Classical Mechanics, Lecture 3 January 17, 2008 lecture by John Baez notes by Alex Hoffnung

## 1 Conservation of Energy

Today we will talk about what conservation of energy is good for — how it can help us solve problems in classical mechanics. If we have a particle  $q: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfying F = ma where F is **conservative**:

$$F(t) = -\nabla V(q(t))$$

where  $V: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is called the **potential**, then energy is conserved. Let

$$E(t) = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{q}(t)^{2} + V(q(t)).$$

Then

$$\frac{d}{dt} E(t) = m\dot{q}(t) \cdot \ddot{q}(t) + \nabla V(q(t)) \cdot \dot{q}(t)$$

$$= F(q(t)) \cdot \dot{q}(t) + \nabla V(q(t)) \cdot \dot{q}(t)$$

$$= 0$$

What good is this? It helps understand the motion of the particle: for any solution of Newton's second law

$$\frac{1}{2}m\dot{q}(t)^{2} + V(q(t)) + E$$
  
$$||\dot{q}(t)|| = \sqrt{\frac{2}{m}(E - V(q(t)))}$$

so we know the particle's speed given its position. This is especially powerful for a particle on the line (n=1).

Example: A particle on a line. In this case, suppose the force depends only on position:

$$F(t) = f(q(t))$$

for  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ . Then automatically F is conservative:

$$f = -\nabla V$$
$$= -\frac{dV}{dx}$$

where

$$V(x) = \int_{x_0}^x f(s) ds$$

Note: we can add any constant to V. Also: the fact that any f is  $-\nabla V$  for some V is special to 1 dimension.

So we have:

$$|\dot{q}(t)| = \sqrt{\frac{2}{m}(E - V(q(t)))}$$

$$\dot{q}(t) = \pm \sqrt{\frac{2}{m}(E - V(q(t)))}$$

For example:

graph of some function V(x) on plane with chosen energy value V = E

The particle's position, say x, must have

 $V(x) \leq E.$ 

This is called the **classically allowed** region - in our example,  $[x_0, x_1]$ . The set of  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  where V(x) > E is the **classically forbidden**.

A particle at a local maximum can go one of the two possible directions. If the potential increases all the way up to V = E, the particle stops for moment and then Newton's second law demands that the particle goes back down the graph. In our example the particle must oscillate between  $x_0$ and  $x_1$ , moving faster where V is smaller.

Example: A particle in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  in a central force.

## picture of a central force field

A central force depends only on position, so it's given by  $f: \mathbb{R}^3 - \{0\} \to \mathbb{R}^3$ , but where f is spherically symmetric:

$$f(x) = \phi(|| x ||) \frac{x}{|| x ||}$$

where  $\phi: [0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ . (We'll worry about the origin in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  when necessary.) We'll write

$$|| q(t) || = r(t)$$
$$\frac{q(t)}{|| q(t) ||} = \hat{r}(t)$$

so Newton's 2nd law says

$$m\ddot{q}(t) = \phi(r(t))\hat{r}(t)$$

Kepler started thinking about planetary motion - this is motion in a central force

$$\phi(r) = -\frac{k}{r^2}$$

He noted that planets sweep out equal area in equal time:

picture of planet going around sun with area from  $t_0$  to  $t_0 + \Delta t$  and from  $t_1$  to  $t_1 + \Delta t$ 

This is secretly "conservation of angular momentum". This will let us understand motion in any central force.

First, a central force is automatically conservative: if

$$f(x) = \phi(||x||)\hat{x}, \qquad (\hat{x} = \frac{x}{||x||})$$

then

$$f(x) = -\nabla V(x)$$

where

$$V(x) = v(||x||)$$

for some  $v: (0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ , namely any v with  $v' = -\phi$ , e.g.:

$$v(r) \ = \ - \int_{r_0}^{r_1} \phi(s) ds.$$

So we have conservation of energy

$$E(t) = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{q}(t)^2 = v(r(t))$$

(where r(t) = || q(t) ||) is constant. But we also have conservation of angular momentum  $J: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^3$  given by

$$J(t) = q(t) \times p(t).$$

Why is this conserved?

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt}J(t) &= \dot{q}(t) \times p(t) + q(t) \times \dot{p}(t) \\ &= \dot{q}(t) \times m\dot{q}(t) + q(t) \times F(t) \\ &= 0 + q(t) \times f(q(t)) \\ &= q(t) \times \phi(r(t))\hat{q}(t) \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

In general: angular momentum is constant when the force points directly towards or away from the origin.

For a particle in a central force,  $J(t) = mq(t) \times \dot{q}(t)$  is constant so q(t) and  $\dot{q}(t)$  must lie in some fixed plane, independent of t. So, choose coordinates so that it's the xy plane. So now we have a particle in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Let's describe its position using polar coordinates  $r(t), \theta(t)$ . In these coordinates:

$$E(t) = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{r}(t)^2 + r^2\dot{\theta}(t)^2) + v(r(t))$$

and J(t) is pointing in the z-direction and proportional to

$$j(t) = mr(t)^2\dot{\theta}(t)$$

E(t) and j(t) are both constant - E and j. So:

$$j = mr^2\dot{\theta}$$
$$\dot{\theta} = \frac{j}{mr^2}$$

 $\operatorname{So}$ 

$$E = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{r}^2 + \frac{j^2}{m^2r^2}) + v(r(t)).$$

This is isomorphic to a particle on  $(0, \infty)$  with position r(t) and velocity  $\dot{r}(t)$  and energy

$$E = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{r}(t)^{2} + V_{eff}(r(t))$$

where the **effective potential** is

$$V_{eff}(r) = v(r) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{j^2}{mr^2}.$$

## picture of typical potential and effective potential

So the "effective" force is the force due to V plus a **centrifugal** force due to  $\frac{j^2}{mr^2}$ .