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Preface

This document is a compilation of scratch work, derivations, useful formulas, definitions, constants, and general information used for my own studies as a reference while furthering self education. These are my notes. It's purpose is to provide a complete 'compendium' per say of various mathematical and significant ideas used often. All the material in this document was either directly copied from one of the references listed at the end or derived from scratch. On occasion *typos may exist* due to human error but will be corrected when discovered.

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Topics Covered In This Book

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| • General Mathematics | • Astrophysics |
| • Calculus | • Electrodynamics |
| • Linear Algebra | • Relativity |
| • Geometry | • Classical Mechanics |
| • Statistical Mechanics | • Quantum Mechanics |

The information in this book is in no way limited to the topics listed above. They serve as a simple guideline to what you will find within this document. For more information about this book or details about how to obtain your own copy please visit:

<https://torodean.github.io/>

Disclaimer

This book contains formulas, definitions, and theorems that by nature are very precise. Due to this, some of the material in this book was taken directly from other sources such as but not limited to Wolfram Mathworld. This is only such in cases where a change in wording could cause ambiguities or loss of information quality. Following this, all sources used are listed in the references section and cited when used.

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(Yes, this is a contradiction.)

Contents

1	Constants and units	1
2	Geometry and Trigonometry	4
2.1	Triangles	4
3	General Mathematics	6
3.1	Coordinate Systems	6
3.1.1	Cartesian Coordinates	6
3.1.2	Polar Coordinates	7
3.1.3	Spherical Coordinates	7
3.1.4	Cylindrical Coordinates	8
3.1.5	Elliptic Coordinates	9
3.1.6	Elliptic Cylindrical Coordinates	9
3.2	Logarithms	9
3.2.1	Properties of Logarithms	9
3.3	Conventions and basic Definitions	10
3.3.1	Complex Numbers	10
3.3.2	Vectors	11
3.3.3	The Dot Product Theorem	13
3.4	Summation	15
3.5	Binomial Coefficients	16
4	Statistics and Probability	19
5	Calculus	21
5.1	Definitions and General Differential Equations	21
5.2	Ordinary Linear Homogeneous Differential Equations	29
5.3	Linear Ordinary Differential Equations	32
5.3.1	n-Degree Polynomial Particular Functions	32
5.3.2	Simple Exponential Particular Functions	35
5.4	Integrals	39
6	Linear Algebra	42
6.1	Linear Systems	42
7	General Physics	46
7.1	Chemistry	47
7.2	Biology	47
7.3	Astronomy	48
7.4	Geology	48
7.5	Energy	49
7.5.1	Work	49
7.5.2	Gravitational Potential Energy	50
7.5.3	Kinetic Energy	50

8	Classical Mechanics	52
8.1	Gravity	52
8.1.1	Keplar's Laws	53
8.2	Motion	54
8.2.1	Newton's Laws	54
8.2.2	Inertial Frames	55
9	Statistical Mechanics & Thermodynamics	56
9.1	The Atomic Hypothesis	56
10	Astrophysics	60
11	Electromagnetism	61
11.1	The Electromagnetic Field	61
12	Quantum Mechanics	63
12.1	Introduction	63
12.1.1	The Stern-Gerlach Experiment	65
12.2	Conventions and Notation	66
13	Relativity	68
13.1	Time	68
13.2	Distances	69
14	Quantum Field Theory	71
15	Quantum Electrodynamics	72
15.1	Introduction	72
16	Quantum Chromodynamics	74
17	resources	75
	References	75

Constants and units

1.0.1: Physical Constants

Constant	Symbol	Value	Units
Speed of light in a vacuum	$c \equiv 1/\sqrt{\mu_0\epsilon_0}$	2.99792458×10^8	m/s
Elementary charge	e	$1.602176565(35) \times 10^{-19}$	C
Gravitational constant	G	$6.67384(80) \times 10^{-11}$	$\text{m}^3\text{kg}^{-1}\text{s}^{-2}$
Avagadro's number	N_a	$6.02214129(27) \times 10^{23}$	$\text{mol}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$
Planck constant	h	$6.62606872(52) \times 10^{-34}$	J·s
		4.135668×10^{-15}	eV·s
	hc	1239.84	eV·nm
Reduced planck constant	$\hbar \equiv h/2\pi$	1.05×10^{-34}	J·s
Permittivity of the vacuum	ϵ_0	8.854×10^{-12}	$\text{C}^2\text{N}^{-1}\text{m}^{-2}$
Permeability of the vacuum	μ_0	$4\pi \times 10^{-7}$	N/A^2
Permeability of the vacuum	μ_0	$4\pi \times 10^{-7}$	N/A^2
Boltzmann constant	k_B	$1.38064852 \times 10^{-23}$	J/K
		8.61733×10^{-5}	eV/K
Stefan-Boltzmann constant	$\sigma_B \equiv \frac{\pi^2 k_B^4}{60\hbar^3 c^3}$	$5.670367(13) \times 10^{-8}$	$\text{W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\text{K}^{-4}$
Thomson cross-section	σ_e	6.652×10^{-29}	m^2
The Bohr Magneton	$\mu_B \equiv \frac{e\hbar}{2m}$	5.788×10^{-5}	eV/T
		9.274×10^{-24}	Am^2
Mass of an electron	m_e	$9.10938291(40) \times 10^{-31}$	kg
		510.9989	keV/ c^2
Mass of a proton	m_p	$1.6726218 \times 10^{-27}$	kg
		938.27203	MeV/ c^2
Mass of a neutron	m_n	$1.6749274 \times 10^{-27}$	kg
		939.56536	MeV/ c^2
Unified amu	u	$1.660538782 \times 10^{-27}$	kg
		931.494028	MeV/ c^2

1.0.2: Stellar Data

Spectral Type	T_{eff} (K)	M/M_\odot	L/L_\odot	R/R_\odot	V_{mag}
O5	44,500	60	7.9×10^5	12	-5.7
B5	15,400	5.9	830	3.9	-1.2
A5	8,200	2.0	14	1.7	1.9
F5	6,440	1.4	3.2	1.3	3.4
G5	5,770	0.92	0.79	0.92	4.9
K5	4,350	0.67	0.15	0.72	6.7
M5	3,170	0.21	0.011	0.27	12.3

1.0.3: Astronomical Constants

Constant	Symbol	Value	Units
Mass of Earth	M_{\oplus}	5.974×10^{24}	kg
Mass of Sun	M_{\odot}	1.989×10^{30}	kg
Mass of Moon	M_{\lrcorner}	7.36×10^{22}	kg
Equatorial radius of Earth	R_{\oplus}	6.378×10^6	m
Equatorial radius of Sun	R_{\odot}	6.6955×10^8	m
Equatorial radius of Moon	R_{\lrcorner}	1.737×10^6	m
Mean density of Earth		5515	$\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$
Mean density of Sun		1408	$\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$
Mean density of Moon		3346	$\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$
Earth-Moon distance		3.84×10^8	m
Earth-Sun distance		1.496×10^{11}	m
Luminosity of Sun	L_{\odot}	3.839×10^{26}	W
Effective temp. of Sun		5778	K
Hubble constant	H_0	70 ± 5	$\text{km}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}\text{Mpc}^{-1}$
Parsec	pc	206264.81	AU
		3.0856776×10^{16}	m
		3.2615638	ly
Astronomical Unit	AU	1.496×10^{11}	m
Light year	ly	9.461×10^{15}	m
1 year on Earth	yr	365.25	days
		3.15576×10^7	s

1.0.4: Solar System

Planet	Symbol	Mass (kg)	Radius (m)	Sun-Distance (km)
Mercury	♿	3.285×10^{23}	2.44×10^6	5.791×10^{10}
Venus	♀	4.867×10^{24}	6.052×10^6	1.082×10^{11}
Mars	♂	6.39×10^{23}	3.390×10^6	2.279×10^{11}
Jupiter	♃	1.898×10^{27}	3.83×10^{11}	7.785×10^{11}
Saturn	♄	5.683×10^{26}	5.8232×10^7	1.429×10^{12}
Uranus	♅	8.681×10^{25}	2.5362×10^7	2.871×10^{12}
Neptune	♆	1.024×10^{26}	2.4622×10^7	4.498×10^{12}
Pluto	♇	1.309×10^{22}	1.187×10^6	5.906×10^{12}

1.0.5: Unit conversions

The International System of Units (SI) defines seven units of measure as a basic set from which all other SI units can be derived. These are [length](m), [time](s), [mass](kg), [electric current] \equiv [Ampere](A), [temperature](K), [luminous intensity](cd), [amount of substance](mol).

Unit Symbol	Unit	Equivalence
C	[Coulomb]	[Ampere][time]
N	[Newton]	[mass][length][time] ⁻²
P	[Pascal]	[mass][length] ⁻¹ [time] ⁻²
J	[Joule]	[mass][length] ² [time] ⁻²
W	[Watt]	[mass][length] ² [time] ⁻³
		[Ohm][Ampere] ²
		[Volt] ² [Ohm] ⁻¹
V	[Volt]	[mass][length] ² [time] ⁻³ [Ampere] ⁻¹
Wb	[Weber]	[mass][length] ² [time] ⁻² [Ampere] ⁻¹
T	[Tesla]	[mass][time] ⁻² [Ampere] ⁻¹
H	[henry]	[mass][length] ² [time] ⁻² [Ampere] ⁻²
Ω	[Ohm]	[mass][length] ² [time] ⁻³ [Ampere] ⁻²
F	[Farad]	[mass] ⁻¹ [length] ⁻² [time] ⁴ [Ampere] ²
Hz	[Hertz]	[time] ⁻¹

1.0.6: Number Sets ($i \equiv \sqrt{-1}$)

Symbol	Set	Symbol	Set
\mathbb{R}	Real numbers	\emptyset	$\{\}$
$\mathbb{N} \equiv \mathbb{N}_1$	$\{1,2,3,4,\dots\}$	\mathbb{Z}	$\{\dots,-2,1,0,1,2,\dots\}$
$\mathbb{Z}^+ \equiv \mathbb{N}_0$	$\{0,1,2,3,\dots\}$	\mathbb{Z}^-	$\{0,-1,-2,-3,-4,\dots\}$
\mathbb{C}	$\{x + iy x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$	\mathbb{Q}	$\{\frac{x}{y} x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$
\mathbb{I}	$\{ix x \in \mathbb{R}\}$	\mathbb{U}	Universal Set ^a
\mathbb{A}	Algebraic Numbers ^b	\mathbb{T}	Transcendental Numbers ^c

^aDefinition: The set containing all objects or elements and of which all other sets are subsets.

^bAny number that is a solution to a polynomial equation with rational coefficients.

^cAny number that is not an Algebraic Number.

1.0.7: Mathematical Notation

\forall	For all	\exists	There exists	\because	Because
\in	Is an element of	\notin	Is not an element of	\therefore	Therefore
\implies	Implies	\iff	Bi conditional	\approx	Approximately
\longrightarrow	Mapped to	$\not\subseteq$	Is not a subset of	\ll	Much smaller than
\subset	Is a subset of	\subseteq	Is a subset or equal to	\gg	Much greater than
\propto	Is proportional to	\equiv	Is equivalent to	\cup/\cap	Union/Intersection
\perp	Is perpendicular to	\parallel	Is parallel to	$: \text{ or } $	Such that

Geometry and Trigonometry

Geometry is a branch of mathematics that deals with the study of shapes, sizes, positions, and properties of space. It explores the relationships and properties of points, lines, angles, surfaces, and solids. In geometry, fundamental concepts include:

1. **Points:** Basic building blocks with no size or dimensions. They are represented by dots and are used to define other geometric elements.
2. **Lines:** Straight paths that extend infinitely in both directions. They are made up of an infinite number of points.
3. **Angles:** The measure of the rotation between two intersecting lines, rays, or line segments.
4. **Polygons:** Closed figures formed by connecting line segments to create shapes like triangles, quadrilaterals, pentagons, etc.
5. **Circles:** A set of points equidistant from a central point, forming a closed curve.
6. **Three-dimensional shapes:** Solids such as cubes, spheres, cylinders, pyramids, etc., with length, width, and height.
7. **Higher-dimensional shapes or objects:** In addition to the traditional two-dimensional and three-dimensional shapes, geometry also explores mathematical constructs extended to higher dimensions. These higher dimensions go beyond our familiar three-dimensional space and introduce concepts like 4D, 5D, and higher-dimensional shapes. For example, in 4D space, there could be hypercubes, 4D spheres, and other intriguing structures. While challenging to visualize, these higher-dimensional geometries play a crucial role in theoretical mathematics and various scientific fields, offering unique insights into the nature of space and dimensions beyond our immediate perception.

Geometry plays a significant role in various fields, including architecture, engineering, art, design, physics, and many other disciplines. It helps us understand the physical world and solve problems related to spatial relationships and measurements. Euclidean geometry, founded by the ancient Greek mathematician Euclid, is one of the most well-known and widely studied branches of geometry. However, there are also other types of geometries, such as non-Euclidean geometries, which explore different axioms and concepts, leading to intriguing and diverse mathematical systems.

2.1 Triangles

Definition 2.1.1: The Law Of Cosines

The Law of Cosines relates the side lengths of a triangle to the cosine of one of its angles. For a triangle with side lengths a , b , and c , and angle C opposite to side c , the Law of Cosines is given by:



$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos C \quad (2.1.1)$$

Notice from definition 2.1.1 that if the angle $C = 90^\circ = \pi/2$, then the cosine term would evaluate to zero and we'd be left with **the Pythagorean theorem** $c^2 = a^2 + b^2$.

General Mathematics

Mathematics is a systematic field of study that deals with numbers, quantities, shapes, and patterns. It is often regarded as the language of science, as it provides a framework for analyzing and understanding various phenomena in the natural and social world. Mathematics involves a wide range of topics, including arithmetic, algebra, geometry, calculus, statistics, and more. It is based on rigorous logical reasoning and uses symbols and formulas to represent relationships and solve problems. Mathematics plays a crucial role in various fields, such as physics, engineering, economics, computer science, and many other disciplines, making it an essential tool for advancing knowledge and technology.

3.1 Coordinate Systems

Coordinate systems are mathematical tools used to represent points in space or on a surface using a set of numerical values. They provide a systematic way to describe the location of points relative to a reference point or axis. There are several types of coordinate systems, each with its unique set of parameters and applications.

3.1.1 Cartesian Coordinates

Cartesian coordinates, also known as **rectangular coordinates**, are a system of representing points in a two-dimensional or three-dimensional space using a set of perpendicular axes (See figure 3.1). Cartesian coordinates can be mathematically extended into higher dimensions.

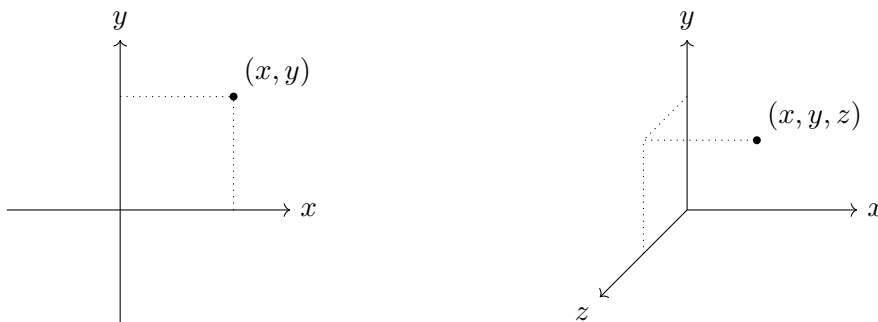


Figure 3.1: 2-D and 3-D Cartesian Coordinate Systems with a single point located at one unit in each axes.

In two-dimensional Cartesian coordinates, a point is located by specifying its distance (magnitude) along the x-axis and the y-axis from the origin $(0,0)$, where the x-axis is horizontal, and the y-axis is vertical. The coordinates of a point are written as (x, y) , where x represents the horizontal distance and y represents the vertical distance. In three-dimensional Cartesian coordinates, a point is located by specifying its distance along the x-axis, y-axis, and z-axis from the origin $(0, 0, 0)$. The coordinates of a point are written as (x, y, z) , where x , y , and z represent the distances along the three axes. In higher n -dimensions, a similar formulation is used where a point is located by specifying its distance along n -axes (typically denoted by the unit vector \hat{e}_i) from the origin $\vec{0}$. The coordinates are (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n) , where x_i represents the distance along the respective n axes.

3.1.2 Polar Coordinates

Polar coordinates are a two-dimensional coordinate system (see figure 3.2) used to describe points in a plane. Unlike the traditional Cartesian coordinates (x, y) , polar coordinates represent points using a distance (r) from the origin and an angle (θ) measured counterclockwise from a reference line (usually the positive x -axis). The distance r is always a non-negative value, representing the radial distance from the origin to the point. The polar coordinate system is especially useful when dealing with circular or radial patterns, as it simplifies calculations involving angles and distances. The conversion between polar coordinates and Cartesian coordinates can be done using trigonometric functions.

$$x = r \cos(\theta) \qquad y = r \sin(\theta) \qquad (3.1.1)$$

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \qquad \theta = \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right). \qquad (3.1.2)$$

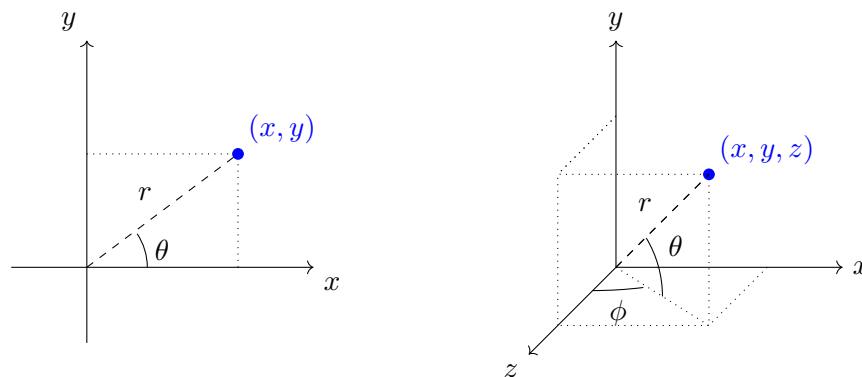


Figure 3.2: LEFT: The point (x, y) in Cartesian coordinates can be represented as (r, θ) in polar coordinates, where r is the distance from the origin to the point and θ is the angle measured counterclockwise from the positive x -axis. RIGHT: The point (x, y, z) in Cartesian coordinates can be represented as (r, θ, ϕ) in a modified spherical coordinate system, where r is the distance from the origin to the point, θ is the angle measured counterclockwise from the positive x -axis towards the y direction and ϕ is the angle from the z -axis.

3.1.3 Spherical Coordinates

Spherical coordinates (see figure 3.2) are a system of representing points in 3D space using three parameters: radial distance r , polar angle θ , and azimuthal angle ϕ . This system is particularly useful for describing points on a sphere or points in a 3D space relative to a fixed origin. The radial distance r represents the distance from the origin to the point. It is a non-negative value and measures how far the point is from the origin. It is important to note that polar angle and azimuthal angle can often be represented in different ways depending on the coordinate convention. Typically, polar angle represents the angle between the positive z -axis and the line connecting the origin to the point projected onto the xy -plane. It varies from 0° (on the positive z -axis) to 180° (on the negative z -axis). This ‘polar’ angle in essence would then connect both poles on a planet. I prefer to use the convention that matches 2-dimensional polar coordinates, as it removes some confusion when converting between the two - therefore θ is defined as the same angle as it would be in 2 dimensions and then ϕ is the angle of that 2-dimensional plane rotated about the z -axis. The conversion between spherical coordinates and Cartesian coordinates can be done using trigonometric functions. For the convention I prefer, and matching figure 3.2, we have

$$x = r \cos(\theta) \sin(\phi), \quad y = r \sin(\theta), \quad z = r \cos(\theta) \cos(\phi), \quad r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \quad (3.1.3)$$

These can be shown to be equivalent to the more commonly used spherical coordinates. To demonstrate this, I will denote the coordinates defined above with the subscript $_0$. For a more common convention (the physics one), imagine we modify our coordinates so that the x_0 axis is the y axis, The y_0 axis is the z axis, and the z_0 axis is the x axis. Then we further define θ as the angle from the z axis to our radial line, which is therefore $\theta_0 = \frac{\pi}{2} - \theta$ or $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2} - \theta_0$. In this change, r does not change as we are not changing our line or angles (just denoting them differently) giving us $r_0 \equiv r$, and ϕ also stays the same giving $\phi_0 \equiv \phi$. Plugging these into our coordinates above give us

$$x_0 = r_0 \cos(\theta_0) \sin(\phi_0) \implies y = r \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) \sin(\phi) = r \sin(\theta) \sin(\phi) \quad (3.1.4)$$

$$y_0 = r_0 \sin(\theta_0) \implies z = r \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) = r \cos(\theta) \quad (3.1.5)$$

$$z_0 = r_0 \cos(\theta_0) \cos(\phi_0) \implies x = r \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) \cos(\phi) = r \sin(\theta) \cos(\phi) \quad (3.1.6)$$

$$r_0 = \sqrt{x_0^2 + y_0^2 + z_0^2} \implies r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \quad (3.1.7)$$

This conversion gives us the more commonly used spherical coordinate convention

$$x = r \sin(\theta) \cos(\phi), \quad y = r \sin(\theta) \sin(\phi), \quad z = r \cos(\theta), \quad r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \quad (3.1.8)$$

Therefore we can see they are equivalent and can be used interchangeably.

3.1.4 Cylindrical Coordinates



Figure 3.3: The point (x, y, z) in Cartesian coordinates can be represented as (r, θ, z) in cylindrical coordinates, where r is the distance from the z axis to the point and θ is the angle measured counterclockwise from the positive x -axis.

Cylindrical coordinates (see figure 3.3) are a system used to represent points in three-dimensional space using three parameters: radial distance r , polar angle θ , and height z . In this system, the radial

distance measures the distance from the z -axis to the point in a plane perpendicular to the z -axis. The polar angle θ represents the azimuthal angle, measured counterclockwise from the positive x -axis to the projection of the point on the xy -plane. The height z indicates the distance of the point along the z -axis. Cylindrical coordinates are particularly useful for describing objects or phenomena with cylindrical symmetry. The conversion between cylindrical coordinates and Cartesian coordinates can be done using trigonometric functions.

$$x = r \cos(\theta), \quad y = r \sin(\theta), \quad z = z, \quad r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \quad (3.1.9)$$

3.1.5 Elliptic Coordinates

3.1.6 Elliptic Cylindrical Coordinates

3.2 Logarithms

Logarithms are fundamental mathematical functions that arise in various areas of mathematics, science, and engineering. They are used to solve exponential equations, simplify calculations involving large numbers, and analyze exponential growth and decay.

Definition 3.2.1: Logarithm

The **logarithm** of a positive number x with respect to a base b is defined as the exponent to which b must be raised to obtain x . This is expressed as:

$$\log_b(x) = y \quad \text{if and only if} \quad b^y = x \quad (3.2.1)$$

Two commonly used bases for logarithms are 10 and the mathematical constant e (approximately 2.71828). The logarithms with base 10 are called common logarithms, denoted as $\log_{10}(x)$ or simply $\log(x)$. The logarithms with base e are called natural logarithms, denoted as $\ln(x)$. Sometimes in physics or other natural science fields, the natural logarithm is implied and these will be used interchangeably.

Logarithms have a wide range of applications in various fields:

- **Exponential Growth and Decay:** Logarithms are used to model and analyze processes that involve exponential growth or decay, such as population growth, radioactive decay, and compound interest.
- **Scientific Notation:** Logarithms are used to express very large or very small numbers in a more compact and manageable form known as scientific notation.
- **Signal Processing:** Logarithms are used in signal processing to compress dynamic range and reduce computational complexity.
- **Complex Analysis:** Logarithms are used in complex analysis to define complex powers and extend the concept of logarithms to complex numbers.

3.2.1 Properties of Logarithms

Logarithms possess several important properties that make them useful in various mathematical manipulations:

- **Product Rule:** $\log_b(xy) = \log_b(x) + \log_b(y)$

Proof. Suppose $\log_b(xy) = z$, then $b^z = xy$ (by definition). Let $\log_b(x) = z_0$, and $\log_b(y) = z_1$. Taking these two expressions, we have (by definition)

$$\log_b(x) = z_0 \implies b^{z_0} = x \quad (3.2.2)$$

$$\log_b(y) = z_1 \implies b^{z_1} = y. \quad (3.2.3)$$

Multiplying x by y gives $xy = b^{z_0}b^{z_1} = b^{z_0+z_1}$. But since $b^z = xy$, we have $b^z = b^{z_0+z_1} \implies z = z_0 + z_1 = \log_b(x) + \log_b(y) = \log_b(xy)$. \square

- **Quotient Rule:** $\log_b\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \log_b(x) - \log_b(y)$

Proof. Suppose $\log_b\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = z$, then $b^z = \frac{x}{y}$ (by definition). Let $\log_b(x) = z_0$, and $\log_b(y) = z_1$. Taking these two expressions, we have (by definition)

$$\log_b(x) = z_0 \implies b^{z_0} = x \quad (3.2.4)$$

$$\log_b(y) = z_1 \implies b^{z_1} = y. \quad (3.2.5)$$

Dividing x by y gives $\frac{x}{y} = \frac{b^{z_0}}{b^{z_1}} = b^{z_0-z_1}$. But since $b^z = \frac{x}{y}$, we have $b^z = b^{z_0-z_1} \implies z = z_0 - z_1 = \log_b(x) - \log_b(y) = \log_b\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)$. \square

- **Power Rule:** $\log_b(x^n) = n \cdot \log_b(x)$

Proof. Suppose $\log_b(x^n) = z$, then $b^z = x^n$ (by definition). Raising both sides by $\frac{1}{n}$ yields $b^{\frac{z}{n}} = x$. Let $n \log_b(x) = q$. Dividing both sides by n and applying the definition of logarithm gives $\log_b(x) = \frac{q}{n} \implies b^{\frac{q}{n}} = x$. Since $x = b^{\frac{q}{n}} = b^{\frac{z}{n}} \implies z = q \implies \log_b(x^n) = n \cdot \log_b(x)$ \square

- **Change of Base Formula:** $\log_b(x) = \frac{\log_c(x)}{\log_c(b)}$ (for any positive $c \neq 1$)

Proof. Let $\log_b(x) = z$, $\log_c(x) = z_0$, and $\log_c(b) = z_1$. By definition we then have $b^z = x$, $c^{z_0} = x$, and $c^{z_1} = b$. Raising b in this last expression to the power of z gives $b^z = c^{zz_1}$. Then it follows that $c^{z_0} = x = b^z = c^{zz_1}$. We can then relate the exponents $zz_1 = z_0 \implies z = \frac{z_0}{z_1}$. Using the definitions of z_0 and z_1 , this gives $z = \frac{z_0}{z_1} = \frac{\log_c(x)}{\log_c(b)} = \log_b(x)$. \square

3.3 Conventions and basic Definitions

3.3.1 Complex Numbers

Definition 3.3.1: Complex Number

complex number is a number of the form $z = a + bi$, where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, and i is the imaginary unit with the property $i^2 = -1$.

Definition 3.3.2: Complex Conjugate

Suppose $z = a + bi$ is a **complex number**, where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and i is the imaginary unit ($i^2 = -1$). The complex conjugate of z , typically denoted by \bar{z} or z^* , is obtained by changing the sign of the imaginary part.

$$z = a + bi \implies \bar{z} \equiv z^* = a - bi \quad (3.3.1)$$

A few mathematical identities hold when combining complex numbers with their complex conjugates.

- The product of a complex number and its complex conjugate is always a real number:

$$z \cdot \bar{z} = (a + bi)(a - bi) = a^2 + b^2 \quad (3.3.2)$$

- The sum of a complex number and its complex conjugate gives a real number with twice the real part:

$$z + \bar{z} = (a + bi) + (a - bi) = 2a \quad (3.3.3)$$

- The difference between a complex number and its complex conjugate gives a purely imaginary number with twice the imaginary part:

$$z - \bar{z} = (a + bi) - (a - bi) = 2bi \quad (3.3.4)$$

- The complex conjugate of a product is the product of the complex conjugates.

$$(z_1 \cdot z_2)^* = [(a_1 + b_1i)(a_2 + b_2i)]^* \quad (3.3.5)$$

$$= [a_1a_2 + a_1b_2i + a_2b_1i - b_1b_2]^* \quad (3.3.6)$$

$$= a_1a_2 - b_1b_2 - (a_1b_2 + a_2b_1)i \quad (3.3.7)$$

$$= (a_1 - b_1i)(a_2 - b_2i) \quad (3.3.8)$$

$$= z_1^* \cdot z_2^* \quad (3.3.9)$$

- The inverse of a non-zero complex conjugate number $z = a + bi$ is

$$\frac{1}{z} = \frac{1}{a + bi} \left(\frac{a + bi}{a + bi} \right) = \frac{a + bi}{a^2 + b^2} = \frac{a}{a^2 + b^2} + \frac{b}{a^2 + b^2}i \quad (3.3.10)$$

3.3.2 Vectors

The **bra** and **ket** notation is commonly used to represent vectors and vector operations. A superscript “ T ” represents the **transposition** of a vector or a matrix. Vectors in 3 spacial dimensions, such as those in classical mechanics, are typically notated with an arrow overhead (i.e. \vec{v}). In other contexts, vectors are either represented by boldface script or by Dirac’s **bra-ket** notation.

Definition 3.3.3: Dirac's Bra-ket Notation

Ket vectors are represented by column vectors, by vertically arranged tuples of scalars (or equivalently, by $n \times 1$ matrices).

$$\vec{x} \equiv \mathbf{x} \equiv |\mathbf{x}\rangle \equiv \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^T \quad (3.3.11)$$

A vector \mathbf{x}^* with an asterisk symbol in its superscript denotes an element of the dual space. This is represented by the bra vector $\langle \mathbf{x}|$. Bra vectors represent row vectors - horizontally arranged tuples of scalars (i.e. $1 \times n$ matrices).

$$\mathbf{x}^* \equiv \langle \mathbf{x}| \equiv (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \quad (3.3.12)$$

The dot (inner or scalar) products between two vectors \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} in Euclidean space is denoted by $\langle \mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}\rangle$.

The **dot product**, also known as the scalar product or inner product, is an operation defined on vectors in mathematics and physics. It takes two vectors of equal dimensionality and produces a single scalar value as the result. The dot product is commonly denoted using the dot symbol (\cdot), bra-ket notation, or by juxtaposing the vectors without any operator.

Definition 3.3.4: Dot Product

Given two vectors $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$, the dot product is defined as

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} \equiv \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} \equiv \langle \mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}\rangle \equiv |\mathbf{x}||\mathbf{y}| \cos(\theta) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n = \underbrace{x_i y_i}_{\text{Einstein Notation}}, \quad (3.3.13)$$

where θ is the smallest angle between the two vectors.

A few mathematical identities hold when dealing with dot products.

- **Commutativity**

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n = y_1 x_1 + y_2 x_2 + \dots + y_n x_n = \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{x} \quad (3.3.14)$$

- **Distributive Property**

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i (b_i + c_i) \hat{e}_i = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i b_i \hat{e}_i + \sum_{i=0}^n a_i c_i \hat{e}_i = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C} \quad (3.3.15)$$

- **Scalar Multiplication**

$$(k\mathbf{A}) \cdot \mathbf{B} = \sum_{i=0}^n (k a_i) b_i \hat{e}_i = k \sum_{i=0}^n a_i b_i \hat{e}_i = k(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i (k b_i) \hat{e}_i = \mathbf{A} \cdot (k\mathbf{B}) \quad (3.3.16)$$

- **Orthogonal (Perpendicular) Vectors:** If the dot product of two non-zero vectors is zero, they are orthogonal (perpendicular) to each other.

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0 \implies |\mathbf{x}||\mathbf{y}| \cos(\theta) = 0 \implies \underbrace{\theta = \frac{\pi}{2} + \pi n, \text{ where } n \in \mathbb{N}}_{90^\circ \text{ between vectors}} \quad (3.3.17)$$

- **Projection:** The dot product can be used to find the projection of one vector onto another. The projection of vector \mathbf{A} onto vector \mathbf{B} is given by

$$\text{proj}_{\mathbf{B}}(\mathbf{A}) = \frac{\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}}{|\mathbf{B}|^2} \mathbf{B} \quad (3.3.18)$$

3.3.3 The Dot Product Theorem

Suppose we have two 3-dimensional vectors $\vec{r} = (r_x, r_y, r_z)$ and $\vec{s} = (s_x, s_y, s_z)$ in a Euclidean x, y, z coordinate system. The dot product is then $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{s} = r_x s_x + r_y s_y + r_z s_z = |\vec{r}||\vec{s}| \cos(\theta)$, where θ is the smallest angle between the two vectors. From this, the angle between these two 3 dimensional vectors can be determined as

$$\theta = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\vec{r} \cdot \vec{s}}{|\vec{r}||\vec{s}|} \right) \quad (3.3.19)$$

Consider two vectors $\vec{A} = A_x \hat{x} + A_y \hat{y}$ and $\vec{B} = B_x \hat{x} + B_y \hat{y}$ in a 2-dimensional plane. In polar coordinates this would be $\vec{A} = A \cos(\theta_A) \hat{x} + A \sin(\theta_A) \hat{y}$ and $\vec{B} = B \cos(\theta_B) \hat{x} + B \sin(\theta_B) \hat{y}$, where $A = \sqrt{A_x^2 + A_y^2}$ and $B = \sqrt{B_x^2 + B_y^2}$ are the magnitudes of each vector. The definition of dot product according to Wolfram's Mathworld is simply

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = |\mathbf{x}||\mathbf{y}| \cos(\theta) \quad (3.3.20)$$

, where θ is the smallest angle between the two vectors. Using the polar coordinates, the magnitudes of each vector are simply A and B and the angle between them is the differences of the angles $\theta_A - \theta_B$. Therefore the dot product is $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = AB \cos(\theta_A - \theta_B)$. We can apply some trigonometric identities to show this is equal to the summation notation in Definition 3.3.4.

$$\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = AB \cos(\theta_A - \theta_B) \quad (3.3.21)$$

$$= AB(\cos(\theta_A) \cos(\theta_B) + \sin(\theta_A) \sin(\theta_B)) \quad (3.3.22)$$

$$= A \cos(\theta_A) B \cos(\theta_B) + A \sin(\theta_A) B \sin(\theta_B) \quad (3.3.23)$$

$$= A_x B_x + A_y B_y \quad (3.3.24)$$

A question then arises of whether or not this holds for dimensions higher than two. Now, imagine rotating the 2 dimensional reference frame for \vec{A} and \vec{B} into a 3-dimensional reference frame (rotating the coordinate system). The vectors themselves would be mathematically identical, as the vectors themselves did not change, however given the reference frame changed, they would have different coordinates. Thus, we define the new coordinates of these vectors in the new frame as $\vec{A} \equiv \vec{X} = x_1 \hat{e}_1 + x_2 \hat{e}_2 + x_3 \hat{e}_3$ and $\vec{B} \equiv \vec{Y} = y_1 \hat{e}_1 + y_2 \hat{e}_2 + y_3 \hat{e}_3$. Since we have only rotated our coordinate frame and not changed the vectors, the angle between them $\theta_A - \theta_B$ remains unchanged. We can begin by trying a similar method to what we got above.

Converting our two vectors to spherical coordinates (now that we are in 3-dimensional we use spherical rather than polar) we have

$$\vec{X} = x_1\hat{e}_1 + x_2\hat{e}_2 + x_3\hat{e}_3 = X \sin(\theta_x) \cos(\phi_x)\hat{e}_1 + X \sin(\theta_x) \sin(\phi_x)\hat{e}_2 + X \cos(\theta_x)\hat{e}_3 \quad (3.3.25)$$

$$\vec{Y} = y_1\hat{e}_1 + y_2\hat{e}_2 + y_3\hat{e}_3 = Y \sin(\theta_y) \cos(\phi_y)\hat{e}_1 + Y \sin(\theta_y) \sin(\phi_y)\hat{e}_2 + Y \cos(\theta_y)\hat{e}_3, \quad (3.3.26)$$

where $X = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2}$ and $Y = \sqrt{y_1^2 + y_2^2 + y_3^2}$. Assuming that definition 3.3.4 is correct, we can apply the summation form of the formula to calculate the dot product. In order to condense the formula a tad, I will preemptively divide both sides by the common magnitude factors that will exist in each term. Thus we have

$$\frac{\vec{X} \cdot \vec{Y}}{XY} \stackrel{?}{=} \sin(\theta_x) \cos(\phi_x) \sin(\theta_y) \cos(\phi_y) + \sin(\theta_x) \sin(\phi_x) \sin(\theta_y) \cos(\phi_y) + \cos(\theta_x) \cos(\theta_y) \quad (3.3.27)$$

Through some algebra, this simplifies to

$$\vec{X} \cdot \vec{Y} \stackrel{?}{=} XY [\sin(\theta_x) \sin(\theta_y) \cos(\phi_x - \phi_y) + \cos(\theta_x) \cos(\theta_y)] \quad (3.3.28)$$

Since the angle between the two vectors $\theta_A - \theta_B$ remained unchanged in our coordinate rotation and the magnitude of the vectors remained unchanged (that is, $A \equiv X$ and $B \equiv Y$), equation (3.3.28) should be equivalent to equation (3.3.21) giving us

$$\cos(\theta_A - \theta_B) \stackrel{?}{=} [\sin(\theta_x) \sin(\theta_y) \cos(\phi_x - \phi_y) + \cos(\theta_x) \cos(\theta_y)] \quad (3.3.29)$$

It is not obvious that this is an accurate equation. Although, if true, this gives a useful transformation between the angles between our two coordinate systems. Note that any 3-dimensional set of vectors can be transferred onto a 2-dimensional plane in a manner similar to this. We can try another way to demonstrate the relationship. Consider our vectors \vec{X} and \vec{Y} . The vector from the tip of \vec{X} to the tip of \vec{Y} would be $\vec{X} - \vec{Y}$ (see figure 3.4).

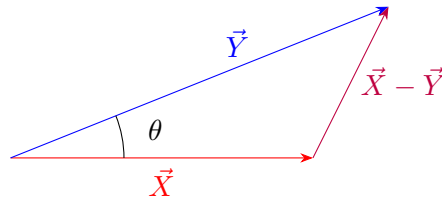


Figure 3.4: Vector subtraction: $\vec{X} - \vec{Y}$ with angle θ as the smallest angle between \vec{X} and \vec{Y} .

Let us further generalize these vectors into higher dimensions in a manner that we did previously by rotating our vectors into another higher n -dimension such that $\vec{X} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \hat{e}_i$ and $\vec{Y} = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \hat{e}_i$. Note that the above relation in figure 3.4 between the two vectors holds for any dimension we rotate them into because the vectors themselves are not changing. With this in mind, we can take the magnitudes of the vectors and apply the law of cosines (see definition 2.1.1) to get

$$|\vec{X} - \vec{Y}|^2 = |\vec{X}|^2 + |\vec{Y}|^2 - 2|\vec{X}||\vec{Y}| \cos(\theta) \quad (3.3.30)$$

Since the magnitude is defined as $|A| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2}$, this becomes

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - 2|\vec{X}||\vec{Y}| \cos(\theta) \quad (3.3.31)$$

We can then expand the left hand side of this to $\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i^2 - 2x_i y_i + y_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2$ and cancel similar terms to get

$$-2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i = -2 |\vec{X}| |\vec{Y}| \cos(\theta) \quad (3.3.32)$$

Finally, dividing both sides by negative two and apply equation (3.3.20) we see that

$$\vec{X} \cdot \vec{Y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \quad (3.3.33)$$

3.4 Summation

Definition 3.4.1: Summation Notation

A sum is the result of addition. The symbol \sum is used to represent the addition of a series of values. Let $\dots, x_{a-1}, x_a, x_{a+1}, \dots, x_{b-1}, x_b, x_{b+1}, \dots$ be a fixed series \mathbb{S} , where each term $x_i \in \mathbb{S}$, $b, a \in \mathbb{N}$ are index values. Then the sum of values in the series from a to b is given by

$$\sum_{i=a}^b x_i = x_a + x_{a+1} + \dots + x_{b-1} + x_b \quad (3.4.1)$$

In the context of summing over all of the values of a series for some index i , it is often written in different ways which are typically equivalent.

$$\sum_{i \in \mathbb{S}} x_i \equiv \sum_i x_i \quad (3.4.2)$$

If the number of terms in the summation is infinite then it is called an infinite series.

Definition 3.4.2: Product Notation

A product is the result of multiplication. The symbol \prod is used to represent the multiplication of a series of values. Let $\dots, x_{a-1}, x_a, x_{a+1}, \dots, x_{b-1}, x_b, x_{b+1}, \dots$ be a fixed series \mathbb{S} , where each term $x_i \in \mathbb{S}$, $b, a \in \mathbb{N}$ are index values. Then the product of values in the series from a to b is given by

$$\prod_{i=a}^b x_i = x_a \cdot x_{a+1} \cdot \dots \cdot x_{b-1} \cdot x_b \quad (3.4.3)$$

In the context of multiplying over all of the values of a series for some index i , it is often written in different ways which are typically equivalent.

$$\prod_{i \in \mathbb{S}} x_i \equiv \prod_i x_i \quad (3.4.4)$$

If the number of terms in the summation is infinite then it is called an infinite series.

3.5 Binomial Coefficients

Definition 3.5.1: Binomial Coefficient

The binomial coefficient, $\binom{n}{k}$, often denoted as "n choose k," is a mathematical concept used in combinatorics to represent the number of ways to choose k items from a set of n distinct items, regardless of the arrangement of the chosen elements.

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!} \quad (3.5.1)$$

To begin with, a useful idea is to sum each term of the binomial coefficient which will be used later. First, by definition of the binomial coefficient, we can write

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!} \quad (3.5.2)$$

$$= \frac{(n-1)!n}{(n-k)!k!} \quad (3.5.3)$$

$$= \frac{(n-1)!n - k(n-1)! + k(n-1)!}{(n-k)!k!} \quad (3.5.4)$$

$$= \frac{(n-1)!(n-k)}{(n-k)!k!} + \frac{k(n-1)!}{(n-k)!k!} \quad (3.5.5)$$

$$= \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-1-k)!k!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-k)!(k-1)!} \quad (3.5.6)$$

$$= \binom{n-1}{k} + \binom{n-1}{k-1} \quad (3.5.7)$$

$$\equiv \binom{m}{k} + \binom{m}{k-1}, \text{ with } m = n-1. \quad (3.5.8)$$

Observe for a moment that (3.5.7) can be expanding even further. By the same process of going from (3.5.2) to (3.5.7), we can say

$$\binom{n-1}{k-1} = \binom{n-2}{k-1} + \binom{n-2}{k-2}. \quad (3.5.9)$$

Thus, (3.5.7) becomes

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k} + \binom{n-2}{k-1} + \binom{n-2}{k-2}. \quad (3.5.10)$$

If we continue this pattern, we can see that we can write the binomial coefficients as a sum of binomial coefficients with incrementally decreasing numerators (i.e $n!$, $(n-1)!$, $(n-2)!$,...). This gives

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k} + \binom{n-2}{k-1} + \binom{n-3}{k-2} + \cdots + \binom{1}{k+2-n} + \binom{0}{k+1-n} \quad (3.5.11)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \binom{n-i}{k+1-i} \quad (3.5.12)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1-i}{k-i}. \quad (3.5.13)$$

Note that we stop the above sequence when the numerator of our factorial sequence has reached zero. If we were to continue the sequence, we would end up having negative factorials in our numerator which would make evaluating the binomial coefficient at that term and the following terms difficult. However, if we happen to have a smaller k than n , it may be such that we end up having negative k numbers. This is ok for now, as it will lead to complex infinities in the denominator of our binomial coefficient expressions hence making those terms zero. This will be demonstrated later. Now, suppose we claim the following theorem.

Theorem 3.5.1: Summing Over All binomial coefficients

For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} = \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{n!}{(n-i)!i!} = 2^n. \quad (3.5.14)$$

Proof. We can then do a proof by induction to prove this is in fact true for all $n, k \in \mathbb{N}$. First, we can see checking the base cases hold as when $n = 0$, we have $1 = 1$, when $n = 1$, we have $2 = 2$, and when $n = 3$ we have $4 = 4$. Next, let's assume for any $n = k$ that (1) holds true. Now, if we let $n = k + 1$ we have from the left hand side of our expression,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k+1} \binom{k+1}{i} = \binom{k+1}{0} + \binom{k+1}{1} + \cdots + \binom{k+1}{k} + \binom{k+1}{k+1} \quad (3.5.15)$$

$$= \binom{k}{0} + \binom{k}{-1} + \binom{k}{1} + \binom{k}{0} + \cdots + \binom{k}{k} + \binom{k}{k-1} + \binom{k}{k+1} + \binom{k}{k} \quad (3.5.16)$$

$$= 2\binom{k}{0} + 2\binom{k}{1} + \cdots + 2\binom{k}{k-1} + 2\binom{k}{k} \quad (3.5.17)$$

$$= 2 \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{i} \quad (3.5.18)$$

$$= 2(2^k) \quad (3.5.19)$$

$$= 2^{k+1}. \quad (3.5.20)$$

Therefore, we can see that for $n = k + 1$ that equation (8) holds true, and thus we conclude by induction that (8) holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. \square

Note that in the above proof, we made use of $\binom{k}{k+1} = \binom{k}{-1} = 0$. If we were to evaluate each of these using the definition of the binomial coefficient above we may notice a slight issue. Suppose we try to evaluate $\binom{n}{-1}$. Using the definition from (1), we would have

$$\binom{n}{-1} = \frac{n!}{(n - (-1))!(-1)!} \quad (3.5.21)$$

$$= \frac{n!}{(n+1)!(-1)!} \quad (3.5.22)$$

$$= \frac{n!}{(n)!(n+1)(-1)!} \quad (3.5.23)$$

$$= \frac{1}{(n+1)(-1)!}. \quad (3.5.24)$$

From above, we have a negative factorial in the denominator of our expression. Since this is not easily determined as a positive integer factorial would be, we will need to expand this using the Gamma function.

Definition 3.5.2: The Gamma function

The gamma function is a mathematical function that generalizes the concept of a factorial to a non-integer, complex number n . It is denoted by the Greek letter "Γ" (gamma) and defined as

$$\Gamma(n) = (n-1)! \equiv \int_0^{\infty} t^{n-1} e^{-t} dt. \quad (3.5.25)$$

Using this gamma function with $n = 0$ gives

$$\Gamma(0) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{-1} e^{-t} dt. \quad (3.5.26)$$

Since $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} t^{-1} e^{-t} = \infty$, we can say the integral under the curve from 0 to ∞ will be divergent, and thus ∞ . Therefore $\Gamma(0) \equiv \infty$. This allows us to write (18) as

$$\frac{1}{(n+1)(-1)!} = \frac{1}{(n+1)\Gamma(0)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0. \quad (3.5.27)$$

Thus, we can say that $\binom{n}{-1} = 0$. Similarly, by the same process, if we have $\binom{n}{n+1}$ we get

$$\binom{n}{n+1} = \frac{n!}{(n - (n+1))!(n+1)!} \quad (3.5.28)$$

$$= \frac{n!}{(-1)!(n)!(n+1)} \quad (3.5.29)$$

$$= \frac{1}{(-1)!(n+1)} \quad (3.5.30)$$

$$= 0 \quad (3.5.31)$$

Statistics and Probability

Probability is a fundamental concept in mathematics and statistics that measures the likelihood of an event occurring. It is represented as a value between 0 and 1, where 0 indicates the event is impossible, 1 denotes certainty, and values between 0 and 1 represent various degrees of likelihood. In simple terms, probability quantifies how probable or likely it is for an event to happen based on the total number of possible outcomes. It helps us make informed decisions, predict outcomes, and understand uncertainty in various real-world scenarios, such as games of chance, weather forecasts, and medical diagnoses. To understand probability on a mathematical level, some definitions of terminology is needed. ‘**Changes**’ is a common word used, which is somewhat akin to a guess of the probability of something occurring.

A **state** (or outcome) is particular condition that something is in at a specific time. A **system** is an activity, experiment, process, or model with states or outcomes that are typically subject to uncertainty. A **sample space** of an system is the set of all possible states of a system. An **event** (also may be referred to as a trial or measurement) is any subset or collection of states contained in the sample space of a system. An event is a **simple event** if it consists of exactly one state and a **compound event** if it consistst of more than one state.

Definition 4.0.1: Probability

An **probability** p can be defined as the asymptotic frequency of a system in the state s ($s \in \Omega$, where Ω is the sample space of the system) by the total number of occurrences of that state N_s in the limit of an infinite number of events N .

$$p(s) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N_s}{N}, \text{ with } p(s) \in [0, 1] \forall s \in \Omega \quad (4.0.1)$$

For a system with n states, the total probabilities of all states must normalize to one.

$$\sum_{i=0}^n p(i) = \sum_{s \in \Omega} p(i) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^n N_i = 1 \quad (4.0.2)$$

A **Bayesian probability** is defined as a person's knowledge of the outcome of a trial, based on the evidence at their disposal - often accompanied by an associated error. A **model probability** is an assumption or guess for the probability given the possibility of an infinite number of trials.

In a scenario with two possible outcomes, denoted as E_1 (Event 1) and E_2 (Event 2), each having its own probability, let's say P_1 and P_2 respectively (where $P_1 + P_2 = 1$), we can consider a series of n trials. The total number of possible sequences is $N = 2^n$ (see theorem 3.5.1) since there are only 2 possible events. The probability of obtaining Event 1 k times out of these n trials can be expressed as $P(k, n)$ and is given by the **Bernoulli probability** (also called the **binomial probability**)

$$P(k, n) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{E_1}{N} = \frac{1}{2^n} \binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{k} P_1^k P_2^{n-k} \quad (4.0.3)$$

Some more useful concepts for modeling a system are the mean (average) and standard deviation.

Definition 4.0.2: Arithmetic Mean

If x_0, \dots, x_N denotes N separate measurements of one quantity x , then we define the **arithmetic mean** (or average) \bar{x} as

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^N x_i \quad (4.0.4)$$

Definition 4.0.3: Standard Deviation

If x_1, \dots, x_N denotes N separate measurements of one quantity x , then we define the standard deviation σ_x as

$$\sigma_x = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \quad (4.0.5)$$

When dealing with **Bayesian probability**, there is typically an uncertainty associated with the measurements or functions.

Definition 4.0.4: Uncertainty

Suppose x_0, \dots, x_N denotes N separate measurements with associated uncertainties $\sigma_{x_0}, \dots, \sigma_{x_N}$. If the measured values are used to compute some function $q(x_0, \dots, x_N)$ and the uncertainties in x_0, \dots, x_N are independent and random, then the uncertainty in q is

$$\sigma_q = \sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^N \left(\frac{\partial q}{\partial x_i} \sigma_{x_i} \right)^2}. \quad (4.0.6)$$

It will always be true that

$$\sigma_q \leq \sum_{i=0}^N \left| \frac{\partial q}{\partial x_i} \right| \sigma_{x_i}. \quad (4.0.7)$$

Consider the uncertainty in the mean value. Definition 4.0.4 can be used to determine the uncertainty of \bar{x} . If we assume that all values of x_i are normally distributed, then each x_i value will have the same uncertainty, $\sigma_{x_i} \equiv \sigma_x \forall i \in \mathbb{N}$. The partial derivative of \bar{x} with respect to any x_i value will simply be $\frac{\partial \bar{x}}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^N x_i = \frac{1}{N}$, since every term will be zero except the i th term. We then simply apply the definition to get

$$\sigma_{\bar{x}} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^N \left(\frac{\partial \bar{x}}{\partial x_i} \sigma_x \right)^2} = \sqrt{\sigma_x^2 \sum_{i=0}^N \left(\frac{\partial \bar{x}}{\partial x_i} \right)^2} = \sqrt{\sigma_x^2 \sum_{i=0}^N \frac{1}{N^2}} = \sqrt{\sigma_x^2 \frac{1}{N}} = \frac{\sigma_x}{\sqrt{N}}. \quad (4.0.8)$$

Calculus

Calculus is a branch of mathematics that deals with the study of change and motion. It encompasses two main components: differentiation and integration.

- **Differentiation:** This involves finding the rate at which a quantity changes with respect to another variable. The derivative is a fundamental concept in calculus, representing the instantaneous rate of change of a function at a particular point. It helps analyze the behavior of functions, such as finding slopes of curves, determining maximum and minimum points, and understanding the concept of velocity and acceleration.
- **Integration:** Integration is the reverse process of differentiation. It involves calculating the accumulation or total amount of a changing quantity over an interval. The integral of a function represents the area under the curve of the function over a given range. It is used to solve problems involving areas, volumes, and quantities related to accumulation, such as calculating total distance traveled from a velocity function or finding the area of a region bounded by a curve.

Calculus has numerous real-world applications, ranging from physics and engineering to economics and biology. It provides essential tools for understanding how things change, predicting behavior, and solving complex problems that involve continuous change and motion. Developed independently by Isaac Newton and Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz in the 17th century, calculus remains a fundamental and powerful branch of mathematics used in various scientific and practical domains.

5.1 Definitions and General Differential Equations

The derivative of a function represents an infinitesimal change in the function with respect to one of its variables [14].

Definition 5.1.1: Derivative

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then the derivative of f with respect to a variable x is given by

$$\frac{d}{dx}f(x) \equiv f'(x) \equiv \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} \equiv \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x - \Delta x)}{2\Delta x}$$

Similarly, partial derivatives are defined as derivatives of a function of multiple variables when all but the variable of interest are held fixed during the differentiation [14].

Definition 5.1.2: Partial Derivative

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^z \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, with $z \in \mathbb{N}$. Then the partial derivative of f with respect to a variable x_m is given by

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_m}f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \equiv \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_1, \dots, x_m + \Delta x, \dots, x_n) - f(x_1, \dots, x_m, \dots, x_n)}{\Delta x}$$

A few rules from definition 5.1.1 can be defined.

Theorem 5.1.1: Distributive Property Of Derivatives

Let $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous functions with $f(x) = g(x) + h(x)$. Then the derivative of f with respect to the variable x is

$$\frac{d}{dx}f(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(g(x) + h(x)) = \frac{d}{dx}g(x) + \frac{d}{dx}h(x).$$

Proof for theorem 5.1.1. Let $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous functions with $f(x) = g(x) + h(x)$. Then, by the definition of a derivative, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx}f(x) &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} \\ &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(g + h)(x + \Delta x) - (g + h)(x)}{\Delta x} \\ &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(x + \Delta x) + h(x + \Delta x) - g(x) - h(x)}{\Delta x} \\ &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{g(x + \Delta x) - g(x)}{\Delta x} + \frac{h(x + \Delta x) - h(x)}{\Delta x} \right) \\ &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(x + \Delta x) - g(x)}{\Delta x} + \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{h(x + \Delta x) - h(x)}{\Delta x} \\ &= \frac{d}{dx}g(x) + \frac{d}{dx}h(x). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, by simple manipulation we've shown

$$\frac{d}{dx}f(x) = \frac{d}{dx}g(x) + \frac{d}{dx}h(x).$$

□

If we want to take the derivative of a function Given a general polynomial function, we can give the following differentiation rule.

Theorem 5.1.2: Polynomial Derivatives

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function with $f(x) = c_n x^n + c_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + C_2 x^2 + c_1 x + c_0$, where c_n is constant for all n . Then

$$\frac{d}{dx}f(x) = f'(x) = n c_n x^{n-1} + (n-1) c_{n-1} x^{n-2} + \dots + 2 c_2 x + c_1$$

Proof for theorem 5.1.2. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function with $f(x) = c_n x^n + c_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + C_2 x^2 + c_1 x + c_0$, where c_n is constant for all n . Let $g_n(x) = c_n x^n$. By theorem 1.1, we know that $f'(x) = g'_n(x) + g'_{n-1}(x) + \dots + g'_1(x) + g'_0(x)$. Therefore, if we can prove $p(x) = Cx^n \implies p'(x) = nCx^{n-1}$, then this directly implies each term of $f(x)$ will have a derivative of equivalent form. Starting with p , we must first note that $p(x) = Cx^n$ and $p(x+h) = C(x+h)^n$. Inserting these into the limit definition will give us

$$p'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{p(x+h) - p(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{C(x+h)^n - Cx^n}{h}.$$

As we can see, we can expand $(x + h)^n$ using the binomial theorem. This gives us

$$C \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^{n-k} h^k - x^n}{h}.$$

If we denote $a_k = \binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$, then expand the summation, we get

$$C \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^{n-k} h^k - x^n}{h} = C \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{a_0 x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} h + a_2 x^{n-2} h^2 + a_3 x^{n-3} h^3 + \dots + a_n x^{n-n} h^n - x^n}{h}. \quad (5.1.1)$$

If we determine a_0 and a_1 we get

$$a_0 = \frac{n!}{0!n!} = 1 \quad (5.1.2)$$

$$a_1 = \frac{n!}{1!(n-1)!} = \frac{n!(n)}{(n-1)!(n)} = \frac{n!(n)}{n!} = n. \quad (5.1.3)$$

Inserting equations (1.2) and (1.3) into (1.1) yields

$$C \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^n + nx^{n-1}h + a_2 x^{n-2} h^2 + a_3 x^{n-3} h^3 + \dots + a_n x^{n-n} h^n - x^n}{h}.$$

Then, we see that the first and last terms add to zero

$$C \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{nx^{n-1}h + a_2 x^{n-2} h^2 + a_3 x^{n-3} h^3 + \dots + a_n x^{n-n} h^n}{h}.$$

From here, we simplify by dividing by h and take the limit as $h \rightarrow 0$

$$C \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} nx^{n-1} + a_2 x^{n-2} h + a_3 x^{n-3} h^2 + \dots + a_n x^{n-n} h^{n-1} = Cnx^{n-1}.$$

Hence, we have determined that $p'(x) = Cnx^{n-1}$ which directly implies

$$\frac{d}{dx} f(x) = f'(x) = nc_n x^{n-1} + (n-1)c_{n-1} x^{n-2} + \dots + 2c_2 x + c_1$$

□

Consider the basic product rule of a differential equation. The product rule is given by

Theorem 5.1.3: Product Rule

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are continuous functions of the variable x . We can then say

$$\frac{d}{dx} f(x)g(x) = g(x)\frac{d}{dx} f(x) + f(x)\frac{d}{dx} g(x) = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$$

Proof for theorem 5.1.3. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are continuous functions of the variable x . By the definition of the derivative, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{d}{dx}f(x)g(x) &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x)g(x + \Delta x) - f(x)g(x)}{\Delta x} \\
 &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x)g(x + \Delta x) - f(x + \Delta x)g(x) + f(x + \Delta x)g(x) - f(x)g(x)}{\Delta x} \\
 &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x)(g(x + \Delta x) - g(x)) + g(x)(f(x + \Delta x) - f(x))}{\Delta x} \\
 &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} f(x + \Delta x) \frac{g(x + \Delta x) - g(x)}{\Delta x} + \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} g(x) \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} \\
 &= f(x) \frac{d}{dx}g(x) + g(x) \frac{d}{dx}f(x) \\
 &= f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x).
 \end{aligned}$$

□

It is thus clear that given two continuous functions of x , say $f(x)$ and $g(x)$, the derivative follows as

$$\frac{d}{dx}f(x)g(x) = g(x) \frac{d}{dx}f(x) + f(x) \frac{d}{dx}g(x) \quad (5.1.4)$$

$$= f(x)g'(x) + g(x)f'(x). \quad (5.1.5)$$

Following this, the second derivative is given by

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2}f(x)g(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(g(x) \frac{d}{dx}f(x) \right) + \frac{d}{dx} \left(f(x) \frac{d}{dx}g(x) \right) \quad (5.1.6)$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx}f(x) \frac{d}{dx}g(x) + g(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2}f(x) + f(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2}g(x) + \frac{d}{dx}f(x) \frac{d}{dx}g(x) \quad (5.1.7)$$

$$= 2 \frac{d}{dx}f(x) \frac{d}{dx}g(x) + g(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2}f(x) + f(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2}g(x) \quad (5.1.8)$$

$$= f(x)g''(x) + 2f'(x)g'(x) + f''(x)g(x). \quad (5.1.9)$$

Similarly, the third derivative is given by

$$\frac{d^3}{dx^3}f(x)g(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(2 \frac{d}{dx}f(x) \frac{d}{dx}g(x) + g(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2}f(x) + f(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2}g(x) \right) \quad (5.1.10)$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} \left(2 \frac{d}{dx}f(x) \frac{d}{dx}g(x) \right) + \frac{d}{dx} \left(g(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2}f(x) \right) + \frac{d}{dx} \left(f(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2}g(x) \right). \quad (5.1.11)$$

This derivative can be done in parts to help keep track of what is being done. Let us denote each term in the above sum as $h_1(x)$, $h_2(x)$ and $h_3(x)$ respectively. Then we have

$$h_1(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(2 \frac{d}{dx}f(x) \frac{d}{dx}g(x) \right) \quad (5.1.12)$$

$$h_2(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(g(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2}f(x) \right) \quad (5.1.13)$$

$$h_3(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(f(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2}g(x) \right). \quad (5.1.14)$$

Simplifying these expressions then gives

$$h_1(x) = \left(2 \frac{d^2}{dx^2} f(x) \frac{d}{dx} g(x) + 2 \frac{d}{dx} f(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2} g(x) \right) \quad (5.1.15)$$

$$h_2(x) = \left(\frac{d}{dx} g(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2} f(x) + g(x) \frac{d^3}{dx^3} f(x) \right) \quad (5.1.16)$$

$$h_3(x) = \left(\frac{d}{dx} f(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2} g(x) + f(x) \frac{d^3}{dx^3} g(x) \right). \quad (5.1.17)$$

Then, adding these three expressions together gives us

$$\frac{d^3}{dx^3} f(x)g(x) = f(x) \frac{d^3}{dx^3} g(x) + 3 \frac{d}{dx} f(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2} g(x) + 3 \frac{d^2}{dx^2} f(x) \frac{d}{dx} g(x) + g(x) \frac{d^3}{dx^3} f(x) \quad (5.1.18)$$

$$= f(x)g'''(x) + 3f'(x)g''(x) + 3f''(x)g'(x) + f'''(x)g(x). \quad (5.1.19)$$

Using the product rule, a nice pattern seems to be emerging as we continually apply it to the same function. From equations (5.1.5), (5.1.9) and (5.1.19), we can see that it appears to be a similar pattern as when applying the binomial expansion theorem. As a reminder, the binomial expansion theorem is

$$(a + b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} b^k \quad (5.1.20)$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}. \quad (5.1.21)$$

If we observe the first three terms of this (with $n = 1, 2, 3$), we have

$$(a + b)^1 = a + b \quad (5.1.22)$$

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2 \quad (5.1.23)$$

$$(a + b)^3 = a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3. \quad (5.1.24)$$

Comparing this to the three equations in questions allows us to notice interesting similarities. If we expand this to n we have

$$(a + b)^n = a^n b^0 + \binom{n}{1} a^{n-1} b^1 + \cdots + \binom{n}{n-1} a b^{n-1} + a^0 b^n. \quad (5.1.25)$$

Now, let $a = \frac{d}{dx} g(x)$ and $b = \frac{d}{dx} f(x)$. If we temporarily define¹ the following conditions

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx} h(x) \right)^n := \frac{d^n}{dx^n} h(x) \quad (5.1.26)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} g(x) + \frac{d}{dx} f(x) := \frac{d}{dx} g(x) f(x), \quad (5.1.27)$$

then inserting a and b into equation (5.1.25) gives

$$\left[\frac{d}{dx} g(x) + \frac{d}{dx} f(x) \right]^n = \left(\frac{d}{dx} g(x) \right)^n \left(\frac{d}{dx} f(x) \right)^0 + \binom{n}{1} \left(\frac{d}{dx} g(x) \right)^{n-1} \left(\frac{d}{dx} f(x) \right)^1 + \cdots \quad (5.1.28)$$

$$\cdots + \binom{n}{n-1} \left(\frac{d}{dx} g(x) \right) \left(\frac{d}{dx} f(x) \right)^{n-1} + \left(\frac{d}{dx} g(x) \right)^0 \left(\frac{d}{dx} f(x) \right)^n. \quad (5.1.29)$$

¹This is solely for an easy way of noticing the similarities in the formulas, these equations do not necessarily hold and are not used once the equations are expanded.

Simplifying the above expression gives us

$$\frac{d^n}{dx^n}g(x)f(x) = f(x)\frac{d^n}{dx^n}g(x) + \binom{n}{1}\frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}}g(x)\frac{d}{dx}f(x) + \dots \quad (5.1.30)$$

$$\dots + \binom{n}{n-1}\frac{d}{dx}g(x)\frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}}f(x) + g(x)\frac{d^n}{dx^n}f(x). \quad (5.1.31)$$

Therefore, we can see that with our re-definitions in equations (5.1.26) and (5.1.27), it appears that the n^{th} derivative of something using the product rule can be expressed using the binomial expansion theorem. At least to $n = 3$ we can see from above that this is accurate. If we want to determine if this works for all values of n , we can try a proof by induction. Before going any further, since this may be a large amount of work for such a simple idea, let us quickly have a sanity check. We claim that the terms of the product rule can be expanded using the binomial theorem. It is important to note that when taking the product rule of an expression, you get two new expressions. Then, taking the product rule again will double those two into four, and then those four into eight, and so on. So we can see that each product rule doubles the number of terms we have. The binomial coefficient is used when we have like terms to combine them. If we were to add up each binomial coefficient in the sum, we should then see that each sum of coefficients is the same number of terms we would get as if we doubled our expression each time. If this were not so then our situation would have a flaw. In other words, it must hold true that

$$\sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} = 2^n. \quad (5.1.32)$$

This indeed is true. See theorem 3.5.1. Now, we know from equations (5.1.5), (5.1.9) and (5.1.19) that cases $n = 1, 2, 3$ all hold. Next, if we assume that for any $n = k$ that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^k}{dx^k}g(x)f(x) &= f(x)\frac{d^k}{dx^k}g(x) + \binom{k}{1}\frac{d^{k-1}}{dx^{k-1}}g(x)\frac{d}{dx}f(x) + \dots \\ &\dots + \binom{k}{k-1}\frac{d}{dx}g(x)\frac{d^{k-1}}{dx^{k-1}}f(x) + g(x)\frac{d^k}{dx^k}f(x) \end{aligned} \quad (5.1.33)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{i} \left[\frac{d^i}{dx^i}f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d^{k-i}}{dx^{k-i}}g(x) \right] \quad (5.1.34)$$

holds true, we can then determine if it holds true for $n = k + 1$. This gives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^{k+1}}{dx^{k+1}}g(x)f(x) &= f(x)\frac{d^{k+1}}{dx^{k+1}}g(x) + \binom{k+1}{1}\frac{d^k}{dx^k}g(x)\frac{d}{dx}f(x) + \dots \\ &\dots + \binom{k+1}{k}\frac{d}{dx}g(x)\frac{d^k}{dx^k}f(x) + g(x)\frac{d^{k+1}}{dx^{k+1}}f(x) \end{aligned} \quad (5.1.35)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{k+1} \binom{k+1}{i} \left[\frac{d^i}{dx^i}f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d^{k+1-i}}{dx^{k+1-i}}g(x) \right]. \quad (5.1.36)$$

If we were to manually evaluate the $n = k + 1$ term of this expression we would have

$$\frac{d}{dx} \frac{d^k}{dx^k}g(x)f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{i} \left[\frac{d^i}{dx^i}f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d^{k-i}}{dx^{k-i}}g(x) \right]. \quad (5.1.37)$$

Since differentiating is distributive (by theorem 5.1.1), we can evaluate each term of this sum and compare it to (32) and (33). Doing this, we can use the product rule to first get

$$\frac{d^{k+1}}{dx^{k+1}}g(x)f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{i} \left[\frac{d^{i+1}}{dx^{i+1}}f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d^{k-i}}{dx^{k-i}}g(x) \right] + \binom{k}{i} \left[\frac{d^i}{dx^i}f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d^{k+1-i}}{dx^{k+1-i}}g(x) \right]. \quad (5.1.38)$$

From here, writing out the series explicitly allows us to combine terms in a useful matter. This would obviously be tedious to write out so let us denote each term by a_i , for any i^{th} term in the summation. Writing out a few of the terms then gives

$$a_0 = \binom{k}{0} \left[\frac{d^1}{dx^1}f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d^k}{dx^k}g(x) \right] + \binom{k}{0} f(x) \left[\frac{d^{k+1}}{dx^{k+1}}g(x) \right] \quad (5.1.39)$$

$$a_1 = \binom{k}{1} \left[\frac{d^2}{dx^2}f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d^{k-1}}{dx^{k-1}}g(x) \right] + \binom{k}{1} \left[\frac{d}{dx}f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d^k}{dx^k}g(x) \right] \quad (5.1.40)$$

$$a_2 = \binom{k}{2} \left[\frac{d^3}{dx^3}f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d^{k-2}}{dx^{k-2}}g(x) \right] + \binom{k}{2} \left[\frac{d^2}{dx^2}f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d^{k-1}}{dx^{k-1}}g(x) \right] \quad (5.1.41)$$

\vdots

$$a_{k-2} = \binom{k}{k-2} \left[\frac{d^{k-1}}{dx^{k-1}}f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d^2}{dx^2}g(x) \right] + \binom{k}{k-2} \left[\frac{d^{k-2}}{dx^{k-2}}f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d^3}{dx^3}g(x) \right] \quad (5.1.42)$$

$$a_{k-1} = \binom{k}{k-1} \left[\frac{d^k}{dx^k}f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d}{dx}g(x) \right] + \binom{k}{k-1} \left[\frac{d^{k-1}}{dx^{k-1}}f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d^2}{dx^2}g(x) \right] \quad (5.1.43)$$

$$a_k = \binom{k}{k} \left[\frac{d^{k+1}}{dx^{k+1}}f(x) \right] g(x) + \binom{k}{k} \left[\frac{d^k}{dx^k}f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d}{dx}g(x) \right]. \quad (5.1.44)$$

At this point, it becomes obvious as to why the $f^{(n)}(x)$ notation of a derivative was invented, and switching over will greatly help in our next step. Changing our notation gives us

$$a_0 = \binom{k}{0} f^{(1)}(x)g^{(k)}(x) + \binom{k}{0} f(x)g^{(k+1)}(x) \quad (5.1.45)$$

$$a_1 = \binom{k}{1} f^{(2)}(x)g^{(k-1)}(x) + \binom{k}{1} f^{(1)}(x)g^{(k)}(x) \quad (5.1.46)$$

$$a_2 = \binom{k}{2} f^{(3)}(x)g^{(k-2)}(x) + \binom{k}{2} f^{(2)}(x)g^{(k-1)}(x) \quad (5.1.47)$$

\vdots

$$a_{k-2} = \binom{k}{k-2} f^{(k-1)}(x)g^{(2)}(x) + \binom{k}{k-2} f^{(k-2)}(x)g^{(3)}(x) \quad (5.1.48)$$

$$a_{k-1} = \binom{k}{k-1} f^{(k)}(x)g^{(1)}(x) + \binom{k}{k-1} f^{(k-1)}(x)g^{(2)}(x) \quad (5.1.49)$$

$$a_k = \binom{k}{k} f^{(k+1)}(x)g(x) + \binom{k}{k} f^{(k)}(x)g^{(1)}(x). \quad (5.1.50)$$

Our end goal is to get this expression to be in the same form as in equation (5.1.34). If we first re-write equation (5.1.34) using $f^{(n)}(x)$ notation, we can easily see what our end goal is. This is

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k+1} \binom{k+1}{i} f^{(i)}(x)g^{(k+1-i)}(x). \quad (5.1.51)$$

The next step is then summing expressions (5.1.45) through (5.1.50), then determining if what we get is equivalent to equation (5.1.51). Let $\Upsilon = a_0 + a_1 + \cdots + a_{k-1} + a_k$, then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Upsilon &= \binom{k}{0} f(x)g^{(k+1)}(x) + \binom{k}{0} f^{(1)}(x)g^{(k)}(x) + \binom{k}{1} f^{(1)}(x)g^{(k)}(x) + \cdots \\ &\quad \cdots + \binom{k}{k} f^{(k)}(x)g^{(1)}(x) + \binom{k}{k-1} f^{(k)}(x)g^{(1)}(x) + \binom{k}{k} f^{(k+1)}(x)g(x) \end{aligned} \quad (5.1.52)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \binom{k}{0} f(x)g^{(k+1)}(x) + \left[\binom{k}{0} + \binom{k}{1} \right] f^{(1)}(x)g^{(k)}(x) + \cdots \\ &\quad \cdots + \left[\binom{k}{k-1} + \binom{k}{k} \right] f^{(k)}(x)g^{(1)}(x) + \binom{k}{k} f^{(k+1)}(x)g(x) \end{aligned} \quad (5.1.53)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{k+1} \left[\binom{k}{i-1} + \binom{k}{i} \right] f^{(i)}(x)g^{(k+1-i)}(x). \quad (5.1.54)$$

Using the definition of the binomial coefficient and the derivation in (7), if we let $k = m - 1 \implies m = k + 1$, we can re-write the binomial coefficient in equation (5.1.54) as follows.

$$\binom{k}{i-1} + \binom{k}{i} = \binom{m-1}{i-1} + \binom{m-1}{i} = \binom{m}{i} = \binom{k+1}{i}. \quad (5.1.55)$$

Thus, equation (5.1.54) becomes

$$\Upsilon = \sum_{i=0}^{k+1} \binom{k+1}{i} f^{(i)}(x)g^{(k+1-i)}(x). \quad (5.1.56)$$

Now, $\Upsilon = a_0 + a_1 + \cdots + a_{k-1} + a_k = (35)$ which we have shown is equivalent to equation (5.1.54). Therefore, we can conclude that (28) holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, which allows us to tidy our work up as a theorem.

Theorem 5.1.4: Repeating Product Rule

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous and differentiable functions of the variable x . Then the m^{th} derivative of $f(x)g(x)$ with respect to x is

$$\frac{d^m}{dx^m} f(x)g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} \left[\frac{d^i}{dx^i} f(x) \right] \left[\frac{d^{n-i}}{dx^{n-i}} g(x) \right].$$

Consider a division of two functions rather than multiplication. The product rule can be used to derive what is referred to as the **quotient rule**. Begin by taking two arbitrary functions that are continuous and differentiable $f(x)$ and $g(x)$. What we want to find is $\frac{d}{dx} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$. We begin by applying the product rule from theorem 5.1.3, which gives

$$\frac{d}{dx} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = f(x) \left[\frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{g(x)} \right] + \frac{1}{g(x)} \left[\frac{d}{dx} f(x) \right]. \quad (5.1.57)$$

Let $u(x) = \frac{1}{g(x)}$. We want to determine $u'(x)$ in order to simplify equation (5.1.57). From the definition of $u(x)$, we can then say $u(x)g(x) = 1$. The derivative of a constant value is just zero, so if we differentiate both sides (by yet again applying the product rule from theorem 5.1.3), we get

$$\frac{d}{dx} u(x)g(x) = \frac{d}{dx} 1 \implies u(x)g'(x) + u'(x)g(x) = 0. \quad (5.1.58)$$

Solving this for $u'(x)$ gives us $\frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{g(x)}$ which we is then equal to

$$u'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} u(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{g(x)} = \frac{-u(x)g'(x)}{g(x)} = -\frac{g'(x)}{g(x)^2}. \quad (5.1.59)$$

By taking equation (5.1.59) and substituting it into equation (5.1.57), we get

$$\frac{d}{dx} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = f(x) \left[-\frac{g'(x)}{g(x)^2} \right] + \frac{1}{g(x)} f'(x) = -\frac{f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)^2} + \frac{g(x)f'(x)}{g(x)^2} = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)^2}. \quad (5.1.60)$$

Theorem 5.1.5: Quotient Rule

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous and differentiable functions of the variable x . Then the derivative of $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ with respect to x is

$$\frac{d}{dx} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)^2}. \quad (5.1.61)$$

A special case of this quotient rule is when the numerator is 1. This can be seen in equation (5.1.57). For simplicity, I will drop the " (x) " and assume functions with a single variable here. Taking consecutive derivatives of this give

$$\frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{g} = \frac{-g'}{g^2} \quad (5.1.62)$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \frac{1}{g} = \frac{d}{dx} \frac{-g'}{g^2} = -\frac{d}{dx} g' \frac{1}{g^2} = -\frac{g''}{g^2} - g' \left(\frac{-2gg'}{g^4} \right) = -\frac{g''}{g^2} + \frac{2g'^2}{g^3} \quad (5.1.63)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^3}{dx^3} \frac{1}{g} &= \frac{d}{dx} \left(-\frac{g''}{g^2} + \frac{2g'^2}{g^3} \right) = -\frac{g'''}{g^2} - g'' \frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{g^2} + \frac{4g'g''}{g^3} + 2g'^2 \frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{g^3} \\ &= -\frac{g'''}{g^2} - g'' \left(\frac{-2gg'}{g^4} \right) + \frac{4gg''}{g^3} + 2g'^2 \left(\frac{-3g^2g'}{g^6} \right) \\ &= \frac{6g'g''}{g^3} - \frac{6g'^3}{g^4} - \frac{g'''}{g^2} \end{aligned} \quad (5.1.64)$$

5.2 Ordinary Linear Homogeneous Differential Equations

Consider the following linear homogeneous differential equation with constants A and B

$$\ddot{x} + 2A\dot{x} + Bx = 0. \quad (5.2.1)$$

We can similarly write this as

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2} x(t) + \frac{d}{dt} 2Ax(t) + Bx(t) = 0. \quad (5.2.2)$$

Next, we can simplify the expression by dividing both sides by $x(t)$. Note that this can only be done when $x(t) \neq 0$. We get

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2} + \frac{d}{dt} 2A + B = 0. \quad (5.2.3)$$

Next, notice that the expression is of a quadratic form $af^2 + bf + c = 0$, with $f = \frac{d}{dt}$, $a = 1$, $b = 2A$, and $c = B$. Thus, using the quadratic formula we can say

$$f = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \iff \frac{d}{dt} = \frac{-2A \pm \sqrt{(2A)^2 - 4(B)}}{2}. \quad (5.2.4)$$

From here, we can simplify the expression to achieve

$$\frac{d}{dt} = (-A \pm \sqrt{A^2 - B}). \quad (5.2.5)$$

Notice that we have a differential on the left side of the expression, yet no function. To fix this, suppose we multiply both sides by $x(t)$, which is our original function of t in our differential equation. Then we get

$$\frac{d}{dt}x(t) = (-A \pm \sqrt{A^2 - B})x(t). \quad (5.2.6)$$

In a case where we differentiate a function, and get the same function multiplied by a constant, we would have $x(t) = C_1 e^{kt}$ as a solution, where C_1 and k are constants. Note that taking $\frac{d}{dt}x(t)$ in this case yields $kC_1 e^{kt}$, which if matched to our differential yields $k = -A \pm \sqrt{A^2 - B}$. Therefore, we can say a solution to our differential equation will be of the form

$$x(t) = C_1 e^{(-A \pm \sqrt{A^2 - B})t}, \quad (5.2.7)$$

or if written more generally as two separate solutions $x_1(t)$ and $x_2(t)$, we have

$$x_1(t) = C_1 e^{(-A + \sqrt{A^2 - B})t} \quad (5.2.8)$$

$$x_2(t) = C_2 e^{(-A - \sqrt{A^2 - B})t} \quad (5.2.9)$$

Note that we must change the constant coefficients in front of each solution to be arbitrary related to each other because both possible cases are a unique solution and each case would be independent of the other. Finally, if we want to verify these solution, we can do so by differentiating twice and plugging our functions into our original differential equation. Doing this (while letting $k = -A + \sqrt{A^2 - B}$ and keeping our $x(t)$ in the general form of Ce^{kt}), we achieve

$$x(t) = Ce^{kt} \quad (5.2.10)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}x(t) = (-A \pm \sqrt{A^2 - B})Ce^{kt} \quad (5.2.11)$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2}x(t) = (-A \pm \sqrt{A^2 - B})^2 Ce^{kt} \quad (5.2.12)$$

$$= (A^2 \mp 2A\sqrt{A^2 - B} + (A^2 - B))Ce^{kt}. \quad (5.2.13)$$

Plugging these expressions into our differential equation gives us

$$(A^2 \mp 2A\sqrt{A^2 - B} + (A^2 - B))Ce^{kt} + 2A(-A \pm \sqrt{A^2 - B})Ce^{kt} + BCe^{kt} = 0. \quad (5.2.14)$$

As we can see, each term has a common factor of Ce^{kt} , so we can divide both sides by Ce^{kt} giving

$$(A^2 \mp 2A\sqrt{A^2 - B} + (A^2 - B)) + 2A(-A \pm \sqrt{A^2 - B}) + B = 0. \quad (5.2.15)$$

This removes all of the C constants which verifies that they can be arbitrary and the function will still work. From here, we can just apply algebraic manipulation to achieve

$$A^2 \mp 2A\sqrt{A^2 - B} + A^2 - B - 2A^2 \pm 2A\sqrt{A^2 - B} + B = 0. \quad (5.2.16)$$

Which we can clearly see is a true statement by canceling terms. Thus, we can say the following:

Theorem 5.2.1

Let A, B and C_n be constants and $x(t)$ be a function of t . Given any homogeneous ordinary differential equation of the form

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2}x(t) + \frac{d}{dt}2Ax(t) + Bx(t) = 0,$$

There will exist a solution of the form

$$x(t) = C_1 e^{(-A \pm \sqrt{A^2 - B})t}.$$

If we further the thought of this differential equation having more than one solution, we can easily understand why. First, consider an ordinary linear homogeneous differential equation given in terms of a function of t ($x(t)$) with constants C_n of the form

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}x(t) + \frac{d^{n-1}}{dt^{n-1}}C_{n-1}x(t) + \cdots + \frac{d}{dt}C_1x(t) + C_0x(t) = 0. \quad (5.2.17)$$

Assume there exists multiple solutions to this equation, say $x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_n(t)$ and let $x_g(t) = x_1(t) + x_2(t) + \cdots + x_n(t)$. Notice that differentiating $x_g(t)$ with respect to t can be written as (By Theorem 1.1)

$$\frac{d}{dt}x_g(t) = \frac{d}{dt}(x_1(t) + x_2(t) + \cdots + x_n(t)) \quad (5.2.18)$$

$$= \frac{d}{dt}x_1(t) + \frac{d}{dt}x_2(t) + \cdots + \frac{d}{dt}x_n(t). \quad (5.2.19)$$

Similarly, differentiating a second time gives

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2}x_g(t) = \frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{d}{dt}x_1(t) + \frac{d}{dt}x_2(t) + \cdots + \frac{d}{dt}x_n(t)\right) \quad (5.2.20)$$

$$= \frac{d^2}{dt^2}x_1(t) + \frac{d^2}{dt^2}x_2(t) + \cdots + \frac{d^2}{dt^2}x_n(t). \quad (5.2.21)$$

And so forth so that differentiating n times gives us

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}x_g(t) = \frac{d^n}{dt^n}x_1(t) + \frac{d^n}{dt^n}x_2(t) + \cdots + \frac{d^n}{dt^n}x_n(t). \quad (5.2.22)$$

Thus, looking at our original differential equation, since we initially claimed that $x_n(t)$ is a solution to our differential equation, we can say

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}x_n(t) + \frac{d^{n-1}}{dt^{n-1}}C_{n-1}x_n(t) + \cdots + \frac{d}{dt}C_1x_n(t) + C_0x_n(t) = 0 \quad (5.2.23)$$

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}x_{n-1}(t) + \frac{d^{n-1}}{dt^{n-1}}C_{n-1}x_{n-1}(t) + \cdots + \frac{d}{dt}C_1x_{n-1}(t) + C_0x_{n-1}(t) = 0 \quad (5.2.24)$$

\vdots

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}x_0(t) + \frac{d^{n-1}}{dt^{n-1}}C_{n-1}x_0(t) + \cdots + \frac{d}{dt}C_1x_0(t) + C_0x_0(t) = 0 \quad (5.2.25)$$

Furthermore, we can add these solutions together and factor the expression to get

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}(x_n(t) + \cdots x_0(t)) + \cdots + \frac{d}{dx}C_1(x_n(t) + \cdots x_0(t)) + C_0(x_n(t) + \cdots x_0(t)) = 0, \quad (5.2.26)$$

or simply

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}x_g(t) + \frac{d^{n-1}}{dt^{n-1}}C_{n-1}x_g(t) + \cdots + \frac{d}{dt}C_1x_g(t) + C_0x_g(t) = 0. \quad (5.2.27)$$

Thus, we have showed that a sum of solutions to this form of linear homogeneous differential equation is also a solution to the equation. This means we can say

Theorem 5.2.2

Let $x(t)$ be a function of t and C_n be constant for all n . Given any ordinary homogeneous differential equation of the form

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}x(t) + \frac{d^{n-1}}{dt^{n-1}}C_{n-1}x(t) + \cdots + \frac{d}{dt}C_1x(t) + C_0x(t) = 0,$$

if n solutions $x_n(t)$ exist, then another solution can be formed from summing any combination of those solutions and $x_g(t)$ will be the most general solution with

$$x_g(t) = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k(t).$$

5.3 Linear Ordinary Differential Equations

Now let us consider some differential equations that are not homogeneous and see if we can come up with a similar way of deriving a solution. Again, let $x(t)$ be some function of t with A and B as constants. In addition, let $g(t)$ be a function of t as well. Similar to earlier, consider the following differential equation

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2}x(t) + \frac{d}{dt}2Ax(t) + Bx(t) = g(t) \quad (5.3.1)$$

In order for this equation to be satisfied, we must first notice that whatever function $g(t)$ is in, the left hand of the expression must also be that form.

5.3.1 n-Degree Polynomial Particular Functions

For example, let's consider $g(t) = at^2 + bt + c$, where a, b , and c are constants. We can see then that if the equation is satisfied, we will have t^2 , t and constant terms on the left side after differentiating $x(t)$ the appropriate number of times and plugging it in. Let us work through this example completely. Consider

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2}x(t) + \frac{d}{dt}2Ax(t) + Bx(t) = at^2 + bt + c. \quad (5.3.2)$$

We can start by considering theorem 1.2 which tells us that the first derivative of $g(t)$ will no longer have any t^2 terms, and the second derivative will no longer have any t or t^2 terms. Therefore, by a careful observation, we can see that if we let $x(t)$ be a second degree polynomial, then $\frac{d^2}{dx^2}x(t)$ will be a constant polynomial and $\frac{d}{dx}x(t)$ will be a polynomial of degree 1. This allows us to see that the degree of the left side of this expression (given that $x(t)$ is a polynomial of degree 2) will be of degree 2 as well. Hence, by choosing $x(t) = C_1t^2 + C_2t + C_3$, we will end up getting a second degree polynomial equal to a second degree

polynomial, so choosing appropriate constants will allow this to be a solution. Let's demonstrate and check our answer by choosing

$$x(t) = C_1 t^2 + C_2 t + C_3. \quad (5.3.3)$$

From here, we have the appropriate derivatives as

$$\frac{d}{dx}x(t) = 2C_1 t + C_2 \quad (5.3.4)$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2}x(t) = 2C_1. \quad (5.3.5)$$

Then, substituting this into our differential equation yields

$$2C_1 + 2A(2C_1 t + C_2) + B(C_1 t^2 + C_2 t + C_3) = at^2 + bt + c. \quad (5.3.6)$$

Consolidating terms then gives

$$(BC_1)t^2 + (BC_2 + 4AC_1)t + (2C_1 + 2AC_2 + BC_3) = at^2 + bt + c. \quad (5.3.7)$$

From here Since these must be equal, the coefficients in front of the t^2 terms must be equal, and so forth. This then gives us the following simple set of equations to solve:

$$BC_1 = a \quad (5.3.8)$$

$$BC_2 + 4AC_1 = b \quad (5.3.9)$$

$$2C_1 + 2AC_2 + BC_3 = c. \quad (5.3.10)$$

Solving for $C_1, C_2, \text{ and } C_3$ then gives

$$C_1 = \frac{a}{B} \quad (5.3.11)$$

$$C_2 = \frac{b}{B} - \frac{4Aa}{B^2} = \frac{bB - 4Aa}{B^2} \quad (5.3.12)$$

$$C_3 = \frac{8A^2a}{B^3} - \frac{2a}{B^2} - \frac{2Ab}{B^2} + \frac{c}{B} = \frac{8aA^2 - 2aB - 2AbB + B^2c}{B^3}. \quad (5.3.13)$$

Therefore, a solution that would work for our differential is

$$x(t) = \frac{a}{B}t^2 + \frac{bB - 4Aa}{B^2}t + \frac{8aA^2 - 2aB - 2AbB + B^2c}{B^3}. \quad (5.3.14)$$

It is simple enough to verify that this is indeed a solution. To begin, we can take the derivative twice, and plug the function in. Taking the first and second derivatives give us

$$\frac{d}{dx}x(t) = \frac{2a}{B}t + \frac{bB - 4Aa}{B^2} \quad (5.3.15)$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2}x(t) = \frac{2a}{B}. \quad (5.3.16)$$

Then, plugging these into our equation gives

$$\frac{2a}{B} + 2A\left(\frac{2a}{B}t + \frac{bB - 4Aa}{B^2}\right) + B\left(\frac{a}{B}t^2 + \frac{bB - 4Aa}{B^2}t + \frac{8aA^2 - 2aB - 2AbB + B^2c}{B^3}\right), \quad (5.3.17)$$

which should simplify to $at^2 + bt + c$. Foiling terms and canceling like terms gives

$$\frac{Ba}{B}t^2 + \frac{bB^2}{B^2}t + \frac{B^3c}{B^3} \equiv at^2 + bt + c. \quad (5.3.18)$$

Thus, we have verified that our solution is valid. Now by the same principles used in this above example, we can generalize the form of our solution. Let C_n and a_ℓ be constant for all n, ℓ . Consider any differential equation of the form

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}x(t) + \frac{d^{n-1}}{dt^{n-1}}C_{n-1}x(t) + \cdots + \frac{d}{dt}C_1x(t) + C_0x(t) = g(t) \quad (5.3.19)$$

$$g(t) = a_\ell t^\ell + a_{\ell-1}t^{\ell-1} + \cdots + a_1t + a_0. \quad (5.3.20)$$

By the same reasoning as before, the left side of the equation will equate to a polynomial of degree less than or equal to ℓ . This allows us to let $x(t)$ equal an arbitrary polynomial of degree ℓ similarly to above, and then we would be able to solve for the coefficients in order to make the equation a solution. Thus, let b_ℓ be constant for all ℓ and

$$x(t) = b_\ell t^\ell + b_{\ell-1}t^{\ell-1} + \cdots + b_4t^4 + b_3t^3 + b_2t^2 + b_1t + b_0. \quad (5.3.21)$$

We would then solve for our coefficients b_ℓ in the same manner as above so they are in terms of a_ℓ and C_n , for some n, ℓ . Let's look at what happens when we do this. First, let's differentiate $x(t)$ an appropriate number of times. This gives

$$\frac{d}{dt}x(t) = \ell b_\ell t^{\ell-1} + (\ell-1)b_{\ell-1}t^{\ell-2} + \cdots + 4b_4t^3 + 3b_3t^2 + 2b_2t + b_1 \quad (5.3.22)$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2}x(t) = \ell(\ell-1)b_\ell t^{\ell-2} + (\ell-1)(\ell-2)b_{\ell-1}t^{\ell-3} + \cdots + 12b_4t^2 + 6b_3t + 2b_2 \quad (5.3.23)$$

$$\frac{d^3}{dt^3}x(t) = \ell(\ell-1)(\ell-2)b_\ell t^{\ell-3} + (\ell-1)(\ell-2)(\ell-3)b_{\ell-1}t^{\ell-4} + \cdots + 24b_4t + 6b_3 \quad (5.3.24)$$

\vdots

$$\frac{d^\ell}{dt^\ell}x(t) = \ell!b_\ell. \quad (5.3.25)$$

As we can see, a pattern begins to emerge that allows us to write the m^{th} derivative as

$$\frac{d^m}{dt^m}x(t) = \frac{\ell!}{(\ell-m)!}b_\ell t^{\ell-m} + \frac{(\ell-1)!}{(\ell-m-1)!}b_{\ell-1}t^{\ell-m-1} + \cdots + (m+1)!b_{m+1}t + m!b_m. \quad (5.3.26)$$

Since ℓ is fixed as the degree of $g(t)$, we can write this m^{th} derivative expression as a sum of terms from above. This then gives us

$$\frac{d^m}{dx^m}x(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\ell-m} \frac{(\ell-k)!}{(\ell-m-k)!}b_{\ell-k}t^{\ell-m-k}. \quad (5.3.27)$$

Thus, to formalize this into something useful, we can state it as a theorem.

Theorem 5.3.1

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(t) \in \mathbb{P}_n$ of the form $f(t) = b_nt^n + b_{n-1}t^{n-1} + \cdots + b_1t + b_0$. Then the m^{th}

derivative of $f(t)$ is given by

$$\frac{d^m}{dx^m} f(t) = f^{(m)}(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-m} \frac{(n-k)!}{(n-m-k)!} b_{n-k} t^{n-m-k}.$$

What we have done above is find a solution to the differential equation that correlates to an expression on the right hand side of our equation. This solution is called a particular solution and is generally denoted with a subscript of p , such as $x_p(t)$. We have also shown that it is fairly simple to determine a particular solution when our differential equation equates to a polynomial. In some cases, the particular solution is not as simple to compute. Since $g(t)$ is a generic function of t , we know it can be in the form of any possible function. As it is seemingly impossible to determine the infinite possible particular solutions for all of these differential equations, we will try to generalize a few and make some rules for combining solutions.

5.3.2 Simple Exponential Particular Functions

An even easier case for particular solutions when we have exponential functions. Consider the case where $g(t) = ae^{kt}$, with a and k being constants. Then we have may have some differential of a form similar to

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2} x(t) + \frac{d}{dt} 2Ax(t) + Bx(t) = ae^{kt}. \quad (5.3.28)$$

When given a homogeneous differential equation, it is sometimes possible to derive a solution in a completely analytical way. In some cases for particular solutions especially, it is easiest to make a keen observation, start with a possible solution, and verify from there. The most important observation here is that when an exponential has a derivative of the same form as the original exponential only with a different constant out front. Notice for example that $\frac{d}{dt} g(t) = ake^{kt}$ and $\frac{d^2}{dt^2} g(t) = ak^2e^{kt}$. Thus, if $x(t)$ were to also be an exponential of the form be^{kt} (with b being a constant), we would have all terms on the left side of our expression in the form of a constant multiplied by e^{kt} . Therefore, let us choose $x(t) = be^{kt}$ and check to see if it could be a solution. First, we have

$$\frac{d}{dt} x(t) = bke^{kt} \quad (5.3.29)$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2} x(t) = bk^2e^{kt} \quad (5.3.30)$$

Then substituting this into our differential yields

$$bk^2e^{kt} + 2ACke^{kt} + Bbke^{kt} = ae^{kt}. \quad (5.3.31)$$

From here, we can divide out the e^{kt} , factor and solve for our constant as follows

$$b(k^2 + 2Ak + B) = a \implies b = \frac{a}{k^2 + 2Ak + B}. \quad (5.3.32)$$

Hence, we have that the particular solution to our differential equation is

$$x_p(t) = \frac{ae^{kt}}{k^2 + 2Ak + B}. \quad (5.3.33)$$

Checking this solution is trivial and can be done simply by taking the first and second derivatives and plugging into our differential equation. The differential equation should then evaluate as true. As we can see, exponential particular solutions are very simple, and if we were to have something such as $g(t) = a_1e^{kt} + a_2e^{kt}$,

then we would solve the particular in exactly the same manner. This is because we would be able to factor and say $g(t) = (a_1 + a_2)e^{kt}$, with $a_1 + a_2$ being our constant in $g(t)$. Let us consider a more general case however. If for example we have $g(t) = a_\ell e^{k_\ell t} + a_{\ell-1}e^{k_{\ell-1}t} + \dots + a_1e^{k_1t} + a_0e^{k_0t}$, where a_ℓ and k_ℓ are constant, we would use the same methods, but a combination of multiple solutions. As theorem 1.1 states, we can see that $g(t)$ is a combination of functions $h_i(t) = a_i e^{k_i t}$, and thus, the derivatives can be taken separately then added. A good way to represent this is

$$g(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} h_i(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} a_i e^{k_i t} \quad (5.3.34)$$

Consider as well the following differential equation again:

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}x(t) + \frac{d^{n-1}}{dt^{n-1}}C_{n-1}x(t) + \dots + \frac{d}{dt}C_1x(t) + C_0x(t) = g(t). \quad (5.3.35)$$

Similarly, this can be written as

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}x(t) + \frac{d^{n-1}}{dt^{n-1}}C_{n-1}x(t) + \dots + \frac{d}{dt}C_1x(t) + C_0x(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} a_i e^{k_i t}. \quad (5.3.36)$$

Let $g_\ell(t)$ denote the corresponding $b_\ell e^{k_\ell t}$ term. We know by the above example that if we were to choose $x_n(t) = b_n e^{k_n t}$, it would be a solution for $g_\ell(t) = a_\ell e^{k_\ell t}$. Similarly, if we were to choose $x(t) = x_0(t) + x_1(t) = b_0 e^{k_0 t} + b_1 e^{k_1 t}$, we can show that it is a solution to $g(t) = g_0(t) + g_1(t) = a_0 e^{k_0 t} + a_1 e^{k_1 t}$ using theorem 1.1. First we say

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}(x_0(t) + x_1(t)) + \dots + \frac{d}{dt}C_1(x_0(t) + x_1(t)) + C_0(x_0(t) + x_1(t)) = g_0(t) + g_1(t). \quad (5.3.37)$$

This then becomes

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}x_0(t) + \frac{d^n}{dt^n}x_1(t) + \dots + \frac{d}{dt}C_1x_0(t) + \frac{d}{dt}C_1x_1(t) + C_0x_0(t) + C_0x_1(t) = g_0(t) + g_1(t). \quad (5.3.38)$$

Then by grouping these we have

$$\left(\frac{d^n}{dt^n}x_0(t) + \dots + \frac{d}{dt}C_1x_0(t) + C_0x_0(t) \right) + \left(\frac{d^n}{dt^n}x_1(t) + \dots + \frac{d}{dt}C_1x_1(t) + C_0x_1(t) \right) = g_0(t) + g_1(t).$$

As we can see, this is a solution since $x_0(t)$ is a solution to

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}x_0(t) + \dots + \frac{d}{dt}C_1x_0(t) + C_0x_0(t) = g_0(t) \quad (5.3.39)$$

and $x_1(t)$ is a solution to

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n}x_1(t) + \dots + \frac{d}{dt}C_1x_1(t) + C_0x_1(t) = g_1(t). \quad (5.3.40)$$

Similarly, this method will work for any number for terms in $g(t)$. Therefore, if we had

$$g(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} a_i e^{k_i t}, \quad (5.3.41)$$

We will have a solution of the form

$$x(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} b_i e^{k_i t}. \quad (5.3.42)$$

We can then verify this by plugging our above equations into the differential as follows:

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} b_i e^{k_i t} + \frac{d^{n-1}}{dt^{n-1}} C_{n-1} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} b_i e^{k_i t} + \cdots + \frac{d}{dt} C_1 \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} b_i e^{k_i t} x(t) + C_0 \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} b_i e^{k_i t} = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} a_i e^{k_i t}. \quad (5.3.43)$$

Similar to theorem 4.1, we need a simple way of determining the m^{th} derivative for $x(t)$. We can first express $x(t)$ as a sum of all of its components

$$x(t) = b_{\ell} e^{k_{\ell} t} + b_{\ell-1} e^{k_{\ell-1} t} + \cdots + b_1 e^{k_1 t} + b_0 e^{k_0 t}. \quad (5.3.44)$$

From here, it is simple to see that the derivatives follow as

$$\frac{d}{dx} x(t) = b_{\ell} k_{\ell} e^{k_{\ell} t} + b_{\ell-1} k_{\ell-1} e^{k_{\ell-1} t} + \cdots + b_1 k_1 e^{k_1 t} + b_0 k_0 e^{k_0 t} \quad (5.3.45)$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} x(t) = b_{\ell} k_{\ell}^2 e^{k_{\ell} t} + b_{\ell-1} k_{\ell-1}^2 e^{k_{\ell-1} t} + \cdots + b_1 k_1^2 e^{k_1 t} + b_0 k_0^2 e^{k_0 t} \quad (5.3.46)$$

$$\vdots \quad (5.3.47)$$

$$\frac{d^n}{dx^n} x(t) = b_{\ell} k_{\ell}^n e^{k_{\ell} t} + b_{\ell-1} k_{\ell-1}^n e^{k_{\ell-1} t} + \cdots + b_1 k_1^n e^{k_1 t} + b_0 k_0^n e^{k_0 t}. \quad (5.3.48)$$

From here we can clearly see that

$$\frac{d^n}{dx^n} x(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} b_{\ell-i} k_{\ell-i}^n e^{k_{\ell-i} t}. \quad (5.3.49)$$

This can then be generalized for use as

Theorem 5.3.2

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function such that $f(t) = b_n e^{k_n t} + b_{n-1} e^{k_{n-1} t} + \cdots + b_1 e^{k_1 t} + b_0 e^{k_0 t}$, with b_n and k_n as constants. The m^{th} derivative is then given by

$$\frac{d^m}{dx^m} f(t) = \frac{d^m}{dx^m} \sum_{i=0}^n b_i e^{k_i t} = \sum_{i=0}^n b_{n-i} k_{n-i}^m e^{k_{n-i} t}.$$

From here we can verify our differential equation by inserting the derivatives into our expression. Thus, equation (3.43) becomes

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\ell} b_{\ell-i} k_{\ell-i}^m e^{k_{\ell-i} t} + C_{n-1} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} b_{\ell-i} k_{\ell-i}^{m-1} e^{k_{\ell-i} t} + \cdots + C_0 \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} b_{\ell-i} e^{k_{\ell-i} t} = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} a_i e^{k_i t}. \quad (5.3.50)$$

Starting with the left hand side of the expression (let us denote it by $F(t)$), this can be shown to be equivalent to the right as follows:

$$F(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} \left[b_{\ell-i} k_{\ell-i}^m e^{k_{\ell-i}t} + C_{n-1} b_{\ell-i} k_{\ell-i}^{m-1} e^{k_{\ell-i}t} + \dots + C_0 b_{\ell-i} e^{k_{\ell-i}t} \right] \quad (5.3.51)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} \left[b_{\ell-i} e^{k_{\ell-i}t} (k_{\ell-i}^m + C_{n-1} k_{\ell-i}^{m-1} + \dots + C_0) \right]. \quad (5.3.52)$$

Since $b_{\ell-i}(k_{\ell-i}^m + C_{n-1} k_{\ell-i}^{m-1} + \dots + C_0)$ is constant for all values of i ; we can denote it by $C_{\ell}(i)$, since it is dependent on the value of i . We can then express $F(t)$ as

$$F(t) \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} C_{\ell}(i) e^{k_{\ell-i}t}. \quad (5.3.53)$$

If we write out the terms of this sum, we get

$$F(t) \equiv C_{\ell}(0) e^{k_{\ell}t} + C_{\ell}(1) e^{k_{\ell-1}t} + \dots + C_{\ell}(\ell-1) e^{k_1t} + C_{\ell}(\ell) e^{k_0t} \quad (5.3.54)$$

$$\equiv C_{\ell}(\ell) e^{k_0t} + C_{\ell}(\ell-1) e^{k_1t} + \dots + C_{\ell}(1) e^{k_{\ell-1}t} + C_{\ell}(0) e^{k_{\ell}t} \quad (5.3.55)$$

$$\equiv \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} C_{\ell}(\ell-i) e^{k_it}. \quad (5.3.56)$$

Now, since $C_{\ell}(\ell-i)$ is still an arbitrary constant for all i , we can let $C_{\ell}(\ell-i) = a_i$ and then we see

$$F(t) \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} a_i e^{k_it} \quad (5.3.57)$$

which verifies that $x(t)$ (equation 3.42) is a solution to our differential equation. From here, we can also solve for our constants in $x(t)$ in terms of the given constants C_n and a_n . First, we have (from equation 3.50)

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\ell} b_{\ell-i} (k_{\ell-i}^m + C_{n-1} k_{\ell-i}^{m-1} + \dots + C_0) e^{k_{\ell-i}t} = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} a_i e^{k_it}. \quad (5.3.58)$$

Writing the terms of this gives (let " \rightsquigarrow " denote " $+\dots+$ " to save some space)

$$b_{\ell} (k_{\ell}^m \rightsquigarrow C_0) e^{k_{\ell}t} + b_{\ell-1} (k_{\ell-1}^m \rightsquigarrow C_0) e^{k_{\ell-1}t} \rightsquigarrow b_1 (k_1^m \rightsquigarrow C_0) e^{k_1t} + b_0 (k_0^m \rightsquigarrow C_0) e^{k_0t} = a_0 e^{k_0t} \rightsquigarrow a_{\ell} e^{k_{\ell}t}. \quad (5.3.59)$$

From this, we can then match up the corresponding e^{k_it} terms on both sides to solve for our constants. This gives us

$$b_{\ell} (k_{\ell}^m \rightsquigarrow C_0) = a_{\ell} \quad (5.3.60)$$

$$b_{\ell-1} (k_{\ell-1}^m \rightsquigarrow C_0) = a_{\ell-1} \quad (5.3.61)$$

$$\vdots \quad (5.3.62)$$

$$b_0 (k_0^m \rightsquigarrow C_0) = a_0. \quad (5.3.63)$$

Thus, we notice that for all values of i ,

$$b_i(k_i^m \rightsquigarrow C_0) = a_i \iff b_i = \frac{a_i}{k_i^m \rightsquigarrow C_0}. \quad (5.3.64)$$

Therefore, we can express our solution to our differential as

$$x(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} \frac{a_i e^{k_i t}}{k_i^m \rightsquigarrow C_0} = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} \frac{a_i e^{k_i t}}{k_{\ell-i}^m + C_{n-1} k_{\ell-i}^{m-1} + \dots + C_0} \quad (5.3.65)$$

Theorem 5.3.3

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous and differential function and let C_n , a_n , b_n and k_n be constant for all n . Given a differential equation of the form

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n} f(t) + \frac{d^{n-1}}{dt^{n-1}} C_{n-1} f(t) + \dots + \frac{d}{dt} C_1 f(t) + C_0 f(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} a_i e^{k_i t},$$

A solution of the following form exists:

$$f(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} b_i e^{k_i t} = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} \frac{a_i e^{k_i t}}{k_{\ell-i}^n + C_{n-1} k_{\ell-i}^{n-1} + \dots + C_0}$$

5.4 Integrals

The term "**integral**" encompasses several distinct concepts in mathematics. Its most prevalent meaning relates to the fundamental concept in calculus, where it involves the process of summing infinitesimally small components to determine the content of a continuous region. In calculus, an integral is a fundamental mathematical concept that can be interpreted as measuring area or extending the notion of area to more complex shapes. Alongside derivatives, integrals are the cornerstone of calculus. They are also referred to as **antiderivatives** or **primitives**. The act of evaluating an integral is known as integration (a term sometimes replaced by the more historical word "quadrature"). When an integral is approximated numerically, it is called numerical integration.

Definition 5.4.1: The Antiderivative

A function F is called an **antiderivative** of a function f on an interval I if $\frac{d}{dx} F(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in I$.

Definition 5.4.2: Riemann Sum

Let f be defined on the closed interval $[a, b]$, and let Δ be a partition of $[a, b]$ given by $a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_{n-1} < x_n = b$, where Δx_i is the width of the i th sub-interval. If $c_i \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$, then the sum $\sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \Delta x_i$ is called a Riemann sum of f for the partition Δ .

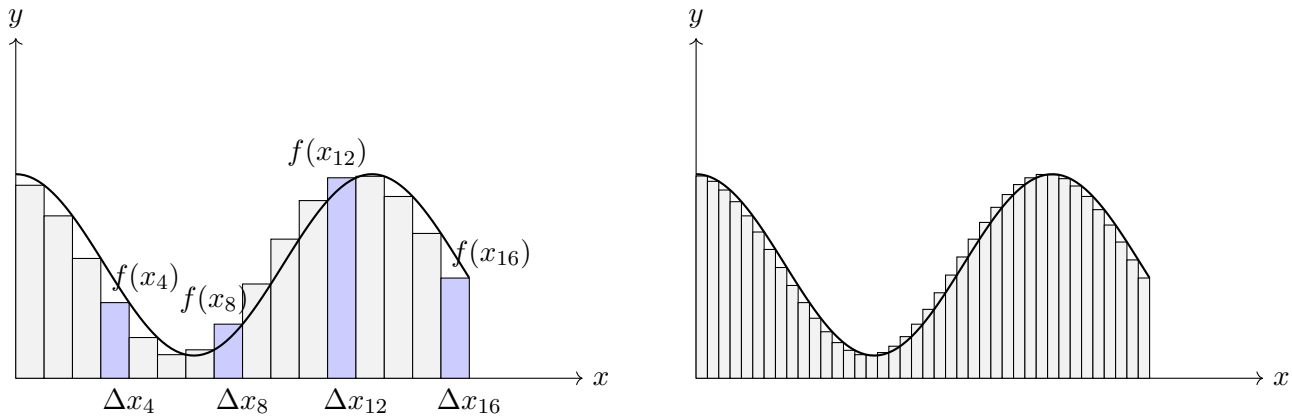


Figure 5.1: LEFT: A visualization of the Riemann Sums. The partition width is denoted by Δx_i and the height of the partitions is $f(x_i)$. RIGHT: Increasing the number of partitions and decreasing the width better approximates the area under the curve.

The largest width among the subintervals within a partition Δ is known as the partition's norm, represented by $\|\Delta\|$. If all subintervals have equal width, the partition is called regular, and its norm is denoted by $\|\Delta\| = \Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$. The integral can be defined in the limit as this partition's norm approaches zero $\|\Delta\| \rightarrow 0$. Therefore, there exists some $L \in \mathbf{R}$ such that for each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a $\delta > 0$ so that for all partitions with $\|\Delta\| < \delta$, we have

$$\lim_{\|\Delta\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \Delta x_i = L \implies \left| L - \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \Delta x_i \right| < \epsilon \quad (5.4.1)$$

This then give the definition of the definite integral.

Definition 5.4.3: The Definite Integral

If f is defined on the closed interval $I = [a, b]$ and the limit of the Riemann sums over partitions Δ exists, then f is said to be integrable on I and the limit is denoted by the definite integral of f from a to b .

$$\lim_{\|\Delta\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \Delta x_i = \int_a^b f(x) dx \quad (5.4.2)$$

Integration By Parts

Integration by parts is a method used to find the integral of a product of two functions. It is derived from the product rule for differentiation and allows us to express the integral of a product in terms of simpler integrals.

Theorem 5.4.1: Integration By Parts

Let f and g (or u and v) be differentiable functions for all x , then

$$\int f(x) \frac{d}{dx} g(x) dx = f(x)g(x) - \int g(x) \frac{d}{dx} f(x) dx \implies \int u dv = uv - \int v du \quad (5.4.3)$$

Proof for theorem 5.4.1. Beginning with the product rule from theorem 5.1.3 we have

$$\frac{d}{dx} f(x)g(x) = g(x) \frac{d}{dx} f(x) + f(x) \frac{d}{dx} g(x) \quad (5.4.4)$$

Integrating both sides with respect to x gives

$$\int \frac{d}{dx} f(x)g(x) dx = f(x)g(x) = \int g(x) \frac{d}{dx} f(x) dx + \int f(x) \frac{d}{dx} g(x) dx \quad (5.4.5)$$

This gives what is referred to as integration by parts.

$$\int f(x) \frac{d}{dx} g(x) dx = f(x)g(x) - \int g(x) \frac{d}{dx} f(x) dx = f(x)g(x) - \int g(x) f'(x) dx \quad (5.4.6)$$

Let $u = f(x)$ and $v = g(x)$, where dv and du represent the respective derivatives. Then this becomes $\int u dv = uv - \int v du$. \square

Linear Algebra

Linear algebra is a branch of mathematics that focuses on the study of vector spaces, linear transformations, and systems of linear equations. It provides a powerful framework for representing and solving problems involving linear relationships between variables. Key concepts in linear algebra include:

- **Vectors:** Vectors are mathematical objects that represent magnitude and direction. They can be represented as ordered lists of numbers and are used to describe quantities with both magnitude and direction, such as velocity and force.
- **Vector Spaces:** A vector space is a set of vectors that satisfy certain properties under addition and scalar multiplication. It forms the foundation of linear algebra and allows for the study of linear combinations and transformations.
- **Matrices:** Matrices are rectangular arrays of numbers or elements, organized into rows and columns. They are used to represent linear transformations and to solve systems of linear equations.
- **Linear Transformations:** Linear transformations are functions that preserve the structure of vector spaces. They map vectors from one vector space to another while maintaining properties like linearity and preservation of the origin.
- **Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors:** In linear algebra, eigenvalues and eigenvectors are associated with linear transformations. Eigenvectors are special vectors that remain in the same direction after a linear transformation, and eigenvalues represent how much the eigenvectors are scaled during the transformation.

Linear algebra finds applications in various fields, including physics, computer graphics, engineering, data science, and economics. It plays a fundamental role in solving systems of linear equations, understanding linear transformations, and providing tools to analyze complex systems with multiple variables and interactions. Moreover, it forms the basis for more advanced mathematical concepts and techniques in areas like optimization, machine learning, and numerical analysis.

6.1 Linear Systems

A linear system, in the context of mathematics and engineering, refers to a collection of linear equations involving multiple variables. Each equation in the system is linear, meaning that it represents a relationship where each variable is raised to the power of 1 and multiplied by a constant coefficient. The general form of a linear equation in one variable, x , is $mx + b = 0$, Where m and b are constants. In a linear system involving multiple variables, the equations have a similar form

$$a_0x_0 + a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \cdots + a_nx_n = b, \quad (6.1.1)$$

where a_0, \dots, a_n are the coefficients, x_0, \dots, x_n are the variables, and b is a constant.

Definition 6.1.1: Linear Combination

A **linear combination** of x_0, \dots, x_n has the form

$$a_0x_0 + a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n,$$

where the numbers $a_0, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$ are the combination's coefficients. A linear equation in the variables x_0, \dots, x_n has the form $a_0x_0 + a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n = d$, where $d \in \mathbb{R}$ is the constant. An n -tuple $(s_0, s_1, \dots, s_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a solution of, or satisfies, that equation if substituting the numbers s_0, \dots, s_n for the variables gives a true statement: $a_0s_0 + a_1s_1 + \dots + a_ns_n = d$. A system of linear equations

$$\begin{aligned} a_{0,0}x_0 + a_{0,1}x_1 + \dots + a_{0,n}x_n &= d_0 \\ a_{1,0}x_0 + a_{1,1}x_1 + \dots + a_{1,n}x_n &= d_1 \\ a_{2,0}x_0 + a_{2,1}x_1 + \dots + a_{2,n}x_n &= d_2 \\ &\vdots \\ a_{m,0}x_0 + a_{m,1}x_1 + \dots + a_{m,n}x_n &= d_m \end{aligned}$$

has the solution (s_0, s_1, \dots, s_n) if that n -tuple is a solution of all of the equations.

Theorem 6.1.1: Gauss's Method

If a linear system is changed to another by one of the following operations, then the two systems have the same set of solutions.

1. An equation is swapped with another.
2. An equation has both sides multiplied by a non-zero constant.
3. An equation is replaced by the sum of itself and a multiple of another.

Proof for theorem 6.1.1 item 1. The proof for this one is trivial. If we have a system of linear equations with a tuple that satisfies those equations, then by definition 6.1.1, all the equations hold true with that tuple. By swapping any of them, they will still hold true, and thus swapping them has no effect on the set of solutions. \square

Proof for theorem 6.1.1 item 2. The proof for this one is also trivial. Consider a system of linear equations with a tuple $(s_0, s_1, \dots, s_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ that satisfies those solutions. Then by definition 6.1.1, for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, we have a true statement $a_{i,0}x_0 + a_{i,1}x_1 + \dots + a_{i,n}x_n = d_i$. Suppose we multiply both sides of this equation by some $p \in \mathbb{R}$, where $p \neq 0$. Then we have $p(a_{i,0}s_0 + a_{i,1}s_1 + \dots + a_{i,n}s_n) = pd_i$. Since the tuple is a solution to the equation, there has to exist some pd_i value to satisfies this equation call it d'_i (the prime representing our new linear system), giving us $a'_{i,0}s_0 + a'_{i,1}s_1 + \dots + a'_{i,n}s_n = pd_i = d'_i$, where a'_i are some new coefficients pa_i that satisfy the equation and d'_i is some new constant. Our tuple will satisfy this equation, and since none of the other equations changed, it will also satisfy them. Therefore, our solution satisfies this new linear system. Since the solution was arbitrary, this implies that all solutions are also satisfied. \square

Proof for theorem 6.1.1 item 3. The proof for this one is also trivial. Consider a system of linear equations with a tuple $(s_0, s_1, \dots, s_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ that satisfies those solutions. Let $p \in \mathbb{R}$. Take two equations in the system

$a_{i,0}x_0 + a_{i,1}x_1 + \dots + a_{i,n}x_n = d_i$ and $a_{j,0}x_0 + a_{j,1}x_1 + \dots + a_{j,n}x_n = d_j$. We can construct a new equation by adding the first to a multiple of the second, say $d_i + pd_j$. this gives $d_i + pd_j = a_{i,0}x_0 + a_{i,1}x_1 + \dots + a_{i,n}x_n + p(a_{j,0}x_0 + a_{j,1}x_1 + \dots + a_{j,n}x_n)$. Since our tuple is a solution to both of these equations, we know that the first term d_i and the second term pd_j (when our tuple is plugged into the variables) will satisfy the new expression. Thus, since this tuple is a solution to this equation, and since none of the other equations changed, it will also satisfy them. Therefore, our solution satisfies this new linear system. Since the solution was arbitrary, this implies that all solutions are also satisfied. \square

Definition 6.1.2: Gaussian Operations

The three operations from theorem 6.1.1 are called **Gaussian operations** (or elementary reduction operations, or row operations). They are swapping, multiplying by a scalar, and row combination.

Definition 6.1.3: Echelon Form

In a system of equations, the initial variable with a non-zero coefficient within each row is referred to as the leading variable for that row. A system is said to be in **echelon form** when every leading variable, except for the first row's leading variable, is positioned to the right of the leading variable in the row above it. Additionally, any rows containing coefficients of all zeros are situated at the bottom.

In an echelon form linear system the variables that are not leading are **free**. An example of echelon form follows. Consider the equations $x - 4y + 2z = -1$, $7z + 3y = 10$, and $z = 10$. The echelon form of these is

$$1x - 4y + 2z = -1 \quad (6.1.2)$$

$$0x + 3y + 7z = 10 \quad (6.1.3)$$

$$0x + 0y + 1z = 2 \quad (6.1.4)$$

I added coefficients to each term in order to better demonstrate how the variables 'line up.' This form is analogous to representing data in matrix format. For these equations, a matrix representation would be written as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -4 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 10 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad \left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -4 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & 7 & 10 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \right) \quad (6.1.5)$$

Definition 6.1.4: Matrix

An $m \times n$ matrix is a rectangular array of numbers with m rows and n columns (2-dimensional). Each number in the matrix is an entry which has an index in each dimension. A matrix is typically denoted with an upper case letter. A matrix is typically a 2-dimensional object but can be mathematically extended into higher dimensions. for example, a 3×5 matrix with elements a_{mn} is denoted

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} & a_{15} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} & a_{25} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} & a_{35} \end{bmatrix}$$

Definition 6.1.5: Homogeneous Solutions

A linear equation is **homogeneous** if it has a constant of zero and thus can be written

$$a_0x_0 + a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n = 0 \quad (6.1.6)$$

Lemma 6.1.1: Homogeneous solution

Any homogeneous linear system has a solution set of the form

$$\{c_1\vec{\alpha}_1 + \cdots + c_n\vec{\alpha}_n | c_1, \dots, c_n \in \mathbb{R}\},$$

where n is the number of free variables in an echelon form of the system.

Theorem 6.1.2: General Solution: Particular + Homogeneous

Any linear system has a solution set of the form

$$\{\vec{p} + c_1\vec{\alpha}_1 + \cdots + c_n\vec{\alpha}_n | c_1, \dots, c_n \in \mathbb{R}\},$$

where \vec{p} is a particular solution and n is the number of free variables that the system has after a Gaussian reduction.

General Physics

Physics is the scientific study of the fundamental principles that govern the behavior of matter, energy, space, and time. It seeks to understand the natural world by formulating and testing mathematical models and theories based on observations and experimental evidence. Physics is a broad and diverse field that encompasses various sub-disciplines, including classical mechanics, electromagnetism, thermodynamics, quantum mechanics, and relativity, among others. Key areas of study in physics include:

- **Classical Mechanics:** This branch deals with the motion of macroscopic objects and is based on Newton's laws of motion and the concept of conservation of energy and momentum.
- **Electromagnetism:** This field explores the behavior of electric and magnetic fields and their interactions with charged particles, leading to the understanding of electricity, magnetism, and electromagnetic waves.
- **Thermodynamics:** It examines the relationships between heat, work, and energy, providing insights into the behavior of gases, liquids, and solids and the principles of heat engines and refrigeration.
- **Quantum Mechanics:** This revolutionary theory describes the behavior of particles at the atomic and subatomic levels, often challenging our classical intuitions and introducing concepts like wave-particle duality and quantum entanglement.
- **Relativity:** Special and General Relativity, proposed by Albert Einstein, deal with the nature of space, time, and gravity, especially at high speeds and in the presence of massive objects.
- **Nuclear Physics:** It focuses on the study of atomic nuclei, nuclear reactions, and nuclear forces, leading to applications in energy production and understanding the universe's early moments.
- **Particle Physics:** This field investigates the fundamental particles of the universe and their interactions, exploring the subatomic realm with particle accelerators and detectors.
- **Astrophysics:** The study of celestial objects and phenomena, such as stars, galaxies, black holes, and cosmic rays, to understand the structure and evolution of the universe.

Condensed Matter Physics: It examines the properties of solid and liquid matter and studies phenomena like superconductivity, magnetism, and phase transitions.

Physics has been crucial in advancing technology and shaping our understanding of the universe, from everyday applications like electronics and telecommunications to groundbreaking discoveries about the fundamental nature of reality. It plays a central role in modern science and continues to be a driving force for innovation and progress in various fields. Physics stands as the foundational and all-encompassing science, profoundly shaping the advancement of all scientific disciplines.

💡 Interesting Note

A poet once said, “The whole universe is in a glass of wine.” We will probably never know in what sense he meant that, for poets do not write to be understood. But it is true that if we look at a glass of wine closely enough we see the entire universe. There are the things of physics: the twisting liquid which evaporates depending on the wind and weather, the reflections in the glass, and our imagination adds the atoms. The glass is a distillation of the earth’s rocks, and in its composition we see the secrets of the universe’s age, and the evolution of stars. What strange array of chemicals are in the wine? How did they come to be? There are the ferments, the enzymes, the substrates, and the products. There in wine is found the great generalization: all life is fermentation. Nobody can discover the chemistry of wine without discovering, as did Louis Pasteur, the cause of much disease. How vivid is the claret, pressing its existence into the consciousness that watches it! If our small minds, for some convenience, divide this glass of wine, this universe, into parts—physics, biology, geology, astronomy, psychology, and so on—remember that nature does not know it! So let us put it all back together, not forgetting ultimately what it is for. Let it give us one more final pleasure: drink it and forget it all! [17]

7.1 Chemistry

Inorganic chemistry is the branch of chemistry that deals with the study of inorganic compounds, which are substances not primarily based on carbon-hydrogen (C-H) bonds. It explores the properties, structures, and behaviors of minerals, metals, gases, and other inorganic substances, playing a crucial role in understanding the fundamental elements and their interactions. The theory of chemistry and chemical reactions, was summarized to a large extent in the periodic chart of **Mendeleev**, also known as the **periodic table of elements**. All of these rules were eventually explained by quantum mechanics and thus theoretical chemistry is actually just physics. **Organic chemistry** is the chemistry of substances which are associated with living things. These are typically complex. This field is closely related to biology.

Statistical mechanics was a branch of physics developed alongside chemistry and has played an extremely important role in history. In any chemical situation, there are a large number of atoms all interacting. If all of these atoms could be analyzed at each collision and kept track of, the phenomenon of chemical reactions could be predicted. Statistical mechanics is the science of heat or thermodynamics which accomplishes this to some degree.

7.2 Biology

Biology is the scientific study of living organisms and their interactions with the environment. It encompasses a wide range of topics, from the molecular and cellular levels to the study of ecosystems and biodiversity. Biology seeks to understand the processes of life, including growth, reproduction, adaptation, and evolution, providing insights into the diversity and complexity of living systems. Biology is composed of many physical phenomenon and systems which can be studies and understood by physics. There are often very intriguing connections between physics and biology. The **conservation of energy** was in large part inspired by biology when Julius von Mayer demonstrated a connection with the amount of heat taken in and given out by a living creature. Another example is that of nerves which function as very find tubes with positive ions on the outside and negative ions on the inside - much like a capacitor that can be discharged to send signals.

Proteins are large, complex molecules composed of amino acids, essential for various biological functions. They play crucial roles in the structure, function, and regulation of cells and tissues, serving as enzymes, receptors, transporters, and antibodies. **Enzymes**, a specialized type of protein, act as biological

catalysts, speeding up chemical reactions within cells. They are highly specific and crucial for metabolic processes, allowing cells to carry out essential tasks such as digestion, energy production, and DNA replication. A significant achievement since the 1960s has been the precise determination of the atomic arrangement in certain proteins, comprising approximately fifty-six or sixty amino acids in sequence. These studies have located over a thousand atoms, including hydrogen atoms, forming intricate patterns in some proteins, such as **hemoglobin**. Despite this progress, the mystery remains as to why these patterns function as they do.

DNA, short for deoxyribonucleic acid, is a molecule that carries genetic information in all living organisms. It consists of a double helix structure made up of nucleotide units, each containing a sugar, phosphate group, and a nitrogenous base. DNA serves as the blueprint for the development, functioning, and inheritance of living beings, encoding the instructions required for the synthesis of proteins and controlling various cellular processes. The study of DNA's structure led to the remarkable discovery that it consists of a pair of twisted chains, with specific cross-links between them. These cross-links, represented by adenine, thymine, cytosine, and guanine, fit together in pairs. The pairs form strong bonds and only certain pairs will create these bonds. Therefore, when DNA is split, there is only one way to reproduce the other half in cell reproduction, ensuring the accurate replication of DNA during cell division and passing on specific instructions for protein synthesis to offspring.

No subject or field is making more progress on so many fronts at the present moment, than biology, and if we were to name the most powerful assumption of all, which leads one on and on in an attempt to understand life, it is that all things are made of atoms (see 9.1), and that everything that living things do can be understood in terms of the jiggings and wiggings of atoms.

7.3 Astronomy

Astronomy is the scientific study of celestial objects, phenomena, and the universe as a whole. It encompasses the observation, analysis, and understanding of stars, planets, galaxies, and other cosmic structures, as well as the exploration of space and the fundamental principles governing the cosmos. Astronomy plays a crucial role in unraveling the mysteries of the universe, from studying the origins of galaxies to investigating the properties of distant exoplanets and the evolution of the cosmos over billions of years. Astronomy is older than physics and bridged the way for the beginning of physics through observations of the simplistic motion of stars and planets.

The most remarkable discovery in all of astronomy is that the stars are made of atoms of the same kind as those on the earth. With a **spectroscope**, we can analyze the frequencies of light waves and can therefore see the presence of atoms that are in different stars. Some chemicals were even discovered in stars before being discovered on earth.

One of the most impressive discoveries was the origin of energy in stars. The nuclear 'burning' of hydrogen supplies energy to stars. The stellar properties inside stars make them prime conditions for many nuclear reactions to occur and new elements to be created. The isotopic proportions in our own composition reveal the stellar origins of the elements, suggesting that we were "cooked" in stars and expelled through novae and supernovae explosions. Astronomy, closely linked to physics, offers valuable insights into these processes.

7.4 Geology

Geology, also called **earth sciences**, is the scientific study of the Earth's structure, composition, and processes that have shaped its history. It investigates the formation of rocks, minerals, and geological features, such as mountains, volcanoes, and earthquakes, as well as the evolution of landscapes and the interactions between the Earth's materials and natural forces. Geology plays a crucial role in understanding Earth's

past, present, and future, and it contributes to various fields, including resource exploration, environmental management, and hazard assessment. The question basic to geology is, what makes the earth the way it is?

Meteorology is the scientific study of the Earth's atmosphere and weather phenomena. It closely relates to physics because it involves the application of fundamental physical principles, such as thermodynamics, fluid dynamics, and radiation, to understand and predict atmospheric processes. By analyzing the behavior of air masses, temperature, humidity, pressure, and wind patterns, meteorologists use physics-based models and observations to forecast weather conditions and study atmospheric phenomena like hurricanes, tornadoes, and climate change. The interaction between meteorology and physics plays a crucial role in advancing our understanding of the Earth's atmosphere and its impact on weather patterns and climate dynamics.

While we have considerable knowledge about earthquake waves and the Earth's density distribution, physicists face challenges understanding matter's properties at the immense pressures within the Earth's core. Unlike conditions in stars, the complex mathematics involved in these extreme circumstances remains a hurdle to tackle. Additionally, determining the density and behavior of rocks at high pressure requires experimental investigations, as our theoretical understanding is limited.

7.5 Energy

The **conservation of energy** is believed to be a fundamental law governing all known natural phenomena that are known to date. It is believed to be an exact and unbroken principle, stating that a quantity known as **energy** remains constant amidst the various changes occurring in nature. This abstract idea is based on mathematical principles, representing a numerical quantity that remains unchanged throughout different events. It is not a description of a concrete mechanism but rather a remarkable fact: the calculated energy value remains the same after observing nature's transformations. Energy has a large number of different forms, and there is a formula for each one. These are: gravitational energy, kinetic energy, heat energy, elastic energy, electrical energy, chemical energy, radiant energy, nuclear energy, mass energy. If we total up the formulas for each of these contributions in a system, it will not change except for energy going in and out of the system.

In quantum mechanics it turns out that the conservation of energy is very closely related to another important property of the world, *things do not depend on the absolute time*.

7.5.1 Work

In physics, work is defined as the transfer of energy that results from the application of a force over a certain distance. When a force acts on an object and causes it to move in the direction of the force, work is done on the object. Work is a scalar quantity and is expressed in units of joules (J) in the International System of Units (SI).

Definition 7.5.1: Work

The work done on an object is defined as the force \vec{F} applied to an object through some displacement $d\vec{r}$

$$W = \int \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} \quad (7.5.1)$$

7.5.2 Gravitational Potential Energy

The general name of energy which has to do with location relative to something else is called **potential energy**. In the case of objects relative to earth (or other bodies effected by gravitational energy), it is called **gravitational potential energy**.

Definition 7.5.2: Gravitational Potential Energy

Gravitational potential energy E is a form of potential energy associated with the position of an object in a gravitational field. It represents the energy stored in an object due to its height h above a reference point. The higher an object is positioned above the reference point, the greater its gravitational potential energy.

$$E = mgh, \quad (7.5.2)$$

where m is the mass of the object and g is the acceleration due to gravity.

For static structures and systems, one can apply an imaginary motion to the system (even if it is not really moving or even movable) in order to apply the principal of conservation of energy. This approach is called the **principle of virtual work**.

7.5.3 Kinetic Energy

The principal of **motion** gives rise to another type of energy referred to as **kinetic energy**. Beginning with definition 7.5.1 and applying newtons second law (see equation 8.2.5), we have

$$W = \int \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int m\vec{a} \cdot d\vec{r} = m \int \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \cdot d\vec{r} \quad (7.5.3)$$

Since $\vec{v} = \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}$, we can say $\vec{v}dt = d\vec{r}$. We substitute this in to get

$$W = m \int \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \cdot \vec{v}dt = m \int \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \cdot \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}dt \quad (7.5.4)$$

Let $u = v = \vec{v} = \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}$, then $\frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{d^2\vec{x}}{dt^2} = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \implies dv = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt}dt = du$. This allows us to apply integration by parts (see theorem 5.4.1) giving

$$m \int \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \cdot \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}dt = m\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} - m \int \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \cdot \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}dt \quad (7.5.5)$$

Solving for our original integral then gives

$$m \int \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \cdot \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}dt = \frac{1}{2}m||\vec{v}||^2 \quad (7.5.6)$$

This is what is known as or termed the kinetic energy.

Definition 7.5.3: Kinetic Energy

Kinetic energy E is a fundamental concept in physics that refers to the energy possessed by an object due to its motion. It is the energy associated with the object's velocity and is dependent on both its mass m and the square of the magnitude of its velocity v .

$$E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{p^2}{2m} \quad (7.5.7)$$

when associated with relativity, there is a modification to this concept of kinetic energy. An object has energy from simply existing which is referred to as a mass energy which is combined with this kinetic energy of motion.

Classical Mechanics

Classical mechanics is a branch of physics that describes the motion of objects and systems under the influence of forces. It forms the foundation of mechanics before the advent of quantum mechanics and relativistic physics. Classical mechanics is based on Newton's laws of motion and the concept of conservation of energy and momentum. Key principles and concepts of classical mechanics include:

- **Newton's Laws of Motion:** Sir Isaac Newton formulated three fundamental laws that govern the motion of objects. The first law (Law of Inertia) states that an object at rest remains at rest, and an object in motion continues to move at a constant velocity unless acted upon by an external force. The second law describes how the acceleration of an object is directly proportional to the net force applied and inversely proportional to its mass. The third law states that for every action, there is an equal and opposite reaction.
- **Conservation of Energy:** The principle of energy conservation states that the total energy of an isolated system remains constant over time. Energy can transform from one form to another (e.g., kinetic energy to potential energy), but the total amount of energy remains unchanged.
- **Conservation of Momentum:** The principle of momentum conservation states that the total momentum of an isolated system remains constant, provided no external forces act on it. Momentum is the product of an object's mass and velocity.
- **Gravitation:** Classical mechanics includes the study of gravitational forces between objects, described by Newton's law of universal gravitation. This law explains how objects attract each other with a force proportional to their masses and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them.
- **Harmonic Motion:** The study of harmonic motion involves oscillations and vibrations of systems, such as a pendulum or a mass-spring system. These motions follow simple harmonic motion equations and exhibit periodic behavior.

Classical mechanics provides accurate and practical predictions for a wide range of everyday scenarios and macroscopic systems. While it is highly effective in describing the behavior of objects at non-relativistic speeds, it becomes less accurate when dealing with extremely high speeds or microscopic particles, where quantum mechanics and relativistic physics are more appropriate. Nonetheless, classical mechanics remains a crucial and fundamental branch of physics, forming the basis for understanding the motion of everyday objects and engineering applications.

8.1 Gravity

The law of gravitation is that every object in the universe attracts every other object with a force which for any two bodies is proportional to the mass of each and varies inversely as the square of the distance between them. This is typically mathematically represented as

$$F = \frac{Gm_1m_2}{r^2} \quad (8.1.1)$$

While we can describe how gravity works mathematically, its underlying mechanism remains somewhat unknown. The absence of a known mechanism drives scientific inquiry, leading to further discoveries. No mechanism has been devised to "explain" gravity without simultaneously predicting the existence of

some other phenomenon. To a great precision, this force is exactly proportional to mass, and therefore fundamentally related to **inertia**.

? Questions

- Is this law a constant through time - perhaps the constant changes?
- Does this law somehow relate to the force of electrical attraction since they are both proportional to the inverse of the distance squared?

💡 Interesting Note

The relative strengths of electrical and gravitational interactions between two electrons is

$$\frac{\text{Gravitation Attraction}}{\text{Electrical Repulsion}} = \frac{1}{4.17 \times 10^{42}}. \quad (8.1.2)$$

If we compare the time it takes for light to go across a proton (10^{-24} seconds) to the age of the universe, which is approximately 2×10^{10} years, the result is 10^{-42} . They both have a similar number of zeros, leading to a potential idea that the gravitational constant may be linked to the age of the universe.

8.1.1 Kepler's Laws

Johannes Kepler was a German mathematician, astronomer, and astrologer who made significant contributions to our understanding of the solar system and planetary motion during the late 16th and early 17th centuries. Kepler is best known for formulating three fundamental laws of planetary motion, which laid the groundwork for modern astronomy. These laws were based on careful observations made by Tycho Brahe. **Kepler's laws** are

1. Each planet moves around the sun in an ellipse, with the sun at one focus.
2. The radius vector from the sun to the planet sweeps out equal areas in equal intervals of time.
3. The squares of the periods of any two planets are proportional to the cubes of the semi-major axes of their respective orbits: $T \propto a^{3/2}$.

Galileo was studying these laws when he discovered the principal of **inertia**-*if something is moving, with nothing touching it and completely undisturbed, it will go on forever, coasting at a uniform speed in a straight line.*

? Questions

- What is the cause of inertia?
- Does an objects inertia lower over time?

Newton further extended this by introducing the idea of a **force**. If a body is to change speed or direction, a force must be applied to it in the direction of the change. This gives the understanding that there must be a force acting on planets in order to keep them in rotation around the sun - rather than just flying off into space.

8.2 Motion

keyword Motion is the change in the position of an object relative to a reference point over time. It involves the displacement of an object from one location to another in a continuous manner. Motion can occur in various forms, such as **linear motion** (movement along a straight line), **circular motion** (movement in a circular path), **rotational motion** (movement around a fixed axis), or **oscillatory motion** (back-and-forth movement around a central position).

Velocity is a vector quantity that describes the rate of change of an object's position with respect to time. It specifies both the speed and the direction of an object's motion. Velocity \vec{v} is calculated by dividing the displacement (change in position) Δx of the object by the time taken to cover that displacement Δt . Velocity is expressed in units of distance per unit of time, such as meters per second (m/s) or kilometers per hour (km/h). If the velocity is constant over time, it is referred to as constant velocity, and if the velocity is changing, it is referred to as variable velocity. When the direction of an object's motion remains constant, the velocity is considered to be uniform; otherwise, it is non-uniform. Velocity plays a crucial role in describing and analyzing the motion of objects in physics and other scientific disciplines.

$$\vec{v}(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta \vec{x}(t)}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{x}(t)}{dt} \implies \vec{x}(t) = \int \vec{v}(t) dt \quad (8.2.1)$$

Acceleration is a vector quantity that describes the rate of change of an object's velocity with respect to time. It indicates how quickly an object's velocity is changing or how much the object is speeding up or slowing down. Acceleration is defined as the change in velocity divided by the change in time. Acceleration, like velocity, is a vector quantity, meaning it has both magnitude and direction. If an object is moving in a straight line, acceleration is in the same direction as the net force acting on the object. If the object is moving in a curved path, the acceleration is directed towards the center of the curvature. The units of acceleration are typically expressed as distance per unit time squared, such as meters per second squared (m/s²) or centimeters per second squared (cm/s²).

$$\vec{a}(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta \vec{v}(t)}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{v}(t)}{dt} = \frac{d^2 \vec{x}(t)}{dt^2} \implies \vec{v}(t) = \int \vec{a}(t) dt \quad (8.2.2)$$

Jerk is a vector quantity that represents the rate of change of acceleration with respect to time. In other words, jerk measures how quickly an object's acceleration is changing or how rapidly the object's rate of change in velocity is varying. Jerk is a vector quantity, just like acceleration and velocity, meaning it has both magnitude and direction. However, jerk is less commonly used in everyday physics problems compared to acceleration, which is more frequently encountered. In most cases, acceleration is sufficient to describe the motion of objects, and jerk is not a significant factor in standard physics analysis. Nonetheless, jerk becomes relevant in certain specialized fields, such as robotics, aerospace engineering, and studies involving rapid changes in motion or acceleration profiles.

$$\vec{j}(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta \vec{a}(t)}{\Delta t} = \frac{d\vec{a}(t)}{dt} = \frac{d^2 \vec{v}(t)}{dt^2} = \frac{d^3 \vec{x}(t)}{dt^3} \implies \vec{a}(t) = \int \vec{j}(t) dt \quad (8.2.3)$$

8.2.1 Newton's Laws

Momentum \vec{p} is a vector quantity that measures the quantity of motion possessed by an object. It is the product of an object's mass and its velocity and is a fundamental concept in classical mechanics. In this context, **Mass** is a quantitative measure of **inertia** (resistance to being accelerated). Since momentum is a vector, it has both magnitude and direction. The direction of the momentum vector is the same as the direction of the velocity vector. The SI unit of momentum is kilogram-meter per second (kg·m/s).

$$\vec{p} = m\vec{v} \quad (8.2.4)$$

Following Galileo's discovery of the principal of **inertia**, Newton set out to describe the rules for finding out how an object changes its **motion** when effected by something.

8.2.1: Newton's Laws Of Motion

1. **The Law of Inertia:** An object at rest will remain at rest, and an object in motion will continue to move with a constant velocity in a straight line unless acted upon by an external force.^{/footnote}This is simply a restating of Galileo's described principal of inertia.
2. The time-rate-of-change of a quantity called momentum is proportional to the force.

$$\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = m \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = m \frac{d^2\vec{x}}{dt^2} = m\vec{a} \quad (8.2.5)$$

The two forms of this law $\vec{F} = m\vec{a}$ and $\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}$ are *not* equivalent in with respect to relativity.

3. For every action, there is an equal and opposite reaction.

Since relativity and quantum mechanics were formulated, it has been known that these laws are not universally valid and only a highly accurate approximation for classical physics scenarios.

8.2.2 Inertial Frames

An **inertial reference frame**, also known as an **inertial frame** of reference or simply an inertial frame, is a specific coordinate system or frame of reference in which Newton's first law of motion holds true. In an inertial reference frame, an object at rest remains at rest, and an object in motion with constant velocity continues to move in a straight line with the same velocity unless acted upon by an external force. Alternatively, an inertial reference frame is a coordinate system that is not accelerating and has no net force acting on it. In such a frame, objects move freely and uniformly in accordance with Newton's laws of motion without any additional forces or accelerations introduced by the frame itself. Newton's second law, given no net force on an object ($\vec{F} = 0$) gives an acceleration of zero ($a = 0$). This suggests that Newton's second law includes the first. However, this is only the case in an **inertial frame**. The laws of motion only hold in inertial frames and an **inertial frame** is defined as one where **the law of inertia** holds.

Statistical Mechanics & Thermodynamics

Statistical mechanics is a branch of physics that aims to explain the macroscopic properties of a system (such as temperature, pressure, and entropy) by understanding the behavior and interactions of its microscopic constituents at the atomic or molecular level. It bridges the gap between the microscopic world of particles and the macroscopic world we observe in everyday life. Key concepts and principles of statistical mechanics include:

- **Microstates and Macrostates:** In statistical mechanics, a system's microstate refers to the specific arrangement and energy distribution of its individual particles. A macrostate, on the other hand, represents the observable properties of the system, such as its temperature, pressure, and volume. The goal of statistical mechanics is to determine the probabilities of different microstates leading to a given macrostate.
- **Ensembles:** Statistical mechanics uses ensembles, which are collections of similar systems, to study statistical properties. Common ensembles include the microcanonical ensemble (isolated system with constant energy), canonical ensemble (system in thermal contact with a heat reservoir), and grand canonical ensemble (system with exchange of energy and particles with a heat reservoir).
- **Boltzmann Distribution:** The Boltzmann distribution relates the probabilities of different energy states to their corresponding energies and the system's temperature. It allows us to predict how particles are distributed among different energy levels in a system.
- **Entropy and Entropy Maximization:** Entropy is a fundamental concept in statistical mechanics, representing the measure of a system's disorder or randomness. The second law of thermodynamics states that isolated systems tend to evolve toward states of higher entropy. Statistical mechanics provides a statistical interpretation of entropy and explains the tendency of systems to maximize their entropy over time.
- **Statistical Thermodynamics:** Statistical mechanics connects with thermodynamics, relating the macroscopic thermodynamic properties (e.g., internal energy, temperature, and heat capacity) to the statistical properties of microscopic constituents. This connection allows us to derive thermodynamic quantities from the statistical behavior of particles.

Statistical mechanics has wide-ranging applications in various scientific disciplines, including physics, chemistry, biology, and materials science. It is essential for understanding phase transitions, chemical reactions, and the behavior of matter under different conditions. Additionally, statistical mechanics forms the basis for exploring complex systems, such as gases, liquids, and solids, and plays a crucial role in the development of many modern technologies.

9.1 The Atomic Hypothesis

The **atomic hypothesis** is a framework for how matter works on an atomic level.

“ Quotation

“All things are made of atoms—little particles that move around in perpetual motion, attracting each other when they are a little distance apart, but repelling upon being squeezed into one another. [17]”

Many questions can arise from this.

? Questions

- Where do these atoms get their energy from?
- Where do these atoms get their inertia from?
- Do these atoms transfer energy among each other?
- Are these atoms within some medium with which they can interact?

Atoms are on the scale of Angstroms¹. The jiggling motion between atoms and molecules is what's typically represented as heat. **Heat** is a form of energy that is transferred between objects or systems due to temperature differences.

💡 Interesting Note

For H₂O, the distance between the center of the hydrogen atom and the center of the oxygen atom is 0.957 Å, with a 105°3' angle between the hydrogen atoms.

Definition 9.1.1: Pressure

Pressure is a fundamental concept in physics and thermodynamics. It is defined as the force F applied per unit area A on a surface. Mathematically, pressure P is expressed as

$$P = \frac{F}{A}. \quad (9.1.1)$$

Pressure is a scalar quantity and is typically measured in units of **pascals** (Pa) in the International System of Units (SI).

In everyday life, pressure is commonly encountered in various contexts, such as atmospheric pressure (the pressure exerted by the Earth's atmosphere), fluid pressure (in liquids and gases), and contact pressure (when an object is in contact with a surface). When a gas is slowly compressed, temperature increases and visa versa. In solids, as opposed to liquids, the atoms will arrange themselves into an array called a **crystalline array**. The positions are dependent on the other atoms within the array. The atoms still jiggle and vibrate and have an associated heat. They are vibrating 'in place' rather than bouncing around with a somewhat free motion that would occur in liquids or a gas. **Melting** is the process by which the vibrations cause the atoms to shake apart from the crystalline array. At absolute zero temperature, the vibrations reach a minimum allowed state that atoms can have - but not zero.

? Questions

- Where do atoms get their minimum energy from?
- What determines the crystalline array of a material?

¹An angstrom, symbolized as "Å", is a unit of length used primarily in the fields of chemistry, physics, and nanotechnology to measure atomic and molecular distances, as well as the size of atoms and molecules. One angstrom is equal to 0.1 nanometers or 10⁻¹⁰ meters, representing a very small scale typically used to describe atomic and molecular dimensions.

💡 Interesting Note

Helium is a special case for atoms. Helium does not freeze at absolute zero into a solid without the help of applied pressures.

Air consists almost entirely of nitrogen, oxygen, and water vapor. The remaining elements are a small amount of CO₂, Argon, Neon, Helium, Methane (CH₄), Krypton, etc. **Evaporation** occurs when air molecules hit water and 'chip away' the H₂O molecules. When the molecules or atoms in air hit against the surface of water, some of the energy and heat is transferred to the water molecules. This causes the vibration of those molecules to increase. In the case of those molecules having enough energy to break away from the rest of the water, the molecules become water vapor. This process essentially goes in both directions continuously until there is no water left as a liquid. The air around the water will also bounce into the water molecules and mix with it - creating gassed water. This is what allows for bubbles to exist. Given a small sealed container, this process would continue indefinitely. The higher energy atoms escape which in turn creates a cooling effect on the liquid itself because the overall temperature would be lowered. This is why blowing on something how will cool it - because the atoms in the air will interact and 'shed' the higher energy atoms from it or gain heat upon their interaction.

Ions are atoms that have either gained or lost electrons. In a salt crystal, there are chlorine ions (one extra electron) and sodium ions (one fewer electron). The ions stick together by **electrical attraction**. The electrons have a negative charge and the protons within the nucleus of the atoms has a positive charge. Because these ions have opposite charges, they attract one another.

? Questions

- What gives matter its charge?
- Why are protons positively charged, electrons negatively charged, and neutrons neutral charged?
- Why is charge intrinsically a binary feature of reality? Can there be partial charges?

Nature is doing the same thing during a **chemical process** and a **physical process**. These are when atomic partners are rearranged. Atoms prefer very specific partners and molecule formations which is a peculiar part of nature. One example is when hydrogen gas (H₂) and oxygen gas (O₂) react together in the presence of a spark or heat to produce water vapor (H₂O). The reaction is exothermic, meaning it releases energy in the form of heat. During the reaction, the hydrogen molecules (H₂) break apart into individual hydrogen atoms, and the oxygen molecules (O₂) break apart into individual oxygen atoms. Then, the hydrogen atoms combine with the oxygen atoms to form water molecules (H₂O). The resulting water vapor is in the gaseous state, and it can condense into liquid water or freeze into ice depending on the temperature and pressure conditions.

? Questions

- Can/should heat be thought of as a wave or field?
- What medium does heat travel through between atoms?

kinetic energy is the energy of motion. When **burning** occurs, some atoms form easily with little energy, while others snap together with tremendous commotion - releasing energy to everything around them. **Flames** are when this energy is so enormous that light is generated rather than just heat.

Every substance is some type of arrangement of atoms. A **molecule** is simply an arrangement of atoms. The concept of a molecule is only approximate though and exists for a certain class of substances. Sometimes

there is a natural grouping in a substances structure. **Organic chemistry** is essentially detective work that guesses and checks and uses mixtures of chemicals and atoms in order to determine where atoms are located - it is often incredibly accurate.

When determining if atoms really exist, ideas of how to detect them arise. One such idea is referred to as **Brownian motion**, which is the motion of a larger object due to the interactions with the smaller objects around it which are moving. For example, a basketball in a swimming pool will move as the water molecules around it collide with it. This is one method of detecting the presence of atoms.

Astrophysics

Astrophysics is a branch of astronomy that deals with the study of celestial objects, phenomena, and the physical processes that govern the universe. It combines principles of physics with observational data to understand the behavior, composition, and evolution of stars, galaxies, planets, and other cosmic entities. Key areas of study in astrophysics include:

- **Stellar Astrophysics:** This field focuses on the properties and life cycles of stars. It examines stellar formation, nuclear fusion processes that power stars, their structure, and the various stages of stellar evolution, including the final fate of stars as supernovae, white dwarfs, neutron stars, or black holes.
- **Galactic Astrophysics:** Galactic astrophysics explores the structure, dynamics, and evolution of galaxies, which are vast collections of stars, gas, dust, and dark matter. It investigates the formation of galaxies, their interactions, and the supermassive black holes at their centers.
- **Cosmology:** Cosmology studies the large-scale properties and evolution of the universe as a whole. It addresses questions about the universe's origin, its expansion, the distribution of galaxies, dark matter, dark energy, and the ultimate fate of the cosmos.
- **Exoplanets and Planetary Systems:** This area examines planets outside our solar system (exoplanets) and investigates planetary systems' formation and dynamics. It aims to find potentially habitable exoplanets and understand the diversity of planetary systems in the universe.
- **High-Energy Astrophysics:** High-energy astrophysics focuses on cosmic phenomena that involve extreme conditions, such as black hole accretion disks, active galactic nuclei, gamma-ray bursts, and cosmic rays. It explores high-energy emissions and their impact on the surrounding space.
- **Astrobiology:** Astrobiology is an interdisciplinary field that combines aspects of astronomy, biology, and chemistry to study the potential for life beyond Earth. It seeks to understand the conditions required for life to exist on other planets and moons in our solar system and beyond.

Astrophysicists use various observational and theoretical tools, such as telescopes, space missions, computer simulations, and mathematical models, to unravel the mysteries of the cosmos. Their research not only expands our knowledge of the universe's workings but also addresses fundamental questions about our place in the cosmos and the potential existence of life elsewhere in the universe.

Electromagnetism

Electromagnetism is a branch of physics that deals with the study of electric and magnetic fields and their interactions with charged particles and currents. It unifies two important phenomena: **electricity** and **magnetism**, which were initially considered separate until the 19th century. Key concepts and principles of electromagnetism include:

- **Electric Fields:** Electric fields are regions around charged particles or objects where electric forces can influence other charged particles. They are represented by vectors, indicating the direction and strength of the force experienced by a test charge placed in the field.
- **Magnetic Fields:** Magnetic fields arise due to moving charges or currents. They also have a vector nature and affect magnetic objects, such as magnets and magnetic materials. Magnetic fields are created in closed loops and can be visualized using field lines.
- **Electromagnetic Waves:** Electromagnetic waves are a form of energy propagation resulting from oscillating electric and magnetic fields. These waves do not require a medium for transmission and travel at the speed of light. Light itself is an electromagnetic wave.
- **Maxwell's Equations:** These are a set of four fundamental equations that form the basis of classical electromagnetism. They describe how electric and magnetic fields are generated by charges and currents and how these fields interact with one another.
- **Electromagnetic Induction:** Electromagnetic induction is the process where a changing magnetic field induces an electric field, leading to the generation of an electric current in a conductor. This phenomenon is the foundation of electric generators and transformers.
- **Electromagnetic Force:** Electric and magnetic forces are fundamental forces in nature. Charged particles experience electric forces due to their electric charges, while moving charges experience magnetic forces in the presence of magnetic fields.

Electromagnetism has extensive applications in modern technology and everyday life. It is the basis for the operation of electrical circuits, power generation, telecommunications, and numerous electrical devices. Moreover, it plays a vital role in the understanding of light and optics, electromagnetic radiation, and the behavior of charged particles in magnetic fields, making it one of the fundamental pillars of modern physics. The study of electromagnetism is crucial for advancing technology and our understanding of the natural world.

11.1 The Electromagnetic Field

The **electromagnetic field** is a vector field that pervades all of space and consists of the components of an **electric field** and a **magnetic field**. The electromagnetic field can carry waves. The general name of these waves is **electromagnetic waves**. These oscillatory waves can have various frequencies which is one of the most important feature. The only thing that is really different from one wave to another is the frequency of oscillation. When charge is oscillated and shaken, there are different effects that occur which are all determined by the frequency. See ?? for some common frequencies - referred to as the **electromagnetic spectrum**. At higher frequencies, these waves behave more so like particles than actual waves, which was explained by quantum mechanics around 1920.

EM Range	Frequency (Hz)	Uses
Radio Waves	$< 3 \times 10^{11}$	Radio and TV broadcasting, wireless communication (Wi-Fi, Bluetooth), radar systems, radio astronomy
Microwaves	$3 \times 10^{11} - 10^{13}$	Microwave ovens, satellite communication, radar systems, wireless data transmission (e.g., 5G networks)
Infrared (IR)	$10^{13} - 10^{14}$	Remote controls, heat sensors, infrared imaging (night vision cameras), IR communication, thermal imaging
Visible Light	$4 - 7.5 \times 10^{14}$	Human vision, optical communication (fiber optics), photography, displays (LCD, LED), lasers
Ultraviolet (UV)	$10^{15} - 10^{16}$	Sterilization (UV-C), fluorescent lights, sun tanning, UV imaging, forensic analysis
X-rays	$10^{17} - 10^{20}$	Medical imaging (X-ray radiography and CT scans), security screening, material analysis, X-ray diffraction
Gamma Rays	$10^{20} - 10^{24}$	Medical imaging (gamma camera), radiation therapy in medicine, nuclear industry, gamma-ray astronomy

Table 11.1: Typical EM Frequencies (approximate) and their uses.

Quantum Mechanics

Quantum mechanics is a fundamental branch of physics that describes the behavior of matter and energy at the smallest scales, such as subatomic particles and photons. It provides a unique and revolutionary framework for understanding the peculiar and counterintuitive behavior of particles at the quantum level. Key concepts and principles of quantum mechanics include:

- **Wave-Particle Duality:** One of the central tenets of quantum mechanics is the wave-particle duality. It states that particles, such as electrons and photons, exhibit both particle-like and wave-like characteristics. They can be described by wave functions, which represent probabilities of finding a particle at different locations.
- **Quantization of Energy:** Quantum mechanics introduced the concept of quantized energy levels, where energy levels of particles are restricted to discrete values rather than continuous values. This is exemplified in the energy levels of electrons in an atom, resulting in the discrete emission and absorption of photons.
- **Uncertainty Principle:** The Heisenberg uncertainty principle states that it is impossible to simultaneously know both the position and momentum of a particle with absolute precision. The more accurately one quantity is known, the less precisely the other can be determined. This fundamental limitation is inherent in quantum mechanics.
- **Quantum Superposition:** Quantum systems can exist in a state of superposition, where they are in multiple states simultaneously. For example, an electron can exist in a superposition of spin-up and spin-down states until measured, at which point it collapses into one definite state.
- **Quantum Entanglement:** Quantum entanglement is a phenomenon where the properties of two or more particles become correlated in such a way that the state of one particle is directly related to the state of another, regardless of distance. This has profound implications for quantum information and potential applications in quantum computing.

Quantum Mechanics and Measurement: The process of measurement in quantum mechanics is non-deterministic. Upon measurement, the system's wave function collapses to a specific state corresponding to the observed measurement outcome, introducing inherent randomness into quantum events.

Quantum mechanics has revolutionized our understanding of the subatomic world and is the foundation for modern technologies such as transistors, lasers, and MRI machines. While it has proven to be highly successful in describing the behavior of particles on a small scale, it also challenges our classical intuition and raises profound philosophical questions about the nature of reality and our perception of the universe.

12.1 Introduction

Many historical developments lead to the formulation of quantum mechanics, which include **Planck's radiation law**, the **Einstein-Debye theory of specific heats**, the **Bohr atom**, **de Broglie's matter waves**, and others. In the years leading up to 1920, the picture of space as 3-dimensional with time being separate was changed by Einstein. Following this, the rules for motions of particles was found to be incorrect. The mechanical rules for inertia and forces established by Newton was found to be wrong¹. Around 1920, **quantum mechanics** was discovered which explained how things on small scale behave nothing like things

¹Or at least only accurate as an approximation in certain cases.

on the larger scales. According to quantum mechanics, the things on a small scale behave so unnaturally, that it is hard to understand outside of an analytic and mathematical framework. **Quantum mechanics** is the description of the behavior of matter and light in all its details and, in particular, of the happenings on an atomic scale.

When thinking of atoms from the atomic hypothesis (outlined in section 9.1), we can think of some mysterious questions and paradoxes that seem to arise.

? Questions

- If the atoms are made out of plus and minus charges, why don't the minus charges simply sit on top of the plus charges (they attract each other) and get so close as to completely cancel them out?
- Why are atoms so big?
- Why is the nucleus at the center with the electrons around it?

An atom has a diameter on the scale of about 10^{-8} cm. Within the atom, the nucleus only has a diameter on the scale of 10^{-13} , which is much smaller! The Heisenberg uncertainty principal $\Delta x \Delta p \geq \hbar/2$ was a rule proposed by Werner Karl Heisenberg to answer these questions above. Take an electron for example. Why is it that the electron does not fall into the nucleus of an atom? The uncertainty principal states that if we know the position of the particle, the momentum would have to be very large - the electron would have a very high kinetic energy. This energy would cause the electron to break away from the nucleus. This is also why there is still a little 'jiggle' in the atoms at absolute zero. They need to keep moving in order to follow this rule.

? Questions

- How does the nucleus fit into this rule?
- Do the particles within the nucleus that are so closely attracted obey this rule? Perhaps this is why there is so much energy within a nucleus.
- Where does the energy come from in these systems that keep matter moving?

Another interesting change that quantum physics brought about to the philosophy of physics is that *it is not possible to predict exactly what will happen in any circumstance*. This is the statistical nature of quantum mechanics. According to quantum physics, it is fundamentally impossible to make a precise (*exactly what will happen*) prediction of nature. One of the consequences of quantum mechanics is that things which we used to consider as waves also behave like particles, and particles behave like waves; in fact everything behaves the same way. There is no distinction between a wave and a particle. Quantum mechanics therefore unifies the idea of the field and its waves with the idea of particles into one. When the frequency is low, the field aspect of a phenomenon is more evident. As frequencies increase, the particle aspects of a phenomenon become more evident within equipment used in experimentation. The **photon**² is a new particle introduced alongside the electron, neutron, and proton. The new view of the interaction of electrons and photons that is electromagnetic theory, but with everything quantum-mechanically correct, is called **quantum electrodynamics**.

²A photon in some contexts can be thought of as just a 'packet of light'.

? Questions

- Is there a new mathematical framework that can act like both particle and waves?

12.1.1 The Stern-Gerlach Experiment

Begin with silver (Ag) atoms heated in an oven. The oven has a small hole where some of the silver atoms can escape, creating a beam of silver atoms. The beam goes through a collimator and is then subjected to an inhomogeneous magnetic field created by a pair of pole pieces (one of which has a very sharp edge). A silver atom has 47 electrons, where 46 form a spherically symmetrical electron cloud with no angular momentum. The silver atom as a whole, has an intrinsic (as opposed to orbital) angular momentum due solely to the spin (ignoring the nuclear spin) angular momentum of the single 47th (5s) electron. The nucleus of the atom is $\approx 2 \times 10^5$ times heavier than the electron. Therefore, the magnetic moment $\vec{\mu}$ of the atom equal to the spin magnetic moment of the 47th electron, and thus proportional to the electron spin \vec{S} , giving $\vec{\mu} \propto \vec{S}$, where the proportionality factor is $\frac{e}{m_e c}$ to an accuracy of about 0.2% [20].

The interaction energy of the magnetic moment with the magnetic field is $-\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B}$ and the z -component of the force experienced by the atom is

$$F_z = \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B}) \simeq \mu_z \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial z}. \quad (12.1.1)$$

When $\mu_z > 0$ ($S_z < 0$), atoms will experience an downward force. Similarly, when $\mu_z < 0$ ($S_z > 0$), atoms will experience an upward force. The beam is then expected to be split according to the values of μ_z . In the sense of a classical spinning object, this setup would expect all values of μ_z to be possible between $|\vec{\mu}|$ and $-|\vec{\mu}|$, since the atoms in the oven are randomly oriented. What was experimentally observed, however, was that there was only two 'spots' observed, corresponding to one 'up' (S_z^+) and one 'down' (S_z^-) orientation, splitting the original silver beam into two distinct components. These components are multiples of the fundamental units of angular momentum which are $S_z = \frac{\hbar}{2}$ and $S_z = -\frac{\hbar}{2}$.

? Questions

- There are 2 stable isotopes of silver (Ag-107 and Ag-109). They have a molar ratio of about .52 to .48 [18, 19]. Could this somehow explain the discrepancy in this experiment?

Sequential Stern-Gerlach Experiments

Consider a sequential Stern-Gerlach experiment where the silver beam passes through multiple Stern-Gerlach apparatuses (SGA) in sequence. The first setup is by blocking the S_z^- component from the first SGA and allow the remaining S_z^+ component to enter a second SGA. In this case, only the S_z^+ component leaves the second SGA. Another setup follows where the first SGA remains the same, while allowing only the S_z^+ through, but the second SGA now has an inhomogeneous magnetic field in the x direction rather than the z direction. In this case, the S_z^+ beam entering the second SGA is split into two components, S_x^+ and S_x^- . Yet another setup follows where we use three SGAs. The first SGA will be setup as the others, where the silver beam is split into S_z^+ and S_z^- . The second SGA takes only the S_z^+ beam using an inhomogeneous magnetic field in the x direction and splits the beam into a S_x^+ and S_x^- beam. The third SGA takes only the S_x^+ beam and uses a magnetic field in the z direction (the same as the first SGA). In this case, the final output beam of the third SGA has both S_z^+ and S_z^- components.

This example of sequential Stern-Gerlach experiments is often used to illustrate that in quantum mechanics, you cannot determine both S_z and S_x simultaneously. This is typically understood in that any measurement in one apparatus negates any previously obtained information measured. This is a well regarded result and well accepted to not be due to the incompetence of experimentalists, but rather an inherent microscopic phenomena of matter itself.

In classical mechanics, where angular momentum is defined as $\vec{L} = I\vec{\omega}$, there is no difficulty in determining the various components of ω_x , ω_y , and ω_z simultaneously by observing how fasts in object spins and in what direction. This effect is inherent to matter on a small scale and is a quantum mechanical property.

12.2 Conventions and Notation

The double-slit experiment is a fundamental experiment in quantum physics that demonstrates the wave-particle duality of particles, such as electrons and photons. It involves a barrier with two narrow slits through which particles can pass before hitting a screen. When particles are sent through the double slits one by one, they create an interference pattern on the screen, similar to the pattern created by waves. This suggests that particles exhibit wave-like behavior and interfere with themselves, producing areas of constructive and destructive interference. However, when the particles are observed or measured to determine which slit they pass through, the interference pattern disappears, and particles behave like individual particles, creating two distinct bands on the screen. This can be summarized using complex numbers and probabilities.

A probability density function P describing an event in an ideal experiment is given by the square of the absolute value of the probability amplitude $|A|^2$, where A is a complex number. When an event can occur in several alternate ways, the probability amplitude for the event is the sum of the probability amplitudes for each way considered separately, giving interference. In mathematical terms this gives $A = A_1 + A_2$ with $P = |A_1 + A_2|^2$. When conducting an experiment capable of discerning between different alternatives, the probability of an event occurring is the sum of the probabilities associated with each alternative. Consequently, any interference or overlap between the alternatives is eliminated and you get $P = P_1 + P_2$.

Definition 12.2.1: Expectation Value

If $P(x)$ denotes a probability density function of x , then the **expectation Value** (or average) of x , denoted $\langle x \rangle$ as

$$\langle x \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xP(x)dx \quad (12.2.1)$$

For discrete values of x_i each with a correlated probability P_i , then the expectation value is

$$\langle x \rangle = \sum_i x_i P_i \quad (12.2.2)$$

A physical state is represented by a **state vector** in a complex vector space called a **ket**. This state is postulated to contain the complete information about the physical state of a system. An **observable** (momentum, spin components, etc) is represented by an **operator** within the vector space. The operators act on a ket from the left. In quantum physics, operators play a fundamental role in describing the behavior of quantum systems and the mathematical representation of physical observables. Quantum operators are mathematical entities that represent physical properties, transformations, and measurements within the framework of quantum mechanics. They are used to describe the behavior of quantum states, interactions,

and measurements in a mathematical and abstract way. For example, consider the Hamiltonian operator $\hat{\mathbf{H}}$ acted on a ket $|x\rangle$, represented by $\hat{\mathbf{H}}|x\rangle$. This is not the operator ‘times’ the ket, but rather the operator acting on the ket. In this example, the hamiltonian operator in classical mechanics is defined by $\hat{\mathbf{H}} = \frac{\hbar}{2m}\nabla^2 + V(r, \vec{t})$. This would act on $|x\rangle$ by taking the partial differentials of $|x\rangle$ as found in the first term of $\hat{\mathbf{H}}$.

Relativity

Relativity refers to two groundbreaking theories developed by Albert Einstein: **Special Relativity** and **General Relativity**. Both theories revolutionized our understanding of the universe and how it functions, especially at high speeds and in the presence of strong gravitational fields.

- **Special Relativity:** Introduced in 1905, Special Relativity deals with the behavior of objects moving at constant velocities, especially near the speed of light. It is based on two postulates: the principle of relativity (laws of physics are the same for all inertial observers) and the constancy of the speed of light in a vacuum. Key principles of Special Relativity include:
 - **Time Dilation:** Moving clocks appear to run slower compared to stationary clocks from the perspective of an observer at rest.
 - **Length Contraction:** Moving objects appear shorter in the direction of motion relative to a stationary observer.
 - **Mass-Energy Equivalence:** $E_0 = m_0c^2$, where E_0 is the rest energy, m_0 is the rest mass, and c is the speed of light. This famous equation shows that mass and energy are interchangeable.
- **General Relativity:** Formulated in 1915, General Relativity is a theory of gravity that describes the curvature of spacetime caused by the presence of mass and energy. Unlike Newtonian gravity, which considers gravity as an attractive force between masses, General Relativity attributes gravity to the curvature of spacetime caused by massive objects. Key principles of General Relativity include:
 - **Curved Spacetime:** Massive objects like stars and planets curve the fabric of spacetime around them, and other objects move along the curved paths in response to this curvature.
 - **Gravitational Time Dilation:** Clocks in stronger gravitational fields (e.g., near massive objects) run slower compared to clocks in weaker fields.
 - **Gravitational Waves:** General Relativity predicts the existence of gravitational waves, ripples in spacetime caused by violent cosmic events.

Both Special and General Relativity have been confirmed through numerous experiments and observations, and they have far-reaching implications for our understanding of the cosmos. Special Relativity's effects become significant at high speeds, near the speed of light, while General Relativity is essential for describing gravity and the behavior of massive objects, such as stars, galaxies, and black holes. These theories have not only revolutionized fundamental physics but have also influenced technology, astronomy, and our perception of the nature of space, time, and the universe.

13.1 Time

What is time? This is a big question and there are many different levels of definitions that can be given in varying contexts. One definition, given by the Oxford Languages Dictionary follows

“Quotation

“The indefinite continued progress of existence and events in the past, present, and future regarded as a whole.”

This definition is not very useful in quantifying time in a useful manner. **Time** is a fundamental concept in physics and philosophy that represents the sequence of events, changes, or movements in the

universe. It is an abstract dimension in which events appear to occur in a chronological order, including the past, present, and future. Time appears as a continuous and one-directional flow, and it is often measured and quantified in relation to periodic or repetitive phenomena, such as the rotation of celestial bodies or the oscillations of certain particles. In modern physics, time is intricately connected to the fabric of spacetime, and its nature is further explored in theories like the theory of relativity and quantum mechanics. One can think of time in reference to something with regular periodicity, such as the rotation of the earth. We can just say that we base our definition of time on the repetition of some apparently periodic event. Of course many questions can follow.

? Questions

- How do we regard time as existing in the past or future (or even the now)?
- How is time different for different observers?
- Does everyone perceive time similarly?
- Can we measure time accurately without relying on periodic events like the rotation of the earth?
- Is time an objective reality or a human construct?
- How does time interact with other fundamental aspects of the universe, such as space and matter?
- Are there alternative ways to conceptualize time that differ from our current understanding?
- Is time one-directional and can be stopped, slowed down, or reversed?

For measurements of time, typically a periodic event is used and counted, such as a watch running at a stable **frequency**¹ For most day-to-day events, this is simple and easy to do and we can get smaller units of time by dividing our periodic events into smaller equal units of time. For very long periods of time, atomic half-lives can be used to deduce time intervals, such as the age of objects. This typically relies on assumptions and assuming that the known methods and laws are the same in the past as they are now. For very small or consistent units of time, electronic oscillators or atomic clocks can be used. An example of an atomic clock is a cesium atomic clock. A **cesium atomic clock** is a highly accurate and precise timekeeping device that operates based on the resonant frequency of cesium atoms. It uses the transition between two energy levels in cesium atoms to generate a stable and constant microwave signal. By counting the number of microwave oscillations, cesium atomic clocks can measure time with incredible accuracy, making them essential tools for applications in scientific research, navigation, and communication systems.

? Questions

- Is there a smallest unit of possible time?

The relativity of space and time imply that the time measurements have a minimum error (similar to the common Heisenberg uncertainty principle) given by $\Delta t \geq \frac{h}{2\Delta E}$.

13.2 Distances

Distance refers to the numerical measurement of the physical separation between two points or objects in space. It is a fundamental concept in physics and is typically expressed in units such as meters, kilometers,

¹note that a frequency is not easily definable without the concept of time.

feet, or miles. Distance is a scalar quantity, meaning it only has magnitude and no direction, and it plays a crucial role in various scientific and everyday contexts, including navigation, transportation, and spatial analysis. From a mathematical sense, distance can typically be defined and/or determined exactly. In reality, this is not the case. There are generally errors associated with measured, deduced, or calculated distances for physical matter.

? Questions

- Are distances an absolute measurement?

Triangulation is a geometric method used to determine the distance or position of a point by forming triangles with known sides or angles. In the context of surveying and navigation, triangulation involves measuring the angles from two known points to an unknown point and using trigonometric principles to calculate its distance or location. This technique is widely employed in various fields, such as cartography, geodesy, astronomy, and GPS (Global Positioning System) to accurately determine positions and distances on the Earth's surface or in three-dimensional space. Triangulation is commonly used to determine the distance that planets, meteors, satellites, stars and other objects are from an observer. Other methods of determining distances include using electromagnetic radiation and calculating the time associated with its travel to deduce distances. there are many unique methods for deducing both large and small distances.

Very small objects cannot be seen (objects that are smaller than the wavelength of visible light (about 5×10^{-7} meters). **Electron microscopes** can be used to 'photograph' objects down to about 10^{-8} meters. At even smaller scales, x-rays can be used to determine/deduce even smaller scales as low as 10^{-10} meters by looking at the pattern of scattering off of atoms in a crystal. At the atomic nucleus scale, we can deduce sizes by sending high energy particles through materials and calculating how many do not make it through - deducing a cross section of a nucleus. The radius of a nucleus can be determined by

$$\pi r^2 = \sigma = \frac{A}{N} \frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1}, \quad (13.2.1)$$

where A is the area of a slab of material containing N atoms, σ is the cross-sectional area of the nucleus, n_1 is the number of particles sent into the material with a beam and n_2 is the number that passed out the other side. Using this equation in conjunction with experiments, the nuclei of atoms are found to be on the scale of 10^{-15} meters, which is called the **fermi**, in honor of Enrico Fermi (1901–1954). According to the Heisenberg uncertainty principle, there is no possible way to perfectly and precisely measure distances or times associated between particles of matter and the error in measurements of positions of objects must be at least as large as $\Delta x \geq \frac{\hbar}{2\Delta p}$.

Quantum Field Theory

Quantum Field Theory (QFT) is a theoretical framework that combines the principles of quantum mechanics with special relativity to describe the behavior of particles as quantized fields. It is one of the fundamental theories in modern theoretical physics and forms the basis for understanding particle interactions at both the microscopic and cosmological scales. Key aspects and principles of Quantum Field Theory include:

- **Quantized Fields:** In QFT, particles are described not as individual discrete entities but as quantized fields that pervade all of space and time. Each particle type corresponds to a specific field, and particles are represented as excitations or quanta of these fields.
- **Lagrangian Formalism:** QFT employs a Lagrangian formalism to construct the equations of motion and interactions for the fields. The Lagrangian describes the dynamics and symmetries of the system and allows for the derivation of fundamental equations, such as the equations of motion and scattering amplitudes.
- **Creation and Annihilation Operators:** QFT introduces creation and annihilation operators to describe particle creation and annihilation processes. These operators act on the field states to generate or destroy particles and provide a mathematical framework for quantized states.
- **Feynman Diagrams:** Feynman diagrams are a visual tool used in QFT to represent particle interactions and scattering processes. They provide a pictorial representation of complex particle interactions and are instrumental in calculating scattering amplitudes.
- **Renormalization:** Similar to Quantum Electrodynamics (QED), QFT encounters infinities in certain calculations. Renormalization is a method to remove these infinities and obtain finite, meaningful predictions.
- **Gauge Theories:** QFT includes gauge theories, which describe interactions involving force-carrying particles (gauge bosons). Examples of gauge theories include Quantum Electrodynamics (QED) and Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD).
- **Quantum Electrodynamics (QED):** QED is a specific example of Quantum Field Theory that describes the electromagnetic force and its interactions with charged particles through quantized electromagnetic fields and photons.

Quantum Field Theory has proven to be highly successful and is an essential framework for describing and understanding the behavior of elementary particles and their interactions. It is the foundation for the Standard Model of particle physics, which provides a comprehensive description of the known elementary particles and their interactions, except for gravity. Additionally, QFT plays a crucial role in studying fundamental questions about the nature of matter, energy, and the universe at the most fundamental level.

Quantum Electrodynamics

Quantum Electrodynamics (QED) is a quantum field theory that describes the electromagnetic force and its interactions with charged particles, such as electrons and photons. It is considered one of the most successful and accurate scientific theories ever developed and is a cornerstone of modern particle physics. Key aspects and principles of Quantum Electrodynamics include:

- **Quantization of Electromagnetic Fields:** QED treats the electromagnetic field as a quantum field, where photons are the quantized particles representing the discrete packets of electromagnetic energy.
- **Feynman Diagrams:** Feynman diagrams are a powerful tool used in QED to visualize and calculate particle interactions. They depict the exchange of photons between charged particles, enabling precise predictions of scattering processes and particle interactions.
- **Renormalization:** QED encounters infinities in certain calculations due to the self-interactions of charged particles with their own electromagnetic fields. Renormalization is a technique used to remove these infinities, allowing meaningful and accurate predictions.
- **Quantum Loops:** In QED, particles can interact with each other through quantum loops, where virtual particles (e.g., virtual photons) briefly pop into existence and influence the interactions between charged particles.
- **Gauge Invariance:** QED exhibits gauge invariance, meaning that different mathematical representations of the theory lead to physically equivalent results. This property ensures that observable quantities are independent of the choice of mathematical description.
- **Electron Self-Energy:** QED accounts for the electron's self-energy, which arises from its interaction with its own electromagnetic field. This self-energy correction leads to subtle shifts in electron properties, such as its mass and magnetic moment.

Quantum Electrodynamics has been extensively tested through precise experiments and is one of the most accurate and well-validated theories in physics. It successfully explains a wide range of phenomena, including electromagnetic interactions between charged particles, the behavior of light and photons, and the fine structure of atomic spectra. Moreover, QED has been instrumental in the development of other quantum field theories, such as Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD) and the electroweak theory, which describe the strong and weak nuclear forces.

15.1 Introduction

In this one theory we have the basic rules for all ordinary phenomena except for gravitation and nuclear processes. At the present time no exceptions are found to the quantum-electrodynamic laws outside the nucleus, and there we do not know whether there is an exception because we simply do not know what is going on in the nucleus. This theory predicted a lot of interesting things, such as very high energy photons, gamma rays, etc. Another remarkable prediction is that of antiparticles. These are particles of the same mass, but opposite charge. For example, the opposite of the electron is the positron and these two coming together would annihilate each-other with the emission of electromagnetic radiation. The generalization of this, that for each particle there is an antiparticle, turns out to be true.

Just as electrical interactions can be connected to a photon, Hideki Yukawa suggested that the forces between neutrons and protons also have a field of some kind, and that when this field jiggles, it behaves

like a particle. The characteristics were able to be deduced for this particle and experimentation was done. Around 1947, other particles were found, the π -**meson** (or **pion**). After this, more particles were discovered in cosmic rays and elsewhere which are distinct. We do not today understand these various particles as different aspects of the same thing, and the fact that we have so many unconnected particles is a representation of the fact that we have so much unconnected information without a good theory. In an attempt to classify and categorize these new particles similar to how elements are categorized in the periodic table, a new number (similar in concept to the electric charge) can be assigned to each particle, called its “**strangeness**,” S . This number is conserved, like the electric charge, in reactions which take place by nuclear forces.

Particle	Mass (MeV)	Charge (e)	Strangeness	Category
Proton	938.272	+1	0	Baryon
Neutron	939.566	0	0	Baryon
Pion (π^+)	139.570	+1	0	Meson
Pion (π^-)	139.570	-1	0	Meson
Kaon (K^+)	493.677	+1	± 1	Meson
Kaon (K^-)	493.677	-1	± 1	Meson
Lambda (Λ^0)	1115.683	0	-1	Baryon
Sigma (Σ^+)	1189.37	+1	-1	Baryon
Sigma (Σ^-)	1197.45	-1	-1	Baryon
Xi (Ξ^0)	1314.86	0	-2	Baryon
Xi (Ξ^-)	1321.71	-1	-2	Baryon
Omega (Ω^-)	1672.45	-1	-3	Baryon
Electron	0.511	-1		Lepton
Neutrino	$< 2.2 \times 10^{-9}$	0		Lepton

Table 15.1: Classification of Particle Strangeness

All particles which are together with the neutrons and protons are called **baryons**, and the following ones exist: There is a “lambda,” with a mass of 1115 MeV, and three others, called sigmas, minus, neutral, and plus, with several masses almost the same. In addition to the baryons the other particles which are involved in the nuclear interaction are called **mesons**. There are first the **pions**, which come in three varieties, positive, negative, and neutral; they form another multiplet. We have also found some new things called K-mesons, and they occur as a doublet, K^+ and K^- . Also, every particle either has an antiparticle or is its own antiparticle. There are then **leptons**, which are particles which do not interact strongly in nuclei, have nothing to do with a nuclear interaction, and do not have a strong interaction. Finally, we have two other particles which do not interact strongly with the nuclear ones: one is a photon, and perhaps, if the field of gravity also has a quantum-mechanical analog (a quantum theory of gravitation has not yet been worked out), then there will be a particle, a **graviton**, which will have zero mass¹.

¹The term “zero mass” in this context refers to the particles rest energy. If a particle has “zero mass” then it can never be found at rest. A photon for example, will always travel at a speed near c .

Quantum Chromodynamics

Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD) is a fundamental theory in particle physics that describes the strong nuclear force, which is responsible for holding quarks together to form protons, neutrons, and other hadrons. QCD is a quantum field theory and is an essential component of the Standard Model, which describes the known elementary particles and their interactions. Key aspects and principles of Quantum Chromodynamics include:

- **Quarks and Gluons:** QCD postulates the existence of quarks, which are elementary particles that come in six flavors (up, down, charm, strange, top, and bottom). Quarks are bound together by exchanging gluons, which are the force-carrying particles of the strong nuclear force.
- **Color Charge:** In QCD, quarks carry a property called "color charge," which is analogous to electric charge in electromagnetism but comes in three types: red, green, and blue (plus their corresponding anticolors). Gluons, which also carry color charge, mediate the strong force between quarks.
- **Asymptotic Freedom and Confinement:** QCD exhibits two remarkable phenomena. At high energies or short distances, the strong force weakens, a property known as "asymptotic freedom." This allows for precise calculations in perturbation theory. However, at low energies or long distances, the force becomes strong, and quarks are confined within hadrons, making isolated quarks inaccessible in nature.
- **Lattice QCD:** Because QCD becomes strongly coupled at low energies, direct calculations become challenging. Lattice QCD is a numerical approach that uses a discrete space-time lattice to perform non-perturbative calculations of QCD phenomena.
- **Hadronization and Hadron Structure:** QCD governs the process of hadronization, where quarks and gluons combine to form color-neutral hadrons (e.g., mesons and baryons). QCD also provides insights into the structure and properties of hadrons, such as their masses and decay rates.
- **Strong Interactions in Particle Colliders:** QCD is crucial in understanding the strong interactions observed in high-energy particle colliders, where quarks and gluons are produced in energetic collisions. The study of these interactions helps test the predictions of QCD and explore new physics.

Quantum Chromodynamics is a fundamental theory in the Standard Model, working in conjunction with Quantum Electrodynamics (QED) and the Electroweak Theory to describe the behavior of elementary particles and their interactions. The study of QCD has led to significant advances in our understanding of the strong force, the nature of matter, and the dynamics of quarks and gluons within hadrons. QCD is also a subject of ongoing research and remains a key area of exploration in particle physics.

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Index

- π -meson, 49
- Air, 39
- Angles, 4
- Astrobiology, 41
- Astronomy, 33
- Astrophysics, 31, 41
- Asymptotic Freedom and Confinement, 50
- atomic hypothesis, 37
- baryons, 49
- Bayesian probability, 10, 11
- Biology, 32
- Boltzmann Distribution, 37
- Brownian motion, 40
- burning, 39
- Calculus, 12
- chemical process, 39
- Circles, 4
- Classical Mechanics, 31
- Classical mechanics, 36
- Color Charge, 50
- complex number, 5
- compound event, 10
- Conservation of Energy, 36
- conservation of energy, 32, 34
- Conservation of Momentum, 36
- Cosmology, 41
- Creation and Annihilation Operators, 47
- crystalline array, 38
- Curved Spacetime, 46
- Differentiation, 12
- DNA, 33
- earth sciences, 33
- Eigenvalues, 30
- Eigenvectors, 30
- electric field, 42
- Electric Fields, 42
- electrical attraction, 39
- electricity, 42
- electromagnetic field, 42
- Electromagnetic Force, 42
- Electromagnetic Induction, 42
- electromagnetic spectrum, 42
- Electromagnetic Waves, 42
- electromagnetic waves, 42
- Electromagnetism, 31, 42
- Electron Self-Energy, 48
- energy, 34
- Ensembles, 37
- Entropy, 37
- Enzymes, 32
- Evaporation, 39
- event, 10
- Exoplanets and Planetary Systems, 41
- Feynman Diagrams, 47, 48
- Flames, 39
- Galactic Astrophysics, 41
- Gauge Invariance, 48
- Gauge Theories, 47
- General Relativity, 46
- Geology, 33
- Geometry, 4
- Gluons, 50
- Gravitation, 36
- gravitational potential energy, 34
- Gravitational Time Dilation, 46
- Gravitational Waves, 46
- graviton, 49
- Hadron, 50
- Hadronization, 50
- Harmonic Motion, 36
- Heat, 38
- hemoglobin, 33
- High-Energy Astrophysics, 41
- Inorganic chemistry, 32
- Integration, 12
- Ions, 39
- kinetic energy, 35, 39
- Lagrangian Formalism, 47
- Lattice QCD, 50
- Length Contraction, 46
- leptons, 49
- Linear algebra, 30
- Linear Transformations, 30
- Lines, 4
- Macrostates, 37
- magnetic field, 42
- Magnetic Fields, 42
- magnetism, 42
- Mass-Energy Equivalence, 46
- Matrices, 30
- Maxwell's Equations, 42
- Melting, 38
- Mendeleev, 32
- mesons, 49
- Microstates, 37
- model probability, 10
- molecule, 39
- motion, 35
- Newton's Laws of Motion, 36
- Nuclear Physics, 31
- Organic chemistry, 32, 40
- Particle Physics, 31
- pascals, 38
- periodic table of elements, 32
- photon, 45
- physical process, 39
- pion, 49
- pions, 49
- Points, 4
- Polygons, 4
- potential energy, 34
- Pressure, 38
- principle of virtual work, 34
- Probability, 10
- probability, 10
- Proteins, 32
- Quantization of Electromagnetic Fields, 48
- Quantization of Energy, 44
- Quantized Fields, 47
- Quantum Chromodynamics, 50
- Quantum Electrodynamics, 47, 48
- quantum electrodynamics, 45
- Quantum Entanglement, 44
- Quantum Field Theory, 47
- Quantum Loops, 48
- Quantum Mechanics, 31
- Quantum mechanics, 44
- quantum mechanics, 44
- Quantum Superposition, 44
- Quarks, 50
- Relativity, 31
- Renormalization, 47, 48
- sample space, 10
- simple event, 10
- Special Relativity, 46
- spectroscope, 33
- state, 10
- Statistical mechanics, 32, 37
- Statistical Thermodynamics, 37
- Stellar Astrophysics, 41
- strangeness, 49
- Strong Interactions, 50
- system, 10
- Thermodynamics, 31
- Three-dimensional shapes, 4
- Time Dilation, 46
- Uncertainty Principle, 44
- Vector Spaces, 30
- Vectors, 30
- Wave-Particle Duality, 44