DAY 14 - Note that there are some "animations" on this page that are marked with a red arrow. See the supplemental page to see these animations in action.

Summary of Topics Covered in Today's Lecture

## Oscillations

Any cyclic back-and-forth action that results in no net motion is an oscillation. Oscillations tend to be characterized by their Period (the time to complete one cycle of the oscillation, usually abbreviated with a $T$ ) and their Amplitude (the size of the oscillation, usually abbreviated with an A).

The frequency of the oscillation is the number of cycles of oscillation completed per second:
f = \# cycles/time
$\mathrm{f}=1 / \mathrm{T}$
The SI unit of frequency is the cycles/second or Hertz (Hz).

## Hooke's Law \& the Simple Harmonic Oscillator

Of particular interest is the Simple Harmonic Oscillator (SHO). A SHO is an oscillator that oscillates due to a Hooke's Law force. Hooke's Law is

$$
F=-k x
$$

where $F$ is the amount of force required to deform the object, k is the stiffness or Spring Constant of the object, and $x$ is the amount the object is deformed.

Hooke's Law forces are important because they are so common. Hooke's Law applies any time that the force required to deform an object (like a spring or a flexible stick) is proportional to the amount the object is deformed. This is true for any elastic object. If you recall from

Deformed some


Deformed more


Physics I, the ratio between stress and strain in an elastic material is linear:

Stress $=$ Modulus x Strain

Stress is that which causes deformation (akin to $F$ in Hooke's Law). Strain is a measure of amount of deformation (akin to $x$ in Hooke's Law). Modulus relates the two -- akin to $k$ in Hooke's Law. In fact, the concepts of Modulus and $k$ (Spring Constant) are closely related, except that spring constant applies to a particular object (i.e. a steel spring 10 cm long, 2 cm wide, and 2 mm thick), whereas Modulus applies to a material (i.e. steel).

Materials only show elastic behavior within limits - those limits being that the strain the object is subjected to is small enough that the object will return to its original shape when the deforming stress is released. Deform any object too much and it will no longer return to its original shape - it has been deformed past its yield point. Keep deforming an object past the yield point and it tends to deform more dramatically. Eventually it will break.


So as long as an object is not stressed past its Yield Point, its behavior is elastic and Hooke's Law forces apply. If the object is deformed and released, it will oscillate - it will be a Simple Harmonic Oscillator, and its motion will look something like the animation at right.

The Motion of a Simple Harmonic Oscillator
If an object of mass m is moving under a Hooke's Law force, the sum of the forces acting on it is
$\Sigma \mathbf{F}=m \mathbf{a}=-k \mathbf{x}$
$m \mathbf{a}=-k \mathbf{x}$
$m \mathbf{a}+k \mathbf{x}=0$
$\mathbf{a}+\frac{k}{m}=0$
$m$
(The boldface type indicates vector quantities.)

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PHY 203/213
We can't prove this using
algebra, but the motion
this equation implies is
sinusoidal - back and forth
like a sine wave. A good
look at a Simple Harmonic
Oscillator will confirm
this. A sine wave has the
equation
x = A 步 ( }\omegat+\phi
```


## PHY 232

Recall that acceleration is the derivative of velocity with respect to time, and the second derivative of position with respect to time:
$\mathbf{a}=\frac{d}{d t} \mathbf{v}=\frac{d}{d t}\left(\frac{d}{d t} \mathbf{x}\right)=\frac{d^{2}}{d t^{2}} \mathbf{x}$
so we now have
$\frac{d^{2}}{d t^{2}} \mathbf{x}+\frac{k}{m} \mathbf{x}=0$

|  |
| :--- |
|  |
|  |
|  |
| Below is a plot of what |
| this equation looks like |
| for different values of $A$, |
|  |
| o, and $\phi$. |

```
This is what is known as a
differential equation in x.
Now, we don't know how to
solve a differential equation,
but we can guess at a solution
and check to see if it works
by substituting it into this
equation. A solution would
have to be an equation for x
that gives back something like
x when you take its derivative
twice. That sounds like a
sine or cosine function.
Let's try
x = A 曾( }\omegat+\phi
Below is a plot of what this
equation looks like for
different values of A, }\omega\mathrm{ , and
\phi.
```






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PHY 203/213
In the sine wave
equation
x=A sin}(\omegat+\phi
```

The value of
$\omega$ is
$\omega=\sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$

## PHY 232

Now we know what this function looks like. Let's check out the derivative and second derivative:

$$
\frac{d \mathbf{x}}{d t}=\mathbf{A} \cos (\omega t+\phi) \omega
$$

$$
\frac{d^{2} \mathbf{x}}{d t^{2}}=\frac{d}{d t}\left(\frac{d \mathbf{x}}{d t}\right)=-\mathbf{A} \sin (\omega t+\phi) \omega^{2}=-\omega^{2} \mathbf{x}
$$

Substituting $\mathbf{x}$ and $d^{2} \mathbf{x} / d t^{2}$ into the differential equation yields

$$
-\omega^{2} \mathbf{x}+\frac{k}{m} \mathbf{x}=0
$$

which means the equation is solved if

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

$\omega$ is a mathematical quantity known as angular frequency. To figure out what $\omega$ is in terms of the measurable values such as Period (T) and Frequency (f), we need to recall that the period is the time required for the oscillator to go through one complete cycle. If, as shown in the picture, the oscillator starts at $\mathrm{x}=0$, it will be through one full cycle when the argument of the sine function ( $\omega t$ ) is equal to $2 \pi$. At one full cycle $t=T$, so

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \omega T=2 \pi \\
& \omega=\frac{2 \pi}{T}=2 \pi f
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that the Amplitude of the SHO has no impact on its period (or frequency). The only factors that influence period are mass and spring constant.

Every SHO contains a "mass" or "inertia" factor represented by the $m$ in our equation for $\omega$. Every SHO contains a "springiness" factor represented by $k$ in our equation. In a spring-mass oscillator $m$ and $k$ are obvious. In other kinds of SHO's they may not be so obvious.


[^0]

Example Problem \#1
A pendulum of length $L$ with bob of mass $m$ is a SHO if its swing has a small amplitude. Derive an equation for the period of a pendulum.


Only two forces act on the pendulum - gravity and the tension in the string.
h
These are shown in the diagram.
The tersian force can be divided into $x$ by components.


$$
\sum F_{x}=T_{x}
$$

$$
\sum F_{y}=T_{y}-W
$$

If there is negligible vertical motion then $\sum F_{y}=0$. This would only occur if the pendulum had a low-amplitude swing.
$T_{y}=W \quad\left(\begin{array}{c}\text { small amplitude } \\ \text { swing) }\end{array}\right.$

$$
T_{y}=m g
$$

Now lets look at $T_{x}$ :

These are similar triangles, so

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{h}{x}=\frac{T_{y}}{T_{x}} \\
& T_{x}=\frac{x T_{y}}{h}
\end{aligned}
$$

However $T_{y}=m g$ and if the pendulum has a small swing with little vertical motion $h=L$ (approx).

$$
T_{x}=\frac{x(m y)}{L}
$$

$$
\vec{T}_{x}=-\left(\frac{m g}{L}\right) \vec{x}
$$

Here we have a Hooke's

$$
\vec{F}=-k \quad \vec{x}
$$ Law force. The force always acts opposite the displacement $\vec{x}$, hence the negative sign.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \omega=\sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}=\sqrt{\frac{\frac{m g}{L}}{m}} \\
& \omega=\sqrt{\frac{g}{L}} \text { for a perdulum. }
\end{aligned}
$$

The period can now be found using $T=2 \pi / \omega$ :
$T=2 \pi \sqrt{\frac{L}{g}} \quad$ for a pendulum.
For a period of 1 second:
$1 s=2(3.1416)[L / g]^{0.5}$
Square both sides...
$1 \mathrm{~s}^{2}=39.4784 \mathrm{~L} /\left(9.8 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}^{2}\right)$
$\left(9.8 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}^{2}\right) 1 \delta^{2}=39.4784 \mathrm{~L}$
$L=0.248 \mathrm{~m}$
For a 1 second period the pendulum would need to be 24.8 Cm Iong.
This formed the basis of a major advancement in technology - the development of the pendulum clock. Check out the animation below.

http://www.britannica.com/clockworks/pendulum.html


[^0]:    http://www.kettering.edu/~drussell/Demos/SHO/mass.html

