Lecture 3: Oscillators, waves, flows

Content:

- harmonic oscillator
- mathematical pendulum
- damped oscillator
- driven oscillator
- waves
- Huygens principle, Doppler effect
- flow of liquids and air

basic terms and quantities

The general study of the relationships between motion, forces, and energy is called **mechanics**.

Motion is the action of changing location or position. Motion may be divided into three basic types - translational, rotational, and <u>oscillatory</u>.

The study of motion without regard to the forces or energies that may be involved is called **kinematics**. It is the simplest branch of mechanics.

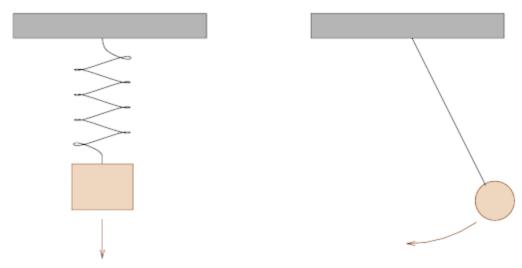
The branch of mechanics that deals with both motion and forces together is called **dynamics** and the study of forces in the absence of changes in motion or energy is called **statics**.

basic terms and quantities

Motion is the action of changing location or position.

Motion may be divided into three basic types - translational, rotational, and <u>oscillatory</u>.

Oscillation is the repetitive variation, typically in time, of some measure about a central value (often a point of equilibrium) or between two or more different states.



HARMONIC OSCILLATOR

Simple harmonic oscillator - F is the only acting force

Damped oscillator – Friction (damping) occurs

Driven oscillator – Damped oscillator further affected by an external force

An oscillating spring with a mass

X (10000)

x – distance,t – time,

Balance of the system is given by (with help of Newton's second law and Hooke's law):

a)
$$F = ma = m \frac{d^2x(t)}{dt^2}$$

Newton's second law ("Law of Power")

$$b) \qquad F = -kx(t)$$

so called Hooke's law: it states that the force (F) needed to extend or compress a spring by some distance (x) scales linearly with respect to that distance, (k – so called Hooke's constant)

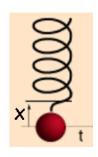
Equality of these 2 forces gives us the basic equation for a simple harmonic oscillator:

$$m\frac{d^{2}x(t)}{dt^{2}} = -kx(t)$$

$$\frac{d^{2}x(t)}{dt^{2}} = -\frac{k}{m}x(t)$$
 a line

a linear differential equation (LDE)

An oscillating spring with a mass



$$\frac{d^2x(t)}{dt^2} = -\frac{k}{m}x(t)$$
 Homogenous LDE with constant coefficients

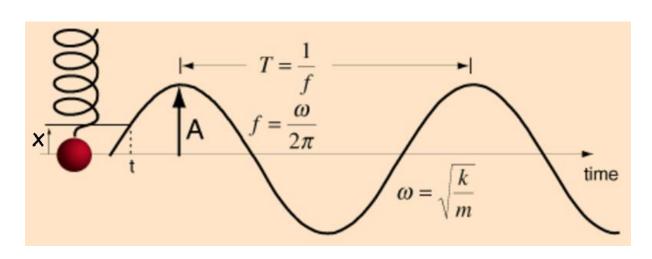
Solution:

$$x(t) = C_1 \cos(\omega t) + C_2 \sin(\omega t) = A \cos(\omega t - \varphi)$$
 Periodic motion

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

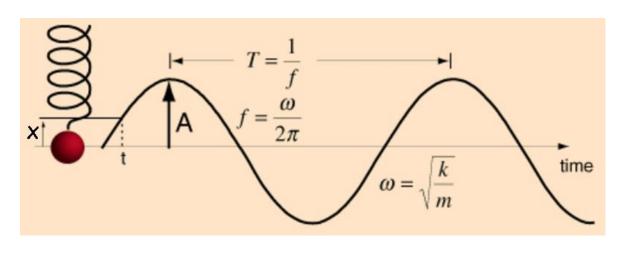
$$A = \sqrt{C_1^2 + C_2^2}$$

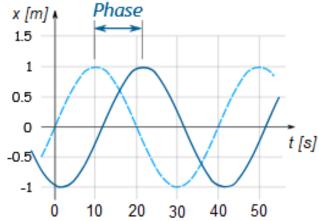
$$\tan \varphi = \frac{C_1}{C_2}$$



A – amplitude, φ – phase , ω – angular frequency , f – frequency , t – time

An oscillating spring with a mass





Velocity
$$\vec{v}(t) = \frac{dx(t)}{dt} = -A\omega \sin(\omega t - \phi)$$

Speed
$$|\vec{v}(t)| = \omega \sqrt{A^2 - x^2(t)}$$

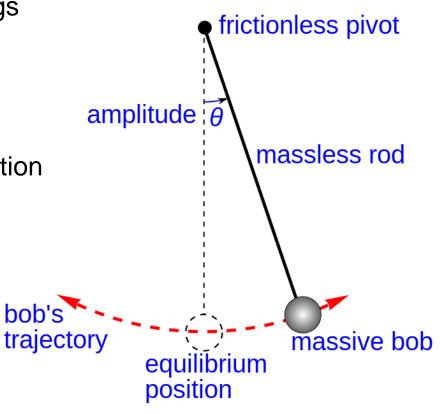
Acceleration
$$\vec{a}(t) = \frac{d^2x(t)}{dt^2} = -A\omega^2\cos(\omega t - \phi)$$

A – amplitude, ϕ – phase , ω – angular frequency , f – frequency , t – time

Next example – simple gravity pendulum (or mathematical pendulum)

Basic assumptions:

- the rod or cord on which the bob swings is massless,
- the bob is a point mass,
- motion occurs only in two dimensions (i.e. the bob does not trace an ellipse),
- the motion does not lose energy to friction or air resistance,
- the gravitational field is uniform,
- the support does not move.



simple gravity pendulum

Equality of 2 equations for accelerations gives us the basic equation for the pendulum:

$$F = m \cdot a$$

mg_sin0_

mg

$$F = -mg \sin \theta = m \cdot a \Rightarrow a = -g \sin \theta$$
 a

$$s = 1 \cdot \theta \rightarrow v = \frac{ds}{dt} = 1 \frac{d\theta}{dt} \rightarrow a = 1 \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2}$$
 b)

$$1\frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} = -g\sin\theta \Rightarrow \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} + \frac{g}{1}\sin\theta = 0$$

I – length of the pendulumθ – angular displacement(amplitude)

1. Simple harmonic oscillator (simple gravity pendulum)

$$\frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} + \frac{g}{1}\sin\theta = 0$$
 assumption: $\theta << 1 \rightarrow \sin\theta \approx \theta$

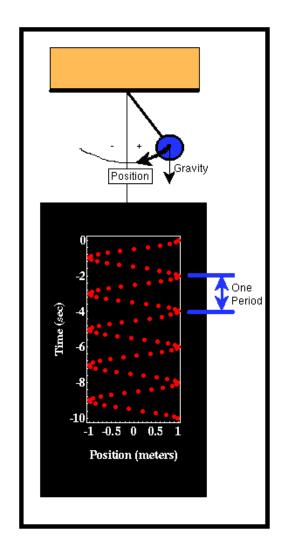
$$\frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} + \frac{g}{1}\theta = 0 \text{ boundary conditions } \theta(0) = \theta_0; \quad \frac{d\theta}{dt}\Big|_{t=0} = 0$$

Solution:
$$\theta(t) = \theta_0 \cos\left(\sqrt{\frac{g}{1}}t\right)$$
 $\theta_0 << 1$

Period:
$$T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{1}{g}}$$

$$\omega = 2\pi f$$
, $f = \frac{1}{T}$

period of a simple gravity pendulum (T):



Is <u>independent on the mass of the object</u>, it is a function of the length 1 and gravitational acceleration g:

$$T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{1}{g}} [s]$$

Walter Lewin – lecture MIT (video) a trial with pendulum parameters: L = 5.21 m, g = 9.8 m/s²,

estimation of pendulum period: 4.58 s

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KXys_mymMKA

(important timings: 11:40 pendulum, 16:25 with added mass)

2. Damped oscillator

Friction (damping) force:

$$F_{f} = -cv$$

$$F = F_{\text{ext.}} - kx - c \frac{dx}{dt} = m \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}$$
 if $F_{\text{ext.}} = 0$

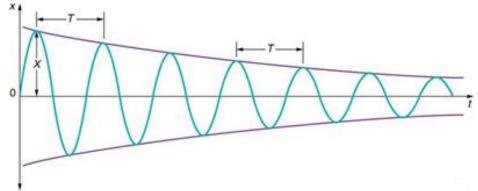
$$\frac{d^2x\left(t\right)}{dt^2} + 2\zeta\omega_0\frac{dx\left(t\right)}{dt} + \omega_0^2x = 0 \qquad \omega_0 = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}; \zeta = \frac{c}{2\sqrt{mk}}$$

$$\zeta > 1$$
 overdamped

$$\zeta > 1$$
 overdamped $\zeta = 1$ critically damped $\zeta < 1$ underdamped

$$\zeta < 1$$
 underdamped

Solution:
$$x(t) = Ae^{-\zeta\omega_0 t} \sin(\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}\omega_0 t + \varphi)$$



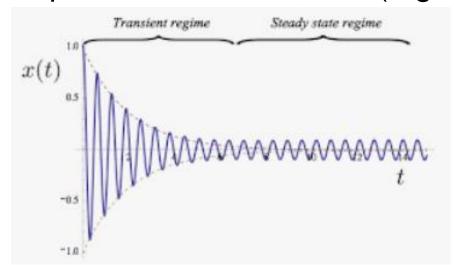
3. Driven oscillator

Externally applied force F(t)

$$F = F_{\text{ext.}} - kx - c\frac{dx}{dt} = m\frac{d^2x}{dt^2}$$

$$\frac{d^2x(t)}{dt^2} + 2\zeta\omega_0 \frac{dx(t)}{dt} + \omega_0^2 x = \frac{F(t)}{m}$$

Solutions depend on external force (e.g. can be sinusioidal)



Combinations of oscillations

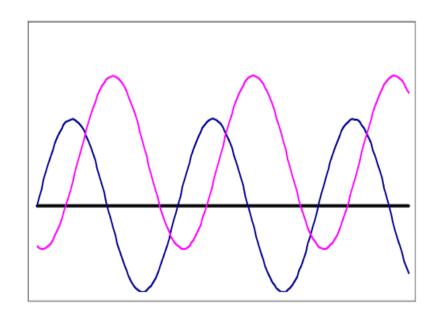
Oscillation 1
$$x_1(t) = A_1 \cos(\omega_1 t - \varphi_1)$$

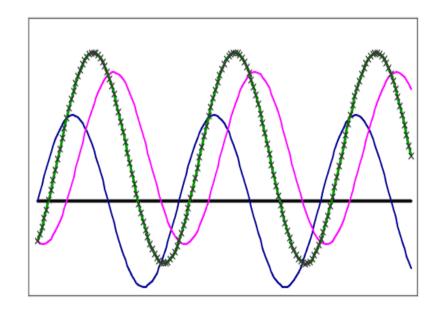
Oscillation 2
$$x_2(t) = A_2 \cos(\omega_2 t - \phi_2)$$

$$x = x_1 + x_2 = A_1 \cos(\omega_1 t - \phi_1) + A_2 \cos(\omega_2 t - \phi_2)$$

Maximum possible displacement $X_{max} = A_1 + A_2$

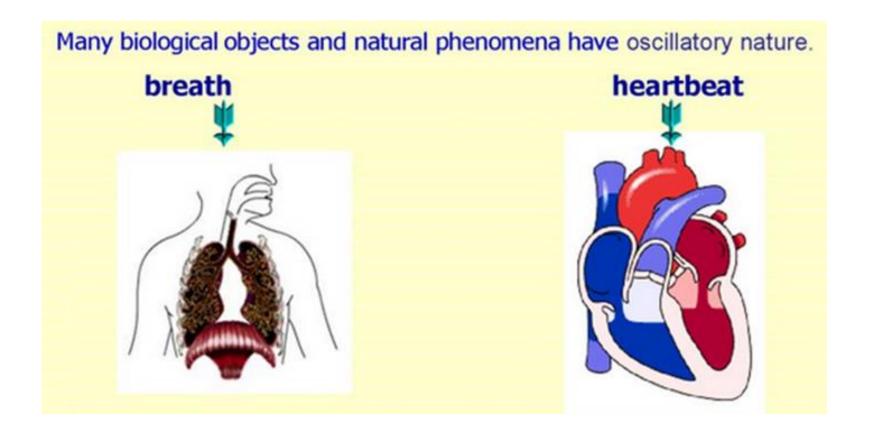
$$X_{\text{max}} = A_1 + A_2$$





Comment: We will come back to this topic during the so called interference of waves.

oscillators in biology



Comment: In biology, there is very important so called circardian rhytm.

Lecture 3: Oscillators, waves

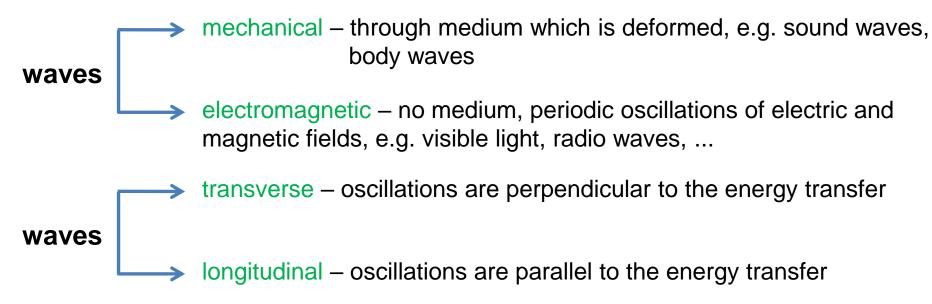
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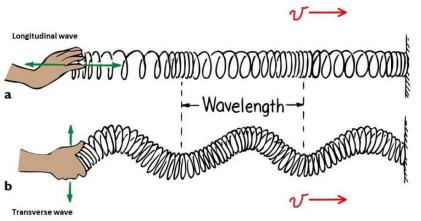
Waves

In physics, a wave is a propagating dynamic disturbance (change from equilibrium) of one or more quantities, sometimes as described by a wave equation.

- oscillation accompanied by the transfer of energy which travels through mass or space
- little or no associated mass transport.





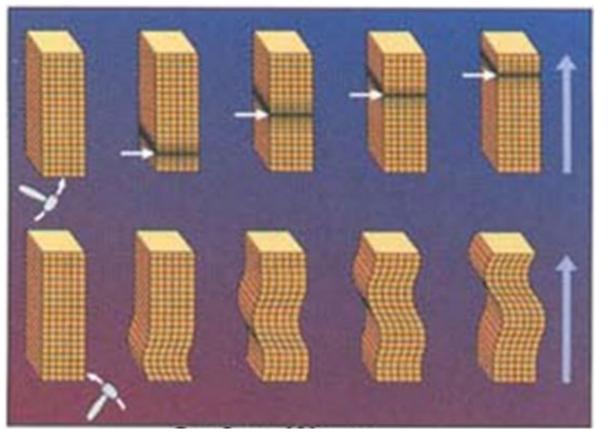


Waves

transverse – oscillations are perpendicular to the energy transfer

waves

longitudinal – oscillations are parallel to the energy transfer



longitudinal

transverse

Wave equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{t}^2} = \mathbf{c}^2 \nabla^2 \mathbf{u}$$

 $u = u(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n, t)$

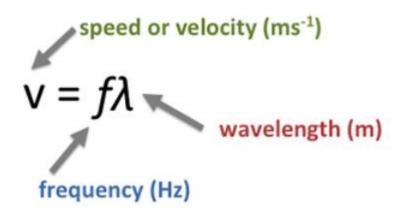
- scalar function whose values can model, for example, the mechanical displacement of a wave

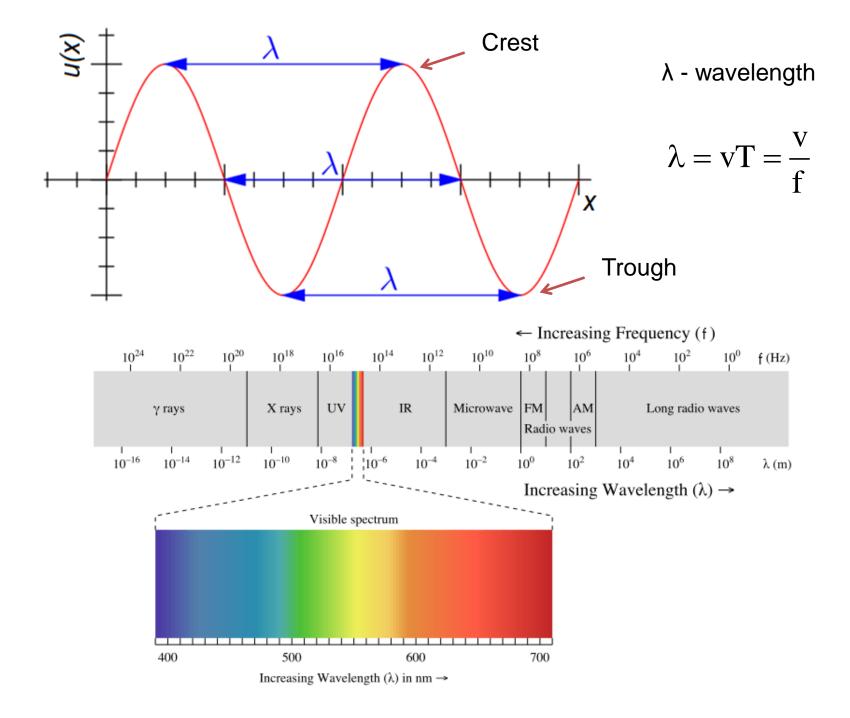
One space dimension case: $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{t}^2} = \mathbf{c}^2 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}^2}$$

Now the searched solution (u) is not only a function of time (t), but also function of space (x).

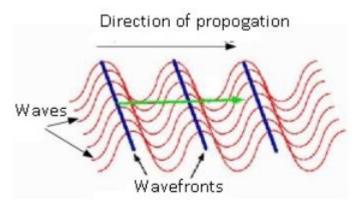
One important consequence:



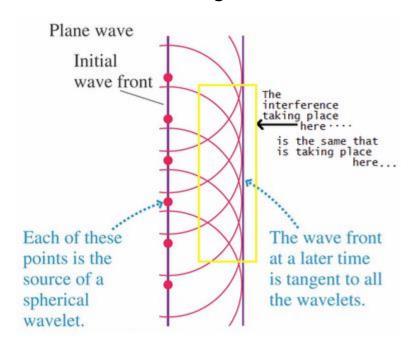


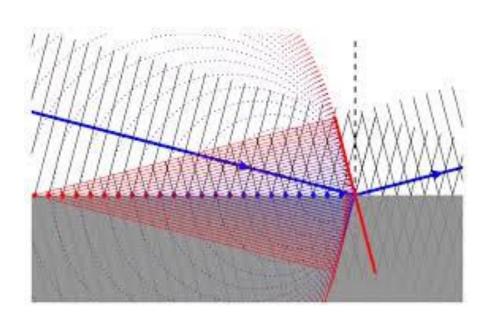
Wavefronts, Huygens principle

Waves can propagate in packages, called as wavefronts.



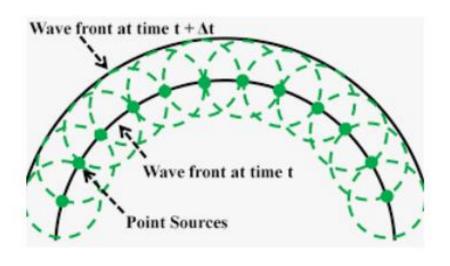
<u>Huygens principle:</u> Every point on a wave-front may be considered a source of secondary spherical wavelets which spread out in the forward direction. The new wave-front is the tangential surface to all of these secondary wavelets.

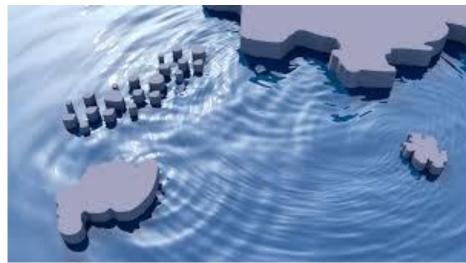




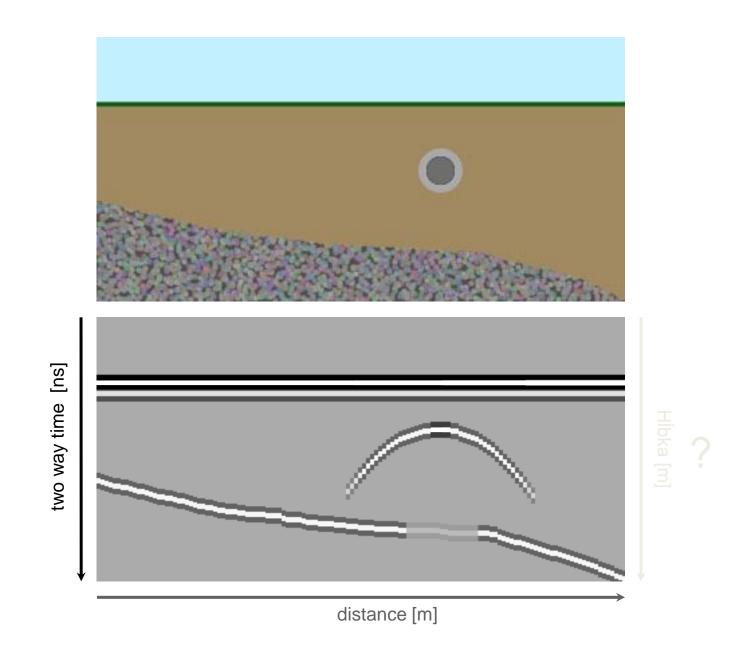
Wavefronts, Huygens principle

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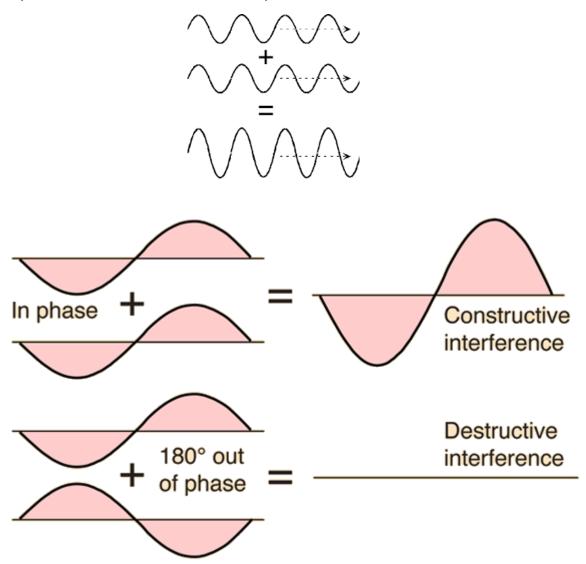


example: Ground Penetrating Radar (GPR)



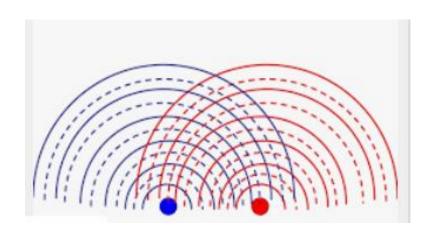
Interference

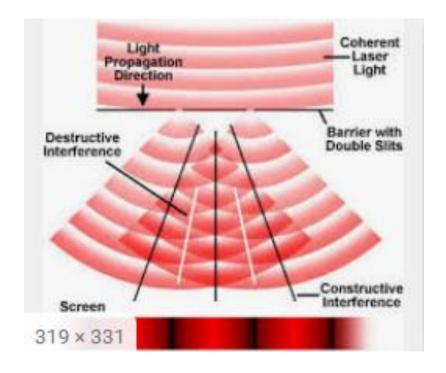
The principle of superposition of waves states that when two or more propagating waves of same type are incident on the same point, the total displacement at that point is equal to the point wise sum of the displacements of the individual waves.



Interference

The principle of superposition of waves states that when two or more propagating waves of same type are incident on the same point, the total displacement at that point is equal to the point wise sum of the displacements of the individual waves.

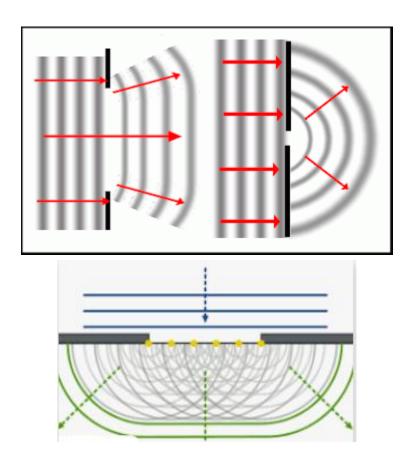




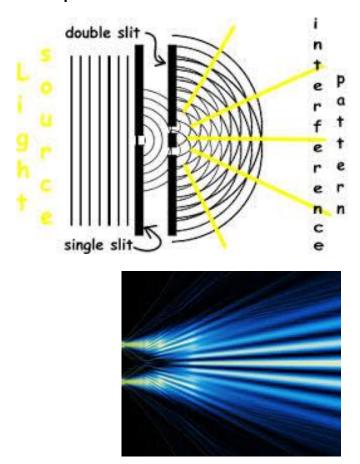
Huygens principle – experiments with slits

<u>Huygens principle:</u> Every point on a wave-front may be considered a source of secondary spherical wavelets which spread out in the forward direction. The new wave-front is the tangential surface to all of these secondary wavelets.

Experiment with one slit:

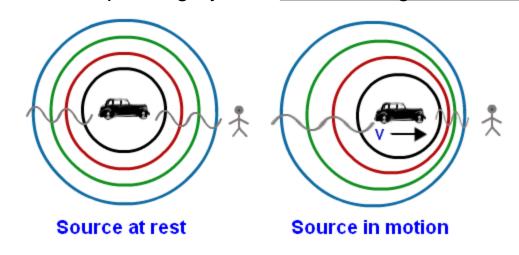


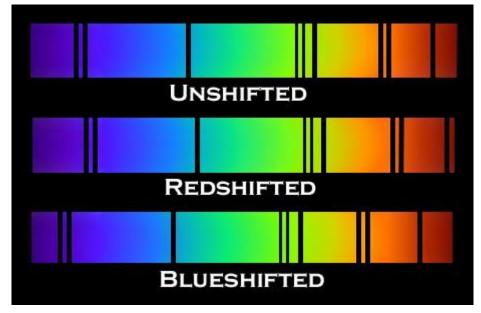
Experiment with double slit:

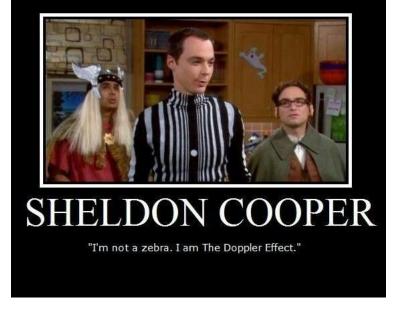


Doppler effect

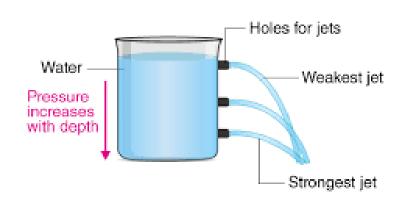
It is the change in frequency of a wave (or other periodic event) for an observer moving relative to its source. The received frequency is <u>higher during the approach</u>, identical at the instant of passing by, and <u>lower during the recession</u>.







To understand the basic rules, which are valid for the flow of ideal liquids and air, we have to start with the hydrostatic/airstatic pressure.



pressure in general: $p = \frac{|\vec{F}|}{s} = \frac{F}{s}$

Hydrostatic/airstatic pressure: comes from the weight of the liquid(water)/air column above some area.

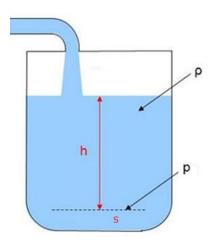
Weight is gravity force of the mass of liquid(water)/air:

$$F_G = mg = \rho Vg = \rho shg$$
.

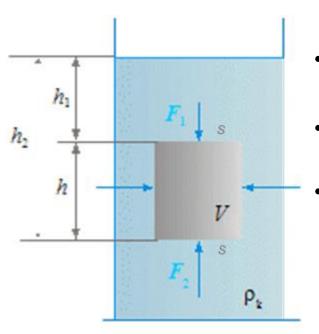
Hydrostatic/airstatic pressure:

$$p = F_G/s = \rho hg$$
.

where ρ is the density of the liquid(water) or air.



Lifting force (F_{lift}) , is the difference of hydrostatic pressures.



On the upper base of the prism force F₁ is acting:

$$F_1 = h_1 \rho g s$$

On the bottom base force F₂ is acting:

$$F_2 = h_2 \rho g s$$

$$F_2 > F_1$$

 Result of these two acting forces is the so called hydrostatic lifting force F_{lift}:

$$F_{\text{lift}} = F_2 - F_1$$

$$F_{lift} = (h_2 - h_1) \rho g s$$

$$F_{lift} = h \rho g s$$

$$F_{lift} = \rho g V$$
 — basics of the law of Archimedes

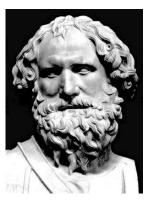
Important: ρ is the density of the liquid (water) and the body!

law of Archimedes

- Any body completely or partially submerged in a fluid (gas or liquid) at rest is acted upon by a lifting (upward) force, the magnitude of which is equal to the weight of the fluid displaced by the body.
- magnitude of the lifting (buoyant) force:

$$F_{lift} = \rho g V$$





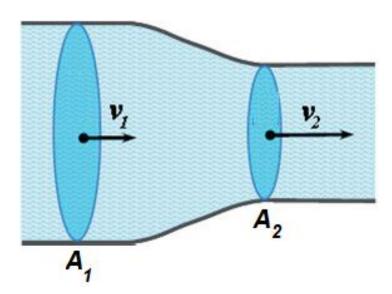
Archimedes (approx. 287 – 212 BC)

Continuity equation (equation of the volume flow continuity)

For an ideal fluid (can not change the volume) is valid a constant volume flow:

$$|\mathbf{v}|_1 \mathbf{A}_1 = |\mathbf{v}|_2 \mathbf{A}_2 \implies |\mathbf{v}| \mathbf{A} = \text{const.}$$

It "speaks" about the so called mass conservation.



Volume flow is defined as the volume, which pass thru some cross-section in some time.
Unit is: [m³s⁻¹]

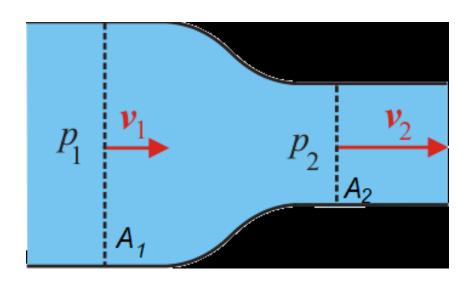
$$Q = \frac{V}{t} = \frac{dA}{t} = |v|A$$

here: Q – volume flow, V – volume, t – time, A – area, v – speed (velocity size), d – distance

Bernoulli equation

For an ideal fluid (can not change the volume) following equation is valid:

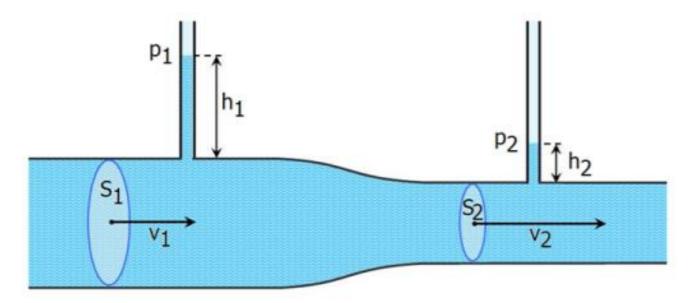
$$p_1 + \rho h_1 g + \frac{1}{2} \rho v_1^2 = p_2 + \rho h_2 g + \frac{1}{2} \rho v_2^2 = const.$$
 hydrostatic pressure hydrodynamic pressure



Bernoulli equation – so called hydrodynamic paradox

$$p + \rho hg + \frac{1}{2}\rho v^2 = const.$$

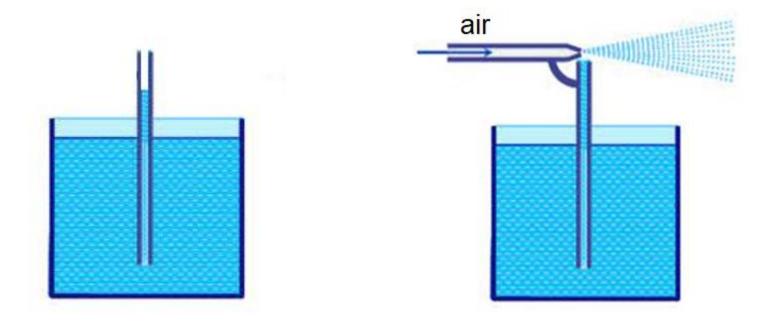
It is a phenomenon, when in a narrower pipe (with higher flow speed) occurs smaller pressure.



This is valid also for air (gas) – so called aerodynamic paradox.

Bernoulli equation – so called hydrodynamic paradox

$$p + \rho hg + \frac{1}{2}\rho v^2 = const.$$



Principle of spray effect.

Blood pressure

Blood pressure is measured as two numbers: **Systolic** blood pressure (the first and higher number, ideally **120**) measures pressure inside your arteries when the heart beats. **Diastolic** blood pressure (the second and lower number, ideally **80**) measures the pressure inside the artery when the heart rests between beats.

Physical unit – an older unit is still used: [mm Hg].

Conversion: 1 mmHg = 133.322 Pa.

