

Chapter 2

Linear Motion

2.1 1D Motion; Simple Harmonic Oscillator; Motion About an Equilibrium

- 9/29:
- Today: Begin Chapter 2: Linear Motion via conservation of energy, simple harmonic oscillator.
 - Jerison reviews the EOMs and Newton's laws from last class.
 - Question: Is isotropy a thing? I.e., do we only care about $\|\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_j\|, \|\vec{v}_i - \vec{v}_j\|$?
 - Suppose no. Let's look at an anisotropic universe.
 - Consider two particles connected by a spring that stiffens if we orient it along the God-vector \hat{i} . Mathematically, $\vec{F} = -k\vec{r} \cdot \hat{i}\hat{r}$. Obviously, this is not the case in our universe.
 - In our isotropic universe, internal mechanics are **invariant** under rotation.
 - **Invariant** (internal mechanics): Those such that if we perform a rotation, the EOMs remain the same.
 - Rest of today: 1 particle... in 1 dimension... subject to an external force.
 - Particles can be subject to a force $F(x, \dot{x}, t)$.
 - Goal: Under what conditions is energy conserved, i.e., do we have a law of conservation of energy?
 - If force depends only on position, we can define something called the energy of the system, which is constant.
 - To see this, we define kinetic energy $T = m\dot{x}^2/2$.
 - It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{T} &= m\dot{x}\ddot{x} \\ &= \dot{x}F(x) \\ T &= \int \dot{x}F(x) dt \\ &= \int \frac{dx}{dt} F(x) dt \\ &= \int F(x) dx\end{aligned}$$

- Thus, we can define the **energy** via

$$E = T - \int_{x_0}^x F(x') dx'$$

which is constant in time! The latter term is a constant of integration.

- The other part is **potential energy**, which is a function of position via $V(x) = -\int_{x_0}^x F(x') dx'$.
- Thus, $E = T + V$.
- Moreover, it follows that $F(x) = -dV/dx$.
- Jerison: An aside about reading the kinetic energy (speed of a particle) off of a potential energy well.
- For the rest of lecture, we focus on motion close to an equilibrium point, i.e., simple harmonic oscillation.
- Parabolic well or hump derivation.
 - Suppose WLOG $V(x)$ has a minimum at $x = 0$ ^[1].
 - Also suppose WLOG that $V(0) = 0$.
 - Let's Taylor expand $V(x)$ to get

$$V(x) = V(0) + V'(0)x + \frac{1}{2}V''(0)x^2 + \frac{1}{3!}V'''(0)x^3 + \dots$$

- Since $V(0) = 0$ by assumption and $V'(0) = 0$ because we're at a minimum, we can simplify the above to a quadratic potential plus higher order terms:
- $$V(x) = \frac{1}{2}V''(0)x^2 + \dots$$
- Defining $k := V''(0)$, we get the familiar $V(x) = kx^2/2$ and $F(x) = -dV/dx = -kx$.
 - This describes to lowest order the equilibrium of any potential we might want to talk about.
 - We always say we want x small, but small compared to what?
 - For validity (for the SHM approximation to be valid), we want

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{3!}V'''(0)x^3 &\ll \frac{1}{2}V''(0)x^2 \\ x &\ll \frac{V''(0)}{V'''(0)} \end{aligned}$$

- Thus, as long as we're within this range, the approximation is good.
- Suppose we have a quadratic potential with either a minimum or a maximum at $x = 0$.

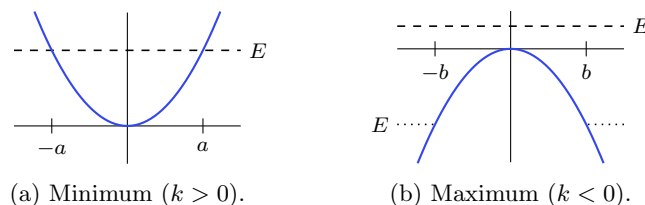


Figure 2.1: SHO potentials.

- If we have a min (Figure 2.1a) and plot the energy of the system E along the graph, we get special turn around points $\pm a$.
 - It follows that $ka^2/2 = E$ and $a = \sqrt{2E/k}$.
- Two types of trajectories with the max (Figure 2.1b).
 - If $E < 0$, the particle will come in and bounce off once its energy equals E .
 - If $E > 0$, the particle will slow down as it passes 0 and then accelerate and continue on.

¹Technically, we assume $V(x)$ is C^∞ , i.e., smooth. Jerison isn't super well versed in theoretical math.

- Solution of SHO equations of motion.

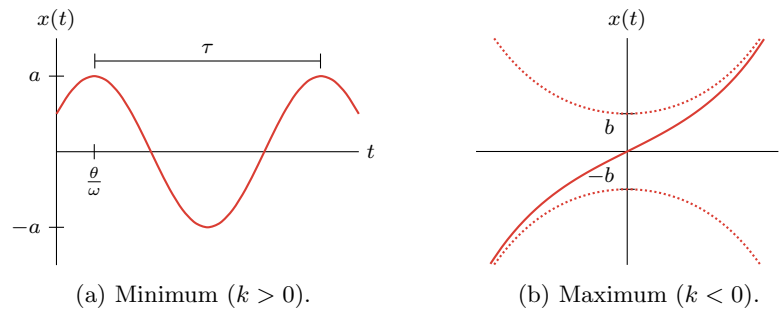


Figure 2.2: SHO trajectories.

- We have $F(x) = m\ddot{x} = -kx$.
- Thus, our EOM is

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

- Two important characteristics of this equation.

- It is **linear** (no x^2 , $\ln x$, etc.).
- It is a 2nd order ODE.

- **Superposition principle:** If we have some solution $x_1(t)$ to this equation (i.e., $x_1(t)$ satisfies $m\ddot{x}_1(t) + kx_1(t) = 0$) and another solution $x_2(t)$, then $x(t) = Ax_1(t) + Bx_2(t)$ is also a solution. If $x_1(t)$ and $x_2(t)$ are **linearly independent**, then $x(t)$ is the general solution.

- Solving the case where $k < 0$.

- Rewrite the equation $\ddot{x} - p^2x = 0$ where $p = \sqrt{-k/m}$.
- Ansatz: $x = e^{pt}$.

$$p^2 e^{pt} - (p^2) e^{pt} \stackrel{?}{=} 0$$

- Ansatz: $x = e^{-pt}$. Same thing.
- Thus, the general solution is

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2} A e^{pt} + \frac{1}{2} B e^{-pt}$$

- This describes the upside-down parabola case!
- Naturally, it blows up very quickly, but that also means it's not long before we're outside the range of validity of this equation.
- Additionally, if $E < 0$, we get the dotted path in Figure 2.2b, wherein the particle turns around at a finite distance from the origin and accelerates away. If $E > 0$, we get the solid path in Figure 2.2b, wherein the particle slows down and then accelerates again.

- Solving the case where $k > 0$, the SHO.

- $\ddot{x} + \omega^2 x = 0$ where $\omega = \sqrt{k/m}$.
- The solutions are either $x(t) = \sin(\omega t)$ or $x(t) = \cos(\omega t)$.
- Thus, the general solution is

$$x(t) = C \cos(\omega t) + D \sin(\omega t)$$

- Plugging in $x_0 = x(0) = C$ and $v_0 = \dot{x}(0)$ so that $D = v_0/\omega$ will yield the desired result.
- Alternative: $x(t) = a \cos(\omega t - \theta)$ where a is the **amplitude** and θ is the **phase**.
- Last variables: The **angular frequency** $\omega = 2\pi/\tau$ so that the **period** $\tau = 2\pi/\omega$. Then the **frequency** is $f = 1/\tau$.

- For any potential $V(x)$ with minimum at $x = 0$, the particle will oscillate with $\omega = \sqrt{V''(0)/m}$.
- Complex representation: A more convenient (mathematically speaking) way to solve such equations instead of using sines and cosines involves complex numbers (convenient because exponentials are super easy to integrate).

– Recall that $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$.

– Restart with $\ddot{x} - p^2 x = 0$ where $p = \sqrt{-k/m}$, but now instead of requiring p to be real, we'll allow it to be complex.

– Solution:

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2}Ae^{pt} + \frac{1}{2}Be^{-pt}$$

again.

– If $k > 0$, then $p := i\omega$ and

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2}Ae^{i\omega t} + \frac{1}{2}Be^{-i\omega t}$$

- Note: If $z = x + iy$ is a general complex number and it satisfies $m\ddot{z} + kz = 0$, then the real and imaginary parts of z each satisfy this equation independently, i.e., we have both $m\ddot{x} + kx = 0$ and $m\ddot{y} + ky = 0$.
- Thus, we can have $x(t) = \text{Re}(Ae^{i\omega t})$ with $A = ae^{-i\theta}$.
- Final notes: If $z(t) = Ae^{i\omega t}$, $x(t)$ is the projection of this onto the x -axis. Also involved is the fact that $\omega = d\theta/dt$.

2.2 Damped and Forced Oscillator

10/2:

- Today: Recap + dimensional analysis, damped SHO, forced SHO.
- Jerison plugs Thornton and Marion (2004).
 - Quite similar; longer, more didactic feel, more examples.
- Jerison also plugs Landau and Lifshitz (1993).
 - Just more theoretical.
- Plan of the course: Get through HW material due Friday by the end of Monday in general.
 - This week, though, it'll take us through Wednesday to get to Green's functions.
- Recap from last time.
 - Conservative force: A force dependent only on a particle's position, not velocity or time.
 - For conservative forces, we can write down the potential energy $V(x) = -\int_{x_0}^x F(x') dx'$.
 - If we have a potential, we can find the force by differentiating via $F(x) = -dV/dx$.
 - For any potential, if we're near its minimum at WLOG $x = 0$, the potential is well-approximated by a quadratic potential $V(x) = kx^2/2$ where we recognize that $k = V''(0)$.
 - The EOM for this SHO potential is $m\ddot{x} + kx = 0$.
 - The solutions are oscillating via $x(t) = a \cos(\omega t - \theta)$ where $\omega = \sqrt{k/m}$ and a, θ depend on the initial conditions.
 - An alternative form of the solutions is $x(t) = \text{Re}(Ae^{i\omega t})$, where $A = ae^{-i\theta}$.
- Before we get to the main topic, an aside on *units* and *dimensional analysis*.

- Basic message: These tools are our friends.
- Rules to make sure things are going well when we are solving problems:
 1. It is illegal to add or subtract terms with different meanings/units.
 2. Units in calculus: dx has units of length and dt has units of time. Example, acceleration is d^2x/dt^2 and has 1 x over 2 t 's, so the units are m/s^2 .
 3. Arguments of nonlinear functions must be dimensionless.
 - Example: $e^{\lambda t}$? λ better have units of reciprocal time.
 - Example: $\ln(\alpha x)$? α better have units of reciprocal length.
- Forced damped oscillator: $m\ddot{x} + \lambda\dot{x} + kx = F_1 \cos(\omega_1 t)$.
 - All terms have units of force; thus, λ has units of mass per time, and k has units of mass per time squared.
 - The units of λ are a bit unintuitive, so we tend to define $\gamma = \lambda/2m$ when solving, which has the nicer units of reciprocal time (γ describes a damping rate).
- A special feature of the quadratic potential: The period τ is completely independent of the initial conditions, depending only on ω , hence only on k, m .
 - If the potential is quartic, for instance, we need to involve v_0 or x_0 to cancel out the appropriate units in k .
 - There is a whole course taught at UChicago on dimensional analysis!
- Takeaway: Make sure we do not violate rules 1-3 as we go! This is a great way to find algebra mistakes.
- Before we talk about the damped oscillator, let's talk briefly about **work**.
- **Work**: Putting energy into and taking it out of systems.
- If we have a force F , then

$$\frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} m \dot{x}^2 \right) = F \frac{dx}{dt}$$
 - Thus, in time dt , we've done $dw = F dx = dT$ of work.
 - We can now define the **power**.
- **Power**: The rate of doing work. *Denoted by P . Given by*

$$P = \dot{T} = F\dot{x}$$

- Damped oscillator: The simplest case where we're taking energy out of the system, e.g., through friction.
 - This is the lowest-order equation with energy loss.
 - The linear term is a decent approximation for a friction force.
 - EOM:

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

- As mentioned above, it's convenient to rewrite this as

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

where $\gamma = \lambda/2m$ and $\omega_0 = \sqrt{k/m}$.

- We solve this equation by substituting in solutions of the form $x = e^{pt}$ where we allow p to be complex.

- Substituting, we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 0 &= p^2 e^{pt} + 2\gamma p e^{pt} + \omega_0^2 e^{pt} \\
 &= p^2 + 2\gamma p + \omega_0^2 \\
 p &= -\gamma \pm \sqrt{\gamma^2 - \omega_0^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

- It follows that there are 3 important cases: $\gamma^2 - \omega_0^2 > 0$ (real, decaying solutions; the **overdamped case**), $\gamma^2 - \omega_0^2 < 0$ (decaying real oscillatory solutions; **underdamped case**), $\gamma^2 - \omega_0^2 = 0$ (**critically damped case**).

- We now investigate the three aforementioned cases.

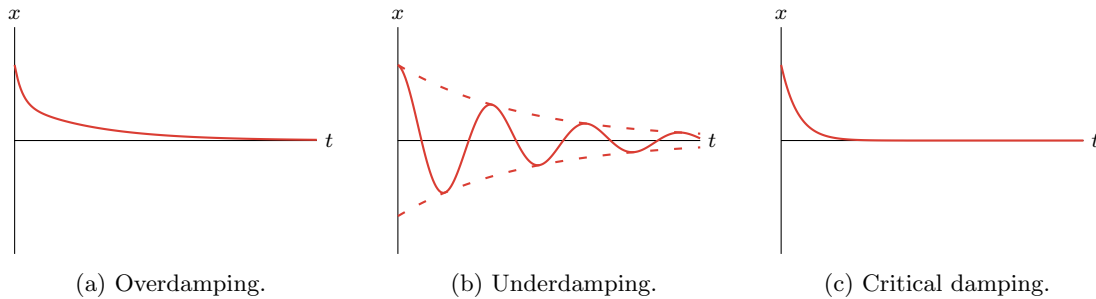


Figure 2.3: Damped oscillator trajectories.

- Case 1: Overdamped case.

- $\gamma > \omega_0$.
- We have two real roots that are both negative real numbers by the form of p .
- We will call these roots $-\gamma_{\pm}$, i.e.,

$$\gamma_{\pm} = \gamma \pm \sqrt{\gamma^2 - \omega_0^2}$$

- Then, we can write the solution as

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2} A e^{-\gamma_+ t} + \frac{1}{2} e^{-\gamma_- t}$$

- This solution just decays toward zero as $t \rightarrow \infty$.
- $1/\gamma_+$ and $1/\gamma_-$ both have units of time; the latter is longer, so in the long run, this term dominates. Thus, the graph is basically exponential decay with rate γ_- .

- In Figure 2.3a, the sharp downturn at the beginning is when γ_+ dominates, and the remaining gradual decay is when γ_- dominates.

- Case 2: Underdamped case.

- $\gamma < \omega_0$.
- Write $p = -\gamma \pm i\omega$, where we define $\omega = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \gamma^2} \neq \omega_0$.
- The solutions are

$$\begin{aligned}
 x(t) &= \frac{1}{2} A e^{i\omega t - \gamma t} + \frac{1}{2} B e^{-i\omega t - \gamma t} \\
 &= \text{Re}(A e^{i\omega t - \gamma t}) \\
 &= a e^{-\gamma t} \cos(\omega t - \theta)
 \end{aligned}$$

where $A = a e^{-i\theta}$ and $B = a e^{i\theta}$.

- Oscillation that decays in an exponential envelope.
- Case 3: Critically damped case.
 - $\gamma = \omega_0$.
 - We now only have *one* linearly independent function, so we need another one.
 - We can check that in this case, the function $x(t) = te^{-\gamma t}$ satisfies the EOM.
 - Thus, the general solution is

$$x(t) = (a + bt)e^{-\gamma t}$$
 - Decays the fastest of them all.
 - Faster than underdamped because γ is relatively small here; it is $< \omega_0$.
 - Faster than overdamped because $\gamma_- < \omega_0$ and $\gamma_- < \gamma_{\text{critical}} = \omega_0$.
- Thus, if you want to kill the oscillations as fast as possible, you should try to critically damp the system.
- Intro to the forced oscillator.
 - We have the EOM

$$m\ddot{x} + \lambda\dot{x} + kx = F(t)$$
 - We'll investigate the case $F(t) = F_1 \cos(\omega_1 t)$.
 - We're interested in periodic forcing functions because there are interesting interactions between ω_1 and ω leading to phenomena like **resonance**. Also, we can find solutions for arbitrary forces by arbitrarily composing and summing up these periodic forces via Fourier series or Fourier integral methods.
 - Most of next time will be this and also a different method of solving for arbitrary forces called the **Green's function method**.
 - This EOM is an **inhomogeneous** ODE.
 - We solve inhomogeneous equations as follows: Say we have an $x_1(t)$ that satisfies the whole equation (i.e., a **particular solution**), then $x(t) = x_1(t) + x_0(t)$ is the general solution where $x_0(t)$ is a solution to the **homogeneous** equation, $m\ddot{x} + \lambda\dot{x} + kx = 0$.
- **Inhomogeneous** (ODE): An ODE containing a term that doesn't have an x in it.