

# Music 206: Mechanical Vibration

Tamara Smyth, [trsmyth@ucsd.edu](mailto:trsmyth@ucsd.edu)  
Department of Music,  
University of California, San Diego (UCSD)

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# Primary Mechanical Vibrators

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- With a model of a wind instrument body, a model of the mechanical “primary” resonator is needed for a complete instrument.
- Many sounds are produced by coupling the mechanical vibrations of a source to the resonance of an acoustic tube:
  - In vocal systems, air pressure from the lungs controls the oscillation of a membrane (vocal fold), creating a variable constriction through which air flows.
  - Similarly, blowing into the mouthpiece of a clarinet will cause the reed to vibrate, narrowing and widening the airflow aperture to the bore.

# Mass-spring System

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- Before modeling this mechanical vibrating system, let's review some acoustics, and mechanical vibration.
- The simplest oscillator is the mass-spring system:
  - a horizontal spring fixed at one end with a mass connected to the other.

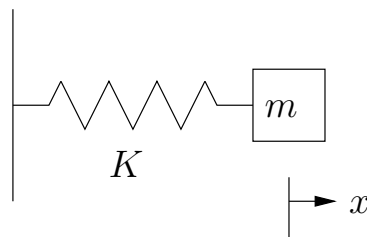


Figure 1: An ideal mass-spring system.

- The motion of an object can be describe in terms of its
  1. displacement  $x(t)$
  2. velocity  $v(t) = \frac{dx}{dt}$
  3. acceleration  $a(t) = \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}$

# Equation of Motion

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- The force on an object having mass  $m$  and acceleration  $a$  may be determined using *Newton's second law of motion*

$$F = ma.$$

- There is an elastic force restoring the mass to its equilibrium position, given by *Hooke's law*

$$F = -Kx,$$

where  $K$  is a constant describing the stiffness of the spring.

- The spring force is equal and opposite to the force due to acceleration, yielding the equation of motion:

$$m \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = -Kx.$$

# Solution to Equation of Motion

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- The solution to

$$m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = -Kx,$$

is a function proportional to its second derivative.

- This condition is met by the sinusoid:

$$\begin{aligned}x &= A \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi) \\ \frac{dx}{dt} &= -\omega_0 A \sin(\omega_0 t + \phi) \\ \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} &= -\omega_0^2 A \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi)\end{aligned}$$

- Substituting into the equation of motion yields:

$$\begin{aligned}m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} &= -Kx, \\ -\omega_0^2 A \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi) &= -\frac{K}{m} A \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi),\end{aligned}$$

showing that the natural frequency of vibration is

$$\omega_0 = \sqrt{\frac{K}{m}}.$$

# Motion of the Mass Spring

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- We can make the following inferences from the oscillatory motion (displacement) of the mass-spring system written as:

$$x(t) = A \cos(\omega_0 t)$$

- Energy is conserved, the oscillation never decays.
- *At the peaks:*
  - \* the spring is maximally compressed or stretched;
  - \* the mass is momentarily stopped as it is changing direction;
- *At zero crossings,*
  - \* the spring is momentarily relaxed (it is neither compressed nor stressed), and thus holds no PE
  - \* all energy is in the form of KE.
- Since energy is conserved, the KE at zero crossings is exactly the amount needed to stretch the spring to displacement  $-A$  or compress it to  $+A$ .

## PE and KE in the mass-spring oscillator

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- All vibrating systems consist of this interplay between an energy storing component and an energy carrying (“massy”) component.
- **The potential energy PE** of the ideal mass-spring system is equal to the work done<sup>1</sup> stretching or compressing the spring:

$$\begin{aligned}PE &= \frac{1}{2}Kx^2, \\ &= \frac{1}{2}KA^2 \cos^2(\omega_0 t + \phi).\end{aligned}$$

- **The kinetic energy KE** in the system is given by the motion of mass:

$$\begin{aligned}KE &= \frac{1}{2}mv^2, \\ &= \frac{1}{2}m\omega_0^2 A^2 \sin^2(\omega_0 t + \phi) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}KA^2 \sin^2(\omega_0 t + \phi).\end{aligned}$$

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<sup>1</sup>work is the product of the average force and the distance moved in the direction of the force

# Conservation of Energy

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- The total energy of the ideal mass-spring system is constant:

$$\begin{aligned} E &= PE + KE \\ &= \frac{1}{2}KA^2 (\sin^2(\omega_0 t + \phi) + \cos^2(\omega_0 t + \phi)) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}KA^2 \end{aligned}$$

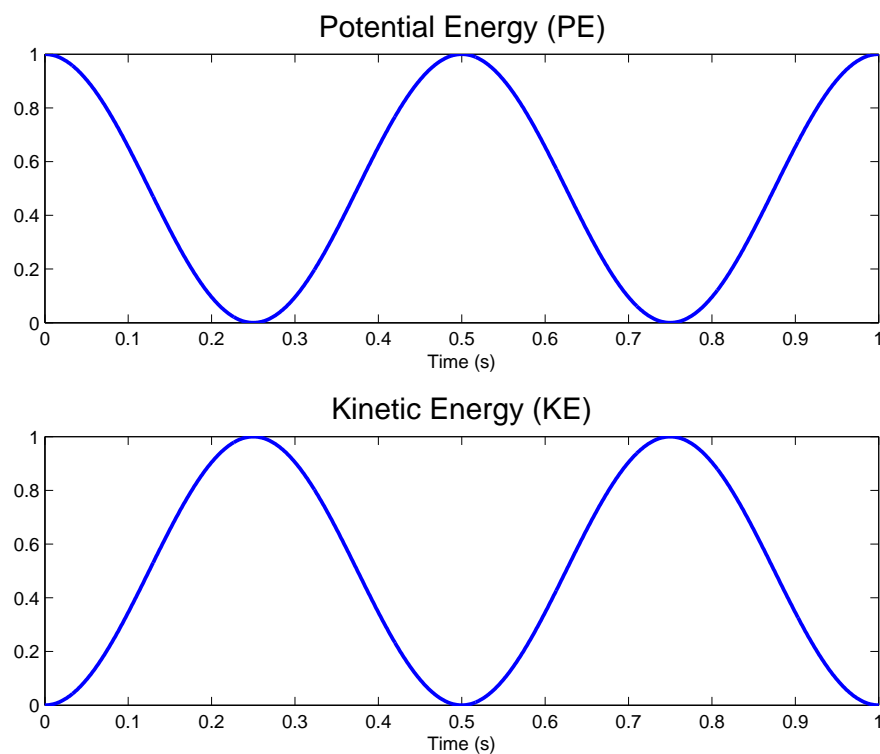


Figure 2: The interplay between PE and KE.



## Other Simple Oscillators—Pendulum

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- Besides the mass-spring, there are other examples of simple harmonic motion.
- **A pendulum:** a mass  $m$  attached to a string of length  $l$  vibrates in simple harmonic motion, provided that  $x \ll l$ .

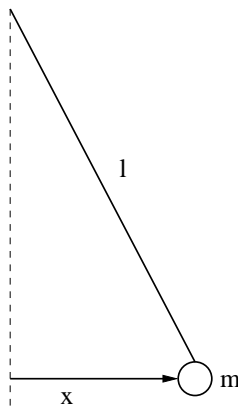


Figure 3: A simple pendulum.

- The frequency of vibration is

$$f = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{g}{l}},$$

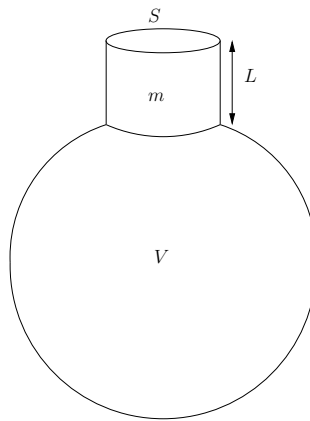
where  $g$  is the acceleration due to gravity.

- According to this equation, would changing the mass change the frequency?

## Other Simple Oscillators—Helmholtz Resonator

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- **A Helmholtz Resonator:** The mass of air in the neck serves as a piston, and the larger volume as the spring.



- The resonant frequency of the Helmholtz resonator is given by

$$f_0 = \frac{c}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{a}{VL}},$$

where  $a$  is the area of the neck,  $V$  is the volume,  $L$  is the length of the neck and  $c$  is the speed of sound.

# Damped Vibration

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- In a real system, mechanical energy is lost due to friction and other mechanisms causing *damping*.
- Unless energy is reintroduced into the system, the amplitude of the vibrations will decrease with time.
- A change in peak amplitude with time is called an *envelope*, and if the envelope decreases, the vibrating system is said to be *damped*.

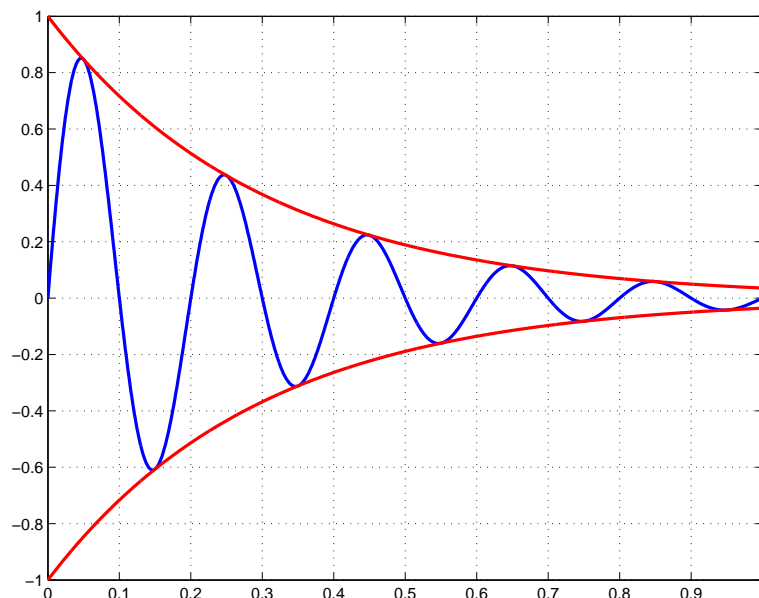


Figure 4: A damped sinusoid.

# Mass-spring-damper system

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- Damping of an oscillating system corresponds to a loss of energy or equivalently, a decrease in the amplitude of vibration.

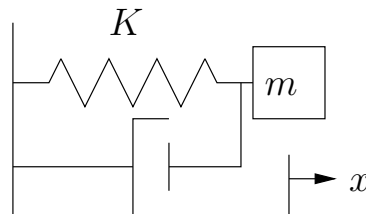


Figure 5: A mass-spring-damper system.

- The damper is a mechanical resistance (or viscosity) and introduces a drag force  $F_r$  typically proportional to velocity,

$$\begin{aligned} F_r &= -Rv \\ &= -R\frac{dx}{dt}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $R$  is the mechanical resistance.

# Damped Equation of Motion

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- The equation of motion for the damped system is obtained by adding the drag force into the equation of motion:

$$m \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + R \frac{dx}{dt} + Kx = 0,$$

or alternatively

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 2\alpha \frac{dx}{dt} + \omega_0^2 x = 0,$$

where  $\alpha = R/2m$  and  $\omega_0^2 = K/m$ .

- The damping in a system is often measured by the quantity  $\tau$ , which is the time for the amplitude to decrease to  $1/e$ :

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\alpha} = \frac{2m}{R}.$$

# The Solution to the Damped Vibrator

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- The solution to the system equation

$$\frac{dx^2}{dt^2} + 2\alpha\frac{dx}{dt} + \omega_0^2x = 0$$

has the form

$$x = A(t) \cos(\omega_d t + \phi).$$

where  $A(t)$  is the amplitude envelope

$$A(t) = e^{-t/\tau} = e^{-\alpha t},$$

and the natural frequency  $\omega_d$

$$\omega_d = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \alpha^2},$$

is *lower* than that of the ideal mass-spring system

$$\omega_0 = \sqrt{\frac{K}{m}}.$$

- Peak  $A$  and  $\phi$  are determined by the initial displacement and velocity.

## Systems with Several Masses

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- When there is a single mass, its motion has only one degree of freedom and one natural mode of vibration.
- Consider the system having 2 masses and 3 springs:

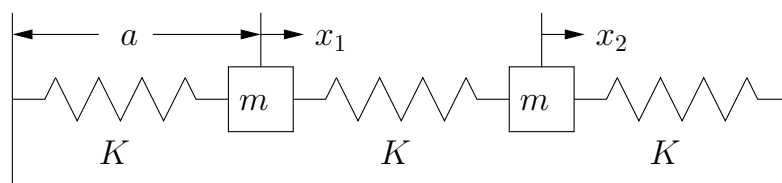


Figure 6: 2-mass 3-spring system.

- The system will have two “normal” independent modes of vibration:
  1. one in which masses move in the *same direction*, with frequency

$$f_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{K}{m}}$$

2. one in which masses move in *different directions* with frequency

$$f_2 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{3K}{m}}$$

(assuming equal masses and springs).

## System Equations for Two Spring-Coupled Masses

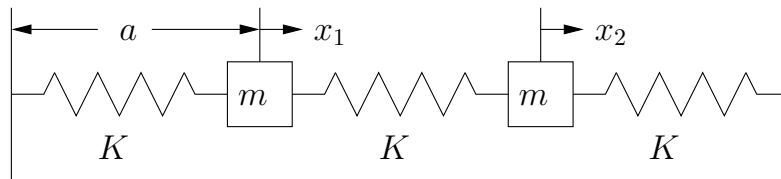


Figure 7: A short section of a string.

- The extensions of the left, middle and right springs are  $x_1$ ,  $x_2 - x_1$ , and  $-x_2$ , respectively.
- When a spring is extended by  $x$ , the mass attached to the
  - **left** experiences a *positive* horizontal restoring force  $F_r = Kx$ ;
  - **right** experiences an equal and opposite force  $F_r = -Kx$ ,

where  $K$  is the spring constant.

- The equation of motion for the displacement of the first mass:

$$m\ddot{x}_1 = -Kx_1 + K(x_2 - x_1),$$

and the second mass,

$$m\ddot{x}_2 = -K(x_2 - x_1) + K(-x_2).$$



# Additional Modes

- When modes are independent, the system can vibrate in one mode *with minimal* excitation of another.
- Unless constrained to one-dimension, the masses can also move *transversely* (at right-angles to the springs).
- An additional mass adds an additional mode of vibration.
- An N-mass system has N modes per degree of freedom.
- As N gets very large, it becomes convenient to view the system as a continuous string with a uniform mass density and tension.

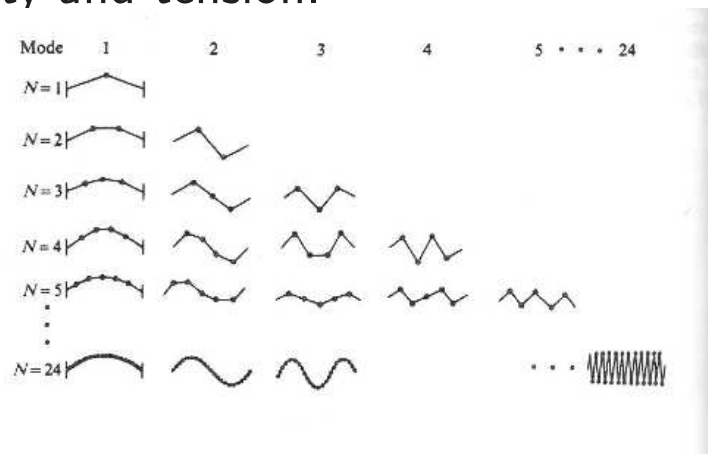


Figure 8: Increasing the number of masses (Science of Sound).

# Forced (Driven) Vibration

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- Getting the system to vibrate at any single mode of vibration requires exciting, or *driving* the system at the desired mode.
- See Dan Russell's site: [The forced harmonic oscillator](#)
- When a simple harmonic oscillator is driven by an external force  $F(t)$ , the equation of motion becomes

$$m\ddot{x} + R\dot{x} + Kx = F(t).$$

- The driving force may have harmonic time dependence, it may be impulsive, or it can be a random function of time (noise).

## Phase of Driven Vibration

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- The force driving an oscillation can be illustrated by holding a slinky in the vertical direction.
- Move the hand up and down slowly:
  - At low  $f_h$ , both the hand and the mass move in the same direction, and the spring hardly stretches at all.
- Increasing  $f_h$  makes it harder to move mass, and it lags behind the driving force.
- At resonance  $f_h = f_0$ :
  - the mass is  $1/4$  cycle behind the hand.
  - the amplitude is at its maximum.
- The higher the  $Q$  (quality factor), of the vibrating system, the more abrupt the transition in phase.

# Resonance

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- At *resonance*, there is maximum transfer of energy between the hand and the mass-spring system.
- Plotting amplitude  $A$  with respect to  $f_h$ , shows a curve that is almost symmetrical about its peak  $A_{max}$ , i.e., it has a *bandwidth* measured a distance down from  $A_{max}$ .

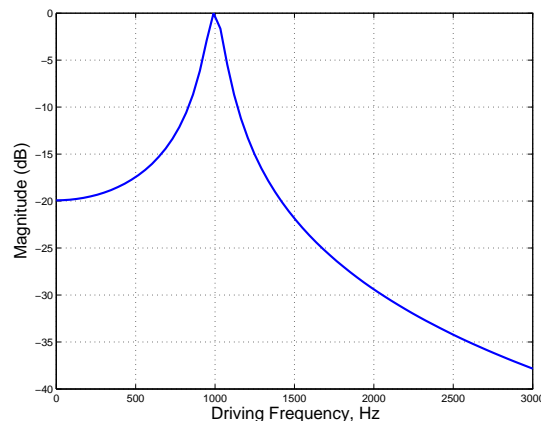


Figure 9: A Resonator shows peak amplitude when the driving force is equal to the system's natural frequency.

- Both the peak  $A_{max}$  the bandwidth  $\Delta f$  depend on the damping in the system:
  1. **heavily damped:**  $\Delta f$  is large and  $A_{max}$  is small.
  2. **little damping:**  $\Delta f$  is small and  $A_{max}$  is large, creating a *sharp* resonance.

# Quality Factor and Bandwidth

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- The *bandwidth* of the resonance is typically described using the quantity  $Q = \frac{f_0}{\Delta f}$ , for *quality factor*.
- A high- $Q$  has a sharp resonance, and a low- $Q$  has a broad resonance curve.
- For a vibrator set into motion and left to vibrate freely, its decay time is proportional to the  $Q$  of its resonance.
- In terms of our mechanical system, given the resistance  $\alpha = \frac{R}{2m}$ , the quality factor is:

$$Q = \frac{\omega_0}{2\alpha}.$$

## How to Discretize?

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- The one-sided Laplace transform of a signal  $x(t)$  is defined by

$$X(s) \triangleq \mathcal{L}_s\{x\} \triangleq \int_0^{\infty} x(t)e^{-st} dt$$

where  $t$  is real and  $s = \sigma + j\omega$  is a complex variable.

- The differentiation theorem for Laplace transforms states that

$$\frac{d}{dt}x(t) \leftrightarrow sX(s)$$

where  $x(t)$  is any differentiable function that approaches zero as  $t$  goes to infinity.

- The transfer function of an ideal differentiator is  $H(s) = s$ , which can be viewed as the Laplace transform of the operator  $d/dt$ .
- Given the equation of motion

$$m\ddot{x} + R\dot{x} + Kx = F(t),$$

the Laplace Transform is

$$s^2X(s) + 2\alpha sX(s) + \omega_0^2X(s) = F(s).$$

# Finite Difference

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- The finite difference approximation (FDA) amounts to replacing derivatives by finite differences, or

$$\frac{d}{dt}x(t) \triangleq \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{x(t) - x(t - \delta)}{\delta} \approx \frac{x(nT) - x[(n - 1)T]}{T}.$$

- The z transform of the first-order difference operator is  $(1 - z^{-1})/T$ . Thus, in the frequency domain, the finite-difference approximation may be performed by making the substitution

$$s \rightarrow \frac{1 - z^{-1}}{T}$$

- The first-order difference is first-order error accurate in  $T$ . Better performance can be obtained using the bilinear transform, defined by the substitution

$$s \rightarrow c \left( \frac{1 - z^{-1}}{1 + z^{-1}} \right) \quad \text{where} \quad c = \frac{2}{T}.$$

# FDA of Equation of Motion

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# Pressure Controlled Valves

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- Returning now to our model of wind instruments....
- Blowing into an instrument mouthpiece creates a pressure difference across the surface of the reed.
- When the reed oscillates, it creates an alternating opening and closure to the bore, allowing airflow entry during the open phase and cutting it off during the closed phase.
- The effect, is often seen as a periodic train of pressure pulses into the bore.
- Sound sources of this kind are referred to as pressure-controlled valves and they have been simulated in various ways to create musical synthesis models and vocal systems.

# Classifying Pressure-Controlled Valves

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- The method for simulating the reed typically depends on whether an additional upstream or downstream pressure causes the corresponding side of the valve to open or close further.
- As per Fletcher, the couplet  $(\sigma_1, \sigma_2)$  may be used describe the upstream and downstream valve behaviour, respectively.
- A  $\sigma_n$  value of
  - +1 indicates an **opening** of the valve,
  - -1 indicates a **closing** of the valve,on side  $n$  in response to a pressure increase.

# Three simple configurations of PC valves

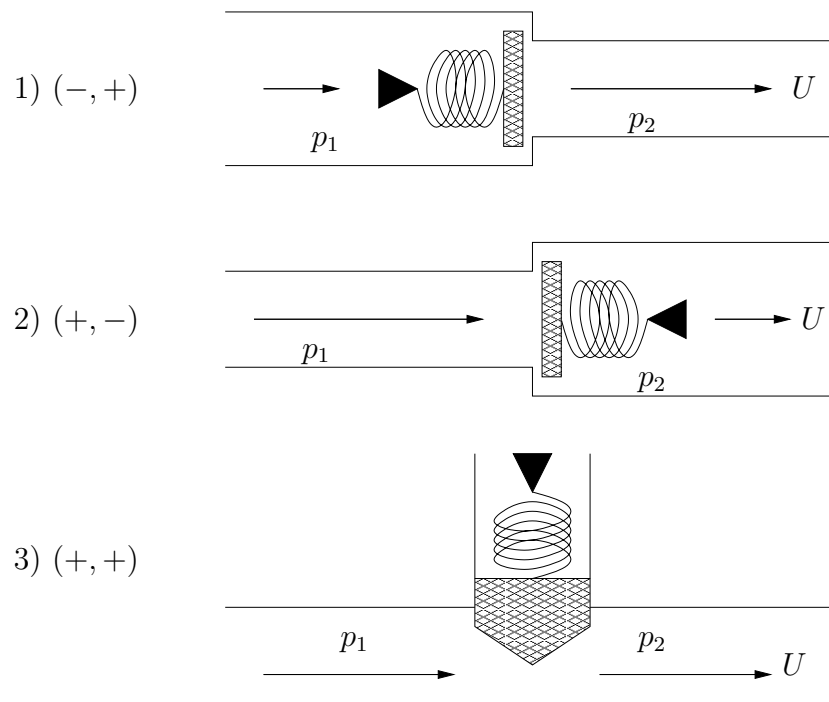


Figure 10: Simplified models of three common configurations of pressure-controlled valves.

1. (-, +): the valve is blown closed (as in woodwind instruments or reed-pipes of the pipe organ).
2. (+, -): the valve is blown open (as in the simple lip-reed models for brass instruments, the human larynx, harmonicas and harmoniums).
3. (+, +): the transverse (symmetric) model where the Bernoulli pressure causes the valve to close perpendicular to the direction of airflow.

# Valve Displacement

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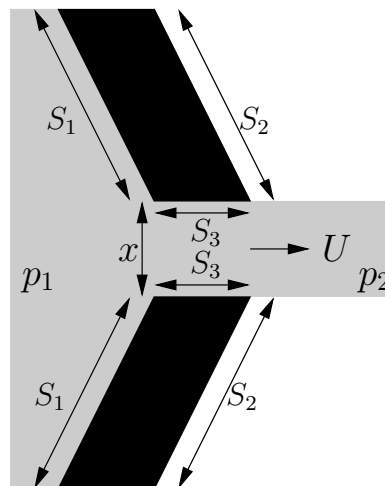


Figure 11: Geometry of a blown open pressure-controlled valve showing effective areas  $S_1, S_2, S_3$ .

- Consider the double reed in a blown open configuration.
- Surface  $S_1$  sees an upstream pressure  $p_1$ , surface  $S_2$  sees the downstream pressure  $p_2$  (after flow separation), and surface  $S_3$  sees the flow at the interior of the valve channel and the resulting Bernoulli pressure.

# Valve Driving Force

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- With these areas and the corresponding geometric couplet defined, the motion of the valve opening  $x(t)$  is governed by

$$m\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 2m\gamma\frac{dx}{dt} + k(x - x_0) = \sigma_1 p_1 (S_1 + S_3) + \sigma_2 p_2 S_2,$$

where  $\gamma$  is the damping coefficient,  $x_0$  the equilibrium position of the valve opening in the absence of flow,  $K$  the valve stiffness, and  $m$  the reed mass.

- The couplet therefore, is very useful when evaluating the force driving a mode of the vibrating valve.

## Discretizing Valve Displacement

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- The Laplace Transform of the valve displacement:

$$ms^2X(s) + mgsX(s) + KX(s) - Kx_0 = F(s).$$

- The bilinear transform, defined by the substitution

$$s \longrightarrow c \left( \frac{1 - z^{-1}}{1 + z^{-1}} \right) \quad \text{where} \quad c = \frac{2}{T},$$

yields

$$\frac{X(z)}{F(z) + kx_0} = \frac{1 + 2z^{-1} + z^{-2}}{a_0 + a_1z^{-1} + a_2z^{-2}},$$

where

$$a_0 = mc^2 + mgc + k,$$

$$a_1 = -2(mc^2 - k),$$

$$a_2 = mc^2 - mgc + k.$$

- The corresponding difference equation is

$$x(n) = \frac{1}{a_0} [F_k(n) + 2F_k(n-1) + F_k(n-2)] - \frac{a_1x(n-1) - a_2x(n-2)}{a_0},$$

where  $F_k(n) = F(n) + kx_0$ .

# Volume Flow

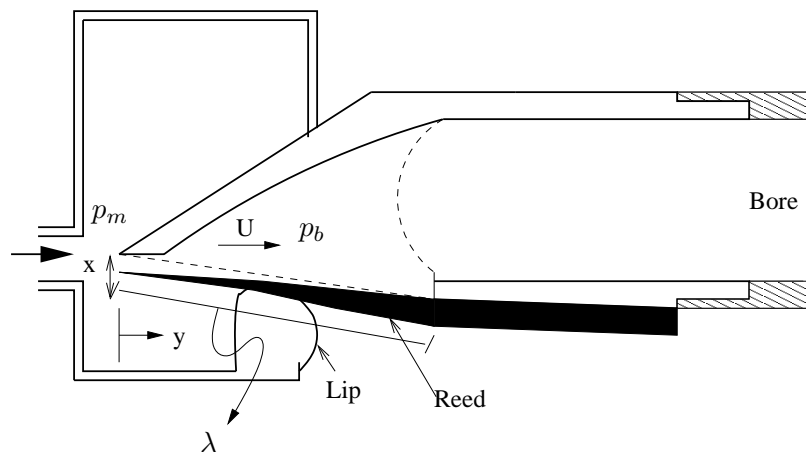


Figure 12: The clarinet Reed.

- The steady flow through a valve is determined based on input pressure  $p_1$  and the resulting output pressure  $p_2$ .
- The difference between these two pressure is denoted  $\Delta p$  and is related to volume flow via the stationary Bernoulli equation

$$U = A \sqrt{\frac{2\Delta p}{\rho}},$$

where  $A$  is the cross section area of the air column (and dependent on the opening  $x$ ).

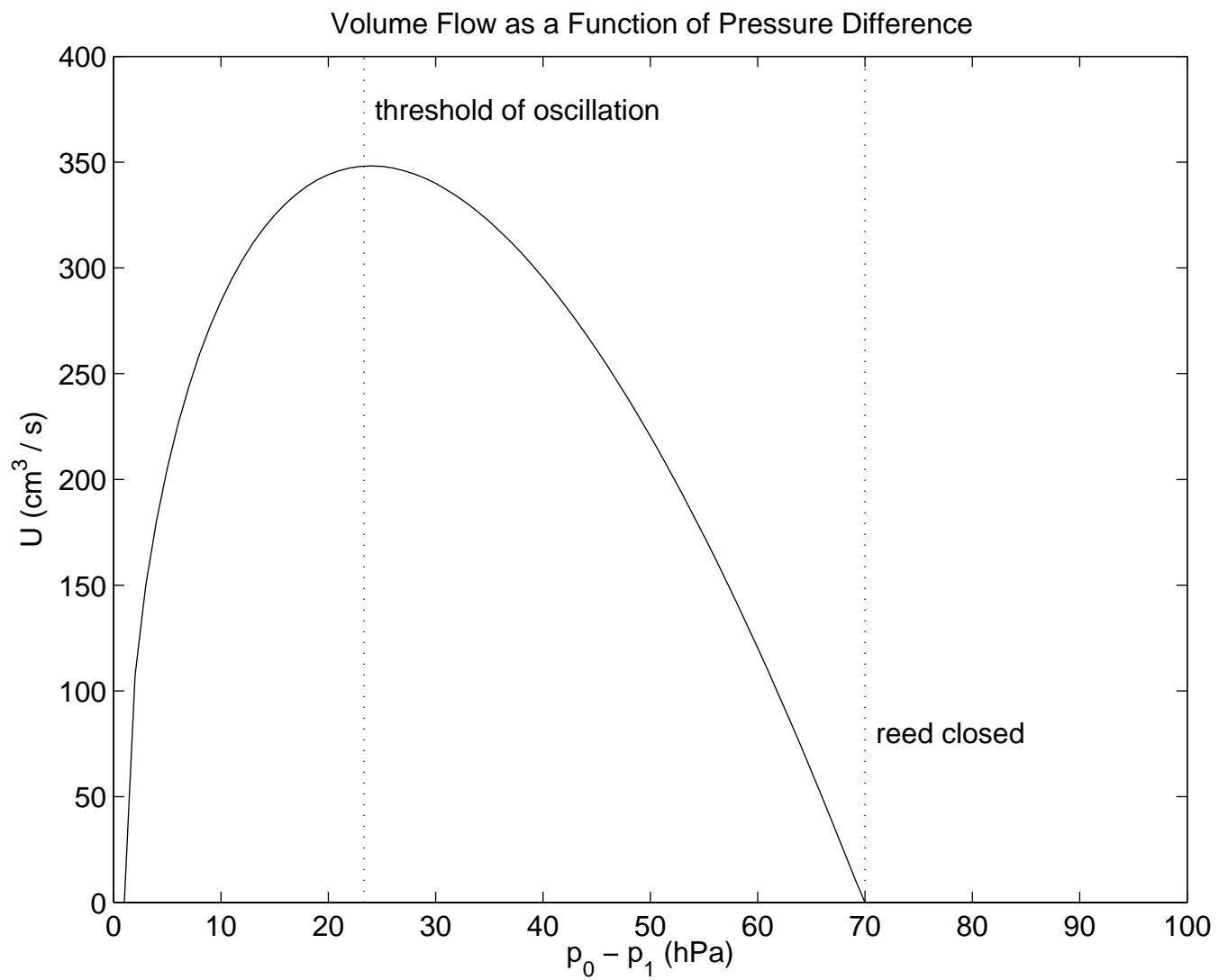


Figure 13: The reed table.