

# Fundamentals of Engineering Physics 2019

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Week 1.

# Topics to be covered

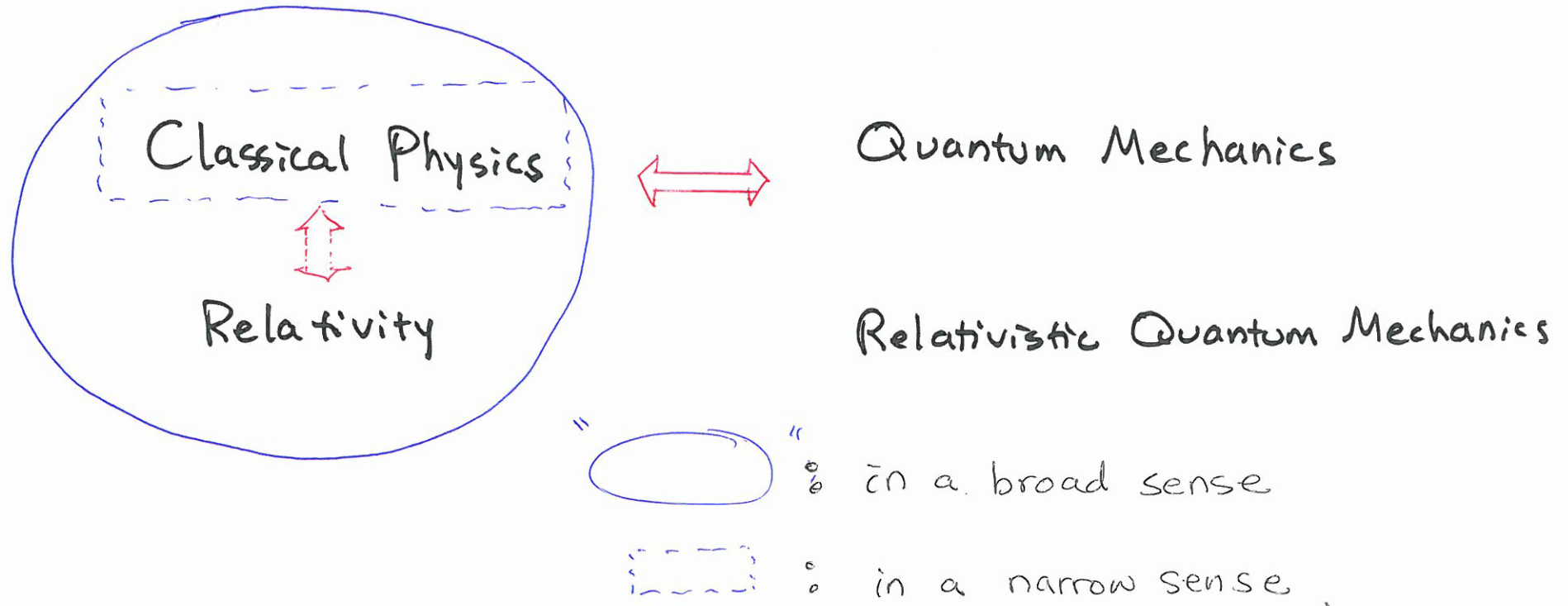
I-1.

1. Classical Mechanics
2. Electricity and Magnetism
3. Waves
4. (Prelude for) Quantum Mechanics
5. Statistical Mechanics.

# I. Classical Mechanics

I-2.

## Lecture 1: The Nature of Classical Physics



⊗ Classical Physics provides an accurate description of ~~the~~ dynamical system at a scale greater than size of atoms and molecules.

⊗ Classical Physics (based on Newton's law) is valid for  $v \ll c$ .  
etc \* Relativity is necessary for  $v \leq c$ .

# The Classical Laws of Physics are "deterministic"

I-3

\* If you know everything about a system at some instant of time, <sup>(initial condition)</sup> and also the equations that govern how the system changes, then you can predict the future.

(Governing Equation(s))

\* The job of classical mechanics is to predict the future.

Read a famous quote from "Pierre-Simon Laplace" on page 1-2.

\* The meaning of "reversible";

- The laws are deterministic into the past as well as the future.

$$(t \rightarrow -t)$$

- "... for such an intellect, nothing would be uncertain and "the future" just like the past would be present before its eyes."

# The Limits of Precision

I-4.

\* Laplace has been overly optimistic about how predictable the world is.

1. "... equations for movements of atoms" → it would require  
Quantum Mechanics

2. Even in classical physics, ability to know "the initial conditions with almost ~~perfect~~ perfect precision"

→ extremely demanding and impractical for large enough system

3. Furthermore, the space of initial states is, in many cases, ~~infinite~~ continuously infinite.  
(uncountable)

\* "Resolving Power": ability to distinguish the values of neighboring numbers.

\* "Chaos": very small differences in the initial conditions lead to large eventual differences in later time.  
It's a consequence of limited resolving power.



# Lecture 2: Motion

I-5.

## \* Particle Motion:

- Consider a point particle at a position  $\vec{r}(t)$  specified by components  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$  at time  $t$ .
- **Trajectory**: the path of the particle
- In classical mechanics, given the dynamical laws and initial conditions, one can figure out  $\vec{r}(t)$ .

• Velocity: 
$$\vec{v}(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta \vec{r}}{\Delta t} \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\vec{r}(t+\Delta t) - \vec{r}(t)}{\Delta t} \equiv \dot{\vec{r}}$$

$v_i = \frac{dx_i}{dt}$  (for  $i=1, 2, \text{ and } 3$ ) is a short-hand notation for

$$v_x = \frac{dx}{dt}, \quad v_y = \frac{dy}{dt}, \quad \text{and} \quad v_z = \frac{dz}{dt}.$$

The velocity is a vector with a magnitude  $|\vec{v}|$  (Speed).

$$|\vec{v}|^2 = v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2. \quad |\vec{v}| = \left| \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} \right|, \quad \text{but} \quad |\vec{v}| \neq \frac{d}{dt} |\vec{r}| \quad \text{in general.}$$

# Examples of Motion

I-6.

\* Acceleration:  $a_i = \frac{dv_i}{dt} = \dot{v}_i$

- The time rate at which the velocity is changing.
- You feel acceleration when your velocity vector changes.  
So acceleration can happen at a constant speed.

Eg. 1, Free Fall:  $x(t) = 0, y(t) = 0,$  and  $z(t) = z(0) + v(0)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$

applying " $\frac{d}{dt}$ ", we obtain

for  $t \geq 0,$

$$v_x(t) = 0, v_y(t) = 0, \text{ and } v_z(t) = v(0) - gt.$$

" once more, "

$$a_x(t) = 0, a_y(t) = 0, \text{ and } a_z(t) = -g.$$

Eg. 2. Simple Harmonic Oscillator (SHO):  $x(t) = \sin(\omega t)$

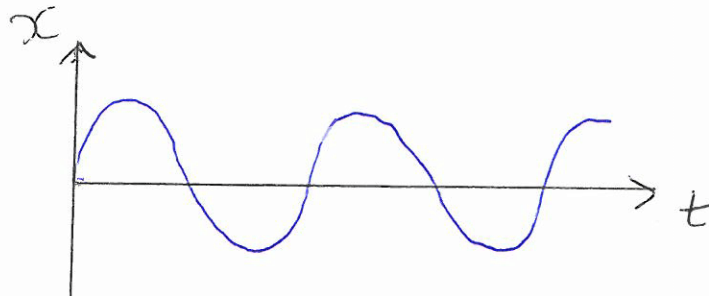


Fig. 1.

# Simple Harmonic Oscillator

I, -7,

\*  $x(t) = \sin(\omega t) \Rightarrow$  applying " $\frac{d}{dt}$ " to get  $v_x(t) = \omega \cos(\omega t)$ ,

$\Rightarrow$  applying " $\frac{d}{dt}$ " once more, we obtain  $a_x(t) = -\omega^2 \sin(\omega t)$ .

\* Note that; when the position " $x$ " is at its the velocity is

"maximum or minimum"



"zero"

"zero"



"maximum or minimum"

$\rightarrow$   $x$  and  $v_x$  are  $90^\circ$  (or  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ ) out of phase.

\* Significance of "minus" sign in  $a_x(t) = -\omega^2 \sin(\omega t) = -\omega^2 x(t)$ ;

- wherever the particle is, it is being accelerated back toward the origin.

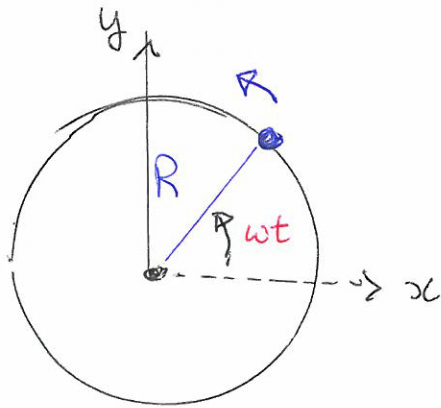


# Uniform Circular Motion about the Origin

I, - 8,

\* 
$$\begin{bmatrix} x(t) = R \cos(\omega t) \\ y(t) = R \sin(\omega t) \end{bmatrix}$$
 "  $\omega$  " is called the angular frequency.  
"  $T$  " is the period.

ie., time taking for one full cycle of motion.



We can easily show that

$$a_x(t) = -R\omega^2 \cos(\omega t)$$

$$a_y(t) = -R\omega^2 \sin(\omega t)$$

\* The acceleration of a circular orbit is parallel to the position vector, but it is oppositely directed. In other words, the acceleration vector points radially inward toward the origin.

\* Note that a projection of the uniform circular motion to x-axis (or y-axis) leads to a SHO motion.

# Homework

I.-9.

- \* Submit one week from the day of announcement.
- \* " after the class.

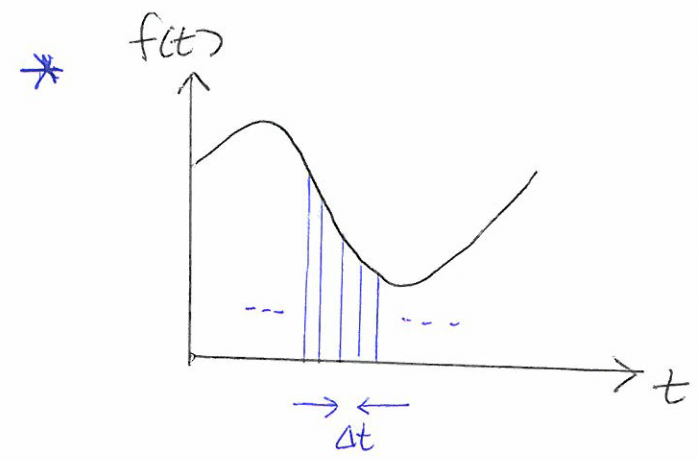
HW Set # 1 :

Exercise 7 and 8 on page 46.

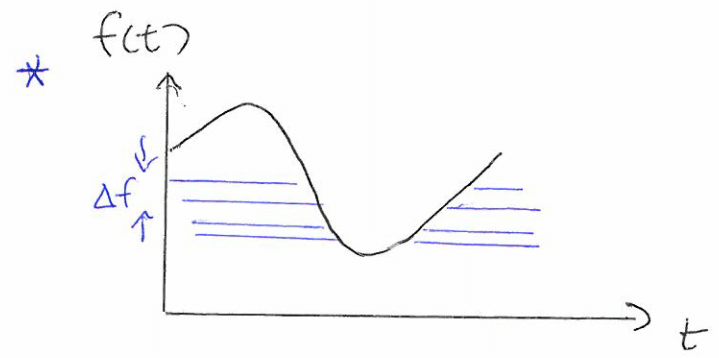
# Interlude 2: Integral Calculus

I, -10,

\* Reverse operation of "differentiation".



" Divide the area under the curve  $y = f(t)$  into vertically oriented rectangles. Sum over those, taking  $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ ."



" Why not horizontally oriented rectangles? "

→ "Lebesgue" integral.

# \* Integration by Parts (IBP)

I-11

\* Suppose we encounter an integral of the form

$$\int_a^b g(x) \left( \frac{df(x)}{dx} \right)$$

and don't know how to do it directly.

\* If you recognize that " $f(x)$ " is not much more complex than  $\frac{df(x)}{dx}$ , but  $\frac{dg(x)}{dx}$  is much simpler than  $g(x)$ ,

from  $\frac{d}{dx}(f g) = f \frac{dg}{dx} + \left(\frac{df}{dx}\right)g$ , we obtain

$$\int_a^b g(x) \left( \frac{df(x)}{dx} \right) = \left[ f(x)g(x) \right]_a^b - \int_a^b f(x) \left( \frac{dg(x)}{dx} \right)$$

\* If — is an easier integral than —, it can work.

\* It requires some experience and trial and error sometimes.



\* Example of IBP ;

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} x \cos x \, dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} x \frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) \, dx = [x \sin x]_0^{\pi/2} - \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{d}{dx}(x) \sin x \, dx$$

$$= \frac{\pi}{2} \sin \frac{\pi}{2} - \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin x \, dx \quad : \text{easy to do!}$$

Poor boy's attempt:

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} x \cos x \, dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{x^2}{2}\right) \cos x \, dx = \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \cos x\right]_0^{\pi/2} - \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{x^2}{2} \cdot (-\sin x) \, dx$$

— = ??? ; more difficult integration! , backward progress.

## Substitution of Variables

\* Suppose you encounter an integration of the form " $\int f(h(x))g(x) \, dx$ "  
~~and~~ where  $g(x) = \frac{d h(x)}{dx}$  .

→ Then by letting  $h(x) = u$ , we get " $\int f(u) \, du$ ."

\* Eg.  $\int_0^{\pi/2} e^{-\sin x} \cos x \, dx = \int_0^1 e^{-u} \, du = \dots \rightarrow$   
 (recognizing,  $u = \sin x$ )