Lecture Tutorial 1A: Mathematical tools for physics



Scalars & vectors

- **Scalars**: magnitude only (e.g., mass, time, energy)
- Vectors: magnitude + direction (e.g., displacement, velocity, force)
- ullet Notation: $ec{v}$ or bold $oldsymbol{v}$; magnitude written $|ec{v}|$ or v
- Link to physics (kinematics): speed is a scalar, velocity is a vector

Primer on vectors

- Graphical representation: arrow (length

 magnitude, arrow shows direction)
- Has components for each direction
- For 2D:

$$ec{v} = v_x \hat{i} + v_y \hat{j} \qquad ext{or} \qquad ec{v} = egin{bmatrix} v_x \ v_y \end{bmatrix}$$

- ullet Resolve vector into axes: $v_x = |ec{v}|\cos heta$, $v_y = |ec{v}|\sin heta$
- ullet Magnitude: $|ec{v}|=v=\sqrt{v_x^2+v_y^2}$
- Direction: $heta = an^{-1}(v_y/v_x)$
- ullet Components & angles: $\cos heta = v_x/|ec{v}| \ \ \& \ \ \sin heta = v_y/|ec{v}|$

Unit vectors

- Unit vectors: magnitude 1.
- Cartesian basis: \hat{i},\hat{j},\hat{k} .
- ullet Orthonormal: $|\hat{i}|=|\hat{j}|=|\hat{k}|=1$, and mutually perpendicular.

Vector operations: addition & subtraction

- Same direction → simple arithmetic
- Opposite direction → subtraction
- Different directions
 - → graphically with tail-to-tip or parallelogram
 - → numerically if perpendicular
 Pythagorean theorem for magnitude or trigonometry
 - → general numerical approach: compute for each components individually

Example: 2D vector addition

$$ec{a} = egin{bmatrix} 3 \ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad ec{b} = egin{bmatrix} 1 \ 4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Their sum is obtained by adding corresponding components:

$$ec{c}=ec{a}+ec{b}=egin{bmatrix} 3+1 \ 2+4 \end{bmatrix}=egin{bmatrix} 4 \ 6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Equivalently, in unit-vector notation:

$$egin{align} ec{a} &= 3 \, \hat{i} + 2 \hat{j}, & ec{b} &= 1 \, \hat{i} + 4 \hat{j}. \ ec{c} &= ec{a} + ec{b} &= (3 \, \hat{i} + 2 \hat{j}) + (1 \, \hat{i} + 4 \hat{j}). \ \end{aligned}$$

Grouping the \hat{i} and \hat{j} terms gives:

$$ec{c} = (3+1)\hat{i} + (2+4)\hat{j} = 4\hat{i} + 6\hat{j}.$$

Scalar multiplication

 Multiplying a scalar c with a vector means multiplying each component:

If
$$\vec{v} = (v_x, v_y, v_z)$$
, then $c\vec{v} = (cv_x, cv_y, cv_z)$.

• The **magnitude** of \vec{v} changes by a factor of |c| and the **direction** is reversed if c < 0.

Dot & cross product

Dot product → result is a scalar.

$$ec{a}\cdotec{b}=a_xb_x+a_yb_y+a_zb_z=ab\cos heta$$

• Cross product \rightarrow result is a **vector** perpendicular to both \vec{a} and \vec{b} .

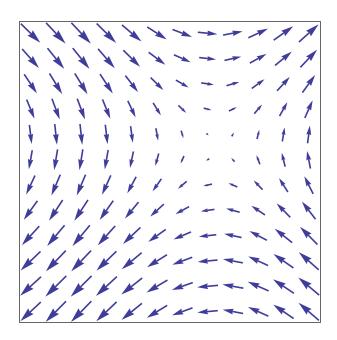
$$egin{aligned} ec{a} imesec{b} = egin{aligned} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \ a_x & a_y & a_z \ b_x & b_y & b_z \end{aligned} = (a_yb_z-a_zb_y)\hat{i} - (a_xb_z-a_zb_z) \end{aligned}$$

Vector fields

- A vector field assigns a vector to each point in space.
- Applications: Gravitational field, electric & magnetic field, fluid dynamics, etc.
- Example: Time-dependent velocity field:

$$ec{v}(x,y,z,t) = v_x(x,y,z,t) \ \hat{i} + v_y(x,y,z,t) \ \hat{j} + v_z(x,y,z,t) \ \hat{j} + v_$$

 → Interpretation: Each point in the fluid has a local velocity vector that can change in space and time.



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Derivatives: Concept

derivative measures the instantaneous rate
 of change or slope of a function.

$$f'(x) = \lim_{\Delta x o 0} rac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}$$

ullet o It tells how much f(x) changes when x changes a little bit.

Derivatives: Basic rules

Туре	Formula	Example
Power	$(x^n)^\prime = nx^{n-1}$	$(x^3)^\prime=3x^2$
Constant	(c)'=0	(5)'=0
Scalar multiple	$(cf)^\prime = cf^\prime$	$(4x^2)' = 4(2x) = 8x$
Sum / difference	$(f\pm g)'=f'\pm g'$	$(x^2+\sin x)'=2x+$

Derivatives: Chain Rule

Used for **nested functions** f(g(x)):

$$(f(g(x)))' = f'(g(x)) g'(x)$$

Example:

If $f(u) = \sin u$ and $u = 3x^2$, then

$$rac{d}{dx}[\sin(3x^2)] = \cos(3x^2) \cdot (6x) = 6x\cos(3x^2)$$

Common derivatives

- $\bullet (e^x)' = e^x$
- $\bullet \ (a^x)' = a^x \ln a$
- $\bullet \ (\ln x)' = 1/x$
- $(\sin x)' = \cos x$
- $\bullet \ (\cos x)' = -\sin x$
- $(\tan x)' = \sec^2 x$

Integrals – Concept

- An **integral** is the **inverse operation** of differentiation.
- The integral measures the **signed area** between f(x) and the x-axis (above axis = positive, below = negative).
- ullet o It represents the **net accumulated change**.

Indefinite integral:

$$\int f(x)\,dx = F(x) + C$$

• where *C* is the **constant of integration**.

Definite integral:

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

• gives the **net accumulated change** of f(x) between a and b.

Common integrals

Function $f(x)$	Integral $\int f(x) dx$	Notes
x^n	$rac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}+C$	n eq -1
e^x	$e^x + C$	Exponential function
a^x	$rac{a^x}{\ln a} + C$	Base $a>0$, $a eq 1$
$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln x + C$	Natural logarithm
$\sin x$	$-\cos x + C$	
$\cos x$	$\sin x + C$	
$rac{1}{1+x^2}$	$\arctan x + C$	Inverse tangent

Integral calculus for kinematics

Differentiation and integration connect **acceleration**, **velocity**, and **position**. By definition:

$$a(t) = \frac{dv}{dt}, \qquad v(t) = \frac{dx}{dt}.$$

Thus, integrating step by step:

$$v(t) = \int a(t) \, dt, \qquad x(t) = \int v(t) \, dt.$$

Integral calculus for kinematics: Constant acceleration

For
$$a(t) = a_0$$
:

$$v = v_0 + a_0 t, \qquad x = x_0 + v_0 t + rac{1}{2} a_0 t^2.$$

Integral calculus for kinematics: Timedependent acceleration

If
$$a(t) = \alpha t + \beta$$
:

$$v(t) = rac{1}{2}lpha t^2 + eta t + v_0, \qquad x(t) = rac{1}{6}lpha t^3 + rac{1}{2}eta t^2 + v_0 t$$

Integral Calculus for Kinematics: When $_a$ depends on $_x$

Suppose the acceleration depends on **position**, i.e.

$$a = a(x) = rac{dv}{dt}.$$

Both velocity and position depend on time:

$$v = v(t), \qquad x = x(t).$$

That means velocity can also be seen as a function of position: v = v(x(t)).

By the **chain rule** from calculus:

$$a(x) = rac{dv}{dt} = rac{dv}{dx}rac{dx}{dt} = rac{dv}{dx}\,v$$

Rearrange to collect v and x terms on opposite sides:

$$v dv = a(x) dx.$$

Integrate from the **initial state** (x_0, v_0) to the **current state** (x, v):

$$\int_{v_0}^v v'\, dv' = \int_{x_0}^x a(x')\, dx'.$$

Evaluate the left-hand side:

$$rac{1}{2}(v^2-v_0^2)=\int_{x_0}^x a(x')\,dx'.$$

Example: If a(x) is linear, e.g. $a(x) = \alpha x$:

$$rac{1}{2}(v^2-v_0^2) = \int_{x_0}^x a(x')\,dx' = \int_{x_0}^x lpha x'\,dx' = lpha [rac{x'^2}{2}]_{x_0}^x$$

Simplify:

$$v^2 - v_0^2 = lpha (x^2 - x_0^2).$$

Integral Calculus for Kinematics: When a depends on v

Now suppose acceleration depends on **velocity**, i.e.

$$a=a(v)=rac{dv}{dt}.$$

Rearrange to isolate v and t:

$$rac{dv}{a(v)}=dt.$$

Integrate from v_0 at t_0 to v at t:

$$\int_{v_0}^v rac{dv'}{a(v')} = \int_{t_0}^t dt' = t - t_0.$$

Example: If acceleration depends linearly on velocity a(v) = -kv, & k > 0, then:

$$a(v) = -kv = rac{dv}{dt}.$$

Separate variables:

$$-k\,dt=rac{dv}{v}\,\leftrightarrow\,rac{1}{v}\,dv=-k\,dt.$$

Integrate from (t_0, v_0) to (t, v):

$$\int_{v_0}^v rac{1}{v'} \, dv' = -k \int_{t_0}^t dt'.$$

Compute both sides:

$$\ln(\frac{v}{v_0}) = -k(t-t_0).$$

Exponentiate to solve for v(t):

$$v(t) = v_0 e^{-k(t-t_0)}$$
.

 \rightarrow The velocity decays **exponentially** due to the drag force.

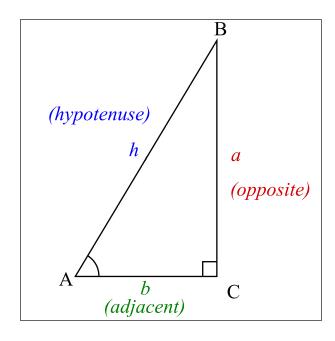
Trigonometry – basics

• Right triangle:

$$\sin heta = rac{opp}{hyp} \& \cos heta = rac{adj}{hyp} \& an heta = rac{opp}{adj}$$

• Identities:

$$\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1 \& \, an \, heta = \sin heta / \cos heta$$



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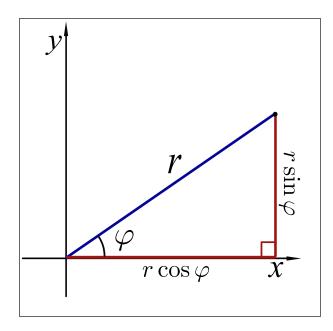
Polar coordinates

- Represent point by (r, θ) instead of (x, y).
- Conversion:

$$x = r \cos \theta, y = r \sin \theta$$

• Inverse:

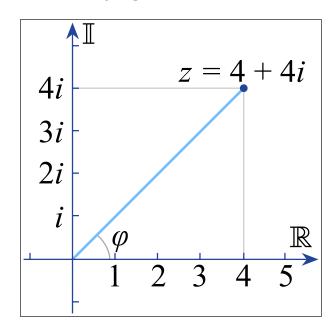
•
$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$
, $\theta = \arctan(y/x)$



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Complex numbers – basics

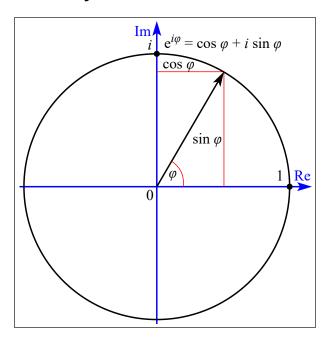
- General form: z = x + iy, with $i^2 = -1$.
- Real part: x, Imag part: y.
- Magnitude: $|z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$.
- Conjugate: $z^* = x iy$.



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Complex numbers – polar form

- $ullet \ z = r(\cos heta + i \sin heta) = re^{i heta}.$
- ullet Physics: oscillations $e^{i\omega t}$, AC circuits, waves.



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