Lagrangian Mechanics

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I. Conservative vs. Non-conservative

1.1 The Lagrangian

$$L = T - U \tag{1}$$

This quantity is known as the Lagrangian. It is the difference between the kinetic and potential energies of a system.

Apply to Euler-Lagrange

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial x} - \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} = 0 \tag{2}$$

leads to:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = F_x \tag{3}$$

and

$$\frac{d}{dt}\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} = \frac{d}{dt}m\dot{x} = m\ddot{x}$$
(4)

so:

$$F_x = m\ddot{x}$$
 (5)

Do it for all three dimensions and you have

$$-\nabla U = m\mathbf{a} \Rightarrow \mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a} \tag{6}$$

2. Hamilton's Principle / Principle of Least Action

$$S[q_k(t)] = \int_{t_1}^{t_b} dt L(t, q_1, q_2, \dots, \dot{q}_1, \dot{q}_2, \dots) = \int_{t_a}^{t_b} L(t, q_k, \dot{q}_k)$$
(7)

When $oldsymbol{S}$ is stationary, i.e.

$$\delta S = \delta \int_{t_a}^{t_b} L(t, q_k, \dot{q}_k) = 0 \tag{8}$$

then the $q_k(t)$ s will satisfy the equations of motions for the system between the boundary conditions.

2.2 Generalized Coordinates

Example Problem
#1:
$$\int_{\phi}^{y} \int_{x} \int_{x} f r = rr + r\phi \phi$$

The basic polar coordinate system
First consider **The** *r* equation
The radial component of the force is ju
Thus:
which is recognizable as $F_r = ma_r$
Next, **The** ϕ equation

Find the Lagrange Equations for a particle moving in two dimensions under the influence of a conservative force using polar coordinates

First find the Lagrangian: L = T - U

The kinetic energy will be given as usual by

$$T = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{1}{2}m\left(\dot{r}^2 + r^2\dot{\phi}^2\right)$$
(9)

and the potential can be written as:

$$U = U(r,\phi) \tag{10}$$

thus \boldsymbol{L} is:

$$L = \frac{1}{2}m\left(\dot{r}^{2} + r^{2}\dot{\phi}^{2}\right) - U(r,\phi)$$
(11)

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial r} = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{r}} \tag{12}$$

$$mr\dot{\phi}^2-rac{\partial U}{\partial r}=rac{d}{dt}(m\dot{r})=m\ddot{r}$$
 (13)

is just $-\partial U/\partial r$:

$$-\frac{\partial U}{\partial r} = F_r \tag{14}$$

$$F_r = m \left(\ddot{r} - r \dot{\phi}^2 \right) \tag{15}$$

 ia_r

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \phi} = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \tag{16}$$

Which leads to:

$$-\frac{\partial U}{\partial \phi} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(mr^2 \dot{\phi} \right) \tag{17}$$

From vector calc:

$$-\frac{\partial U}{\partial \phi} = rF_{\phi} \tag{18}$$

which is the torque, $oldsymbol{ au}$ and

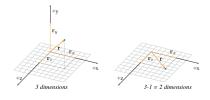
$$mr^2\dot{\phi}$$
 (19)

is the angular momentum, L, thus, (17) can just be considered as

$$\tau = \frac{dL}{dt} \tag{20}$$

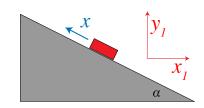
(where this \boldsymbol{L} is angular momentum)

2.3 Force of Constraint

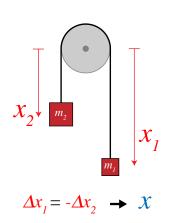


From 3 to 2 dimensions

Examples of Constraints



A mass on a ramp



The Atwood Machine has 1 coordinate

By reducing the number of coordinates, we can imply a 'force of constraint'

Previously, we would model this as a particle subject to the force of gravity and a normal force. Now we can just say it exists in a 2d world, and we effectively accomplish the same thing.

Such a constraint is called **holonomic**.

In this classic case, a naive application of Newton's Laws would suggest two coordinates. However, since the block is constrained to the surface of the ramp, there really is only one independent variable.

$$L = T - U = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - U = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{x}^2 - mgx\sin\alpha \quad (21)$$

Likewise, with the Atwood Machine, there really is only one coordinate.

Really, the string is a constant length, so

$$x_1 + x_2 + \pi R = l$$
 length of the string (22)

which means that:

$$x_2 = -x_1 + \text{const} \tag{23}$$

and also:

$$\dot{x_2} = -\dot{x_1}$$
 (24)

So, letting $x_1 \rightarrow x$ Thus:

$$T = rac{1}{2}m_1 \dot{x_1}^2 + rac{1}{2}m_2 \dot{x_2}^2 = rac{1}{2}(m_1 + m_2) \dot{x}^2$$
 (25)

and the potential energy:

$$U = -m_1gx_1 - m_2gx_2 = -(m_1 - m_2)gx + \text{const}$$
 (26)

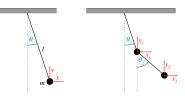
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Thus the Lagrangian is:

$$L = T - U = rac{1}{2}(m_1 + m_2)\dot{x}^2 + (m_1 - m_2)gx$$
 (27)

Solving for eq of motion:

$$\ddot{x} = \frac{m_1 - m_2}{m_1 + m_2}g\tag{28}$$



Pendulums are also great examples of systems with a constrain: the length of the string doesn't change.

A regular pendulum and a double pendulum.

3. Examples of Mechanical Systems:

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Example Problem #2:

We'll start by finding the Lagrangian for the simple pendulum of length R and mass m. In cartesian coordinates, that would be:

$$T = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{1}{2}m\left(\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2\right)$$
(29)

If we express that in polar coordinates:

$$T = \frac{1}{2}m\left(\dot{r}^2 + r^2\dot{\theta}^2 + \dot{z}^2\right)$$
(30)

Two of these Three terms are zero, so we end up with:

$$T = \frac{1}{2}m\left(R^2\dot{\theta}^2\right) \tag{31}$$

The gravitational potential is

$$U = mgR(1 - \cos\theta) \tag{32}$$

Thus, our Lagrangian will be:

$$L = T - U = rac{1}{2}m\left(R^2\dot{ heta}^2
ight) - mgR(1-\cos heta)$$
 (33)

Pendulum on a stationary support

Now we have singe *degree of freedom*, meaning there is only one coordinate, $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ in this case. That makes solving the Euler-Lagrange Equation straightforward:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta} - \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\theta}} = 0 \tag{34}$$

Solving this:

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 $\frac{d}{dt}\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\theta}} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(mR^2 \dot{\theta} \right) = mR^2 \ddot{\theta}$ (35)

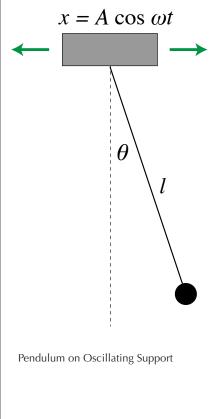
and

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta} = -mgR\sin\theta \tag{36}$$

Combining these two we have:

$$\ddot{\theta} + \frac{g}{R}\sin\theta = 0 \tag{37}$$

Example Problem #3:



To construct the Lagrangian, we need to find the speed of the mass. We can find the position of the mass and then take the time derivative:

 $\mathbf{r}_m = (r_x, r_y) = (x + l\sin\theta, -l\cos\theta)$ (38)

Both \boldsymbol{x} and $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ have non-zero time derivatives, but \boldsymbol{l} is a constant:

$$v^{2} = v_{x}^{2} + v_{y}^{2} = \left(\dot{x} + l\dot{\theta}\cos\theta\right)^{2} + \left(l\dot{\theta}\sin\theta\right)^{2}$$
(39)

$$= l^2 \dot{\theta}^2 + \dot{x}^2 + 2l \dot{x} \dot{\theta} \cos \theta \qquad (40)$$

The potential energy can be found too: The gravitational potential is

$$U = -mgl\cos\theta \tag{41}$$

Thus the Lagrangian is:

$$L=T-U=rac{1}{2}m\left(l^2{\dot heta}^2+{\dot x}^2+2l{\dot x}{\dot heta}\cos heta
ight)+mgl\cos heta$$
 (42)

Evaluate the Euler-Lagrange equation:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta} - \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\theta}} = 0 \tag{43}$$

$$rac{d}{dt}ig(ml^2\dot{ heta}+ml\dot{x}\cos hetaig)=-ml\dot{x}\dot{ heta}\sin heta-mgl\sin heta$$
 (44)

which leads to:

$$l\ddot{\theta} + \ddot{x}\cos\theta = -g\sin\theta \tag{45}$$

We know from the setup that $\boldsymbol{x} = A \cos \omega t$, so

$$l\ddot{ heta} - A\omega^2\cos(\omega t)\cos heta + g\sin heta = 0$$
 (46)

In the case of only small angles, this simplifies to:

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$$\ddot{ heta} + \omega_0^2 \theta = a \omega^2 \cos(\omega t)$$
 (47)

where $\omega_0=\sqrt{g/l}$ and a=A/l

This is just a driven oscillator, that can now be solved using the standard methods.