

Newton's laws of motion

First law: Every object maintains its state of rest, or uniform motion along a straight line, unless impressed upon by an external force.

- 1/ Force does not maintain motion, but only causes change in motion.
- 2/ Absence of forces (not just a complete cancellation of forces) implies the need to define force as something that changes motion.
- 3/ Law of inertia implies a natural tendency to resist change in motion.

Second law: $\vec{F} \propto m\vec{a}$ $\vec{a} = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt}$

$\therefore \vec{F} = k m \vec{a}$ $k=1$ in suitably chosen units

- 1/ For the same force acting on two objects of different masses $|\vec{F}| = m_1 |\vec{a}_1| = m_2 |\vec{a}_2| \Rightarrow |\vec{a}| \propto \frac{1}{m}$

Hence, with greater mass, the tendency to resist change in motion would be greater.

\therefore Mass is a measure of inertia.

2/ $\boxed{\vec{F} = m \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt}}$ $\vec{F} \cdot \vec{v} = m \vec{v} \cdot \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt}$

Now $\boxed{\vec{v} = \frac{d\vec{l}}{dt}} \Rightarrow \vec{F} \cdot \frac{d\vec{l}}{dt} = m \vec{v} \cdot \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt}$

$\Rightarrow \vec{F} \cdot \frac{d\vec{l}}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} m v^2 \right) \Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} = d \left(\frac{m v^2}{2} \right)}$

\therefore Work done = $\vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l}$ = change in kinetic energy

In one-dimension, $\boxed{d\vec{l} = dx \hat{x}}$ $\boxed{|\vec{F}(\hat{x})| = F(x)}$

$\therefore \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} = F(x) dx = d \left(\frac{m v^2}{2} \right)$

$\Rightarrow \boxed{\int_{v_1}^{v_2} d \left(\frac{m v^2}{2} \right) = \frac{m v_2^2}{2} - \frac{m v_1^2}{2} = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} F(x) dx}$

Changes the
speed

Work done is the difference of kinetic energy \uparrow

3/ Further, $\boxed{d \left(\frac{m v^2}{2} \right) - F(x) dx = 0}$

Write $\boxed{F(x) = - \frac{dU(x)}{dx}}$ $U(x) \rightarrow$ Potential function

$\therefore d \left(\frac{m v^2}{2} \right) + \frac{dU}{dx} dx = 0 \Rightarrow \int d \left(\frac{m v^2}{2} \right) + \int du = \text{Constant}$

$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{m v^2}{2} + U(x) = \mathcal{E}}$ Conservation of Energy $\cdot \frac{J \cdot s}{kg \cdot m^2}$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{1}{2} m v_1^2 + U(x_1) = \frac{1}{2} m v_2^2 + U(x_2)} \text{ When,}$$

$\boxed{U(x_1) = U(x_2)}$, no change in kinetic energy occurs when there is no potential difference.

41. $\boxed{F = m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2}} \Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{dx}{dt} = v}$ and $\boxed{\frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{F}{m}}$

The integrals give $\boxed{x \equiv x(t)}$ and $\boxed{v \equiv v(t)}$.

At any initial time, two initial conditions are required, x (an initial position) and v (an initial velocity). The former specifies the state, and the latter the rate at which the state is changing. Hence, for a deterministic system, a second-order differential equation is required (with two conditions).

Third law: $\boxed{\vec{F}_{12} = -\vec{F}_{21}}$. Particle 1 acts on Particle 2 (Action). Particle 2 reacts on Particle 1 (Reaction). Action and reaction are on different objects.

At the time of collision between two particles in an isolated system, $\boxed{m_1 \frac{d\vec{v}_1}{dt} = -m_2 \frac{d\vec{v}_2}{dt}}$.
(by the action-reaction principle)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt}(m_1 \vec{v}_1) + \frac{d}{dt}(m_2 \vec{v}_2) = \frac{d}{dt}[m_1 \vec{v}_1 + m_2 \vec{v}_2] = \vec{0}.$$

$\therefore \boxed{m_1 \vec{v}_1 + m_2 \vec{v}_2 = \vec{P}}$ \rightarrow Conservation of Momentum

Mass, Energy and Momentum

- i/. Mass \rightarrow Emerges from the first law as a measure of inertia.
- ii/. Energy \rightarrow Emerges from the second law as a conserved quantity.
- iii/. Momentum \rightarrow Emerges from the third law as a conserved quantity.

Physical ~~consequences~~ Points of Newton's laws

- 1/. Objects have inertia. Mass is a measure of the inertia. Force is needed to overcome (change in motion) \leftarrow inertia.
- 2/. The second law quantifies force, and makes it measurable in physical ways.
- 3/. The third law, (~~which~~ ^{following} the knowledge of force), relates force to interactions among objects.

Maxwell's Equations of Electrostatics and Magnetostatics

$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \rho / \epsilon_0$	← Gauss's Law	$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$
$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = \vec{0}$	Ampere's Law →	$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J}$

1/. $\rho \rightarrow$ Charge Density, $\vec{J} \rightarrow$ Cross-Sectional Current Density

$\rho \rightarrow \frac{\text{Charge}}{\text{Volume}} \rightarrow \frac{\text{Coulomb}}{\text{m}^3}$ <small>(S.I. unit)</small>	$\vec{J} \rightarrow \frac{\text{Current}}{\text{Area}} = \frac{\text{ampere}}{\text{m}^2}$ <small>(S.I. unit)</small>
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2/. Physical "sources" are electric in nature $\rightarrow [\rho, \vec{J}]$. There is no physical element of magnetism.

3/. All magnetic effects arise due to electric phenomena. $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J}$
(Ampere)

4/. Magnetic fields have neither a source nor a sink. $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$.
 There are no magnetic monopoles.

5/ Now $\boxed{\vec{E} = E(r) \hat{r}}$ \rightarrow A central field.

$$\boxed{E(r) \propto \frac{1}{r^2}} \Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{E} \propto \frac{1}{r^2} \hat{r}} \rightarrow \text{Inverse Square field.} \quad \text{Coulomb}$$

Since \vec{E} is a central vector field,

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = \vec{0}} \text{ for the } \underline{\text{electrostatic field}}.$$

6/ $\boxed{\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}}$ is the Consequence of Coulomb's law

of a $\boxed{\frac{1}{r^2} \hat{r}}$ ~~radial~~ radial field.

Integrate
(volume integral) $\boxed{\int_V (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}) d\tau = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \int_V \rho d\tau}$

But $\boxed{\int_V (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}) d\tau = \oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{a}}$ \rightarrow Gauss Divergence Theorem

and $\boxed{\int_V \rho d\tau = Q_{enc}}$ \rightarrow Total charge enclosed in the volume

Hence, $\boxed{\oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{a} = \frac{Q_{enc}}{\epsilon_0}}$ \rightarrow Gauss's law of electrostatics in the integral form

$$\boxed{\oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{a} \rightarrow \text{Flux}}$$

(P.T.O.)

(Continued)

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$$\boxed{\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}}$$

→ Gauss's law of electrostatics in the Differential form.

And, Electric

Flux $\boxed{\oint_S \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{a}}$

through a closed surface is (charge enclosed) / ϵ_0 .

77. $\boxed{\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J}}$

→ Ampere's law

Integrate
(surface integral) $\boxed{\int_S (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) \cdot d\vec{a} = \mu_0 \int_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{a}}$

But $\boxed{\int_S (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) \cdot d\vec{a} = \oint_P \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l}}$ → The Stokes
Curl
Theorem

and $\boxed{\int_S \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{a} = I_{enc}}$ → Total current
enclosed through a
full cross-sectional
area.

Hence, $\boxed{\oint_P \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I_{enc}}$ → Ampere's law
in the integral
form.

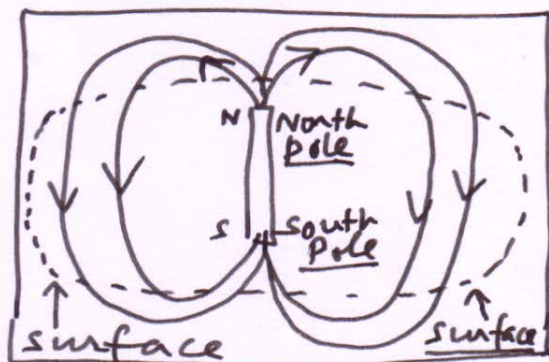
$\boxed{\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J}}$ → Ampere's law in the
Differential form.

87. $\boxed{\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0}$ • $\boxed{\int_V (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B}) d\tau = \oint_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{a} = 0}$ (P.T.O.)
By the Gauss ⇒
Divergence Theorem

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\therefore Magnetic Flux
vanishes through
a closed surface.
Field lines close
upon themselves.

$$\oint_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{a} = 0$$



Total field lines entering a surface
equals total field lines exiting it.

Hence, net magnetic flux is zero.

- i) Magnetic field lines have no starting point or finishing point. They always close upon themselves. They have no source point or a sink (point). Zero Divergence
- ii) Electric field lines start at a positive charge, and end on a negative charge. They have sources or sinks. Hence they have non-zero Divergence.

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$$

But $\vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$$

$\vec{A} \rightarrow$ Magnetic vector Potential.

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = 0$$

But $\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \psi) = \vec{0}$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla} \psi$$

$\psi \rightarrow$ Electrostatic Scalar Potential

Maxwell's Equations of Electrodynamics

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \rho / \epsilon_0$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = - \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$$

1. Only the "curl" (\times) equations are modified. Their right-hand sides now have time-varying \vec{E} and \vec{B} fields. No longer "static" (Electro-dynamics)

2. $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = - \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \rightarrow$ Faraday's law. A changing magnetic field induces an electric field.

3. In $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \dots$, Maxwell introduced a time-varying correction, $\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$ to the static ~~static~~ Ampere law. $\vec{J}_D = \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$, is known as the displacement current

4. In free-space, $[\rho = 0, \vec{J} = \vec{0}]$, no charge and no current. There, ^{just} a time-varying electric field $\frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$, induces a magnetic field.