

# Classical Mechanics (McGill University)

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# 1 Lecture 1: Introduction, Degrees of Freedom & Lagrangian Dynamics

## 1.1 Introduction

Our goal is to study the dynamics in classical systems ("dynamical systems"). For example, consider a particle moving in 3D, a dynamical system with a dynamical variable  $\mathbf{r}$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{r} &= (x_1, x_2, x_3) = \text{position} \\ \dot{\mathbf{r}} &= \mathbf{v} \\ \ddot{\mathbf{r}} &= \mathbf{a}\end{aligned}$$

**Definition 1.1** (Dynamical Variables). A set of continuous parameters which uniquely specify the state of the system.

For example, consider the motion of a system, which is uniquely specified by  $\mathbf{r}(t)$ :  $M$  particles with  $3M$  variables  $\mathbf{r}_\alpha(t)$ ,  $\alpha = 1, 2, \dots, M$ .

However, we will be interested in systems where these positions are constrained, i.e.,  $\mathbf{r}_\alpha$  obey some relations.

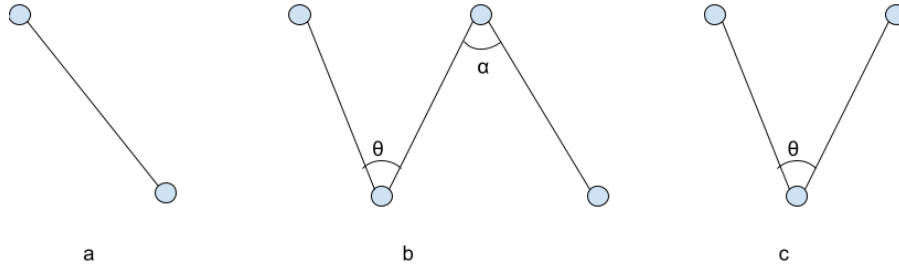


Figure 1: Rigid Body

## 1.2 Degrees of Freedom

**Definition 1.2** (Degrees of Freedom). Number of variables required to uniquely specify the system.

For example, if we have a 3D object which consists of  $M$  moving parts, then we have:

$$\# \text{ degrees of freedom} = 3M - N$$

where  $N$  is the number of constraints in this system.

Let's take a look at the Figure 1. For a,

$$\# \text{ degrees of freedom} = 3 \times 2 - 1 = 5 \text{ DOF}$$

For b (all angles are fixed),

$$\# \text{ degrees of freedom} = 3 \times 4 - 3 \text{ lengths} - 3 \text{ angles} = 3 \text{ COM} + 3 \text{ orientations} = 6 \text{ DOF}$$

For c (the angle is not fixed),

$$\# \text{ degrees of freedom} = 3 \times 3 - 2 \text{ lengths} = 7 \text{ DOF}$$

What needs to be noticed is that dynamic variables don't have to be the usual Cartesian coordinates.

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

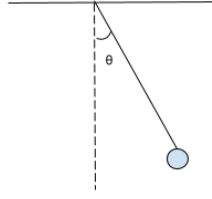


Figure 2: Pendulum Example

Consider the pendulum example in Figure 2. There is only 1 DOF, so you can choose  $x$ ,  $y$ , or  $\theta$  to depict the motion of the pendulum.

Let's introduce the concept of Generic Degrees of Freedom  $q_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ , where  $N$  is the number of degrees of freedom. In this way, for a constrained system, the position of any part of the system will be a function of  $q_i$ .

$$\mathbf{r}_\alpha = \mathbf{r}_\alpha(q_i, t), \alpha = \# \text{ parts}$$

Here we allow any part of the system to have explicit dependence on time. If we can write  $\mathbf{r}_\alpha(q_i, t)$  for a system, then the system (or sometimes we say the constraints of the system) is **holonomic**. Otherwise, the system is **nonholonomic**. For these systems, if the relations are time independent, then the system is **scleronomic**. Otherwise, the system is **rheonomic**.

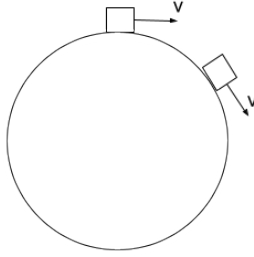


Figure 3: Rigid Body

Nonholonomic systems are common in the real world. Consider the example in Figure 3, where DOF changes from 2 to 3 if the box flies free.

### 1.3 Lagrangian Mechanics

Consider a dynamical system  $q_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, \# \text{ DOF}$ . For a typical mechanical system, the positions of the various parts can be written as  $\mathbf{r}_\alpha = \mathbf{r}_\alpha(q_i, t)$ , and the basic problem for this system is to determine the  $q_i(t)$ .  $q_i(t)$  satisfy a system of  $N$  differential equations known as **Equations of Motions**.

In the past, we typically used the old way of Newton's Law, which requires constraint forces:

1. Determine the force  $F_\alpha$  on a part of the system  $r_\alpha$
2. Use the 2<sup>nd</sup> order ordinary differential equations (ODEs) for  $r_\alpha$ :

$$\mathbf{F}_\alpha = m\ddot{\mathbf{r}}_\alpha$$

3. Rewrite  $\mathbf{r}_\alpha$  in terms of  $q_i$ , and we can get 2<sup>nd</sup> order ODEs for  $\mathbf{r}_\alpha$ , which is easier to said than done!

Now we need to come up with a way to eliminate the need to use constraint forces: **Lagrangian Mechanics!**

If we change  $\mathbf{r}_\alpha$  to  $\mathbf{r}_\alpha + \delta\mathbf{r}_\alpha$ , then the work done is:

$$\delta W = \sum_{\alpha} \mathbf{F}_\alpha \delta \mathbf{r}_\alpha$$

This raises a question: how much work is done if we change  $q_i$  to  $q_i + \delta q_i$ ? Since  $\mathbf{r}_\alpha = \mathbf{r}_\alpha(q_i, t)$ , we can get (here we only consider one degree of freedom):

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}_\alpha &= \sum_i \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_\alpha}{\partial q_i} \delta q_i \\ \delta W &= \sum_{\alpha} \mathbf{F}_\alpha \left( \sum_i \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_\alpha}{\partial q_i} \delta q_i \right) \\ &= \sum_i \left( \sum_{\alpha} \mathbf{F}_\alpha \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_\alpha}{\partial q_i} \right) \delta q_i \\ \sum_{\alpha} \mathbf{F}_\alpha \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_\alpha}{\partial q_i} &= F_i \end{aligned}$$

Here we call  $F_i$  a **generalized force** associated with the variable  $q_i$ , and  $F_i$  is the force in the "allowed directions".

Now let's discuss the kinetic energy of a constrained system:

$$\begin{aligned} T &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\alpha} m_{\alpha} \dot{\mathbf{r}}_{\alpha} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}}_{\alpha} \\ &= T(q_i, \dot{q}_i, t) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}_\alpha &= \mathbf{r}_\alpha(q_i, t) \\ \dot{\mathbf{r}}_\alpha &= \sum_i \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_\alpha}{\partial q_i} \dot{q}_i + \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_\alpha}{\partial t} \end{aligned}$$

Since:

$$\frac{\partial \dot{\mathbf{r}}_\alpha}{\partial \dot{q}_i} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_\alpha}{\partial q_i}$$

We can get:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial T}{\partial q_i} &= \sum_{\alpha} m_{\alpha} \dot{\mathbf{r}}_{\alpha} \frac{\partial \dot{\mathbf{r}}_{\alpha}}{\partial q_i} \\ \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_i} &= \sum_{\alpha} m_{\alpha} \dot{\mathbf{r}}_{\alpha} \frac{\partial \dot{\mathbf{r}}_{\alpha}}{\partial \dot{q}_i} = \sum_{\alpha} m_{\alpha} \dot{\mathbf{r}}_{\alpha} \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_{\alpha}}{\partial q_i} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \right) &= \sum_{\alpha} m_{\alpha} \left( \ddot{\mathbf{r}}_{\alpha} \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_{\alpha}}{\partial q_i} + \dot{\mathbf{r}}_{\alpha} \frac{\partial \dot{\mathbf{r}}_{\alpha}}{\partial q_i} \right) \\ &= \sum_{\alpha} \mathbf{F}_{\alpha} \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_{\alpha}}{\partial q_i} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial q_i} \\ &= \mathbf{F}_i + \frac{\partial T}{\partial q_i} \end{aligned}$$

So we can get:

$$\mathbf{F}_i = \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \right) - \frac{\partial T}{\partial q_i}$$

If we know  $T(q_i, \dot{q}_i, t)$ , we can write down the generalized force without computing a constraint! We can get a generalization of  $\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$  to a generic degree of freedom!

## 2 Lecture 2: Lagrangian Mechanics, Euler-Lagrange Equation & Hamiltonians

### 2.1 Lagrangian Mechanics & Euler-Lagrange Equation

Consider the following simplification: consider the case where the force  $\mathbf{F}_\alpha$  is conservative. A force  $\mathbf{F}_\alpha$  is **conservative** if:

$$\oint \mathbf{F}_\alpha d\mathbf{r}_\alpha = 0$$

i.e., the work done to change the state of the system is independent of the path through the space of  $\mathbf{r}_\alpha$ . For a conservative force,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{F}_\alpha &= \nabla_\alpha V(\mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_\alpha) \\ &= -\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{r}_\alpha} V(\mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_\alpha)\end{aligned}$$

And the work done to change the state of the system from  $\mathbf{r}_\alpha$  to  $\mathbf{r}'_\alpha$  is  $V(\mathbf{r}'_\alpha) - V(\mathbf{r}_\alpha)$ . In this class, we will mostly consider conservative forces.

Since  $\mathbf{r}_\alpha = \mathbf{r}_\alpha(q_i, t)$ , we can write  $V(\mathbf{r}_\alpha)$  as:

$$V(\mathbf{r}_\alpha) = V(q_i, t)$$

From **Chain Rule**, we can get:

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial q_i} = \sum_\alpha \frac{\partial V}{\partial \mathbf{r}_\alpha} \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_\alpha}{\partial q_i} = -\sum_\alpha \mathbf{F}_\alpha \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_\alpha}{\partial q_i} = -\mathbf{F}_i$$

Then for a conservative force, we can get:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \right) - \frac{\partial T}{\partial q_i} = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial q_i}$$

Since  $V$  is not a function of  $q_i$ , we can get:

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial \dot{q}_i} = 0$$

So we can rewrite the EOM above by defining **Lagrangian**  $L = T - V$ ,  $L = L(q_i, \dot{q}_i, t)$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} = 0$$

This EOM is called **Euler-Lagrange Equation**. We can see that for a general dynamic system, if we can compute  $L = T - V$ , then we can find the equations of motion!

This is a set of  $N$  differential equations, one for each DOF, where  $N$  is the total number of DOF. Typically, these are 2<sup>nd</sup> order ODEs for  $q_i$ .

To summarize, given a system of  $M$  parts and  $N$  degrees of freedom, it is advised to follow the following steps:

1. Identify some dynamic variables  $q_i$ , and write down  $\mathbf{r}_\alpha = \mathbf{r}_\alpha(q_i, t)$ , where  $\alpha = 1, 2, \dots, M$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ .
2. Compute  $T = \sum_\alpha \frac{1}{2} m_\alpha \dot{\mathbf{r}}_\alpha \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}}_\alpha$  as a function of  $q_i$ .
3. Compute  $V = V(\mathbf{r}_\alpha) = V(q_i, t)$ .
4. Let  $L = T - V$ .
5. We can get equations of motion:  $\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} = 0$ .

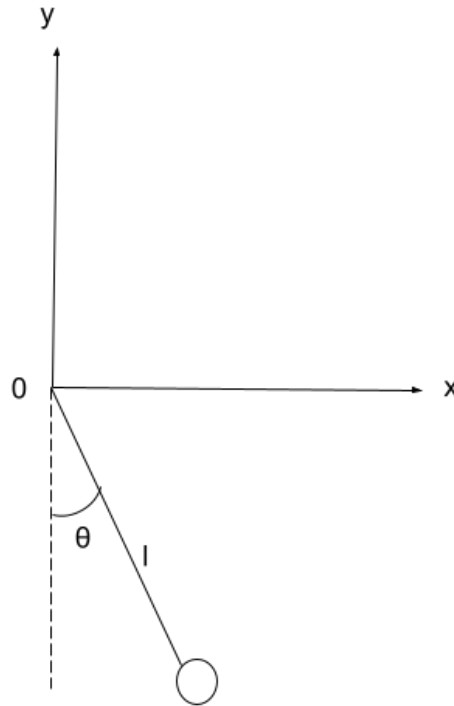


Figure 4: Pendulum Example

For example, let's take a look at the pendulum in Figure 4.

$$\begin{aligned}x &= l \sin \theta \\y &= -l \cos \theta\end{aligned}$$

So we can get:

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= l \cos \theta \cdot \dot{\theta} \\ \dot{y} &= l \sin \theta \cdot \dot{\theta}\end{aligned}$$

So the kinetic energy can be expressed as:

$$T = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2) = \frac{1}{2}ml^2\dot{\theta}^2$$

The potential energy is:

$$V = -mgy = -mgl \cos \theta$$

$$L = \frac{1}{2}ml^2\dot{\theta}^2 + mgl \cos \theta$$

From **Euler-Lagrange Equation** we can get:

$$ml^2\ddot{\theta} + mgl \sin \theta = 0$$

This is exactly the same as we get using Newton's Law!

## 2.2 Hamiltonian Mechanics

The Lagrangian Mechanics is conceptually useful. But what if we step further? We have dynamic variables  $q_i$ ,  $L(q, \dot{q}_i, t)$ , so we define the **Hamiltonian** as  $H = \sum_i \dot{q}_i \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} - L$ .

$$\frac{dH}{dt} = \sum_i \left( \ddot{q}_i \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} + \dot{q}_i \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \right) \right) - \sum_i \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} \dot{q}_i + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \ddot{q}_i \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial t}$$

We know:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} = \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \right)$$

So we can get the following equation:

$$\frac{dH}{dt} = - \frac{\partial L}{\partial t}$$

The total time derivative of  $H$  is the explicit time derivative of  $L$ ! If  $L$  has no explicit time dependence, then we can get:

$$\frac{dH}{dt} = 0$$

i.e.,  $H$  is conserved.

So what is the **Hamiltonian**? If the constraints are time independent,

$$\mathbf{r}_\alpha = \mathbf{r}_\alpha(q_i)$$

Then we can get

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \sum_\alpha m_\alpha \dot{\mathbf{r}}_\alpha \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}}_\alpha$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_i} = \sum_\alpha m_\alpha \dot{\mathbf{r}}_\alpha \cdot \frac{\partial \dot{\mathbf{r}}_\alpha}{\partial \dot{q}_i} = \sum_\alpha m_\alpha \dot{\mathbf{r}}_\alpha \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_\alpha}{\partial q_i}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_i \dot{q}_i \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} &= \sum_i \dot{q}_i \left( \sum_\alpha m_\alpha \dot{\mathbf{r}}_\alpha \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_\alpha}{\partial q_i} \right) \\ &= \sum_\alpha m_\alpha \dot{\mathbf{r}}_\alpha \left( \sum_i \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_\alpha}{\partial q_i} \dot{q}_i \right) \\ &= \sum_\alpha m_\alpha \dot{\mathbf{r}}_\alpha \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}}_\alpha \\ &= 2T \end{aligned}$$

So we can get:

$$\begin{aligned} H &= \sum_i \dot{q}_i \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} - L \\ &= 2T - (T - V) \\ &= T + V \end{aligned}$$

So  $H$  is the total energy of the system (in many cases)!

We can get the following conclusions from the analysis above:

1. If the **Lagrangian**  $L$  is time independent, then the total energy of the system is conserved.
2. If the **Lagrangian**  $L$  is time independent, the system has time translation symmetry.

So conserved energy is equivalent to time translation symmetry.



**Definition 2.1** (Noether's theorem). Every continuous symmetry of the action of a physical system with conservative forces has a corresponding conservation law.

Let's look at another example of **Noether's theorem**: Imagine  $L(q_i, \dot{q}_i, t)$  is independent of  $q_i$  (although it could depend on  $\dot{q}_i$ ). In this way, we can represent  $L = L(\dot{q}_i, t)$ , so we can get:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \right) = 0$$

So  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i}$  is conserved. This is the **momentum**!

**Definition 2.2** (Momentum). The **momentum**  $p_i$  conjugated to  $q_i$  is defined as  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i}$ . This momentum is conserved if the Lagrangian  $L$  is independent of the coordinate  $q_i$ .

At last, let's take a look at a particle moving in a circle. We have the following equations of motion:

$$\begin{aligned} x &= R \cos(\theta) \\ y &= R \sin(\theta) \end{aligned}$$

So we can get:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= -R \sin(\theta) \dot{\theta} \\ \dot{y} &= R \cos(\theta) \dot{\theta} \end{aligned}$$

$$L = T = \frac{1}{2} m (\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2) = \frac{1}{2} m R^2 \dot{\theta}^2$$

$L$  is independent of  $\theta$ .

$$p_\theta = m R^2 \dot{\theta} = \text{angular momentum}$$

In summary, a linear translation symmetry leads to conservation of momentum, a rotational symmetry leads to conservation of angular momentum, a time translation symmetry leads to conservation of energy.

### 3 Lecture 3: Action Principle & Calculus of Variations

#### 3.1 Action Principle

For beginning, let's recall the Fermat's Principle.

**Definition 3.1** (Fermat's Principle). Light travels along the shortest path between two points.

Precisely speaking, the length of a curve  $L = \int ds \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{ds}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{ds}\right)^2}$  will be minimized for the trajectory of light.

Then we need to ask the following question: does every mechanical system obey a minimization principle of this sort? The answer is yes. So let's consider the set of all possible paths  $q_i(t)$  that a system could take through configuration space.

For a given path  $q_i(t)$ , we define the action of this path as  $S[q_i(t)]$ .

$$s[q_i(t)] = \int_{t_{\text{initial}}}^{t_{\text{final}}} L(q_i, \dot{q}_i, t) dt$$

The path that a mechanical system takes through configuration space (nearby space of  $q_i$ ) "minimizes"  $S[q_i(t)]$  (not global, only local extremum). This is called the **Least Action Principle**, or alternatively, **Hamiltonian's Principle**.  $S[q_i(t)]$  is a function of a function, so it is called a **functional**. For functionals, we use square brackets  $[f]$  to denote the dependence rather than curve bracket  $f(x)$ .