

Analytical Mechanics Recitation Session of Week 9

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1 What are Eigenfrequencies, or Natural Frequencies?

1 Remark. What follows is a restatement of section 4.2.1 in the lecture's script, which I thought might be good to briefly recollect as the idea is what is behind the solution to the first exercise in homework number eight.

2 Remark. Actually most of this discussion is just a very long way of saying that any two quadratic forms may be simultaneously diagonalized if one of the is positive definite. See <http://math.stackexchange.com/questions/154540/simultaneously-diagonalizing-bilinear-forms>.

Let $f \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$.

We consider a system whose state may be described by f real parameters—by some point in \mathbb{R}^f .

Let T and V be quadratic forms on \mathbb{R}^f (see definition 14). We assume that T is a positive definite form (see definition 15). This makes sense because the kinetic energy is always non-negative, and always strictly positive if the speed is non-zero. Via 16 this induces a positive definite inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_T : (\mathbb{R}^f)^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. The reason we work with the inner product induced by T is in order to *not* have to pick a basis for \mathbb{R}^f . So the point of what follows is a basis-free description of the problem.

3 Claim. There is a unique symmetric linear mapping $\tilde{V} : \mathbb{R}^f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^f$ such that

$$V(x) = \langle x, \tilde{V}x \rangle_T \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^f$$

Proof. T and V define matrices \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{V} in $Mat_{f \times f}(\mathbb{R})$:

$$T(x) = \langle x, \mathcal{T}x \rangle \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^f$$

$$V(x) = \langle x, \mathcal{V}x \rangle \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^f$$

where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is the standard inner product on \mathbb{R}^f . Indeed, these matrices are

defined via: Let $\{e_i\}_i$ be the standard basis for \mathbb{R}^f .

$$\mathcal{T} := \sum_{i,j=1}^f \frac{1}{2} (T(e_i + e_j) - T(e_i) - T(e_j)) e_i \otimes e_j^*$$

and similarly for \mathcal{V} .

Note that \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{V} do not have to be symmetric. However, we may define $\mathcal{T}_S := \frac{1}{2}(\mathcal{T} + \mathcal{T}^T)$, so that $\mathcal{T}_S^T = \mathcal{T}_S$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x, \mathcal{T}_S x \rangle &= \left\langle x, \frac{1}{2} (\mathcal{T} + \mathcal{T}^T) x \right\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (\langle x, \mathcal{T} x \rangle + \langle x, \mathcal{T}^T x \rangle) \\ &\quad (\text{By } \langle x, Ay \rangle = \langle A^T x, y \rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (\langle x, \mathcal{T} x \rangle + \langle \mathcal{T} x, x \rangle) \\ &\quad (\text{By } \langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^f) \\ &= \langle x, \mathcal{T} x \rangle \\ &\equiv T(x) \end{aligned}$$

We follow a similar procedure for V to obtain that \mathcal{V}_S is symmetric and

$$\langle x, \mathcal{V}_S x \rangle = V(x)$$

Note that because \mathcal{T}_S is positive definite and symmetric, [17](#) implies that there is some matrix $\mathcal{L} \in \text{Mat}_{f \times f}(\mathbb{R})$ such that $\mathcal{T}_S = \mathcal{L}^T \mathcal{L}$. Hence we find:

$$T(x) = \langle \mathcal{L}x, \mathcal{L}x \rangle \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^f$$

Moreover, because T is positive definite, \mathcal{T}_S is invertible, so that \mathcal{L} is invertible as well. As a result, $\{\mathcal{L}^{-1}e_i\}_i$ is also a basis of \mathbb{R}^f (albeit not necessarily an orthogonal one—since \mathcal{T}_S is not necessarily diagonal). In this basis, the matrix \mathcal{T}_S is given by the components (i, j) :

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \mathcal{L}^{-1}e_i, \mathcal{T}_S \mathcal{L}^{-1}e_j \rangle &= \left\langle e_i, (\mathcal{L}^{-1})^T \mathcal{L}^T \mathcal{L} \mathcal{L}^{-1}e_j \right\rangle \\ &= \langle e_i, e_j \rangle \\ &= \delta_{ij} \end{aligned}$$

so that in this basis, the matrix $\mathcal{T}_S = \mathbb{1}_{f \times f}$. As a result, taking the usual inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ in the $\{\mathcal{L}^{-1}e_i\}_i$ basis is like taking the $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_T$ inner product in the standard basis.

We now define (manifestly symmetric)

$$\tilde{\mathcal{V}} := (\mathcal{L}^{-1})^T \mathcal{V}_S \mathcal{L}^{-1}$$

which is simply the matrix \mathcal{V}_S in the basis $\{\mathcal{L}^{-1}e_i\}_i$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned}
V(x) &= \langle x, \mathcal{V}_S x \rangle \\
&\quad (\text{in the basis } \{\mathcal{L}^{-1}e_i\}_i) \\
&= \sum_{i,j=1}^f x_i \left((\mathcal{L}^{-1})^T \mathcal{V}_S \mathcal{L}^{-1} \right)_{ij} x_j \\
&\quad (\text{in the basis } \{\mathcal{L}^{-1}e_i\}_i \text{ the standard inner product is } \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_T) \\
&= \langle x, \tilde{\mathcal{V}} x \rangle_T
\end{aligned}$$

□

We define the system's energy at time $t \in \mathbb{R}$, corresponding to the trajectory $\gamma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^f$ via

$$E_\gamma(t) := T(\dot{\gamma}(t)) + V(\gamma(t))$$

The label t on the left hand-side is actually redundant, because we actually employ the assumption that

4 Assumption. E_γ does not depend on time.

So we shall drop that label.

5 Claim. The assumption 4 implies that any trajectory must obey the differential equation

$$\ddot{\gamma} = -\tilde{V}\gamma \tag{1}$$

Proof. Using our notation we may write E_γ as:

$$\begin{aligned}
E_\gamma &= T(\dot{\gamma}(t)) + V(\gamma(t)) \\
&= \langle \dot{\gamma}(t), \dot{\gamma}(t) \rangle_T + \langle \gamma(t), \tilde{V}\gamma(t) \rangle_T
\end{aligned}$$

The fact E_γ is time-independent may be expressed as $\dot{E}_\gamma = 0$. Using the fact that $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle \dot{x}, y \rangle + \langle x, \dot{y} \rangle$ we get

$$\begin{aligned}
0 &= \dot{E}_\gamma \\
&= \langle \ddot{\gamma}(t), \dot{\gamma}(t) \rangle_T + \langle \dot{\gamma}(t), \ddot{\gamma}(t) \rangle_T + \langle \dot{\gamma}(t), \tilde{V}\gamma(t) \rangle_T + \langle \gamma(t), \tilde{V}\dot{\gamma}(t) \rangle_T \\
&\quad (\text{By symmetry of the forms invovled}) \\
&= 2 \langle \dot{\gamma}(t), \ddot{\gamma}(t) \rangle_T + 2 \langle \dot{\gamma}(t), \tilde{V}\gamma(t) \rangle_T \\
&= 2 \langle \dot{\gamma}(t), \ddot{\gamma}(t) + \tilde{V}\gamma(t) \rangle_T
\end{aligned}$$

Which readily implies via the positive-definiteness of T that either we have a constant solution (which we are not interested in) or

$$\ddot{\gamma}(t) + \tilde{V}\gamma(t) = 0 \tag{2}$$

□

6 *Remark.* Recall that real symmetric matrices are orthogonally diagonalizable. Thus we may find some orthonormal basis $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^f$ of \mathbb{R}^f such that

$$\tilde{\mathcal{V}}e_i = \lambda_i e_i \quad (3)$$

for some set of eigenvalues $\{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^f$. Because $\tilde{\mathcal{V}}$ is real symmetric, $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$.

7 Definition. For each eigenvalue $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$ of $\tilde{\mathcal{V}}$, define $\omega_i := \sqrt{\lambda_i}$. Thus, ω_i may be either real or strictly imaginary. The collection of all ω_i 's are called *the natural frequencies of the system defined by T and V* ; the name is due to equation (4).

8 *Remark.* We may also write

$$\gamma = \sum_{i=1}^f \langle e_i, \gamma \rangle_T e_i$$

If we define $\xi_i(t) := \langle e_i, \gamma(t) \rangle_T$ we then have the equation of motion (2) equivalent to the following f equations (for each $i \in \{1, \dots, f\}$):

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{\xi}_i(t) &= \partial_t^2 \langle e_i, \ddot{\gamma}(t) \rangle_T \\ &= \langle e_i, \ddot{\gamma}(t) \rangle_T \\ &\quad \text{(By the equation of motion)} \\ &= \langle e_i, -\tilde{V}\gamma(t) \rangle_T \\ &\quad \text{(By the fact } \tilde{V} \text{ is symmetric)} \\ &= -\langle \tilde{V}e_i, \gamma(t) \rangle_T \\ &\quad \text{(By the fact } e_i \text{ is an eigenbasis for } \tilde{V}) \\ &= -\langle \lambda_i e_i, \gamma(t) \rangle_T \\ &= -\lambda_i \xi_i(t) \end{aligned}$$

We find

$$\ddot{\xi}_i = -\omega_i^2 \xi_i \quad (4)$$

The general solution for γ is then easily obtain from (4) as these are simply f uncoupled oscillators. We find:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma(t) &= \sum_{i=1}^f \xi_i(t) e_i \\ &\quad \text{(Plug in the general solution for an oscillator)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^f \left[\xi_i(0) \cos(\omega_i t) + \frac{1}{\omega_i} \dot{\xi}_i(0) \sin(\omega_i t) \right] e_i \\ &\equiv \sum_{i=1}^f \left[\langle e_i, \gamma(0) \rangle_T \cos(\omega_i t) + \frac{1}{\omega_i} \langle e_i, \dot{\gamma}(0) \rangle_T \sin(\omega_i t) \right] e_i \end{aligned}$$

9 Definition. A symmetry is a linear map $S : \mathbb{R}^f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^f$ which leaves T and V invariant:

$$T \circ S = T \quad (5)$$

$$V \circ S = S \quad (6)$$

10 Remark. Equation (5) implies that S is an orthogonal map:

$$\begin{aligned} T \circ S &= T \\ \updownarrow & \\ (T \circ S)(x) &= T(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^f \\ \updownarrow & \\ \langle Sx, Sx \rangle_T &= \langle x, x \rangle_T \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^f \end{aligned}$$

11 Remark. Equation (6) implies that $[S, \tilde{V}] = 0$. Indeed, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle Sx, \tilde{V}Sx \rangle_T &= \langle x, \tilde{V}x \rangle_T \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^f \\ \updownarrow & \\ \langle x, S^T \tilde{V}Sx \rangle_T &= \langle x, \tilde{V}x \rangle_T \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^f \\ \updownarrow & \text{ (} S \text{ is orthogonal)} \\ \langle x, S^{-1} \tilde{V}Sx \rangle_T &= \langle x, \tilde{V}x \rangle_T \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^f \\ \updownarrow & \\ S^{-1} \tilde{V}S &= \tilde{V} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the eigenspaces of S are \tilde{V} invariant: If x is an eigenvector of S with eigenvalue λ then $\tilde{V}x$ is also an eigenvector of S with eigenvalue λ . In symbols: $Sx = \lambda x$ then $S\tilde{V}x = \tilde{V}Sx = \tilde{V}\lambda x = \lambda\tilde{V}x$.

12 Algorithm. In order to solve the eigenvalue problem (3) we can first decompose

$$\mathbb{R}^f = \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \sigma(S)} \text{im}(P_\lambda)$$

where P_λ is the eigenprojection onto the eigenspace of S corresponding to eigenvalue λ . Since the eigenspaces of S (that is, $\{\text{im}(P_\lambda)\}_\lambda$) are \tilde{V} invariant, \tilde{V} will also have a block-diagonal form:

$$\tilde{V} = \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \sigma(S)} \tilde{V}|_{\text{im}(P_\lambda)}$$

We then diagonalize each block $\tilde{V}|_{\text{im}(P_\lambda)}$ separately, which should be much easier than diagonalizing \tilde{V} .

2 Appendix: Forms

13 Definition. A symmetric bilinear form on an \mathbb{R} -vector space V is a map $B : V^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which such that:

$$B = B \circ \mathfrak{s}$$

$$B \circ (\mathfrak{m}_{\mathbb{R} \times V} \times \mathbf{1}_V) = \mathfrak{m}_{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}} \circ (\mathbf{1}_{\mathbb{R}} \times B)$$

$$B \circ (\mathfrak{a}_{V^2} \times \mathbf{1}_V) = \mathfrak{a}_{\mathbb{R}^2} \circ (B \times B) \circ \mathfrak{h}$$

where the maps \mathfrak{s} and \mathfrak{h} are defined as

$$V^2 \ni (v_1, v_2) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{s}} (v_2, v_1) \in V^2$$

$$V^3 \ni (v_1, v_2, v_3) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{h}} (v_1, v_3, v_2, v_3) \in V^4$$

$\mathfrak{m}_{\mathbb{R} \times V}$, $\mathfrak{m}_{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}}$ are the scalar multiplication on V and \mathbb{R} respectively, and \mathfrak{a}_{V^2} , $\mathfrak{a}_{\mathbb{R}^2}$ are vector addition on V and \mathbb{R} respectively.

In other words, B is symmetric and \mathbb{R} -linear in both its entries.

14 Definition. A *quadratic form* on an \mathbb{R} -vector-space V is a map $f : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that there exists some bilinear (not necessarily symmetric) form $B_f : V^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $f = B_f \circ \Delta$ where $\Delta : V \rightarrow V^2$ is the co-multiplication, given by $v \mapsto (v, v)$ for all $v \in V$.

15 Claim. A quadratic form $f : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is positive definite iff $f(V \setminus \{0\}) \subseteq \mathbb{R}_{>0}$.

16 Claim. Any quadratic form on an \mathbb{R} -vector-space V defines a *unique symmetric* bilinear form.

Proof. Let $f : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be any quadratic form. Define $C_f : V^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ via

$$C_f(v_1, v_2) := \frac{1}{2}(B_f(v_1, v_2) + B_f(v_2, v_1))$$

where B_f is the bilinear form guaranteed by the definition of f as a quadratic form. By construction, C_f is symmetric, and note that is is also \mathbb{R} -linear in both its entries, and hence a symmetric bilinear form.

We find that

$$\begin{aligned} f(v) &= B_f(v, v) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(B_f(v, v) + B_f(v, v)) \\ &\equiv C_f(v, v) \end{aligned}$$

Uniqueness follows by the polarization identity: Let $\tilde{C}_f : V^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by any

other symmetric bilinear form such that $f = \tilde{C}_f \circ \Delta$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \tilde{C}_f(v_1, v_2) &= \frac{1}{4} \left[\tilde{C}_f(v_1, v_1) + \tilde{C}_f(v_2, v_1) + \tilde{C}_f(v_1, v_2) + \tilde{C}_f(v_2, v_2) \right] \\
 &\quad - \frac{1}{4} \left[\tilde{C}_f(v_1, v_1) - \tilde{C}_f(v_2, v_1) - \tilde{C}_f(v_1, v_2) + \tilde{C}_f(v_2, v_2) \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} \left[\tilde{C}_f(v_1 + v_2, v_1 + v_2) - \tilde{C}_f(v_1 - v_2, v_1 - v_2) \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} [f(v_1 + v_2) - f(v_1 - v_2)] \\
 &\quad \text{(By the same calculation in reverse using } C_f) \\
 &= C_f(v_1, v_2)
 \end{aligned}$$

□

3 Appendix: The Cholesky Decomposition

17 Claim. Iff $A \in \text{Mat}_{N \times N}(\mathbb{C})$ is Hermitian and positive definite then there exists some $L \in \text{Mat}_{N \times N}(\mathbb{C})$ such that $A = L^*L$.

Proof. See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cholesky_decomposition. □

18 Remark. This is the analog of the theorem in C-star algebras that says that an element a is positive (that is, $\sigma(a) \subseteq [0, \infty)$ and self-adjoint) iff it can be written as $a = b^*b$ for some other element b .