

# Oscillations (Chapter 14)

Oscillations occur when a system is disturbed from stable equilibrium. Examples: Water waves, clock pendulum, string on musical instruments, sound waves, electric currents, ...

## Simple Harmonic Motion

Example: Hooke's law for a spring.

$$F_x = m a = -k x = m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2}$$

$$a = \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = -\frac{k}{m} x$$

The acceleration is proportional to the displacement and is oppositely directed. This defines **harmonic motion**.

The time it takes to make a complete oscillation is called the **period**  $T$ . The reciprocal of the period is the **frequency**

$$f = \frac{1}{T}$$

The **unit of frequency** is the inverse second  $s^{-1}$ , which is called a **hertz**  $Hz$ .

**Solution** of the differential equation:

$$x = x(t) = A \cos(\omega t + \delta) = A \sin(\omega t + \delta - \pi/2)$$

$A$ ,  $\omega$  and  $\delta$  are constants:  $A$  is the **amplitude**,  $\omega$  the **angular frequency**, and  $\delta$  the **phase**.

$$v = v(t) = \frac{dx}{dt} = -\omega A \sin(\omega t + \delta)$$

$$a = a(t) = \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = -\omega^2 A \cos(\omega t + \delta) = -\omega^2 x$$

Therefore, for the spring

$$\omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}} .$$

**Initial conditions:** The amplitude  $A$  and the phase  $\delta$  are determined by the initial position  $x_0$  and initial velocity  $v_0$ :

$$x_0 = A \cos(\delta) \quad \text{and} \quad v_0 = -\omega A \sin(\delta) .$$

In particular, for the initial position  $x_0 = x_{\max} = A$ , the maximum displacement, we have  $\delta = 0 \Rightarrow v_0 = 0$ .

The period  $T$  is the time after which  $x$  repeats:

$$x(t) = x(t + T) \Rightarrow \cos(\omega t + \delta) = \cos(\omega t + \omega T + \delta)$$

Therefore,

$$\omega T = 2\pi \Rightarrow \omega = \frac{2\pi}{T} = 2\pi f$$

is the relationship between the frequency and the angular frequency. For Hooke's law:

$$f = \frac{1}{T} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$$

## Simple Harmonic and Circular Motion

Imagine a particle moving with constant speed  $v$  in a circle of radius  $R = A$ . Its angular displacement is

$$\theta = \omega t + \delta \quad \text{with} \quad \omega = \frac{v}{R}.$$

The  $x$  component of the particle's position is (figure 14-6 of Tipler-Mosca)

$$x = A \cos(\theta) = A \cos(\omega t + \delta)$$

which is the same as for simple harmonic motion.

**Demonstration:** Projected shadow of a rotating peg on an object on a spring move in unison when the periods agree.

## Energy in Simple Harmonic Motion

When an object undergoes simple harmonic motion, the system's potential and kinetic energies vary in time. Their sum, the total energy  $E = K + U$  is constant. For the force  $-kx$ , with the convention  $U(x = 0) = 0$ , the system's potential energy is

$$U = - \int_0^x F(x') dx' = \int_0^x kx' dx' = \frac{k}{2} x^2 .$$

Substitution for simple harmonic motion gives

$$U = \frac{k}{2} A^2 \cos^2(\omega t + \delta) .$$

The kinetic energy is

$$K = m \frac{v^2}{2}$$

Substitution for simple harmonic motion gives

$$K = \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 A^2 \sin^2(\omega t + \delta) .$$

Using  $\omega^2 = k/m$ ,

$$K = \frac{k}{2} A^2 \sin^2(\omega t + \delta) .$$

The **total energy** is the sum

$$E = U + K = \frac{k}{2} A^2 [\cos^2(\omega t + \delta) + \sin^2(\omega t + \delta)] = \frac{k}{2} A^2 .$$

I.e., the total energy is proportional to the amplitude squared.

Plots of  $U$  and  $K$  versus  $t$ : Figures 14-7 of Tipler-Mosca.

Potential energy as function of  $x$ : Figure 14-8 of Tipler-Mosca.

Average kinetic and potential energies:

$$U_{\text{av}} = K_{\text{av}} = \frac{1}{2} E_{\text{total}} .$$

Turning points at the maximum displacement  $|x| = A$ .

PRS: At the turning points the total energy is?

1. All kinetic.
2. All potential.
3. Half potential and half kinetic.

At  $x = 0$  the total energy is?

1. Kinetic.
2. Potential.
3. Half potential and half kinetic.



## General Motion Near Equilibrium

Any smooth potential curve  $U(x)$  that has a minimum at, say  $x_1$ , can be approximated by

$$U = A + B(x - x_1)^2$$

and the force is given by

$$F_x = -\frac{dU}{dx} = -2B(x - x_1) = -k(x - x_1)$$

with  $k = 2B$ .

Compare figures 14-9 and 14-10 of Tipler-Mosca.

## Examples of Oscillating Systems

Object on a Vertical Spring:

$$m \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} = F_y(y) = -k y + m g .$$

Equilibrium position:

$$0 = F_y(y_0) = -k y_0 + m g \Rightarrow y_0 = m g / k .$$

Substitution of  $y = y' + y_0$  into Newton's equation gives

$$m \frac{d^2(y' + y_0)}{dt^2} = m \frac{d^2 y'}{dt^2} = -k y' - k y_0 + m g = -k y' .$$

This is the equation of harmonic motion with the solution

$$y' = A \cos(\omega t + \delta) .$$

So, if we measure the displacement from the equilibrium position, we can forget about the effect of gravity (figure 14-11 of Tipler-Mosca).

The Simple Pendulum: Figure 14-14 of Tipler-Mosca.

$$s = L \phi \quad \text{where } \phi \text{ is in radians.}$$

Newton's second law:

$$F_t = m \frac{d^2 s}{dt^2} = m L \frac{d^2 \phi}{dt^2} .$$

Question (PRS): The absolute value of the tangential force is

$$1. \quad |F_t| = m g \sin(\phi) . \qquad 2. \quad |F_t| = m g \cos(\phi) .$$

Removing the absolute value from  $F_t$ , the sign on the right-hand-side is:

1. positive.
2. negative.

Therefore,

$$F_t = -m g \sin(\phi) = \frac{d^2 s}{dt^2} = m L \frac{d^2 \phi}{dt^2}$$

$$\frac{d^2 \phi}{dt^2} = -\frac{g}{L} \sin(\phi) .$$

For small oscillations we have  $\sin(\phi) \approx \phi$ , and

$$\frac{d^2 \phi}{dt^2} = -\frac{g}{L} \phi = -\omega^2 \phi .$$

The period is thus

$$T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega} = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}$$

and the solution for the motion of the angle is

$$\phi = \phi_0 \cos(\omega t + \delta)$$

where  $\phi_0$  is the maximum angular displacement.

## Pendulum in an Accelerated Reference Frame:

Figure 14-15 of Tipler-Mosca.

The solution is found from the simple pendulum by replacing  $g$  with  $g'$  where

$$\vec{g}' = \vec{g} - \vec{a}$$

and  $\vec{a}$  is the acceleration. As  $\vec{g}$  and  $\vec{a}$  are perpendicular, we have

$$g' = |\vec{g}'| = \sqrt{\vec{g}^2 + \vec{a}^2} .$$

The Physical Pendulum: Figure 14-17 of Tipler-Mosca.

This is a rigid object pivoted about a point other than its center of mass. It will oscillate when displaced from equilibrium. Newton's second law of rotation is:

$$\tau = I \alpha = I \frac{d^2\phi}{dt^2}$$

where  $\alpha$  is the angular acceleration and  $I$  the moment of inertia about the pivot point.

Question (PRS): The torque is given by

1.  $\tau = -M g D \sin(\phi)$  .                      2.  $\tau = -M g D \cos(\phi)$  .

Therefore,

$$-M g D \sin(\phi) = I \frac{d^2 \phi}{dt^2}$$
$$\frac{d^2 \phi}{dt^2} = -\frac{M g D}{I} \sin(\phi) \approx -\frac{M g D}{I} \phi = -\omega^2 \phi$$

and the period is

$$T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega} = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{I}{M g D}} .$$

## Damped Oscillations

Left to itself, an oscillation stops eventually, because mechanical energy is dissipated by frictional forces. Such motion is said to be **damped**. The damping force can be represented by the empirical expression

$$\vec{F}_d = -b \vec{v}$$

where  $b$  is a constant. The motion of a damped system can be calculated from Newton's second law

$$F_x = -kx - b \frac{dx}{dt} = m \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}$$

The solution for this equation is found using standard methods for solving differential equations. The result is

$$x = A_0 e^{-(b/2m)t} \cos(\omega' t + \delta) = A_0 e^{-t/2\tau} \cos(\omega' t + \delta)$$



where  $A_0$  is the maximum amplitude and

$$\tau = \frac{m}{b}$$

is called **decay time or time constant**.

The frequency  $\omega'$  is given by

$$\omega' = \omega_0 \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{b}{2m\omega_0}\right)^2} \quad \text{where} \quad \omega_0 = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$$

Here  $\omega_0$  is the frequency without damping. The dashed curves in figure 14-20 of Tipler-Mosca correspond to  $x = \pm A$  where  $A$  is given by

$$A = A_0 e^{-(b/2m)t} = A_0 e^{-t/\tau} .$$

If the damping constant  $b$  is gradually increased, we have

$$\omega' = 0 \quad \text{at the critical value} \quad b_c = 2m\omega_0 .$$

When  $b \geq b_c$ , the system does not oscillate:

$b = b_c$  : The system is critically damped.

$b > b_c$  : The system is overdamped.

One uses critical damping to return to equilibrium quickly. Example: Shock absorbers of a car.

$b < b_c$  : The system is underdamped (often simply called damped).

Energy of an underdamped oscillator:

$$E = \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 A^2 = \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 \left( A_0 e^{-t/2\tau} \right)^2 = E_0 e^{-t/\tau}$$

$$\text{where } E_0 = \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 A_0^2$$

The  $Q$  factor (for quality factor) of an oscillator relates to the fractional energy loss per cycle. The infinitesimal change of the energy is

$$dE = -\frac{1}{\tau} E_0 e^{-t/\tau} dt = -\frac{1}{\tau} E dt .$$

If the energy loss per period,  $\Delta E$ , is small, we can replace  $dE$  by  $\Delta E$  and  $dt$  by  $T$  (also  $\omega' \approx \omega_0$ ):

$$\frac{|\Delta E|}{E} = \frac{T}{\tau} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_0 \tau} = \frac{2\pi}{Q}$$

with the  $Q$  factor given by

$$Q = \omega_0 \tau = \frac{\omega_0 m}{b} = \frac{2\pi}{(|\Delta E|/E)_{\text{cycle}}} .$$

# Driven Oscillations and Resonance

To keep a damped oscillator going, energy must be put into the system. Example: When you keep a swing going, you drive an oscillator.

The **natural frequency**  $\omega_0$  of an oscillator is the frequency when no driving or damping forces are present.

We assume that the oscillator is driven by a periodic motion of **driving frequency**  $\omega$ .

When the driving frequency equals the natural frequency, the energy absorbed is at its maximum. Therefore, the natural frequency is also called the **resonance frequency** of the system.

In most applications the **angular frequency**  $\omega = 2\pi f$ , instead of the frequency, is used, because this is mathematically more convenient. In verbal descriptions the word “angular” is often omitted.

A **resonance curve** shows the average power delivered to an oscillator as function of the driving frequency: For two different damping constants the resonance curve is plotted in figure 14-24 of Tipler-Mosca. The resonance is sharp for small damping.

For small damping the ratio of the width of the resonance to the frequency can be shown to be equal to the reciprocal  $Q$  factor

$$\frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_0} = \frac{\Delta f}{f} = \frac{1}{Q} .$$

Intuitively, we know how to drive an oscillator at its resonance frequency (swing, etc.). The differential equation is

$$m \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + b \frac{dx}{dt} + m \omega_0^2 x = F_0 \cos(\omega t) = F_{\text{ext}} .$$