SEISMOLOGY I

Laurea Magistralis in Physics of the Earth and of the Environment

Towards wave equation...

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What is a wave? - 2



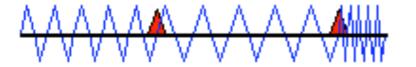
Small perturbations of a stable equilibrium point

Linear restoring force

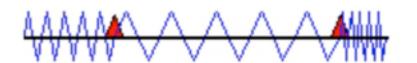
Harmonic
Oscillation

Coupling of harmonic oscillators

the disturbances can propagate, superpose and stand





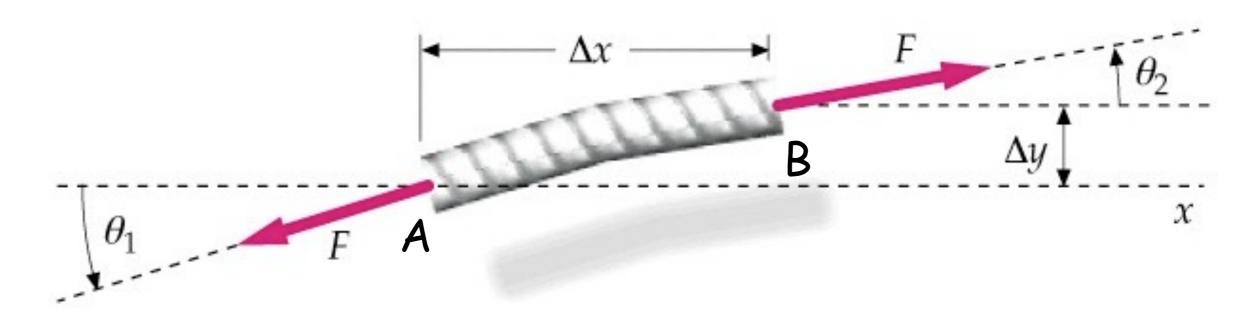


Normal modes of the system



Derivation of the wave equation





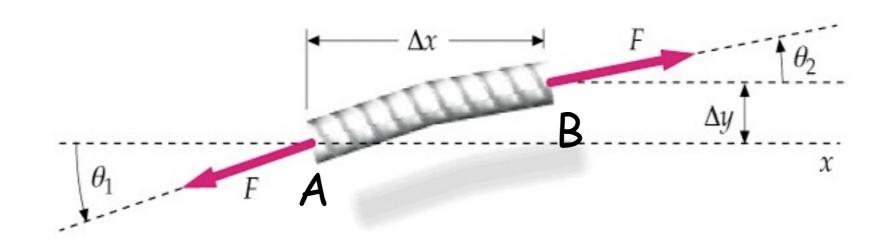
Consider a small segment of string of length Δx and tension F

The ends of the string make **small** angles θ_1 and θ_2 with the x-axis.

The vertical displacement Δy is very **small** compared to the length of the string







Resolving forces vertically

From small angle approximation $sin\theta \sim tan\theta$

$$\sum F_{y} = F \sin \theta_{2} - F \sin \theta_{1}$$
$$= F (\sin \theta_{2} - \sin \theta_{1})$$

$$\sum F_y \approx F(\tan \theta_2 - \tan \theta_1)$$

The tangent of angle A (B) = pendence of the curve in A (B) given by $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$





$$\therefore \quad \sum F_{y} \approx F\left(\left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_{B} - \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_{A}\right)$$

We now apply N2 to segment

$$\sum F_{y} = ma = \mu \Delta x \left(\frac{\partial^{2} y}{\partial t^{2}} \right)$$

$$\mu \Delta \mathbf{x} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{t}^2} \right) = \mathbf{F} \left(\left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \right)_{\mathbf{B}} - \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \right)_{\mathbf{A}} \right)$$

$$\frac{\mu}{F} \left(\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2} \right) = \frac{\left[\left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \right)_B - \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \right)_A \right]}{\Delta x}$$





$$\frac{\mu}{F} \left(\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2} \right) = \frac{\left[\left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \right)_B - \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \right)_A \right]}{\Delta x}$$

The derivative of a function is defined as

$$\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right) = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{\left[f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)\right]}{\Delta x}$$

If we associate $f(x+\Delta x)$ with $(\partial y/\partial x)_B$ and f(x) with $(\partial y/\partial x)_A$

as
$$\Delta x \rightarrow 0$$

$$\frac{\mu}{\mathsf{F}} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \mathsf{y}}{\partial \mathsf{t}^2} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 \mathsf{y}}{\partial \mathsf{x}^2}$$

This is the linear wave equation for waves on a string



Solution of the wave equation



Consider a wavefunction of the form $y(x,t) = A \sin(kx - \omega t)$

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2} = -\omega^2 A \sin(kx - \omega t) \qquad \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = -k^2 A \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

If we substitute these into the linear wave equation

$$\frac{\mu}{F} \left(-\omega^2 A \sin(kx - \omega t) \right) = -k^2 A \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

$$\frac{\mu}{F} \omega^2 = k^2$$

Using
$$v = \omega/k$$
, $v^2 = \omega^2/k^2 = F/\mu$

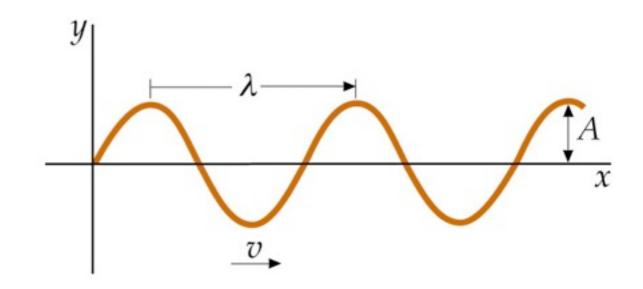


Harmonic Waves



A harmonic wave is sinusoidal in shape, and has a displacement y at time t=0

$$y = A \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}x\right)$$



A is the amplitude of the wave and λ is the wavelength (the distance between two crests)

if the wave is moving to the right with speed (or phase velocity) v, the wavefunction at some t is given by

$$y = A \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}(x - vt)\right)$$





Time taken to travel one wavelength is the period T

Phase velocity, wavelength and period are related by

$$v = \frac{\lambda}{T}$$
 or $\lambda = vT$

$$\therefore y = A \sin \left[2\pi \left(\frac{x}{\lambda} - \frac{\dagger}{T} \right) \right]$$

The wavefunction shows the periodic nature of y: at any time t y has the same value at x, $x+\lambda$, $x+2\lambda$ and at any x y has the same value at times t, t+T, t+2T......





It is convenient to express the harmonic wavefunction by defining the wavenumber k, and the angular frequency ω

where
$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$
 and $\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T}$

$$\therefore y = A \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

This assumes that the displacement is zero at x=0 and t=0. If this is not the case we can use a more general form

$$y = A \sin(kx - \omega t - \phi)$$

where ϕ is the phase constant and is determined from initial conditions





The wavefunction can be used to describe the motion of any point P.

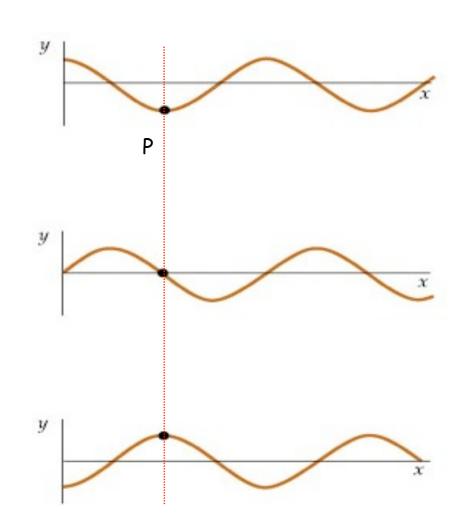
If
$$y = A \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

Transverse velocity v_y

$$v_{y} = \frac{dy}{dt}\Big|_{x=cons tan t}$$

$$= \frac{\partial y}{\partial t}$$

$$= -\omega A cos(kx - \omega t)$$



which has a maximum value

$$(v_y)_{max} = \omega A$$
 when $y = 0$



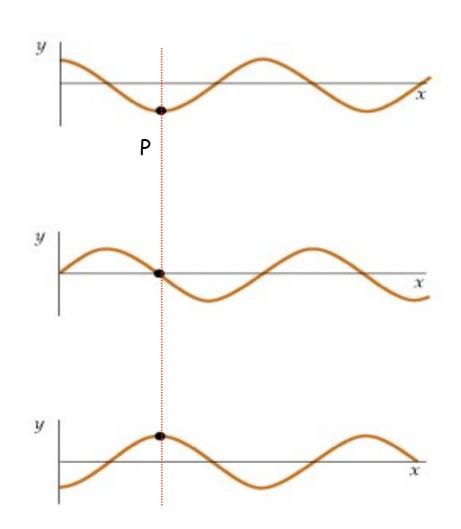


Transverse acceleration ay

$$a_y = \frac{dv_y}{dt}\Big|_{x=constant}$$

$$= \frac{\partial \mathbf{v_y}}{\partial \mathbf{t}}$$

$$= -\omega^2 A \sin(kx - \omega t)$$



which has a maximum value

$$(a_y)_{max} = \omega^2 A$$
 when $y = -A$

NB: x-coordinates of P are constant

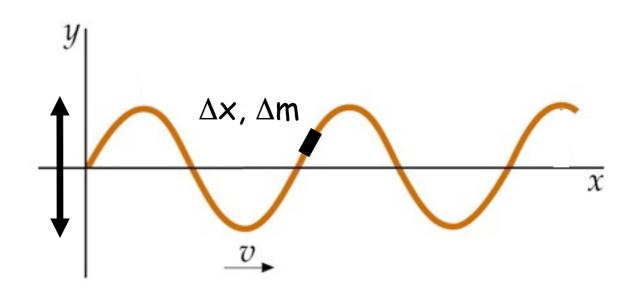


Energy of waves on a string



Consider a harmonic wave travelling on a string.

Source of energy is an external agent on the left of the wave which does work in producing oscillations.



Consider a small segment, length Δx and mass Δm .

The segment moves vertically with SHM, frequency ω and amplitude A.

Generally
$$E = \frac{1}{2}kA^2 = \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2A^2$$

(where k is the force constant of the restoring force)





$$E = \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2 A^2$$

If we apply this to our small segment, the total energy of the element is

 $\Delta E = \frac{1}{2} (\Delta m) \omega^2 A^2$

If μ is the mass per unit length, then the element Δx has mass Δm = μ Δx

 $\Delta E = \frac{1}{2} (\mu \Delta x) \omega^2 A^2$

If the wave is travelling from left to right, the energy ΔE arises from the work done on element Δm_i by the element Δm_{i-1} (to the left).





Similarly Δm_i does work on element Δm_{i+1} (to the right) ie. energy is transmitted to the right.

The rate at which energy is transmitted along the string is the power and is given by dE/dt.

If $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ then

Power =
$$\frac{dE}{dt}$$
 = $\frac{1}{2}(\mu \frac{dx}{dt})\omega^2 A^2$

but dx/dt = speed

$$\therefore \text{ Power } = \frac{1}{2}\mu \omega^2 A^2 v$$





Power =
$$\frac{1}{2}\mu \omega^2 A^2 v$$

Power transmitted on a harmonic wave is proportional to

- (a) the wave speed v
- (b) the square of the angular frequency ω
- (c) the square of the amplitude A

All harmonic waves have the following general properties:

The power transmitted by any harmonic wave is proportional to the square of the frequency and to the square of the amplitude.



What is a wave? - 3



Small perturbations of a stable equilibrium point

Linear restoring force

—— Harmonic Oscillation

Coupling of harmonic oscillators

the disturbances can **propagate**, superpose and stand

WAVE: organized propagating imbalance, satisfying differential equations of motion

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}$$

General form of LWE



Towards sound wave equation...



Consider a source causing a perturbation in the gas medium rapid enough to cause a pressure variation and not a simple molecular flux.

The regions where compression (or rarefaction), and thus the density variation of the gas, occurs are big compared to the mean free path (average distance that gas molcules travel without collisions).

The perturbation fronts are planes and the displacement induced in the gas, X, depends only on x & t (and not on y, z).





The conventional unit for pressure is bar= $10^5 N/m^2$ and the pressure at the equilibrium is: 1atm=1.0133bar

The pressure perturbations associated to the sound wave passage are tipically of the order of 10^{-7} bar, thus very small if compared to the value of pressure at the equlibrium.

One can thus assume that:

$$P=P_0+\Delta P$$
 $\rho=\rho_0+\Delta \rho$

where ΔP and $\Delta \rho$ are the values of the (small) perturbations of the pressure and density from the equlibrium.

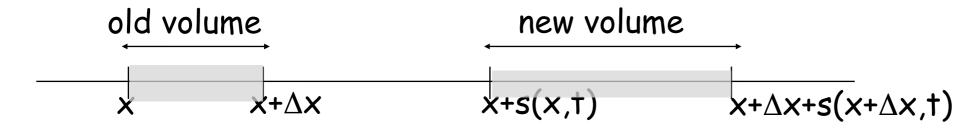


Sound wave equation - 1



The gas moves and causes density variations

Let us consider the displacement field, s(x,t) induced by sound



and considering a unitary area perpendicular to x, direction of propagation, one has that the quantity of gas enclosed in the old and new volume is the same

$$\rho_0 \Delta x = \rho \left[x + \Delta x + s(x + \Delta x) - x - s(x) \right]$$

where, since Δx is small, $s(x + \Delta x) \approx s(x) + \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} \Delta x$

$$\rho_0 \Delta \mathbf{x} = (\rho_0 + \Delta \rho) \left[\Delta \mathbf{x} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \Delta \mathbf{x} \right] = \rho_0 \Delta \mathbf{x} + \rho_0 \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \Delta \mathbf{x} + \Delta \rho \Delta \mathbf{x} + \dots$$





thus, neglecting the second-order term, one has:

$$\Delta \rho = -\rho_0 \frac{\partial S}{\partial x}$$

relation between the variation of displacement along x with the density variation. The minus sign is due to the fact that, if the variation is positive the volume increases and the density decreases.

If the displacement field is constant the gas is simply translated without perturbation.



Sound wave equation - 2



Density variations cause pressure variations

The pressure in the medium is related to density with a relationship of the kind $P=f(\rho)$, that at the equilibrium is $P_0=f(\rho_0)$.

$$P = P_0 + \Delta P = f(\rho) = f(\rho_0 + \Delta \rho) \approx f(\rho_0) + \Delta \rho f'(\rho_0) = P_0 + \Delta \rho \kappa$$

and neglecting second-order terms:

$$\Delta P = \kappa \Delta \rho$$

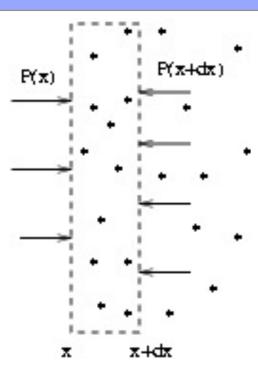
$$\kappa = f'(\rho_0) = \left(\frac{dP}{d\rho}\right)_0$$



Sound wave equation - 3



Pressure variations generate gas motion



The gas in the volume is accelerated by the different pressure exerted on the two sides...

$$P(x,t) - P(x + \Delta x, t) \approx -\frac{\partial P}{\partial x} \Delta x = -\frac{\partial (P_0 + \Delta P)}{\partial x} \Delta x = -\frac{\partial \Delta P}{\partial x} \Delta x$$
$$= \rho_0 \Delta x \frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial t^2} \quad \text{for Newton's 2nd law}$$

thus:

$$\rho_0 \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial t^2} = -\frac{\partial \Delta P}{\partial x}$$



Sound wave equation



Using 1, 2 and 3 we have

$$\rho_0 \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial t^2} = -\frac{\partial \Delta P}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial \left(\kappa \Delta \rho\right)}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial \left[\kappa \left(-\rho_0 \frac{\partial s}{\partial x}\right)\right]}{\partial x}$$

thus:

$$\frac{1}{\kappa} \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial t^2} = \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial x^2}$$

i.e. the typical wave equation, describing a perturbation traveling with velocity $v = \sqrt{\kappa}$



Sound wave velocity - isothermal



From the sound wave equation

$$v = \sqrt{\kappa} = \sqrt{\frac{dP}{d\rho}_0}$$

Newton computed the derivative of the pressure assuming that the heat is moving from one to another region in a such rapid way that the temperature cannot vary - isotherm PV=constant i.e. P/ρ =constant, thus

$$v = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dP}{d\rho}\right)_0} = \sqrt{\left(constant\right)_0} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{P}{\rho}\right)_0}$$

called isothermal sound velocity



Sound wave velocity - adiabatic



Laplace correctly assumed that the heat flux between a compressed gas region to a rarefied one was negligible, and, thus, that the process of the wave passage was adiabatic $PV_{\gamma}=constant$, $P/\rho_{\gamma}=constant$, with γ ratio of the specific heats: $C_{\rm p}/C_{\rm v}$

$$v = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dP}{d\rho}\right)_0} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\gamma}{\rho} cons tant \rho^{\gamma}\right)_0} = \sqrt{\gamma \left(\frac{P}{\rho}\right)_0}$$

called adiabatic sound velocity



Sound velocity in the air



Using the ideal gas law

one can write the velocity on many ways:

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma P}{\rho}} = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma PV}{\rho V}} = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma nRT}{m}} = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma NkT}{Nm_{mol}}} = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma KT}{m_{mol}}} = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma RT}{weight_{mol}}}$$

showing that it depends on temperature only. If the "dry" air is considered (biatomic gas γ =7/5) one has:

$$v=331.4+0.6T_c$$
 m/s (temperature measured in Celsius)



Sound speed



Sound velocity depends on the compressibility of the medium.

If the medium has a bulk modulus B and density at the equilibrium is ρ , the sound speed is: $\mathbf{v} = (\mathbf{B}/\rho)^{1/2}$

that can be compared with the velocity of transversal waves on a string:

$$v = (F/\mu)^{1/2}$$

Thus, velocity depends on the elastic of the medium (B or F) and on inertial (ρ or μ) properties



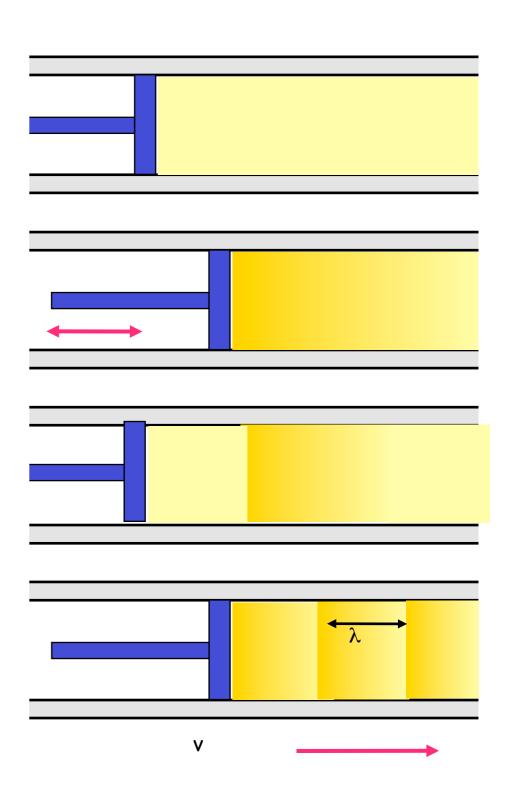
Harmonic sound waves



If the source of a longitudinal wave (eg tuning fork, loudspeaker) oscillates with SHM the resulting disturbance will also be harmonic Consider this system

As the piston oscillates backwards and forwards regions of compression and rarefaction are set up.

The distance between successive compressions or rarefactions is λ .







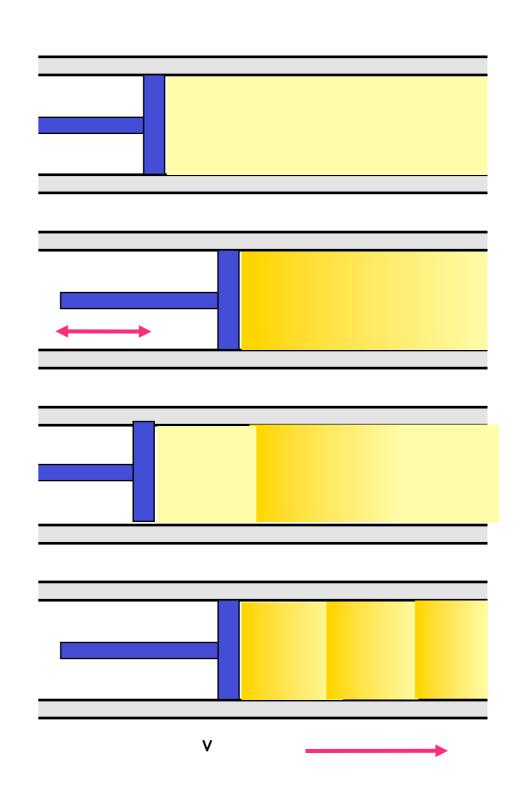
Any small region of the medium moves with SHM, given by

$$s(x,t) = s_m \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

 s_m = max displacement from equilibrium

The change of the pressure in the gas, ΔP , measured relative to the equilibrium pressure

$$\Delta P = \Delta P_{m} \sin(kx - \omega t)$$







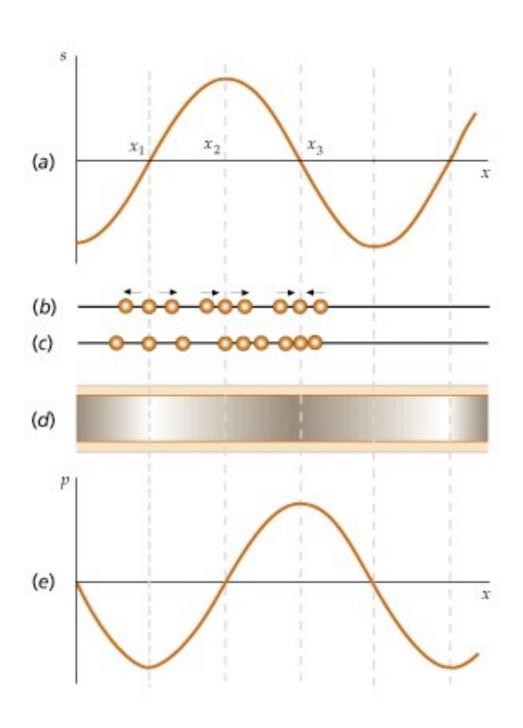
$$\Delta P = \Delta P_{\rm m} \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

The pressure amplitude ΔP_m is proportional to the displacement amplitude s_m via

$$\Delta P_{m} = \rho v \omega s_{m}$$

 ωs_m is the maximum longitudinal velocity of the medium in front of the piston

ie a sound wave may be considered as either a displacement wave or a pressure wave (90° out of phase)



Tipler fig 15-10

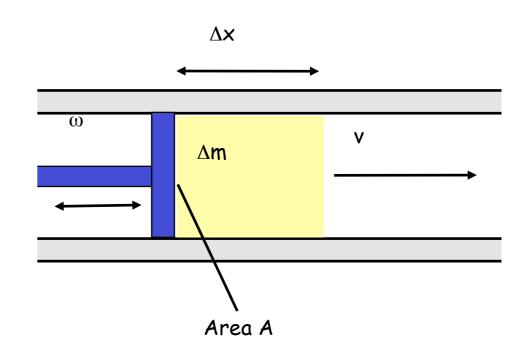


Energy and intensity of harmonic sound waves



Consider a layer of air mass Δm and width Δx in front of a piston oscillating with frequency ω .

The piston transmits energy to the air.



In a system obeying SHM $KE_{ave} = PE_{ave}$ and $E_{ave} = KE_{max}$

$$\Delta E = \frac{1}{2} \Delta m (\omega s_{m})^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\rho (\Delta x))(\omega s_{m})^{2}$$
volume of layer





Power = rate at which energy is transferred to each layer

Power =
$$\frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t}$$

= $\frac{1}{2} \rho A \left(\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \right) (\omega s_{m})^{2}$
= $\frac{1}{2} \rho A v (\omega s_{m})^{2}$

Intensity =
$$\frac{Power}{area} = \frac{1}{2} \rho v (\omega s_m)^2$$

$$=\frac{\Delta P_{\rm m}^2}{2\,\rho\,v}$$

where
$$\Delta P_m = \rho v \omega s_m$$



Intensity in decibels



The human ear detects sound on an approximately logarithmic scale.

We define the intensity level of a sound wave by

$$\beta = 10 \log \left(\frac{I}{I_o} \frac{1}{J} \right)$$

where I is the intensity of the sound, I_o is the threshold of hearing (~10⁻¹² W m⁻²) and β is measured in decibels (dB).

Examples: jet plane 150dB conversation 50dB

rock concert 120dB whisper 30dB

busy traffic 80dB breathing 10dB



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