

## Lecture 26: The Principle of Least Action (Hamilton's Principle)

Where does  $\vec{F} = m\vec{a}$  or  $-\vec{\nabla}V = m\ddot{\vec{r}}$  come from? Is there a more fundamental reason as to why these equations hold?

Define the Lagrangian function as

$$\boxed{\mathcal{L} = T - V}$$

For example, in a conservative system in 1D we would have

$$\mathcal{L}(y, \dot{y}) = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{y}^2 - V(y)$$

Suppose that a particle starts at  $y_1 = y(t_1)$  and ends its trajectory at  $y_2 = y(t_2)$ . The path taken is a particular  $(y(t), \dot{y}(t))$  trajectory; the action of this trajectory is given by

$$J = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \mathcal{L} dt$$

Hamilton's principle states that out of all the infinite family of motions  $(y(t), \dot{y}(t))$ , the actual motion that takes place is the one for which the action is an extrema:

$$\delta J = \delta \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \mathcal{L} dt = 0$$

i.e., any variation on top of this motion  $(y(t) + n(t), \dot{y} + \dot{n})$  with endpoints fixed ( $n(t_1) = n(t_2) = 0$ ) vanishes in 1st order. The usual situation is that  $J$  has a global minimum at the actual trajectory.

**Functional Derivative:**

$$J = J[y(t)] \quad , \quad \frac{\delta J}{\delta y} = 0$$

**Example:** Particle in Free Fall

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{y}^2 - mgy$$

$$\begin{aligned}\delta J &= \delta \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \mathcal{L} dt = \delta \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \left[ \frac{m}{2} \dot{y}^2 - mgy \right] dt \\ &= \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \left[ \frac{m}{2} 2\dot{y} \delta y - mg \delta y \right] dt\end{aligned}$$

Note that  $\delta \dot{y} = \frac{d}{dt}(\delta y)$ . We integrate the first term by parts  $\int u dv = uv - \int v du$ . Let  $u = m\dot{y}$  and  $\frac{d}{dt}(\delta y) = dv$ . Then we have

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} m\dot{y} \frac{d}{dt}(\delta y) dt = m\dot{y}(\delta y) \Big|_{t_1}^{t_2} - \int_{t_1}^{t_2} (\delta y) \frac{d}{dt}(m\dot{y}) dt$$

Note that  $m\dot{y}(\delta y) \Big|_{t_1}^{t_2} = 0$  since  $\delta y(t_i) = 0$ . Hence

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} m\dot{y} \frac{d}{dt}(\delta y) dt = - \int_{t_1}^{t_2} (\delta y) \frac{d}{dt}(m\dot{y}) dt = - \int_{t_1}^{t_2} m\ddot{y}(\delta y) dt$$

$$\implies \delta J = - \int_{t_1}^{t_2} [m\ddot{y} + mg](\delta y) dt$$

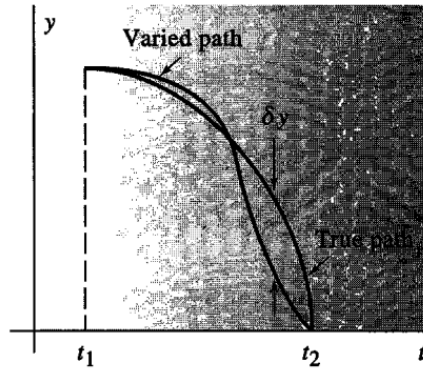
This = 0 for any arbitrary  $(\delta y)$  if and only if

$$\boxed{m\ddot{y} = -mg} \quad \text{Newton's 2nd law!}$$

We proved that  $\delta J = 0$  for the actual trajectory. Is  $J$  a minimum or a maximum?

**Actual trajectory:**  $y(t) = -\frac{1}{2}gt^2$   $(y(t=0) = 0, y(t=t_2) = -\frac{1}{2}gt_2^2)$

Assume  $y(\alpha, t) = y(0, t) + \alpha n(t)$  where  $y(0, t)$  is the actual solution,  $\alpha$  is a bookkeeping constant, and  $n(t)$  is some arbitrary function.



$$J(\alpha) = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt \mathcal{L}[y(\alpha, t), \dot{y}(\alpha, t)] \quad \begin{cases} \dot{y}(\alpha, t) = \dot{y}(0, t) + \alpha \dot{n}(t) = (-gt + \alpha \dot{n}) \\ T = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{y}^2 = \frac{1}{2}m[-gt + \alpha \dot{n}]^2 \\ V = mgy = mg[-\frac{1}{2}gt^2 + \alpha n] \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} J(\alpha) &= \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt \left( \frac{1}{2}m [g^2t^2 - 2gt\alpha\dot{n} + \alpha^2\dot{n}^2] - mg[-\frac{1}{2}gt^2 + \alpha n] \right) \\ &= \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt \left( mg^2t^2 - mg\alpha(t\dot{n} + n) + \frac{1}{2}m\alpha^2\dot{n}^2 \right) \\ &= \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt \left( mg^2t^2 - mg\alpha(-n + n) + \frac{1}{2}m\alpha^2\dot{n}^2 \right) \\ &= \frac{mg^2}{3}(t_2^3 - t_1^3) + \frac{1}{2}m\alpha^2 \int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt \dot{n}^2 = J_0 + J_1\alpha^2 \end{aligned}$$

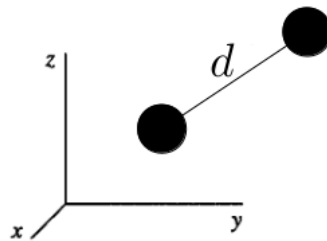


**Generalized Coordinates** are any collection of *independent* variables  $(q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n)$  (not connected by any equation of constraint) that just suffice to specify uniquely the configuration of a system of particles. The number  $n$  of open coordinates is equal to the system's degree of freedom.

For example, if we use:

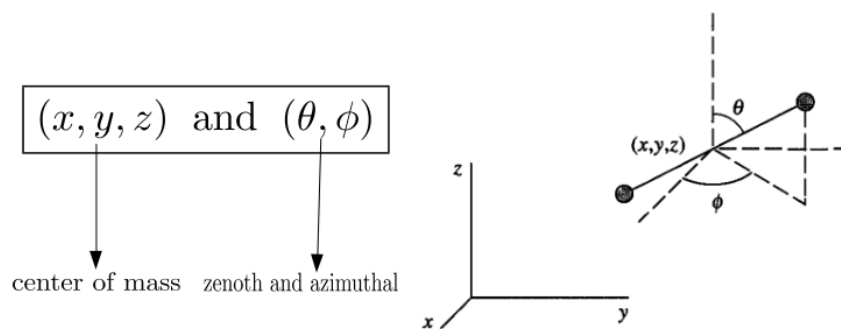
- (i) Smaller # than  $n$  coordinates: System's motion is indeterminate
- (ii) Larger # than  $n$  coordinates: Some coordinates are completely given by others

**Another Example:** Consider two particles connected by a rigid rod.



$$\begin{cases} 6 \text{ coordinates : } (x_1, y_1, z_1) \quad , \quad (x_2, y_2, z_2) \\ \text{One constraint : } d^2 - [(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2] = 0 \end{cases}$$

$\Rightarrow$  5 degrees of freedom. Natural choice for generalized coordinates?



**In general:**  $N$  particles require  $3N$  coordinates. Suppose there are  $m$  constraints:

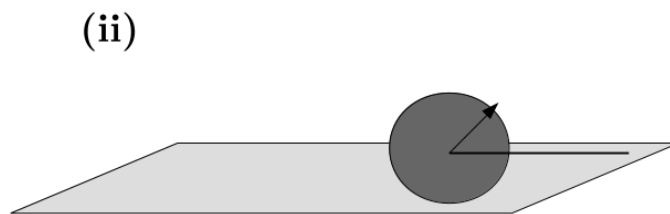
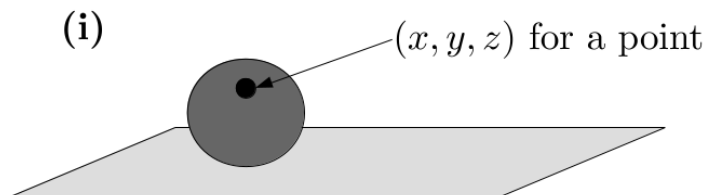
$$f_j = (x_i, y_i, z_i, t) = 0 \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m \quad \boxed{\text{Holonomic Constraint}}$$

$$\implies (q_1, q_2, \dots, q_{3N-m}) \quad \text{generalized coordinates}$$

**Non-holonomic Constraints:** e.g.  $[(x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - R^2)] \geq 0$  (we cannot go inside the earth). This cannot be used to reduce the number of degrees of freedom.

(i) Point in a ball rolling on a table  $\implies$  still needs 3 coordinates to describe points; constraint only binds  $z \in [0, 2R]$ .

(ii) Ball rolling without slipping on a table  $\implies$  velocity constraint, not coordinate constraint! (Angular orientation of ball, position in the plane),



$\implies$  There are the coordinates  $(x, y, z, \theta, \phi)$  for the ball. We have the holonomic constraint  $z = 0$  and the non-holonomic constraint  $V_{\perp} = \sqrt{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2} = R\dot{\theta}$ . Hence there are 4 degrees of freedom.