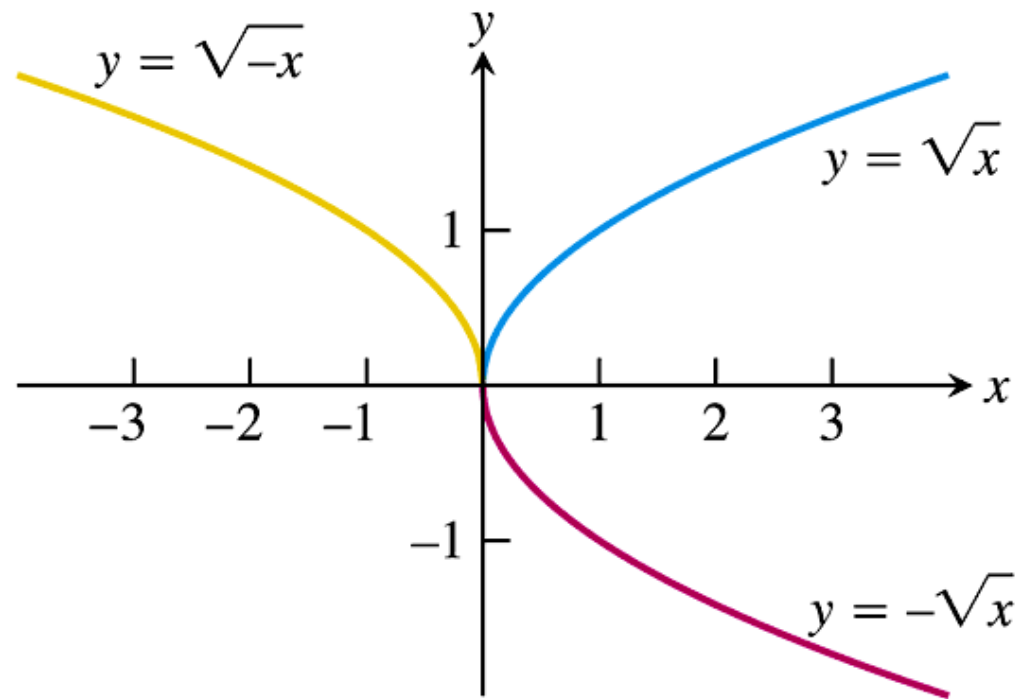
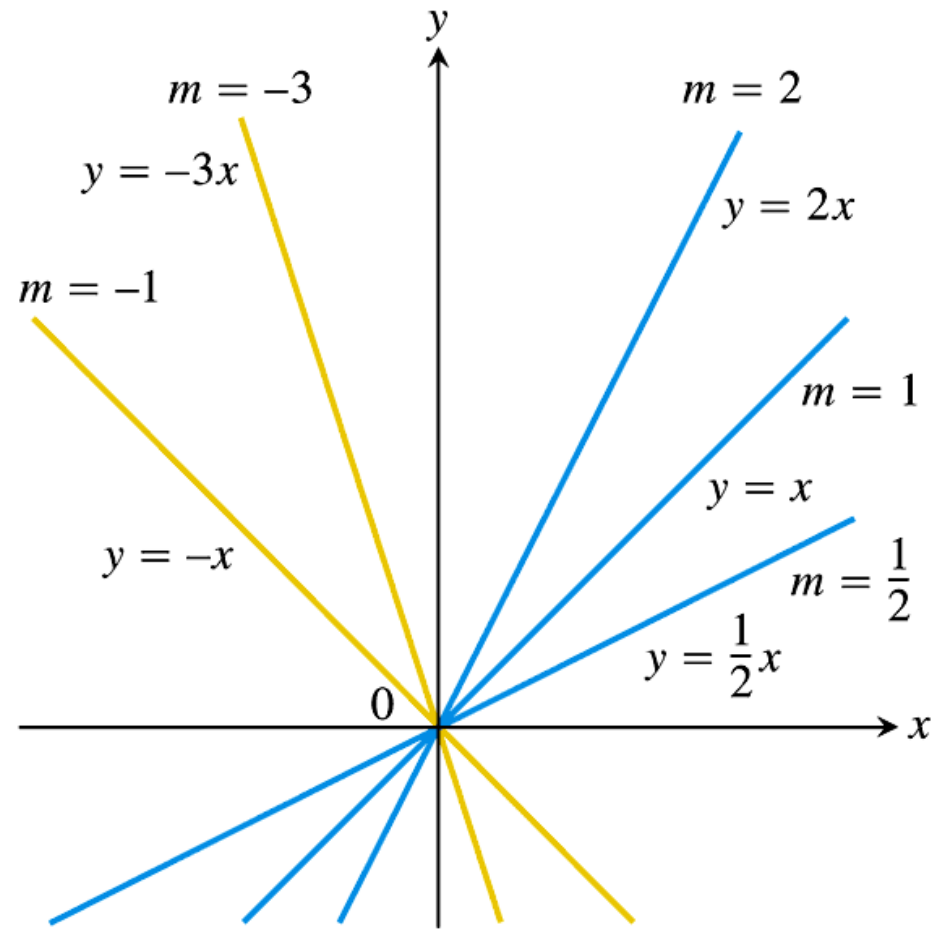


# Chapter 2

Displaying and customizing various kinds of plot;  
Basic animation



**FIGURE 1.59** Reflections of the graph  $y = \sqrt{x}$  across the coordinate axes (Example 5c).



**FIGURE 1.34** The collection of lines  $y = mx$  has slope  $m$  and all lines pass through the origin.

# Plot a few functions on the same graph

- Reproduce the previous plots using Mathematica
- Syntax required:
- **f[x\_]:=; Plot; List;**
- To customize the plots:
- **PlotRange;PlotStyle;AxesLabel;PlotLabel; PlotLegend**

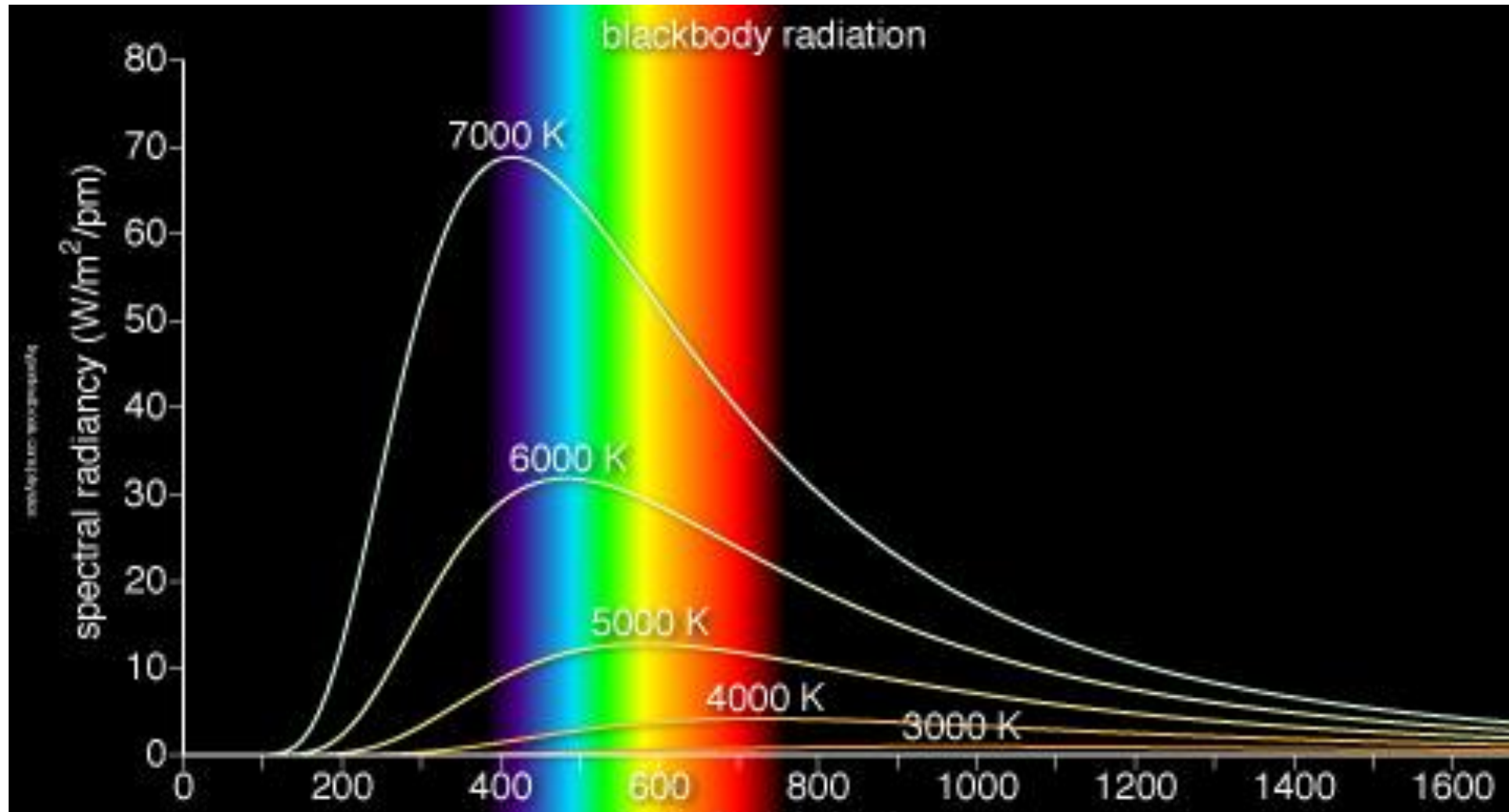
See sample code: [C2\\_plotfunctions.nb](#)

# Another example of customizing a function plot

Black Body Radiation: a function of several variables

# Black Body Radiation

$$R(\lambda, T) = \frac{2\pi h c^2}{\lambda^5 (e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1)}$$



# Exercise

- Plot Planck's law of black body radiation for various temperatures on the same graph by defining  $R$  as a function of two variables.
- Define function of two variables: 
$$R(\lambda, T) = \frac{2\pi h c^2}{\lambda^5 (e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1)}$$
- $h, c, T,$  are constants

# Plotting a sum of terms

Instead of an explicit function (as done previously), we plot a series, which is a 'function' comprised of the sum of many terms with specified coefficients.

# Generating a series using `Sum[]`

- The function  $f(x, N_0) = \sum_{n=1}^{n=N_0} x^n$  can be expressed in Mathematica as

**`f[x_,N0_] := Sum[x^n, {n,1,N0}]`**

- Use these to numerically verify that the infinite series representation of a function converges into the generating function.



**EXAMPLE 4** Applying Term-by-Term Differentiation

Find series for  $f'(x)$  and  $f''(x)$  if

$$\begin{aligned}f(x) &= \frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \cdots + x^n + \cdots \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n, \quad -1 < x < 1\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 6** A Series for  $\ln(1+x)$ ,  $-1 < x \leq 1$ 

The series

$$\frac{1}{1+t} = 1 - t + t^2 - t^3 + \cdots$$

converges on the open interval  $-1 < t < 1$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\ln(1+x) &= \int_0^x \frac{1}{1+t} dt = \left[ t - \frac{t^2}{2} + \frac{t^3}{3} - \frac{t^4}{4} + \cdots \right]_0^x \\ &= x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \cdots; \quad -1 < x < 1.\end{aligned}$$

# Mathematica sample codes

$$f(x)=1/(1-x)$$

$$f(x)=1/(1+x)$$

Show that the power series representations converge to the generating functions within the radius of convergence.

## Example 2 Finding Taylor polynomial for $e^x$ at $x = 0$

$$f(x) = e^x \rightarrow f^{(n)}(x) = e^x$$

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{k=n} \frac{f^{(k)}(x)}{k!} \Big|_{x=0} x^k = \frac{e^0}{0!} x^0 + \frac{e^0}{1!} x^1 + \frac{e^0}{2!} x^2 + \frac{e^0}{3!} x^3 + \dots \frac{e^0}{n!} x^n$$

$$= 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots \frac{x^n}{n!} \quad \text{This is the Taylor polynomial of order } n \text{ for } e^x$$

If the limit  $n \rightarrow \infty$  is taken,  $P_n(x) \rightarrow$  Taylor series.

$$\text{The Taylor series for } e^x \text{ is } 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots \frac{x^n}{n!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!},$$

In this special case, the Taylor series for  $e^x$  converges to  $e^x$  for all  $x$ .

# Mathematica sample codes

$$f(x)=\exp (x)$$

Show that the Taylor series representations of  $e^x$  at  $x = 0$  converge to the generating functions for all values of  $x$

# Application to selected physical systems

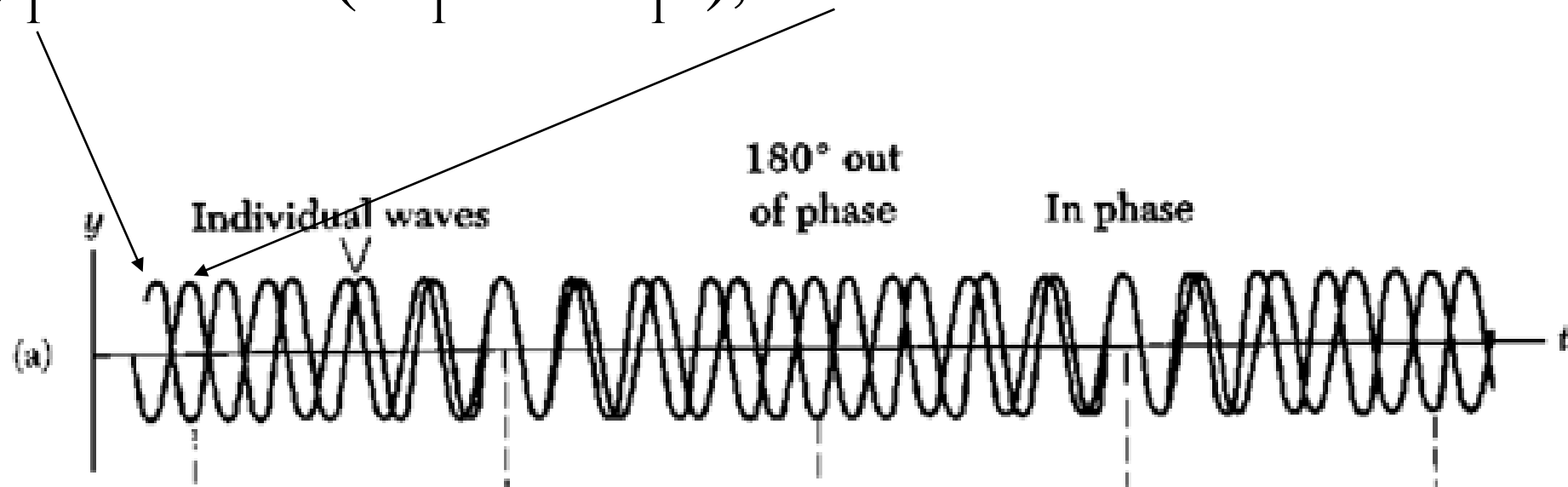
## Visualisation of

- wave and wave pulse propagation
- Geometrical optics: Ray-tracing of lens
- 2D projectile motion
- Circular motion
- Elliptic motion
- Simple harmonic motion

# Constructing wave pulse

- Two pure waves with slight difference in frequency and wave number  $\Delta\omega = \omega_1 - \omega_2$ ,  $\Delta k = k_1 - k_2$ , are superimposed

$$y_1 = A \cos(k_1 x - \omega_1 t); \quad y_2 = A \cos(k_2 x - \omega_2 t)$$

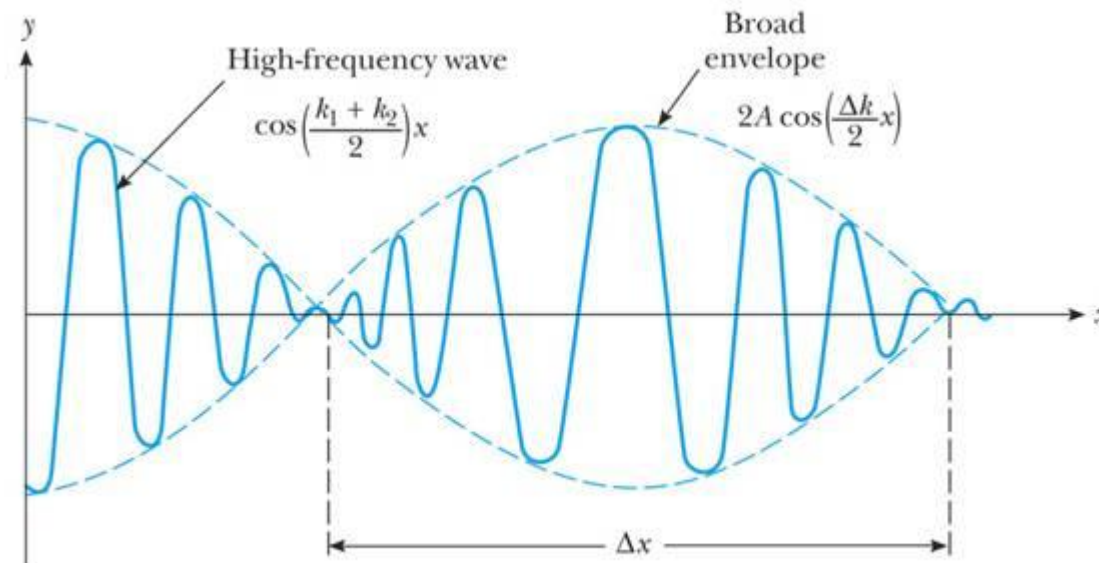


# Envelop wave and phase wave

The resultant wave is a 'wave group' comprise of an 'envelop' (or the group wave) and a phase waves

$$y = y_1 + y_2$$

$$= 2A \cos \frac{1}{2} (\{k_2 - k_1\}x - \{\omega_2 - \omega_1\}t) \cdot \cos \left\{ \left( \frac{k_2 + k_1}{2} \right) x - \left( \frac{\omega_2 + \omega_1}{2} \right) t \right\}$$

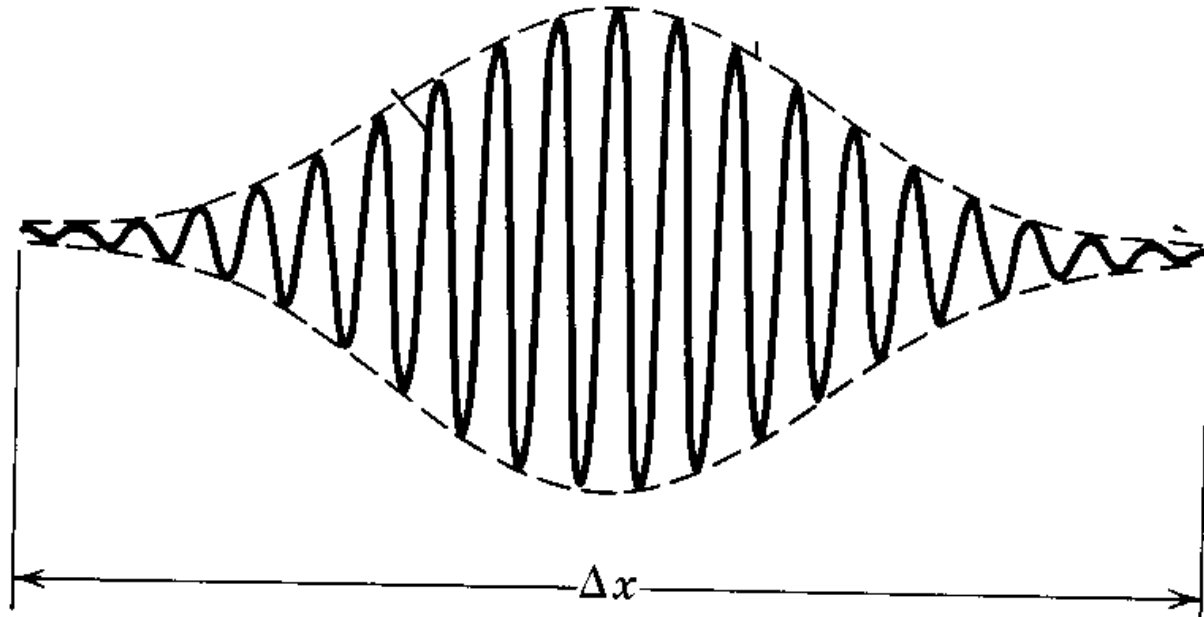


# Wave pulse – an even more ‘localised’ wave

- In the previous example, we add up only two slightly different wave to form a train of wave group
- An even more ‘localised’ group wave – what we call a “*wavepulse*” can be constructed by adding more sine waves of different numbers  $k_i$  and possibly different amplitudes so that they interfere constructively over a small region  $\Delta x$  and outside this region they interfere destructively so that the resultant field approach zero
- Mathematically,

$$y_{\text{wave pulse}} = \sum_i^{\infty} A_i \cos(k_i x - \omega_i t)$$





A wavepulse – the wave is well localised within  $\Delta x$ . This is done by adding a lot of waves with their wave parameters  $\{A_i, k_i, \omega_i\}$  slightly differ from each other ( $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$  as many as it can)

# Exercise: Simulating wave group and wave pulse

- Construct a code to add  $n$  waves, each with an angular frequency  $\omega_i$  and wave number  $k_i$  into a wave pulse for a fixed  $t$ .
- Display the wave pulse for  $t=t_0, t=t_1, \dots, t=t_n$ .
- Syntax: **Manipulate**
- Sample code: [C2 wavepulse.nb](#)

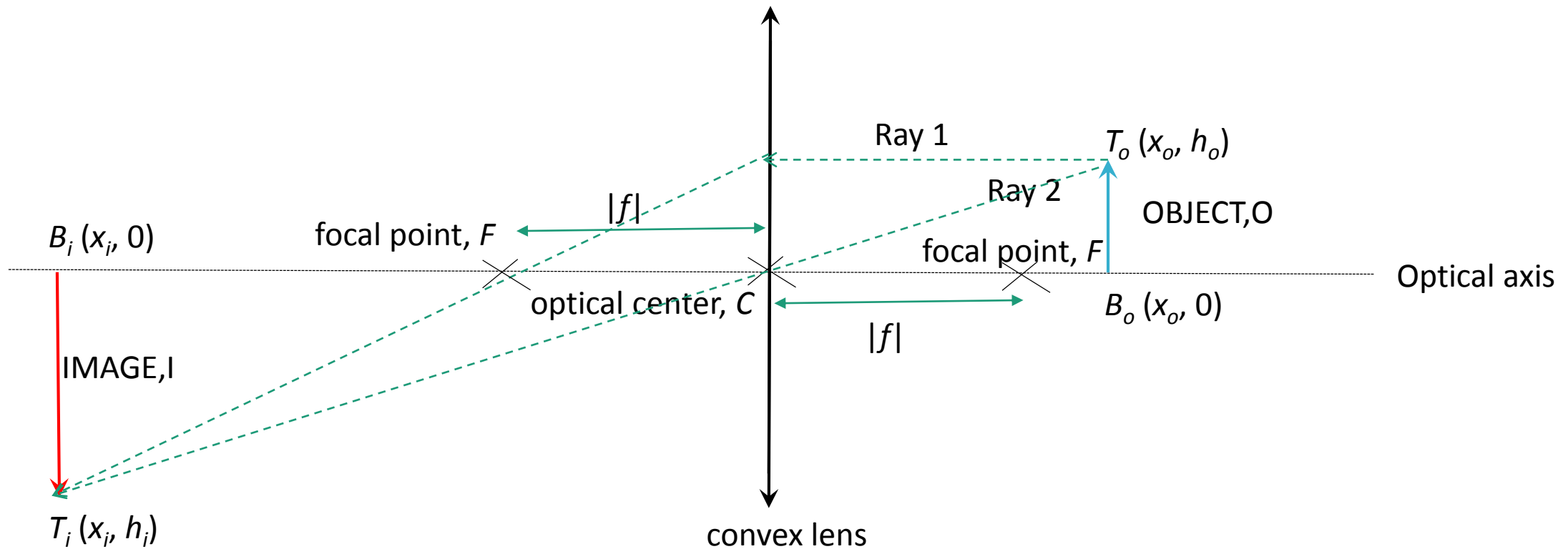
# Ray-tracing of concave and convex lens

Using **Graphics[Points, Lines]** to  
calculate and visualize the image formed by an object in a concave or  
convex lens

# Image formation by a convex lens

- An object with a size  $h_o$  placed a distance  $x_o$  from the center  $C$  of a convex lens (with focal length  $f > 0$ ) will form an image with size  $h_i$  at a distance  $x_i$  from  $C$ .
- The image can be magnified/diminished, virtual/real or inverted/erect.

# Formation of a real, inverted and magnified image in a convex lens by an erected object



# Inverted and erected image

- Assume the object is erect, with its tip located at a point  $T_o(x_o, h_o)$  above the optical axis, and its base  $B_o(x_o, 0)$  located on the optical axis.
- The image in a convex lens can be inverted or erect.
- The image is said to be inverted if its tip  $T_i(x_i, h_i)$  is on the opposite side as that of the object's tip, with the base of the object  $B_i(x_i, 0)$  located on the optical axis.

# Real and virtual image

- If the image is on the same side as that of the object, the image is virtual
- Otherwise, it is real.

# Magnification

- Magnification of the image is given by  $m = \frac{|h_i|}{|h_o|}$ .
- If  $|m| > 1$ , image is magnified;  $|m| < 1$ , image is diminished.



# Formation of image in a convex lens via geometrical ray tracing

- A ray from the tip of object parallel to optical axis (Ray 1) shall go through the focal point on the other side of the lens
- A ray from the tip of the object (Ray 2) shall pass through the lens center  $C$  in a straight line.
- The intersection of both rays is the location of the tip of image.

# Examples of image formation by a convex lens

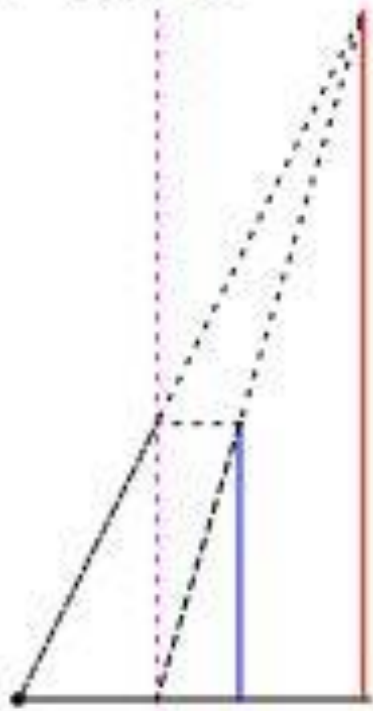
$$u = 0.3$$

$$f = 0.5, \text{ Concave}$$

$$v = -0.75, \text{ Virtual}$$

$$\text{magnification} = 2.5, \text{ Erect}$$

$$\text{FP} = \{-0.5, 0\}$$



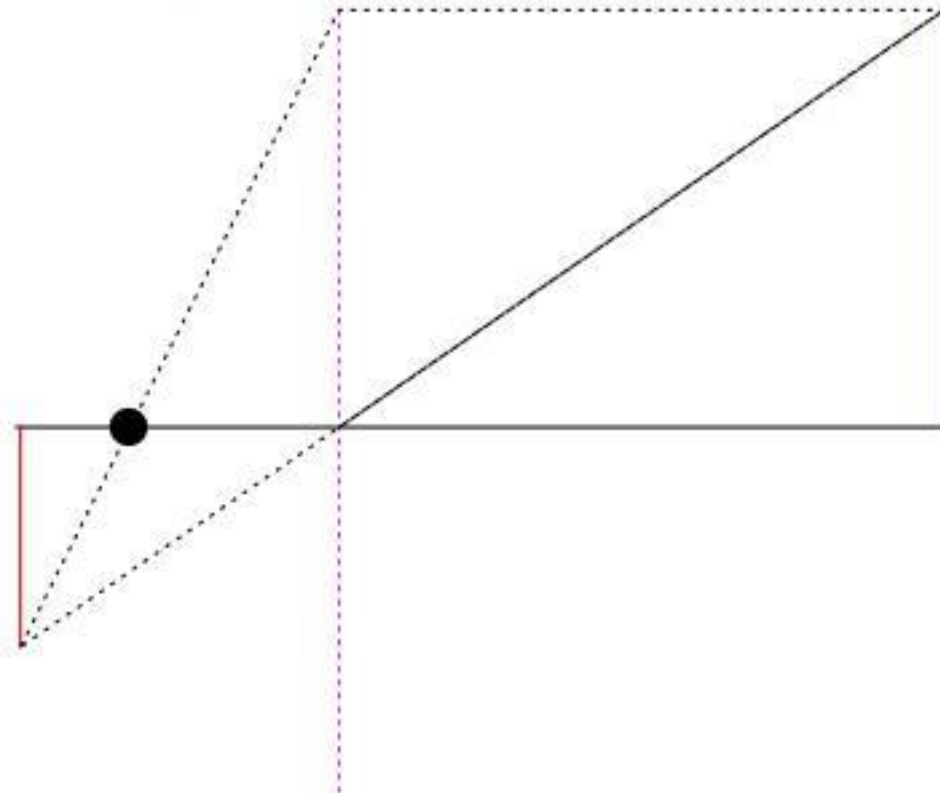
$$u = 1.45$$

$$f = 0.5, \text{ Concave}$$

$$v = 0.763158, \text{ Real}$$

$$\text{magnification} = -0.526316, \text{ Inverted}$$

$$\text{FP} = \{-0.5, 0\}$$



# The coordinates of the image tip $T_i(x_i, h_i)$

- The coordinates of the image tip  $T_i(x_i, h_i)$  can be obtained by solving the simultaneous equations of Ray1 and Ray2.

- Ray1:  $y_1 = \frac{h_0}{f} x + h_0$

- Ray2:  $y_2 = \frac{h_0}{x_0} x$

- Solving  $y_1 = y_2$ ,

$$x_i = \frac{x_0 f}{f - x_0}, h_i = \frac{h_0 f}{f - x_0}$$

# Coding exercise for convex lens

Develop a code that reads in supplied values of  $f$  of a convex lens,  $h_o$ ,  $x_o$  of an object and does the following:

- visualise the set-up, display the object, image, lens, focal point and optical axis graphically.
- form the image of the object via the geometrical ray tracing method.
- Visualise your output for  $x_o$  varies from  $0.2f$  till  $3f$  at an interval of  $0.1f$ .

# Syntax:

- **Graphics**
- **Point[{P1,P2,P3,...}]**
- **PointSize**
- **Lines[{P1,P2,P3,...}]**
- **Color**
- **Dotted**
- **PlotLabel**
- **Column**

[Sample code: C2 ray tracing of convex lens.nb](#)

# Parametric equations for circular motion

- The parametric equations for the  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates of an object executing circular motion are given by

$$x(t) = h + R\cos(\omega_0 t), y(t) = k + R\sin(\omega_0 t)$$

- $C(h,k)$  center of the circle;  $R$  radius;  $t$  parameters. For a complete circle,  $t$  varies from  $t=0$  to  $t=T$ ,  $T$  = period of the circular motion, with  $\omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{T}$  the angular frequency.
- Eliminating the parameter  $t$  from the parametric equations, the ordinary-looking equation for a circle is deduced:

$$\left(\frac{x-h}{R}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y-k}{R}\right)^2 = 1$$

# Visualising a circle via `ParametricPlot[]`

- The trajectory can be plotted using **`ParametricPlot`**.
- You can combine few plots using **`Show[]`** command.
- [See sample code: C2\\_circular.nb](#)

# 2D projectile motion

(recall your Mechanics class)

- The trajectory of a 2D projectile with initial location  $(x_0, y_0)$ , speed  $v_0$  and launching angle  $\theta$  are given by the equations:
- $x(t) = x_0 + v_0 t \cos \theta$ ;  $y(t) = y_0 + v_0 t \sin \theta + \frac{g}{2} t^2$ , for  $t$  from 0 till  $T$ , defined as the time of flight,  $T = -2(y_0 + v_0 \sin \theta) / g$ .
- $g = -9.81$ ;



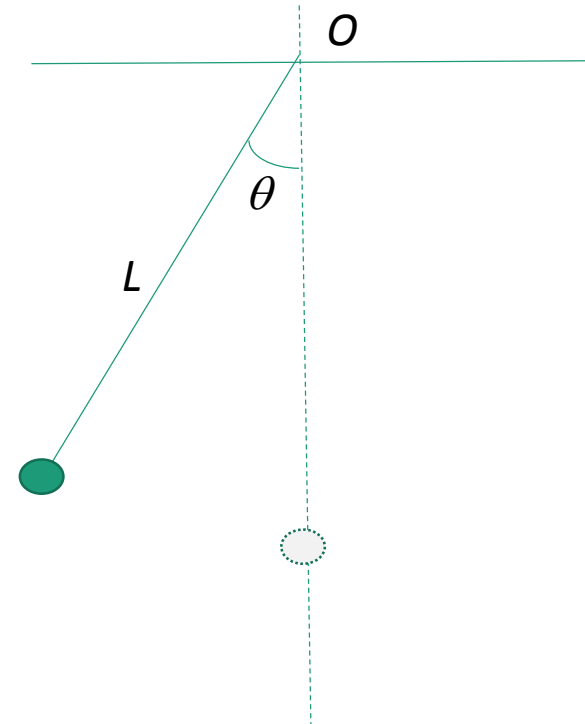
# 2D projectile motion

- Plot the trajectories of a 2D projectile launched with a common initial speed but at different angles
- Plot the trajectories of a 2D projectile launched with a common angle but different initial speed.
- Sample code: [C2\\_2Dprojectile.nb](#)
- For a fixed  $v_0$  and  $\theta$ , how would you determine the maximum height numerically (not using formula)?

# Exercise: Simulating SHM

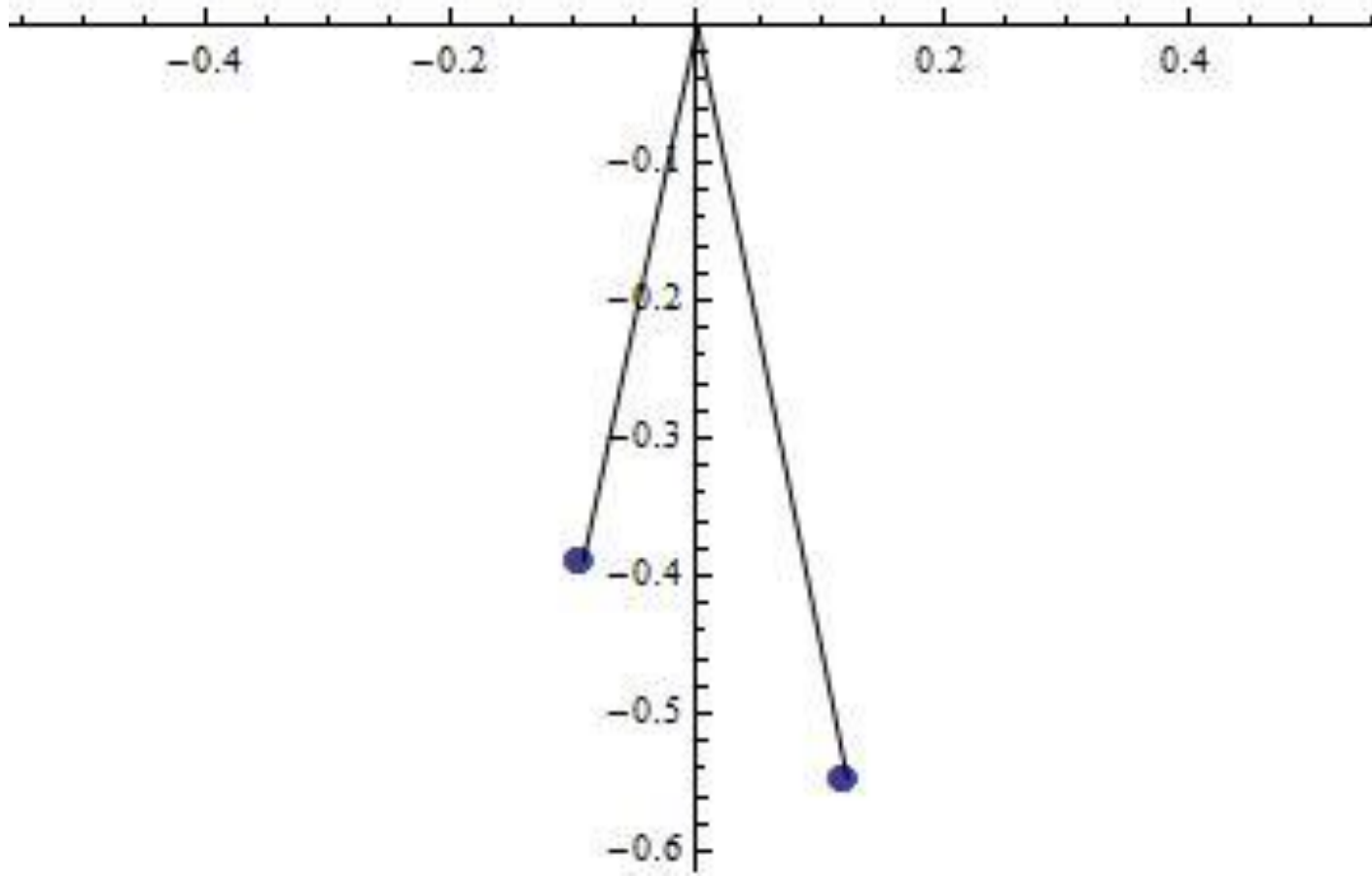
- A pendulum executing simple harmonic motion (SHM) with length  $L$ , released at rest from initial angular displacement  $\theta_0$ , is described by the following equations:  $\theta(t) = \theta_0 \cos \omega_0 t$ ,  $\omega_0 = \sqrt{\frac{g}{L}}$ . The period  $T$  of the SHM is given by  $T = 2\pi / \omega_0$ .
- Simulate the SHM using **Manipulate[]**
- Hint: you must think properly how to specify the time-varying positions of the pendulum, i.e.,  $(x(t), y(t))$ .

See [C2\\_simulate\\_pendulum.nb](#)

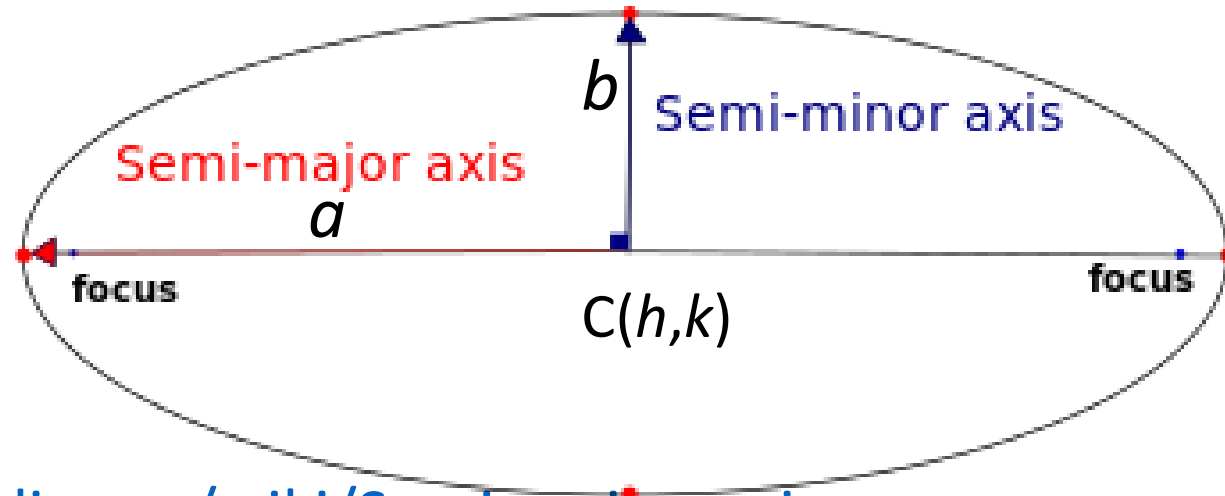


# Exercise: Simulating SHM

- Simulate two SHMs with different lengths  $L_1$ ,  $L_2$ :
- Plot the phase difference between them as a function of time.

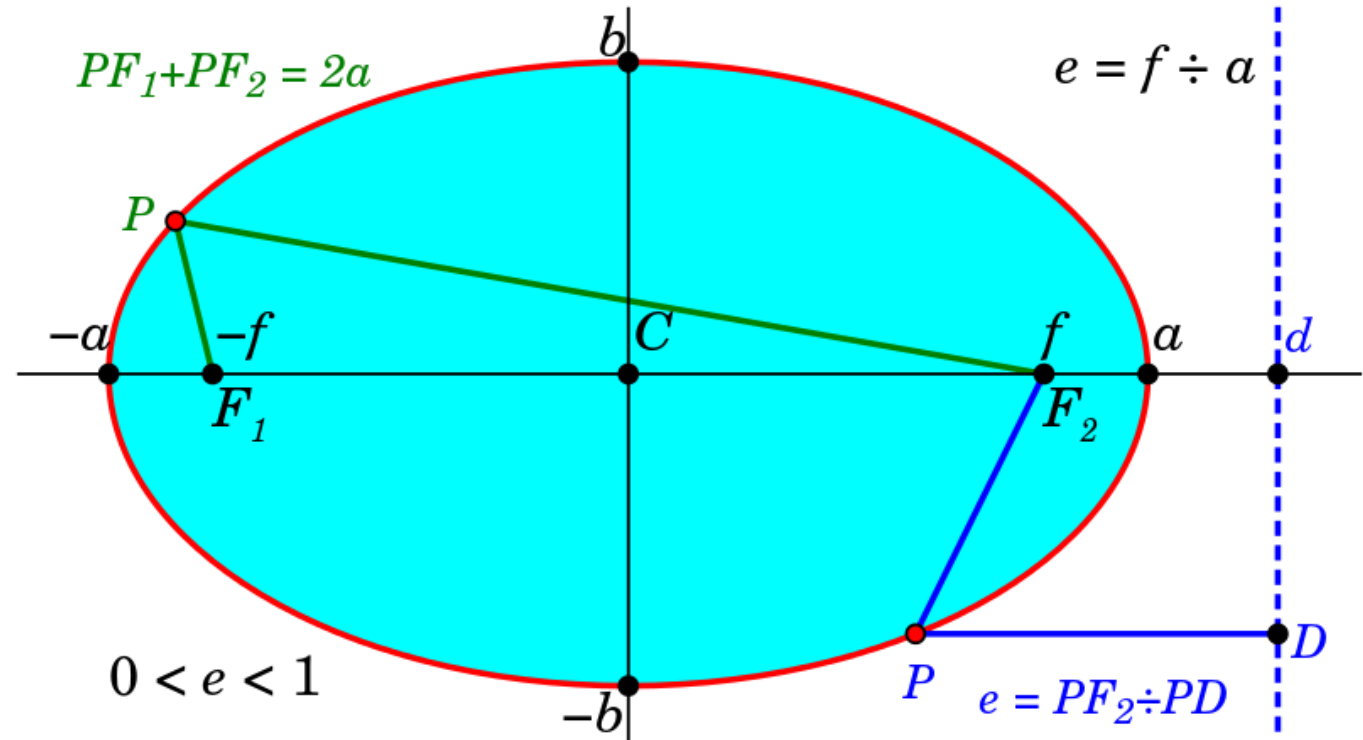


# Ellipse



- [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Semi-major\\_axis](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Semi-major_axis)
- In [geometry](#), the **major axis** of an [ellipse](#) is its longest diameter: [line segment](#) that runs through the center and both [foci](#), with ends at the widest points of the [perimeter](#). The **semi-major axis**,  $a$ , is one half of the major axis, and thus runs from the centre, through a [focus](#), and to the perimeter. Essentially, it is the radius of an orbit at the orbit's two most distant points. For the special case of a circle, the semi-major axis is the radius. One can think of the semi-major axis as an ellipse's *long radius*.

# Geometry of an ellipse



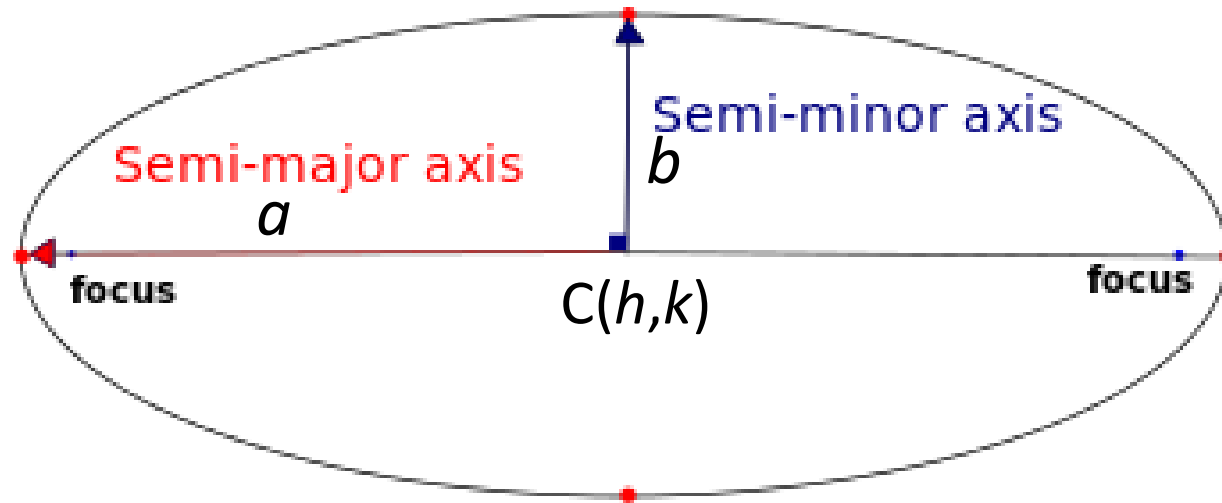
The distance to the focal point from the center of the ellipse is sometimes called the **linear eccentricity**,  $f$ , of the ellipse.

In terms of semi-major and semi-minor,  $f^2 = a^2 - b^2$ .

$e$  is the **eccentricity** of an ellipse is the ratio of the distance between the two foci, to the length of the major axis or  $e = 2f/2a = f/a$ .

Semimajor and semiminor is related by  $e$  via  $b = \sqrt{1 - e^2}$

# Elliptic orbit of a planet around the Sun



- Consider a planet orbiting the Sun which is located at one of the foci of the ellipse.
- The coordinates of the planet at time  $t$  can be expressed in parametrised form:

$$x(t) = h + a\cos(\omega_0 t), y(t) = k + b\sin(\omega_0 t)$$

# Elliptic orbit of a planet around the Sun

- Or equivalently,

$$\left(\frac{x-h}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y-k}{b}\right)^2 = 1$$

where  $x, y$  are the coordinates of any point on the ellipse at time  $t$ ,  $a, b$  are semi-major and semi-minor.

- $C(h,k)$  are the coordinates of the ellipse's center.
- $\omega_0$  is the angular speed (a constant) of the planet.  $\omega_0$  is related to the period  $T$  of the planet via  $T=2\pi / \omega_0$
- Note that an ellipse is just a generalization of a circle with its radius now replaced by a semimajor  $a$  and a semmiinor  $b$ .
- The period  $T$  is related to the parameters of the planetary system via  $T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{a^3}{GM}}$ , where  $M$  is the mass of the Sun.

# Exercise: Generate an ellipse using `ParametricPlot[]` and `Show[]`

- Display the parametric plot for an ellipse with your choice of  $h$ ,  $k$ ,  $a$ ,  $b$ .
- Mark also the foci and the center  $C(h,k)$  in your plot.
- See sample code: [C2 ParametricPlot ellipse.nb](#)
- Modify the simple code to also mark the major and minor axes in your plot.
- How would you simulate a point going around the ellipse as time advances?



# Simulation of three-body Sun-Planet-Moon

- At this point of time, you should be able to perform a simulation of three-body Sun-Planet-Moon system.

# Manipulate List (Array) for measuring a two-body planetary system

- Simulation of the two-body Sun-Earth system using **Graphics[]** and **Points[]** is good for visual display purpose.
- How to perform numerical measurement on the system, e.g., the distance and speed of the planet as a function of time.
- As an illustration, let's measure the distance of the Earth from the Sun, and the speed of the Earth, both as a function of time.
- See sample code: [C2 measure EarthMoon.nb](#)