The Theoretical Miniminum: Classical Physics

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Chapter 1

Lecture 1 - The nature of Classical Physics

1.1 Simple Dynamical Systems and the space of States

- The collection of all states occupied by a system is called its state-space.
- A world whose evolution is discrete could be called stroboscopic.
- A system that changes with time is called a dynamic system.
- The dynamical law is a rule that tells us the next state given the current state.
- The variables describing a system are called its degrees of freedom.

1.2 Rules that are not allowed: The Minus-First Law

- According to the principles of classical physics, a dynamic law must be reversible.
- It must obey the conservation of information, which tells you that every state has one arrow in and one arrow out.

1.3 Interlude 1: Spaces, trigonometry, and vectors - Vectors

• Magnitude of a vector

$$|\vec{V}| = \sqrt{V_x^2 + V_y^2 + V_z^2} \tag{1.1}$$

• Multiplication of vectors

$$\vec{A} \times \vec{B} = |\vec{A}| \times |\vec{B}| \cos \theta \tag{1.2}$$

• If the dot product of the vectors is 0, they are perpendicular.

1.4 Interlude 1 Exercises

Exercise 3: Show that the magnitude of a vector satisfies $|\vec{A}|^2 = \vec{A} \cdot \vec{A}$

$$\begin{split} |\vec{A}| &= \sqrt{A_x^2 + Ay^2 + A_z^2} \\ |\vec{A}|^2 &= Ax^2 + Ay^2 + Az^2 \\ \vec{A} \cdot \vec{A} &= A_x Ax + Ay Ay + Az Az = |\vec{A}|^2 \end{split} \tag{1.3}$$

Exercise 4: Let $(A_x = 2, A_y = -3, A_z = 1)$ and $(B_x = -4, B_y = -3, B_z = 2)$. Compute the magnitude of a \vec{A} and \vec{B} , their dot product, and the angle between them.

$$A_{x} = 2; A_{y} = -3; A_{z} = 1$$

$$Bx = -4; By = -3; B_{z} = 2$$

$$|\vec{A}| = \sqrt{4 + 9 + 1} = \sqrt{14}$$

$$|\vec{B}| = \sqrt{16 + 9 + 4} = \sqrt{29}$$

$$\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = 2 \cdot (-4) + (-3)(-3) + 2 = -8 + 9 + 2 = 3$$

$$|\vec{A}||\vec{B}|\cos\theta = 3 \Leftrightarrow \sqrt{14} \cdot \sqrt{29} \cdot \cos\theta = 3 \Leftrightarrow \cos\theta = \frac{3}{\sqrt{406}}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{3}{\sqrt{40^{6}}}\right) \cong 1, 4.2 \text{rad}$$
(1.4)

Exercise 5: Determine which pair of vectors are orthogonal. (1,1,1)(2,-1,3)(3,1,0)(-3,0,2)

$$(1,1,1)(2,-1,3) = x + -1 + 3 = 4$$

$$(1,1,1)(3,1,0) = 3 + 2 + 0 = 4$$

$$(1,1,1)(-3,0,2) = -3 + 0 + 2 = 1$$

$$(2,-1,3)(3,1,0) = 6 - 1 + 0 = 5$$

$$(2,-1,3)(-3,0,2) = -6 + 0 + 6 = -0$$

$$(3,1,0)(-3,0,2) = -9 + 0 + 2 = -7$$

$$(1.5)$$

Exercise 6: Can you explain why the dot product of two vectors that are orthogonal is 0?

Because $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 0$.

Chapter 2

Lecture 2 - Motion

2.1 Mathematial Interlude: Differential Calculus

• Definition of derivative

$$\frac{df(t)}{dt} = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta t} = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{f(t + \Delta t) - f(t)}{\Delta t}$$
(2.1)

• Sum rule

$$\frac{d(f+g)}{dt} = \frac{d(f)}{dt} + \frac{d(g)}{dt}$$
(2.2)

• Product rule

$$\frac{d(fg)}{dt} = f(t)\frac{d(g)}{dt} + g(t)\frac{d(f)}{dt}$$
(2.3)

• Chain rule

$$\frac{df}{dt} = \frac{df}{dg}\frac{dg}{dt} \tag{2.4}$$

if f is a function of g.

$$\bullet \ \frac{d(t^n)}{dt} = nt^{n-1}$$

•
$$\frac{d(\sin t)}{dt} = \cos t$$

$$\bullet \ \frac{d(\cos t)}{dt} = -\sin t$$

$$\bullet \ \frac{d(e^t)}{dt} = e^t$$

$$\bullet \ \frac{d(\log t)}{dt} = \frac{1}{t}$$

2.2 Particle Motion

- The position of a particle at time t can be described by $\vec{r}(t)$.
- The job of classical mechanics is to figure out $\vec{r}(t)$ from some initial condition and some dynamical law.
- The velocity is given by the rate of change of the position

$$\vec{v} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} = \dot{\vec{r}} \tag{2.5}$$

• The velocity vector has magnitude $|\vec{v}|$

$$|\vec{v}|^2 = v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2 \tag{2.6}$$

which represents how fast the particle is moving without regard to the direction. This is called *speed*.

• Acceleration is the quantity that tells you how the velocity is changing. A constant velocity vector not onbly implies constant speed, but also a constant direction.

$$\vec{a} = \dot{\vec{v}} = \ddot{\vec{r}} \tag{2.7}$$

2.3 Interlude 2: Integral Calculus

- Differential Calculus studies the rates of change. Integral Calculus has to do with sums of many tiny incremental quantities. These are connected.
- Consider a rectangle located at value t, with width Δt and height f(t). It follows that the area of a single rectangle δA is

$$\delta A = f(t)\Delta t \tag{2.8}$$

• Adding up all the incremental areas

$$A = \sum_{i} f(t_i) \Delta t \tag{2.9}$$

• To get the exact answer, we take the limit in which Δt shrinks to zero, and the number of rectangles increases to infinity

$$A = \int_{a}^{b} f(t)dt = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} f(t_i)\Delta t$$
 (2.10)

which is the definition of an integral between a and b.

• The indefinite integral of f(t) is

$$F(T) = \int_{0}^{T} f(t)dt \tag{2.11}$$

where T is an unknown variable which can take any value of t.

ullet The fundamental theorem of calculus states that

$$f(t) = \frac{dF(t)}{dt} \tag{2.12}$$

- The process of integration and differentiation are reciprocal: The derivative of the integral is the original integrand.
- Can we completely determine F(t) knowing that its derivative is f(t). Almost, because adding a costant to F(t) doesn't change its derivative.
- Given f(t), its indefinite integral is ambiguous up to a constant.
- An alternative way to express the fundamental theorem is

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(t)dt = F(t)|_{a}^{b} = F(b) - F(a)$$
(2.13)

or

$$\int \frac{df}{dt}dt = f(t) + c \tag{2.14}$$

Lecture 2 Exercises 2.4

Exercise 1: Calculate the derivatives of each of these functions.

 $\frac{d(f+g)}{dt} = \frac{df}{dt} + \frac{dg}{dt}$

$$f(t) = t^4 + 3t^3 - 12t^2 + t - 6$$

$$g(x) = \sin x - \cos x$$

$$\theta(\alpha) = e^{\alpha} + \alpha \ln \alpha$$

$$\theta(\alpha) = e^{\alpha} + \alpha \ln \alpha$$

$$x(t) = \sin^2 x - \cos x$$

a)

$$\frac{df}{dt} = 4t^3 + 9t^2 - 24t + 1$$

b)

•
$$\frac{dg}{dt} = \cos x + \sin x$$

c)

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = e^{\alpha} + \alpha \frac{1}{\alpha} = e^{\alpha}$$

d)

$$\frac{d(fg)}{dt} = f(t)\frac{dg}{dt} + g(t)\frac{dt}{dt}$$

$$\sin^2 t = \sin t \cdot \sin t$$

•
$$\frac{d\sin^2}{dt} = \sin t \cos t + \sin t \cos t = 2\sin t \cos t$$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = 2\sin t \cos t + \sin t$$

Chapter 3

Theoretical Minimum - Dynamics

3.1 Aristotle's Law of Motion

• The velocity of any object is proportional to the total applied force.

$$\vec{F} = m\vec{v} \tag{3.1}$$

- m is a quantity describing the resistance of the body to being moved.
- Aristotle's law is wrong.

3.2 Mass, Acceleration and Force

- Aristotle's mistake was to think that a net applied force is needed to keep an object moving.
- The right idea is that the applied force is needed to overcome the force of friction.
- An isolated object moving in free space, with no forces acting on it, requires nothing to keep it moving. This is the *law of inertia*.
- This involves a change in the velocity of an object, and therefore an acceleration.
- Newton's second law of motion

$$\vec{F} = m\vec{a} \tag{3.2}$$

3.3 An Interlude on Units

• Velocity

$$[v] = \left[\frac{length}{time}\right] = \frac{m}{s} \tag{3.3}$$

• Acceleration

$$[a] = \left[\frac{length}{time}\right] \left[\frac{1}{time}\right] = \frac{m}{s^2}$$
 (3.4)

• Force

$$[F] = \left\lceil \frac{mass \times length}{time^2} \right\rceil = \frac{kg \times m}{s^2} = N(Newton)$$
 (3.5)

3.4 Some Simple Examples of Solving Newton's Equations

 $m\frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = 0 \implies \vec{v}(t) = \vec{v}(0) \tag{3.6}$

This is newtons first law of motion: Every object in a state of uniform motion tends to remain in that state of motion unless an external force is applied to it.

• The first law is simply a special case of the second law when the force is zero.

3.5 Interlude 3: Partial Differentiation - Partial Derivatives

- Assume that for every value of x, y and z, there is a unique value V(x, y, z) that varies smoothly as we vary the coordinates.
- Multivariable differential calculus revolves around the concept of partial derivatives.
- If we want to change x while keeping y and z fixed

$$\frac{dV}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{\Delta V}{\Delta x} = \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} \tag{3.7}$$

where

$$\Delta V = V([x + \Delta x], y, z) - V(x, y, z)$$
(3.8)

• The second derivative is

$$\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x^2} = \partial_x \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} \right) = \partial_{x,x} V \tag{3.9}$$

• And a mixed partial derivative

$$\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x \, \partial y} = \partial_x \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial y} \right) = \partial_{x,y} V \tag{3.10}$$

which does not depend on the order in which the derivatives are carried out on.

Bibliography