions of the two fractions are as follows:

$$\frac{1}{1+\epsilon} = (1+\epsilon)^{-1} = 1 - \epsilon + \epsilon^2 + O(\epsilon^3)$$
$$\frac{1}{1-\epsilon} = (1+(-\epsilon))^{-1} = 1 + \epsilon + \epsilon^2 + O(\epsilon^3)$$

we only take these to second order since that's the first nonzero term. Now combining everything together:

$$V \approx \frac{kq}{x}(2 - (1 + \epsilon + \epsilon^2) - (1 - \epsilon + \epsilon^2)) = \frac{kq}{x}(-2\epsilon^2) = -\frac{2kqd^2}{x^3}$$

In class we presented the Taylor expansions for sin(x) and cos(x) about the point x = 0,

$$\sin(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}, \qquad \cos(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$$

a) Let $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and explicitly carry out the Taylor expansion about the point x = 0. Show that your answer reproduces the formula for $\sin(x)$ shown above.

Solution: Taking the derivatives, we get the following:

$$f(0) = 0$$

$$f'(0) = \cos(0) = 1$$

$$f''(0) = -\sin(0) = 0$$

$$f'''(0) = -\cos(0) = -1$$
:

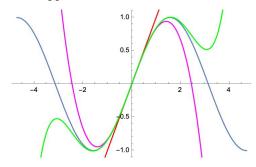
The nonzero derivatives occur whenever we have a $\cos(0)$ term. This pattern occurs at every other term, since taking the derivative of $\sin(x)$ gives us $\cos(x)$ (giving us a nonzero term), and taking the derivative of $\cos(x)$ gives us $\sin(x)$, giving us a zero. Taking the derivative again returns us to $\cos(x)$, which is nonzero again hence there is a pattern that every other term is nonzero. Therefore, we get:

$$\sin(x) \approx x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + O(x^9)$$

This matches the series expansion, since for n=0 we would get x, then n=1 gives us the $-x^3/3!$ term, and so on. In the expansion, we are neglecting the indices that give us zero by using 2n+1 as the index in the summation rather than just n, meaning that our index "step size" is 2. In other words, we are allowed to "skip over" the even indices because they are all zero.

b) Graph $\sin(x)$, and the first, third, and fifth order Taylor series approximation to $\sin(x)$ in the range $-3\pi/2 \le x \le 3\pi/2$.

Solution: Below I've plotted the sine curve over the $x \in [-3\pi/2, 3\pi/2]$. The blue curve is the full sine curve, and the other colors are the approximations.



Some functions can't be Taylor expanded about certain points. For example, if we try to Taylor expand 1/x about the point x = 0 we would fail since $1/x = \infty$! In such cases, it may be possible to expand the function using both positive and negative powers of x. For example, we can express the function $\sin(x)/x^2$ as,

$$\frac{\sin x}{x^2} \approx \frac{x - x^3/3! + x^5/5! + \mathcal{O}(x^7)}{x^2} = \frac{1}{x} - \frac{x^2}{3!} + \frac{x^3}{5!} + \mathcal{O}(x^5)$$

Such a series is a generalization of the Taylor series called the *Laurent Series*, which is an enormously useful tool in complex analysis.

c) Use the two series for $\sin(x)$ and $\cos(x)$ to find the Laurent series/small-angle approximation for $\cot(x)$ to the lowest two non-zero terms. Check your approximation by finding $\cot(0.1)$ and comparing with your approximation. How about for $\cot(1)$? $\cot(\pi/2)$?

Solution: We know that $\cot(x) = \frac{\cos(x)}{\sin(x)}$, so therefore we can take the first two terms of the Taylor expansion for $\sin(x)$ and $\cos(x)$:

$$\cot(x) = \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2!}\right) \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3!}\right)^{-1}$$
$$= \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2!}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{x} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{3!}\right)^{-1}$$

Now we can use the binomial expansion to simplify the term with the negative exponent:

$$(1-x)^n = 1 - nx + O(x^2)$$

Doing so, we get:

$$\cot(x) = \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2!}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{x} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{3!}\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{x} \left[1 - \frac{x^2}{3!} - \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^4}{2!3!}\right]$$

Keeping the first two terms only, we get:

$$\cot(x) \approx \frac{1}{x} - \frac{x}{3}$$

Using Mathematica, we find that $\cot(0.1) = 9.96664$, and our Taylor approximation gives 9.96667, which indicates that it's a very good approximation. Then, with the other values, we get:

Input	Exact	Taylor Approximation
$\cot(1)$	0.6420	0.6666
$\cot(\pi/2)$	0	0.1130

We can see that since we centered our taylor approximations around x = 0, that our approximations for $\cot(x)$ around x = 0 is quite good (difference of 0.00003), but the approximation starts to fail once we get to $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$, where the difference jumps to over 0.1.

d) Use the Taylor series for e^x , $\sin(x)$ and $\cos(x)$ to show **Euler's formula**

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos(\theta) + i\sin(\theta)$$

Solution: We have the series of $\sin(x)$ from part (a), but I'll repeat it here:

$$\sin(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + O(x^9)$$

The expansion for cos(x) is:

$$\cos(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + O(x^8)$$

The expansion for e^x is:

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + O(x^5)$$

then plugging in $x=i\theta$ into the last series, we have:

$$e^{i\theta} = 1 + i\theta - \frac{\theta^2}{2} - \frac{i\theta^3}{3!} = \underbrace{\left(1 - \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + \frac{\theta^4}{4!} + \dots\right)}_{=\cos(\theta)} + i\underbrace{\left(\theta - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^5}{5!} + \dots\right)}_{=\sin(\theta)} = \cos(\theta) + i\sin\theta$$

a) Let $z_1 = x_1 + iy_1 = r_1e^{i\theta_1}$ and $z_2 = x_2 + iy_2 = r_2e^{i\theta_2}$. Find the real part and imaginary part of the product z_1z_2 and the quotient z_1/z_2 in terms of the Cartesian components x_1, x_2, y_1 and y_2 . Then find the real and imaginary part of the product z_1z_2 and the quotient z_1/z_2 in terms of the polar components r_1, r_2, θ_1 and θ_2 .

Solution: The product is:

$$z_1 z_2 = (x_1 + iy_1)(x_2 + iy_2) = x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2 + i(x_1 y_2 + y_1 x_2)$$

so the real part is $\text{Re}(z_1z_2) = x_1x_2 - y_1y_2$, and the complex part is $\text{Im}(z_1z_2) = x_1y_2 + y_1x_2$. The quotient is:

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{x_1 + iy_1}{x_2 + iy_2} = \frac{(x_1 + iy_1)(x_2 - iy_2)}{x_2^2 + y_2^2} = \frac{x_1x_2 + y_1y_2 - i(x_1y_2 + x_2y_1)}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}$$

Here, the real part is:

$$\operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right) = \frac{x_1x_2 + y_1y_2}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}$$

and the imaginary part is:

$$\operatorname{Im}\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right) = -\frac{x_1y_2 + x_2y_1}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}$$

With the other representation, the product $z_1z_2 = r_1r_2e^{i(\theta_1+\theta_2)}$. We then have to break up the complex exponential into its real and imaginary part (using $e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$), so we get:

$$Re(z_1 z_2) = r_1 r_2 \cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2)$$
 $Im(z_1 z_2) = r_1 r_2 \sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2)$

For the quotient, we have:

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{r_1 e^{i\theta_1}}{r_2 e^{i\theta_2}} = \frac{r_1}{r_2} e^{i(\theta_1 - \theta_2)}$$

Again, splitting this up using the identity $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$, we get:

$$\operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right) = \frac{r_1}{r_2}\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) \qquad \operatorname{Im}\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right) = \frac{r_1}{r_2}\sin(\theta_1 - \theta_2)$$

b) Let $z = x + iy = re^{i\theta}$. Find $|z|^2$ and z^2 first in terms of x and y and then in terms of r and θ . Under what circumstances does $|z|^2 = z^2$?

Solution: The modulus square $|z|^2 = x^2 + y^2 = r^2$, whereas the square $z^2 = x^2 + 2ixy - y^2 = r^2e^{2i\theta}$. Equality only occurs when the imaginary part disappears, so when y = 0. This also corresponds to $\theta = 0, \pi, 2\pi, \ldots$ (every integer multiple of π).

c) Use Euler's formula on both sides of $e^{i(\alpha+\beta)}=e^{i\alpha}e^{i\beta}$ to derive the formulas for $\cos(\alpha+\beta)$ and $\sin(\alpha+\beta)$

Solution: On the left hand side we have

$$e^{i(\alpha+\beta)} = \cos(\alpha+\beta) + i\sin(\alpha+\beta)$$

and on the right hand side we have to do some multiplication:

$$e^{i\alpha}e^{i\beta} = (\cos\alpha + i\sin\alpha)(\cos\beta + i\sin\beta)$$
$$= \cos\alpha\cos\beta - \sin\alpha\sin\beta + i(\sin\alpha\cos\beta + \cos\alpha\sin\beta)$$

So comparing the real and imaginary parts, we get the identities:

$$\cos(\alpha + \beta) = \cos \alpha \cos \beta - \sin \alpha \sin \beta$$
$$\sin(\alpha + \beta) = \sin \alpha \cos \beta + \cos \alpha \sin \beta$$

Let $z_1 = r_1 e^{i\theta_1}$ and $z_2 = r_2 e^{i\theta_2}$

d) Show that $|z_1 + z_2| = \sqrt{r_1^2 + r_2^2 + 2r_1r_2\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2)}$

Solution: We can do this by finding the norm-squared:

$$|z_1 + z_2|^2 = |r_1 e^{i\theta_1} + r_2 e^{i\theta_2}|^2$$

$$= (r_1 e^{i\theta_1} + r_2 e^{i\theta_2})(r_1 e^{-i\theta_1} + r_2 e^{-i\theta_2})$$

$$= r_1^2 + r_2^2 + r_1 r_2 e^{i(\theta_1 - \theta_2)} + r_1 r_2 e^{i(\theta_2 - \theta_1)}$$

$$= r_1^2 + r_2^2 + r_1 r_2 \left(e^{i(\theta_1 - \theta_2)} + e^{-i(\theta_1 - \theta_2)} \right)$$

Now we use the identity:

$$\cos(x) = \frac{e^{ix} + e^{-ix}}{2}$$

with $x = \theta_1 - \theta_2$ in this case, so therefore:

$$|z_1 + z_2|^2 = r_1^2 + r_2^2 + 2r_1r_2\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2)$$

taking the square root:

$$|z_1 + z_2| = \sqrt{r_1^2 + r_2^2 + 2r_1r_2\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2)}$$

e) (Extra) Use the result from part (d) to show the *triangle inequality* $|z_1 + z_2| \le |z_1| + |z_2|$. Under what conditions is the inequality *saturated*.

Solution: We expand $|z_1| + |z_2| = r_1 + r_2 = \sqrt{(r_1 + r_2)^2} = \sqrt{r_1^2 + r_2^2 + 2r_1r_2}$. Note that since $-1 \le \cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) \le 1$, the quantity $2r_1r_2 \ge 2r_1r_2\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2)$, and so overall the triangle inequality holds. Equality is reached when $\theta_1 - \theta_2 = 0, 2\pi, \ldots$ or in general: $\theta_1 - \theta_2 = 2n\pi$ where $n = 1, 2, \ldots$

f) Show **De Moivre's formula**, $(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^n = \cos(n\theta) + i \sin(n\theta)$.

Solution: On the left hand side, we can rewrite $\cos \theta + i \sin \theta = e^{i\theta}$, so therefore

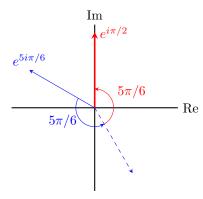
$$(e^{i\theta})^n = e^{in\theta} = \cos(n\theta) + i\sin(n\theta)$$

as desired. \Box

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ (that is, n is a positive whole number). The **n-th root** of a complex number z is $z^{1/n}$. When dealing with roots we have to be careful when the n-th root function is **multi-valued**. In particular, there are n different possible values of w such that $w^n = z$, all of which could properly be considered n-th roots of z. Let's explore this.

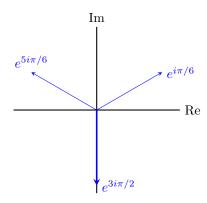
g) Consider the three different cube-roots of z=i (which, using Euler's formula, we can also write as $e^{i\pi/2}$. Show that $w=e^{i\pi/6},e^{5i\pi/6}$, and $e^{3i\pi/2}$ all cube to z=i. Plot these roots on the complex plane and demonstrate graphically how $e^{5i\pi/6}$ cubes to i.

Solution: Let w_1, w_2, w_3 be the solutions. Then, we have $w_1^3 = e^{3i\pi/6} = e^{i\pi/2} = i$, $w_2^3 = e^{15i\pi/6} = e^{5i\pi/2} = e^{2i\pi+i\pi/2} = e^{i\pi/2} = i$ and finally $w_3^3 = e^{9i\pi/2} = e^{8i\pi+i\pi/2} = e^{i\pi/2} = i$. Graphically speaking, when we cube $e^{5i\pi/6}$ we are rotating the vector $e^{5i\pi/6}$ by the angle $5\pi/6$ two times, which comes out to a total angle of $15\pi/6$, which is the same as rotating by $\pi/2$, as shown below:



Here, we see that the solid blue arrow represents the initial vector $e^{5i\pi/6}$, and when we multiply it by $e^{5i\pi/6}$ once, we get the dashed blue line, and when we multiply it again we get the red vector, which is also represented by $e^{i\pi/2}$.

The problem also asks for each of the roots to be plotted, so here they are:



h) (Extra) Show that the *n* distinct values of the *n*-th root of $z = re^{i\theta}$ are $w_k = r^{1/n}e^{i(\theta + 2\pi k)/n}$, with $k = 0, \dots, n-1$. As a check, test that your formula implies that if *w* is a square root of *z* then so is -w.

Solution: Taking any of the roots w_k to the n-th power, we get:

$$w_k^n = re^{i(\theta + 2\pi k)} = re^{i\theta}e^{2\pi ik}$$

the term $e^{2\pi ik}$ represents an integer multiple of 2π revolutions, which is the same thing as multiplying by 1, and thus we've proven equality. We can also see this explicitly by remembering the identity $e^{2\pi i} = 1$, so therefore

$$e^{2\pi ik} = (e^{2\pi i})^k = 1^k = 1$$

which is another way to show that $re^{i\theta}e^{2\pi ik} = re^{i\theta}$.

The multi-valued nature of the n-th root ultimately comes from the multi-valued nature of the logarithm. Recall that

$$\ln z = \ln |z| + i \operatorname{Arg}(z) + 2\pi i k$$

where $\operatorname{Arg}(z) = \tan^{-1}(y/x)$ is the **principle value** of the argument, so $-\pi < \operatorname{Arg}(z) \le \pi$, and $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ is the **branch index**. Before solving part (i), be sure to convince yourself that the exponentian of the right-hand side of Eq.1 does indeed produce $z = |z|e^{i\operatorname{Arg}(z)}$ for any integer k.

i) Use Eq.1 to solve the formula $w^n = z$ for w by first taking the logarithm of both sides, solving for $\ln w$, and then exponentiating. You should get back your formula from part (h)!

Solution: We follow the problem and take the logarithm of both sides and solving for $\ln w$:

$$n \ln w = \ln z$$
$$\ln w = \frac{1}{n} \ln z$$

Now we then exponentiate:

$$w = e^{\frac{1}{n} \ln z}$$

$$= e^{\frac{1}{n} (\ln |z| + i \operatorname{Arg}(z) + 2\pi i k)}$$

$$= |z|^{1/n} e^{(i \operatorname{Arg}(z) + 2\pi i k)/n}$$

$$= r^{1/n} e^{i(\theta + 2\pi k)/n}$$

as desired.

Consider a mass m at the end of an ideal spring with spring constant k (so the spring force is $F_{\rm spring} = -kx$). In introductory physics when studying this system, you find that the mass undergoes oscillatory motion with angular frequency $\omega_0 = \sqrt{k/m}$. Now let's make the physical system a little more physically accurate by adding in the effects of damping, a type of friction force (it removes mechanical energy from the system). The damping force is proportional to the velocity, $F_{\rm damping} = -2m\gamma v$, where $\gamma \geq 0$ is the damping coefficient. Therefore,

$$ma = -m\omega_0^2 x - 2m\gamma v$$

Our problem is ironically made less complicated by **complexifying**. That is, we replace the real position $x \in \mathbb{R}$ with a "complex position" $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\text{Re}z \equiv x$. We intuitively know or can guess what our damped sprign will behave like - it should oscillate with a decreasing amplitude. Therefore, we will make an **ansatz** (a guess) at what the complex position will look like,

$$z(t) = Ae^{i\Omega t}$$

where $\Omega \in \mathbb{C}$ is a complex number with units of $[\Omega] = s^{-1}$ and $A = A_0 e^{i\phi_0}$ is some initial complex amplitude. We define $\omega \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\Gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ to be a real and imaginary parts of Ω ,

$$\Omega \equiv \omega + i\Gamma$$

a) Express $z(t) = Ae^{i\Omega t}$ in polar form $r(t)e^{i\phi(t)}$, with r(t) and $\phi(t)$ are real functions expressed in terms of the real constants ω, Γ, A_0 and ϕ_0 . Using your physical intuition (think about the actual motion of a damped oscillator or think about energy), what condition must Γ satisfy for our solution to be physically reasonable?

Solution: We have $z(t) = Ae^{i\Omega t}$, so we can write $\Omega = \omega + i\Gamma$:

$$\begin{split} z(t) &= A e^{i\Omega t} \\ &= A_0 e^{i\phi_0} e^{it(\omega + i\Gamma)} \\ &= A_0 e^{i\phi_0} e^{i\omega t - \Gamma t} \\ &= A_0 e^{-\Gamma t} e^{i(\phi_0 + \omega t)} \end{split}$$

And so we deduce that $r(t) = A_0 e^{-\Gamma t}$ and $\phi(t) = \phi_0 + \omega t$. In order for our solution to be physically reasonable, the motion it describes must either describe a decaying amplitude or a constant one, since the damping coefficient is a friction force, and thus it cannot add energy to the system (it could however, do nothing, which would result in a constant amplitude). Therefore, the condition on Γ is that $\Gamma \geq 0$.

From the complex position z we can define a complex velocity $\tilde{v} = \frac{\mathrm{d}z}{\mathrm{d}t}$ and a complex acceleration $\tilde{a} = \frac{\mathrm{d}\tilde{v}}{\mathrm{d}t}$, in whihe case Eq. 2a becomes

$$m\tilde{a} = -m\omega_0^2 z - 2m\gamma \tilde{v}$$

At the end of the day, we get our physical solutions by taking the real part of the complex solution.

b) Consider the ansatz from Eq. 2b. Find the complex velocity $\tilde{v}(t)$ and complex acceleration $\tilde{a}(t)$ in terms of the complex constants A and Ω .

Solution: We have $z(t) = A_0 e^{i\Omega t}$, so therefore just taking derivatives the normal way:

$$\tilde{v}(t) = \frac{\mathrm{d}z}{\mathrm{d}t} = A_0 i \Omega e^{i\Omega t}$$
$$\tilde{a}(t) = \frac{\mathrm{d}\tilde{v}}{\mathrm{d}t} = -A_0 \Omega^2 e^{i\Omega t}$$

c) Plug your results from (b) into Eq. 2c. Use the fact that $e^{i\Omega t}$ is never zero to simplify your answer to a quadratic equation in Ω .

Solution: We plug this in:

$$-mA_0\omega^2 e^{i\Omega t} = -m\omega_0^2 A_0 e^{i\Omega t} - 2m\gamma A_0 i\Omega e^{i\Omega t}$$
$$-mA_0\Omega^2 = -m\omega_0^2 A_0 - 2m\gamma A_0 i\Omega$$
$$\therefore \Omega^2 - 2i\gamma\Omega - \omega_0^2 = 0$$

this is the quadratic equation in Ω that we are asked to find.

We have a quadratic equation and we want to solve for Ω ! Gut instinct should tell you to use the quadratic formula to solve for Ω , but is that valid for complex numbers?

- d) (Extra) Show that the quadratic formula works to solve quadratic equations $az^2 + bz + c = 0$, even if the coefficients are complex!
- e) Solve the quadratic equation from part (c) for Ω . Does this Ω satisfy the condition you found in part (a)? Under what conditions (if any) on γ and/or ω_0 does Ω become purely real ($\Gamma = 0$)? Purely imaginary ($\omega = 0$)? Neither purely real or imaginary ($\omega, \Gamma \neq 0$)?

Solution: Using the quadratic formula, we get:

$$\Omega_{1,2} = \frac{2i\gamma \pm \sqrt{-4\gamma^2 - 4(1)(-\omega_0^2)}}{2} = \frac{2i\gamma \pm 2\sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \gamma^2}}{2} = i\gamma \pm \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \gamma^2}$$

In order for these values to be puely real, then we must have $\gamma = 0$, in which case we get $\Omega = \pm \omega_0$. To be purely imaginary, then we require that $\omega_0 = \gamma$ and that $\gamma \neq 0$. Any other case would result in $\Omega_{1,2}$ having a nonzero real and imaginary part.

These values for Ω also make sense with part (a), since there we argued that the imaginary component of Ω (represented by Γ must satisfy $\Gamma \geq 0$, and here we see that the imaginary part of the solutions for Ω are supplied by the damping coefficient, which by definition has the condition that $\gamma \geq 0$, so since these two match up these values for Ω make sense.

Now it's time for some reasonability checks! In the middle of a physics calculation it's always good to see if your answer is physically on the right track.

f) (Extra) First, using Eq. 2c, determine the units/dimensions of the constant γ . Next, make sure your expression for Ω is dimensionally consistent (we can oly add quantities if they have the same dimensions). What are the units of Ω ? It doesn't make sense to take the exponential (or sine or cosine) of a dimensionful quantity. Is this consistent for our soultion $z = Ae^{i\Omega t}$?

For the rest of the problem, let $\phi_0 = 0$ so that A is real and positive.

- g) (Extra) Find x(t) = Re(z(t)) when $\gamma = 0$. This is the **undamped** oscillator. Does this oscillator behave in the way you would expect?
- h) For one of the two solutions for Ω you found in part (e), find x(t) = Re(z(t)) in the case $0 < \gamma < \omega_0$. This is the **underdamped** oscillator. Qualitatively sketch the solution x(t).

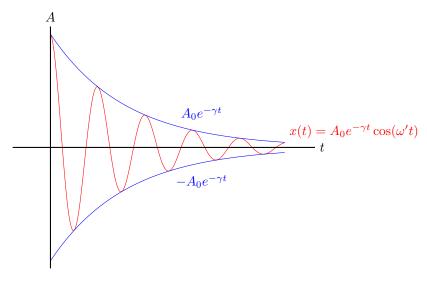
Solution: I'll take the positive case, $\Omega = i\gamma + \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \gamma^2}$. Then, if $\omega_0 > \gamma$, then this means that the radical is a real quantity, and let's call this new quantity $\omega' = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \gamma^2}$. Then, we can write:

$$z(t) = A_0 e^{it(i\gamma + \omega')}$$
$$= A_0 e^{-\gamma t + i\omega' t}$$
$$= A_0 e^{-\gamma t} e^{i\omega' t}$$

Then if we take the real part, then we simply replace the phase with $\cos(\omega' t)$, so finally:

$$\operatorname{Re}(z(t)) = A_0 e^{-\gamma t} \cos(\omega' t)$$

where $\omega' = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \gamma^2}$. A sketch is shown below, and I've also plotted the exponential envelope to show that the amplitude follows an exponential decay, as expected.



i) For one of the two solutions for Ω you found in part (e), find x(t) = Re(z(t)) in the case $\omega_0 < \gamma$. This is the overdamped oscillator. Qualitatively sketch the solution x(t).

Solution: Unlike the previous solution, here we have a case where the radical is complex-valued, so we can rewrite the radical as:

$$\sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \gamma^2} = \sqrt{-(\gamma^2 - \omega_0^2)} = i\sqrt{\gamma^2 - \omega_0^2}$$

Now, we define $\omega' = \sqrt{\gamma^2 - \omega_0^2}$, so we can write our solution z(t) as:

$$z(t) = A_0 e^{i(i\gamma + i\omega')t}$$

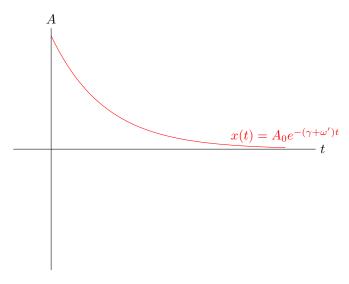
simplifying this, we get

$$z(t) = A_0 e^{(-\gamma - \omega')t}$$

And since there is no complex phase any longer, we have Re(z(t)) = z(t):

$$\operatorname{Re}(z(t)) = A_0 e^{-(\gamma + \omega')t}$$

Plotting this, we get:



there isn't really any fancy envelope I can draw for this curve so the plot looks kind of lame, but the lack of an oscillation is exactly what we expect for an overdamped oscillator. \Box