Lecture 12: 2/16/24

1 Lagrange's Equations

From last time: we defined the path

$$S = \int_{a}^{b} f(x, y(x), y'(x)) dx$$

Goal: find y(x) that minimizes S using EL

EL:
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} - \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y'} \right) = 0$$

where near the minimum $\delta S = 0$. From the EL, y(x) is a stationary point of S(could also be a maximum!).

Lagrangian In Classical Mechanics, we use a specific form

$$\mathcal{L} = T - V$$

this has the units of energy and the action S has the units $[S] = [E \cdot T]$ similar to planck's constant \hbar .

3D Cartesian $x, y, z = q_1, q_2, q_3$

$$T = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2)$$
$$U = U(x, y, z)$$

where the potential energy only depends on the position and T only depends on the velocity, so

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2) - U(x, y, z)$$

and the EL equation for the Lagrangian is

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial q_i} = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{q}_i}$$

For the 3D case, we have 3 equations of motion: For x we have

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{x}} = m\dot{x}$$

and using the EL equation, we get

$$-\frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}(m\dot{x}) = m\ddot{x}$$

which is Newton's second law $F_x = ma_x$ where $\mathbf{F} = -\nabla U$. We can now get the general form

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

Polar Coordinates $q:(r,\phi)$ we know that

$$\mathbf{v} = v_r \mathbf{\hat{r}} + v_\phi \mathbf{\hat{\phi}} = \dot{r} \mathbf{\hat{r}} + r \dot{\phi} \mathbf{\hat{\phi}}$$

and

$$U = U(r, \phi),$$
 $T = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{r}^2 + r^2\dot{\phi}^2)$

first we find the parts EL equation for r

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial r} = mr\dot{\phi}^2 - \frac{\partial U}{\partial r}$$
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{r}} = m\dot{r}$$

and the EL equation is

$$mr\dot{\phi}^2 - \frac{\partial U}{\partial r} = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}(m\dot{r})$$
$$m(\ddot{r} - r\dot{\phi}^2) = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial r}$$

which gives us N2L for r. For ϕ we have

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi} = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial \phi}$$
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} = mr^2 \dot{\phi}$$

and from the EL equation we get

$$-\frac{\partial U}{\partial \phi} = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \left(mr^2 \dot{\phi} \right) = m(2r\dot{r}\dot{\phi} + r^2 \ddot{\phi})$$

dividing both sides by r

$$-\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial U}{\partial \phi} = m(r\ddot{\phi} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\phi}) = -(\nabla U)_{\phi}$$

from both forms we know that the two parts of the EL represent the momentum and force:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{q}_i} = p_i \quad \text{generalized momentum}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial q_i} = F_i \quad \text{generalized force}$$

where $F_i = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} p_i$ is the generalized N2L.

Example: Mass m sliding down a frictionless moving ramp M. First we choose the coordinates x moving along with the ramp and y down in the perpendicular direction. For the ramp M:

$$T_M = \frac{1}{2}M\dot{q}_2^2, \quad U_M = 0$$

and for the mass m: First we decompose the velocity of m into the x and y components

$$\mathbf{v}_m = \dot{x}\hat{\mathbf{x}} + \dot{y}\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \hat{\mathbf{y}}(\dot{q}_1 \sin \alpha) + \hat{\mathbf{x}}(\dot{q}_1 \cos \alpha + \dot{q}_2)$$

and the kinetic and potential energies are

$$T_m = \frac{1}{2}mv_m^2 = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{q}_1^2 + 2\dot{q}_1\dot{q}_2\cos\alpha + \dot{q}_2^2)$$
$$U_m = mgy = -mg(\dot{q}_1\sin\alpha)$$

using the Lagrangian $\mathcal{L} = T - U = T_M + T_m - U_M - U_m$ we get

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial q_2} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{q}_2} = M\dot{q}_2 + m\dot{q}_1 \cos \alpha$$

and the EL equation gives us

$$(M+m)\ddot{q}_2 + m\ddot{q}_1\cos\alpha = 0$$

$$a_2 = \ddot{q}_2 = -\frac{m\ddot{q}_1\cos\alpha}{M+m}$$

and for q_1 we have

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial q_1} = mg\sin\alpha, \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{q}_1} = m(\dot{q}_1 + \dot{q}_2\cos\alpha)$$

and the EL equation gives us

$$mg\sin\alpha = m(\ddot{q}_1 + \ddot{q}_2\cos\alpha)$$

and since we have two equations and two unknowns, we can solve for \ddot{q}_1 and \ddot{q}_2 .

$$\ddot{q}_1 = \frac{g \sin \alpha}{1 - \frac{m \cos^2 \alpha}{m + M}} = const$$
$$\ddot{q}_2 = -\frac{m\ddot{q}_1 \cos \alpha}{M + m} = const$$

for $\alpha=90^\circ$, we get $\ddot{q}_1=g$ and $\ddot{q}_2=0$ which is the same as a free falling. For and infinitely heavy ramp $M\to\infty$, we get $\ddot{q}_1=g\sin\alpha$. For $M\to0$ we get $\ddot{q}_1=g/\sin\alpha$ which doesn't make sense because the force on the mass would be infinite. The normal force $N\to0$ as $M\to0$ and the mass would be in free fall.

Lecture 13: 2/19/24

Review Lagrangian: For a general integral

$$S \int f(x, y, y') \mathrm{d}x$$

find y(x) minimizing S using the EL equation

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y'} \right)$$

For Classical Mechanics, we use the Lagrangian in the generalized coordinate system q_i we define the action S as

$$S = \int \mathcal{L}(q_i, \dot{q}_i, t) \mathrm{d}t$$
 find $q(t)$

and from the EL equation we get

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial q_i} = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{q}_i}$$

for each degree of freedom. We define the Lagrangian in CM as the quantity $\mathcal{L} = T - U$

Examples, Examples, and more Examples: A pendulum but its spining on its axis. We first find the energies:

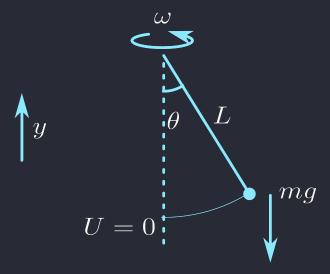


Figure 1.1: Pendulum

$$T = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{1}{2}m((\omega L \sin \theta)^2 + (L\dot{\theta})^2)$$
$$U = mgy = mgL(1 - \cos \theta)$$

from EL equation we get

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \theta} = \frac{1}{2} m\omega^2 L^2 (2\sin\theta\cos\theta) - mgL\sin\theta = m\omega^2 L^2\cos\theta\sin\theta - mgL\sin\theta$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\theta}} = mL^2 \dot{\theta}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\theta}} = mL^2 \ddot{\theta}$$

$$mL^{2}\ddot{\theta} = m\omega^{2}L^{2}\cos\theta\sin\theta - mgL\sin\theta$$
$$\ddot{\theta} = \omega^{2}\cos\theta\sin\theta - \frac{g}{L}\sin\theta$$

when $\omega = 0$ we get the simple pendulum $\ddot{\theta} = -\frac{g}{L}\sin\theta$. Identifying the the equilibrium points where $\ddot{\theta} = 0 \implies$

$$\sin \theta = 0 \implies \theta = 0, \pi$$

at $\theta = 0$ the pendulum is just hanging vertically down which we can physically deduce as a stable equilibrium point. To check this analytically we can assume a small deviation from the equilibrium point:

$$\theta = 0 + \epsilon$$

$$\cos(0 + \epsilon) = 1 - \frac{\epsilon^2}{2} \approx 1$$

$$\sin(0 + \epsilon) = \epsilon - \frac{\epsilon^3}{6} \approx \epsilon$$

and we get

$$\begin{split} \ddot{\theta} &= (\omega^2 - \frac{g}{L})\theta \\ \ddot{\theta} &= -\Omega^2\theta \implies \text{Stable} \\ \ddot{\theta} &= \Omega^2\theta \implies \text{Unstable} \end{split}$$

where

$$\omega^2 < \frac{g}{L} \implies \text{Stable}$$

$$\omega^2 > \frac{g}{I} \implies \text{Unstable}$$

when they are equal $\omega^2 = \frac{g}{L}$ we get a simple pendulum. Finding another equilibrium point at

$$\omega^2 \cos \theta - \frac{g}{L} = 0$$
$$\cos \theta = \frac{g}{L\omega^2}, \qquad \theta = \pm \arccos\left(\frac{g}{L\omega^2}\right)$$

where there only exists a solution when

$$\omega^2 > \frac{g}{L}$$

since $\cos \theta \le 1$. For this case, we can also look at the radial force in polar:

$$F_r = m\ddot{r} - mr\omega^2$$
 or $m\ddot{r} = F_r + mr\omega^2$

where in the second equation we can see that the sum of the centrifugal force and F_r sums to zero so

$$\tan \theta = \frac{F_r}{mg} = \frac{mL \sin \theta \omega^2}{mg}$$

$$\implies \frac{L\omega^2}{g} = \frac{1}{\cos \theta}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{g}{L\omega^2}$$

from the force analysis we can see that the centrifugal force is balanced by the radial force. Substituing the equilibium position back into the EOM

$$\cos \theta_o = \frac{g}{L\omega^2} \to \theta = \theta_o + \epsilon$$

Using Taylor Expansion, $f(x) = f(x_o) + f'(x_o)(x - x_o)$, the sine and cosine terms are

$$\cos \theta = \cos(\theta_o + \epsilon) = \cos \theta_o - \sin \theta_o \epsilon$$
$$\sin \theta = \sin(\theta_o + \epsilon) = \sin \theta_o + \cos \theta_o \epsilon$$

so the EOM becomes

$$\ddot{\theta} = (-\omega^2 \sin \theta_o \epsilon)(\sin \theta_o + \cos \theta_o \epsilon)$$
$$\ddot{\epsilon} = -\omega^2 \sin^2(\theta_o) \epsilon$$

where we have Bifurcation at $\omega^2 = \frac{g}{L}$. We can see that the EOM for ϵ is similar to the harmonic oscillator so:

$$\epsilon = A\cos(\Omega t - \delta)$$
 $\Omega = \omega\sin\theta_o$

HW 5 Given f(x, y, y'). Independence of y means:

$$f(x, y') \implies \frac{\partial f}{\partial y'} = constant$$

 $\mathcal{L}(t, \dot{q}) \implies \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{q}} = constant$

so for the Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L} = T - U = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{x}^2 - U(x) \qquad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial q_i} = F_i \quad \text{generalized force}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{x}} = m\dot{x} = conserved, \quad \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = 0$$

if \mathcal{L} doesn't depend on x, then p_x (momentum) is conserved. So for the generalized Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L}(q_1, \dots, q_n, \dot{q}_1, \dots, \dot{q}_n, t)$$
If $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial q_i} = 0$, $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{q}_i} = \text{conserved}$

So symmetry \implies conservation (Noether's Theorem).

Lecture 14: 2/21/24

Conservation The two types:

• If f(x, y') is independent of y, then

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial u'} = \text{constant over } x$$

or if \mathcal{L} is independent of q_i , then

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial q_i} = \text{constant over } t = p_i$$

• If f(y, y') is independent of x, then

$$f - y' \frac{\partial f}{\partial y'} = \text{constant over } x$$

or if \mathcal{L} is independent of t, then

$$\mathcal{L} - \dot{q}_i \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{q}_i} = \text{constant over } t$$

looking at this more closely:

$$\mathcal{L} = T - U = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{q}^2 - U(q)$$

where

$$\begin{split} \dot{q}\frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\dot{q}} &= m\dot{q}^2;\\ \dot{q}\frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\dot{q}} &- \mathcal{L} = m\dot{q}^2 - \frac{1}{2}m\dot{q}^2 + U\\ &= \frac{1}{2}m\dot{q}^2 + U = T + U = E \end{split}$$

this is this Hamiltonian

$$\sum_{i} p_{i}\dot{q}_{i} - \mathcal{L} = \mathcal{H} = E$$

Noether's Theorem For a system independent of $t \leftrightarrow$ the system has time-translation symmetry \implies conservation of energy

Dependence on t U = U(q,t) e.g. Mass of sun is increasing over time, the potential energy is dependent on time, so the system is not conservative.

Pendulum thoughts: In our pendulum example, we chose $q = \theta$, but we could also choose $q_1 = x$ and $q_2 = y$. The truth lies in the fact that we intuitively chose $q_1 = r$ and $q_2 = \theta$. So in transforming from Cartesian coordinates

$$x = r\cos\theta, \qquad y = r\sin\theta, \qquad r = L$$

where we have a 'constraint' r = L...

Legal Terms: Formal Definition of Constraints In the beginning, we defined the first defined position with

$$\mathbf{r} = (x, y, z)$$

for the generalized coordinates we have

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(q_1, \dots, q_n, t)$$

where we decided that in a 3D system n=3. A constraint is an equation

$$f(q_1, \dots, q_n) = 0$$

where this is a *holonomic* (whole) constraint and to find the number of generalized coordinates:

of generalized coordinates we need = # of dimensions - # of constraints = # of degrees of freedom

this is only true for holonomic constraints. For *nonholonomic* constraints, it is more complicated e.g. A ball on a horizontal table: We can see that # of generalized coordinates = 2, but to describe the position of the ball i.e. a dot on the ball, we need 3 more coordinates (Euler angles). So the configuration of the ball is described by 5 coordinates $(x, y, \alpha, \beta, \gamma)$. In other words, the configuration is path dependent and we see a nonholonomic constraint.

Example: What are the constraints for the mass sliding down a moving mass? The holonomic constraints are the vertical position of the ramp $y_M = 0$, and from x_m, y_m, x_M we know the $x_{COM} =$ constant.

Fact! A constraint is enforced by a constraint force $\mathbf{F}_c \perp \text{path}(\text{in the pendulum example, the normal force } N)$. Finding this force where $f(q_i) = 0$ can be found by taking the gradient of the function ∇f . So

$$\mathbf{F}_c = \lambda \mathbf{\nabla} f$$

Review

• Convservation: Lagrangian is independent of time \implies conservation of energy

Lagrange Multiplier Want to find $q_i(t)$ by minimizing $S = \int \mathcal{L}(q_i, \dot{q}_i, t) dt$.

* Under holonomic constraints,

$$f(q_i) = 0$$

So we introduce a new unknown $\lambda(t)$ and the new minimizing integral becomes

$$I = \int (\mathcal{L} - \lambda f) dt$$

The EL eqn for $\lambda(t)$: f = 0

$$\frac{\partial(\mathcal{L} - \lambda f)}{\partial \lambda} = -f \qquad \frac{\partial(\mathcal{L} - \lambda f)}{\partial \dot{\lambda}} = 0$$

The EL eqn for $q_i(t)$:

$$F_{i} = \frac{\partial(\mathcal{L} - \lambda f)}{\partial q_{i}} = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \frac{\partial(\mathcal{L} - \lambda f)}{\partial \dot{q}_{i}}$$

or

$$F_i = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial q_i} - \lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial q_i}$$
 where $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial q_i} = p_i$

So we are given N+1 unknowns and N+1 EL eqns with the addition of the lagrange multiplier.

Simple Pendulum (revisited) We have the Lagrangian $\mathcal{L}(x, y, \dot{x}, \dot{y}) = T - U$ where

$$T = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2)$$
$$U = -mgy$$

so

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2) + mgy$$

and using the constraint of the fixed length; $f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2 - L^2 = 0$ we get

$$\ell = \mathcal{L} - \lambda f = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2) + mgy - \lambda(x^2 + y^2 - L^2)$$

and the EL eqns are

• *x*:

$$-2\lambda x = m\ddot{x}$$

y:

$$mq - 2\lambda y = m\ddot{y}$$

• λ : Left as an exercise

We can see from force analysis of the pendulum:

$$m\ddot{x} = F_x = -2\lambda x$$
 $m\ddot{y} = F_y = mg - 2\lambda y$

so the lagrange multiplier quantities are equivalent to the tension

$$T_x = 2\lambda x$$
 $T_y = 2\lambda y$

where the negative sign indicates the correct direction of Tension.

Pendulum in Polar (r, ϕ)

$$\mathcal{L}(r,\phi,\dot{r},\dot{\phi}) = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{r}^2 + r^2\dot{\phi}^2) - mgr\cos\theta$$

where

$$f = r - L = 0$$

so we get the EL eqns

$$-\lambda + mg\cos\theta = m\ddot{r} \qquad \lambda = mg\cos\theta$$

Use cases of Lagrange Multipliers Although the previous example seems trivial, we consider its use in the example of a heavy chain hanging from two poles: The linear mass density is given by

$$M = \rho L$$

to find the shape, we need to minimize the potential energy

$$S = \int \mathrm{d}mgy$$

where $dm = \rho ds$ is the mass of a segment and under the constraint of chain length:

$$L = \int \mathrm{d}s = \int \mathrm{d}x \sqrt{1 + y'^2}$$

so

$$S = \int \rho g y \sqrt{1 + y'^2} \mathrm{d}x$$

and introducing λ we minimize

$$\int (\rho gy - \lambda)\sqrt{1 + y'^2} dx = S - \lambda L$$

we can see that it is independent of x so

$$f = (\rho gy - \lambda)\sqrt{1 + y'^2}$$

and

$$f - y' \frac{\partial f}{\partial y'} = \text{constant} = C$$

so the EL eqn is:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y'} = (\rho gy - \lambda) \frac{y'}{\sqrt{1 + y'^2}}$$

and therefore

$$f - y' \frac{\partial f}{\partial y'} = (\rho gy - \lambda) \left[\sqrt{1 + y'^2} - \frac{y'^2}{\sqrt{1 + y'^2}} \right] = \text{constant}$$

and quantity in brackets is

$$[\] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + y'^2}}$$

SO

$$\left(\frac{\rho gy - \lambda}{\sqrt{1 + y'^2}}\right)^2 = C^2$$

$$1 + y'^2 = \frac{(\rho gy - \lambda)^2}{C^2}$$

for an easier solution we choose a change of variables

$$\tilde{y} = \frac{\rho g y - \lambda}{C} \implies \tilde{y}' = \frac{\rho g}{C} y'$$

and redifining the x

$$\tilde{y}'^2 = 1 + y'^2 \begin{cases} \tilde{x} = \frac{\rho g}{C} x \\ \frac{\mathrm{d}\tilde{y}}{\mathrm{d}\tilde{x}} = \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} \end{cases}$$

and we get

$$\tilde{y} = \pm \cosh(\tilde{x} - \tilde{x}_0)$$

we could have also used the Lagrange Multiplier for the Maximum Area Fixed Perimeter problem.