CHAPTER 1: MATHEMATICAL BACKGROUND

I- Introduction

The word "physics" originates from Ancient Greek *physikḗ*, meaning "knowledge of nature. Physics is the is the natural science of matter, involving the study of matter, its fundamental constituents, its motion and behaviour through space and time, and the related entities of energy and force. Physics is one of the most fundamental scientific disciplines, its main goal being to understand how the universe behaves.

Physics can be divided into two main classes: classical physics and modern physics:

- Classical physics is generally concerned with matter and energy on the normal scale of observation.
- Modern physics is concerned with the behaviour of matter and energy under extreme conditions or on a very large or very small scale.

In physics, we use two types of quantities: scalar quantities and vector quantities:

- Scalar physical quantities are entirely defined by a number and an appropriate unit; e.g. the mass m of a body, the length l of an object, etc.
- Vector physical quantity is a quantity specified by a number and an appropriate unit plus a direction (geometrically represented by a vector); e.g. velocity $\vec{V}$, weight $\vec{P}$...

II- Reference system

A reference frame is a system of coordinate axes, linked to an observer equipped with a clock. The notion of motion is not absolute but relative to the frame of reference in which it is described.

II.1 - Copernicus referential

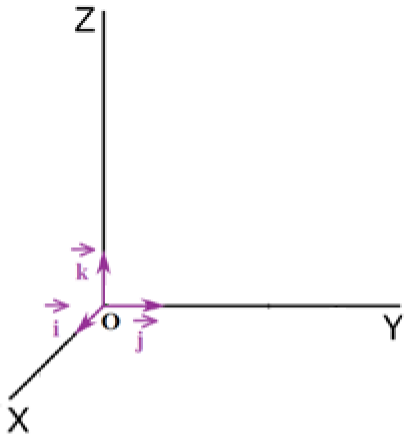
It is the frame of reference whose origin is at the barycentre of the solar system and whose axes point towards the distant stars known as the "fixed stars".

II.2 - Galilean reference frame

The Galilean reference frames are the reference frames with uniform rectilinear motion relative to Copernicus' reference frame.

In the Galilean reference frame, there are several reference points. One of these is the Cartesian reference frame.

The Cartesian reference frame consists of an origin O and three orthogonal vectors of unit norm (orthonormal) which are non-collinear $(\vec{i}, \vec{j}, \vec{k})$. The three vectors determine the three usual directions in space (OX, OY, OZ).



III- Material point

In physics, a point generally refers to an object that has no size or shape and is represented by a single coordinate or location in space. It is used as a basic concept in geometry and can be used to describe the position of an object in space by three coordinates (x, y, z) (in three-dimensional space).

x = **abscissa**, y = **ordinate**, z = **coast**

IV- Physical quantities and units

IV.1 - International System of Units (SI)

Internationally known by the abbreviation **SI** (abbreviated **SI** (from its French name *Système International a*nd popularly known as the *metric system)* is the world's most widely used system of measurement. It is established and maintained by the General Conference on Weights and Measures (CGPM).

- MKSA system

The **MKS** system of units is a physical system of measurement that uses the meter, kilogram, and second (MKS) as base units. The MKS system with the ampere as a fourth base unit is sometimes referred to as the **MKSA** system. This system was extended by adding the Kelvin and candela as base units in 1960, thus forming the International System of Units. The mole was added as a seventh base unit in 1971.

Table 1: SI base units.

Quantity	**Name**	**Symbol**
Time	second	**s**
Length	meter	**m**
Mass	kilogram	**kg**
Electric current	ampere	**A**
Temperature	kelvin	**K**
Amount of substance	mole	**mol**
Luminous intensity	candela	**cd**

- CGS system of units

The **centimeter–gram–second system of units** (abbreviated **CGS** or **cgs**) is a variant of the metric system based on the centimeter as the unit of length, the gram as the unit of mass, and the second as the unit of time.

IV.2- Derived units

Derived units are associated with derived quantities; for example, velocity is a quantity that is derived from the base quantities of time and length, and thus the SI derived unit is metre per second (symbol m/s).

Table 2: SI derived units with special names and symbols.

Name	Symbol	Quantity	In SI base units	In other SI units
radian	rad	plane angle	m/m	1
hertz	Hz	frequency	s^{-1}	
newton	N	force, weight	$kg{\cdot}m{\cdot}s^{-2}$	
pascal	Pa	pressure, stress	$kg{\cdot}m^{-1}{\cdot}s^{-2}$	$N/m^2 = J/m^3$
joule	J	energy, work, heat	$kg{\cdot}m^2{\cdot}s^{-2}$	$N{\cdot}m = Pa{\cdot}m^3$
watt	W	power, radiant flux	$kg{\cdot}m^2{\cdot}s^{-3}$	J/s
coulomb	C	electric charge	$s{\cdot}A$	
volt	V	electric potential, voltage, emf	$kg{\cdot}m^2{\cdot}s^{-3}{\cdot}A^{-1}$	W/A = J/C
farad	F	capacitance	$kg^{-1}{\cdot}m^{-2}{\cdot}s^4{\cdot}A^2$	$C/V = C^2/J$
ohm	Ω	resistance, impedance, reactance	$kg{\cdot}m^2{\cdot}s^{-3}{\cdot}A^{-2}$	$V/A = J{\cdot}s/C^2$
siemens	S	electrical conductance	$kg^{-1}{\cdot}m^{-2}{\cdot}s^3{\cdot}A^2$	Ω^{-1}
weber	Wb	magnetic flux	$kg{\cdot}m^2{\cdot}s^{-2}{\cdot}A^{-1}$	V·s
tesla	T	magnetic flux density	$kg{\cdot}s^{-2}{\cdot}A^{-1}$	Wb/m^2
henry	H	inductance	$kg{\cdot}m^2{\cdot}s^{-2}{\cdot}A^{-2}$	Wb/A
degree Celsius	°C	temperature relative to 273.15 K	K	

IV.3- Dimensional analysis

In engineering and science, **dimensional analysis** is the analysis of the relationships between different physical quantities by identifying their base quantities (such as length, mass, time, and electric current) and units of measurement (such as meters and grams) and tracking these dimensions as calculations or comparisons are performed. It can be used to evaluate scientific formulae. The units included in the set are presented in the following table:

Quantity	**Unit**	**Dimension symbol**
Length	metre (m)	[L]
Time	second (s)	[T]
Mass	kilogram (kg)	[M]
Current	amp (A)	[I]
Temperature	Kelvin (K)	[Θ]

Any derived quantity G can be expressed as a function of the fundamental quantities M, L, T and I according to the expression:

$$[\boldsymbol{G}] = [\boldsymbol{M}]^{a}.[\boldsymbol{L}]^{b}.[\boldsymbol{T}]^{c}.[\boldsymbol{I}]^{d}$$

Where *a*, *b*, *c*, *d* are the dimensional exponents.

Example

- **Velocity** = length/ time

$\Rightarrow$ [V] = $[L]\ [T]^{-1}$

- **Force** = mass x acceleration = masse x length /time^2

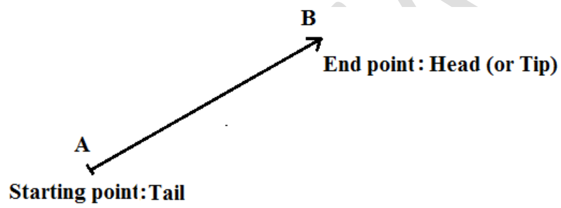
$\Rightarrow$ [F]= $[M]\ [L]\ [T]^{-2}$

- **Energy**= Force*displacement= mass*acceleration*displacement

$\Rightarrow$ [E] = $[M]\ [L]\ [T]^{-2}[L]$= $[M]\ [L]^2\ [T]^{-2}$

V- Vector

A vector ($\overrightarrow{AB}$) is represented by a directed segment (an arrow) with a starting point (tail) (A) and an end point (head or tip) (B).



A vector is defined by:

- a length (a magnitude): $\|\overrightarrow{AB}\|$,

- a support: **the straight line (AB)**,

- a direction (orientation): **from A to B**.

We can define a vector $\overrightarrow{AB}$ as follows: $\overrightarrow{AB} = \|\overrightarrow{AB}\|\ \vec{u}$

$\vec{u}$ is the unit vector with norm 1 ($\|\vec{u}\|$ =1) and the same direction as

Noted that: $\overrightarrow{AB} = (x_b - x_a)\vec{\imath}+(y_b - y_a)\vec{\jmath} + (z_b - z_a)\vec{k}$

$$(\vec{A}=\begin{pmatrix}x_a\\y_a\\z_a\end{pmatrix},\ \vec{B}=\begin{pmatrix}x_B\\y_B\\z_B\end{pmatrix})$$

$$\|\overrightarrow{AB}\| = AB = \left(\sqrt{(x_b - x_a)^2 + (y_b - y_a)^2 + (z_b - z_a)^2}\right)$$

Remarks:

1- The vector $\overrightarrow{BA}$ is the opposite vector to the $\overrightarrow{AB}$ (same length, same support, but opposite direction)

2- The vector $\overrightarrow{AA}$ *and* $\overrightarrow{BB}$ is the zero vectors.

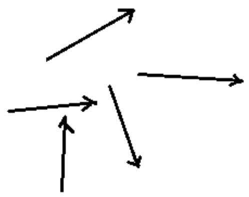
3- The vectors $\overrightarrow{AB}$ and $\overrightarrow{CD}$ are equal or equipollent if they have the same length, the same direction, the same support or parallel supports.

4- Colinear (or linearly dependent) vectors are vectors carried by parallel lines.

VI- Types of vectors

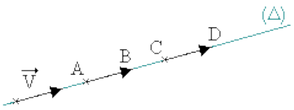
VI.1 - Free vector

It is a vector with a non-specific support.



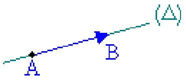
VI.2 - Sliding vector

A vector is called a "sliding vector" if we impose its support (Δ). Example: The vectors $\overrightarrow{AB}$ and $\overrightarrow{CD}$ are representatives of the sliding vector $\vec{V}$.



VI.3 - Linked vector

A vector is called a "linked vector" if we fix the point of application A. The position of the vector is completely defined on the support (Δ).



VII- Vector operations

VII.1- Addition of two vectors

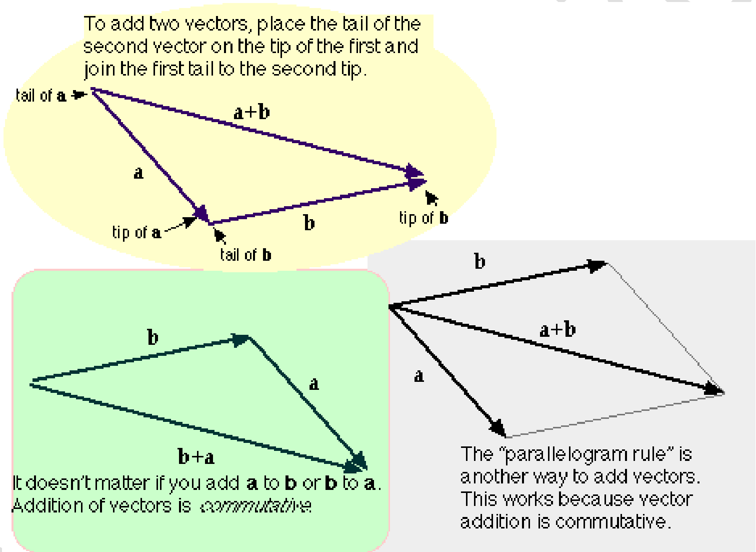
The sum of two vectors is a vector.

$$\vec{C} = \vec{A} + \vec{B} = (x_A + x_B)\vec{\imath} + (y_A + y_B)\vec{\jmath} + (z_A + z_B)\vec{k}$$

$$\vec{A} = \vec{\imath} + 4\vec{\jmath}$$

$$\vec{B} = 3\vec{\imath} - 2\vec{\jmath}$$

So: $$\vec{C} = \overrightarrow{4\imath} + 2\vec{\jmath}$$



Commutative law: $\vec{A} + \vec{B} = \vec{B} + \vec{A}$

Associative law: $\vec{A} + (\vec{B} + \vec{C}) = (\vec{A} + \overrightarrow{B}) + \vec{C}$

Distributive law: $\lambda\,(\vec{A} + \vec{B}) = \lambda\,\vec{A} + \lambda\,\vec{B}$

VII.2- Subtraction

To subtract one vector from another, we add the first vector to the opposite of the second vector that needs to be subtracted.

$$\boldsymbol{\vec{C} = \vec{A} - \vec{B} = \vec{A} + (-\vec{B})}$$

$$\vec{C} = \vec{A} - \vec{B} = (x_A - x_B)\vec{\imath} + (y_A - y_B)\vec{\jmath} + (z_A - z_B)\vec{k}$$

Example:

$$\vec{A} = \vec{\imath} + 4\vec{\jmath}$$

$$\vec{B} = 3\vec{\imath} - 2\vec{\jmath}$$

So: $$\vec{C} = \vec{A} - \vec{B} = -2\vec{\imath} + 6\vec{\jmath}$$

Subtraction is not commutative: $\vec{A} - \vec{B} \neq \vec{B} - \vec{A}$

Distributive law: $\lambda\,(\vec{A} - \vec{B}) = \lambda\,\vec{A} - \lambda\,\vec{B}$

VII.3- Scalar product (or the Dot Product)

The scalar product of two vectors $\vec{A}$ *and* $\vec{B}$ (denoted $\vec{A}.\vec{B}$($\vec{A}$ *scalar* $\vec{B}$)) is defined as the product of the magnitude of $\vec{A}$ *and* $\vec{B}$ by the cosine of the angle between the two vectors :

$$\vec{A}.\vec{B} = A.\,B.\,\cos\theta$$

Remarks

1- The product $\vec{A}.\vec{B}$ is a scalar and not a vector.

2- The scalar product satisfies the following laws:

2.a- $\vec{A}.\vec{B} = \vec{B}.\vec{A}$ (the scalar product is commutative).

2.b- $\vec{A}.(\vec{B} + \vec{C}) = \vec{A}.\vec{B} + \vec{A}.\vec{C}$ (the scalar product is distributive).

2.c- $\lambda\,(\vec{A}.\vec{B}) = (\lambda\,\vec{A}).\vec{B} = \vec{A}.(\lambda\,\vec{B})$, λ is a scalar value.

3- If $\vec{A}.\vec{B}=0$ and if $\vec{A}$ *and* $\vec{B}$ are zero vectors, then are **perpendicular**.

4- The orthogonal unit vectors $(\vec{\imath}, \vec{\jmath}, \vec{k})$ which form the Cartesian basis satisfy :

$\vec{\imath}.\vec{\imath} = \vec{\jmath}.\vec{\jmath} = \vec{k}.\vec{k} = 1$ and $\vec{\imath}.\vec{\jmath} = \vec{\jmath}.\vec{k} = \vec{k}.\vec{\imath} = 0$

5- The analytical expression for the scalar product is:

$$\vec{A}.\vec{B} = (x_A.\vec{\imath} + y_A.\vec{\jmath} + z_A.\vec{k}).(x_B.\vec{\imath} + y_B.\vec{\jmath} + z_B.\vec{k}) = x_A.x_B + y_A.y_B + z_A.z_B$$

VII.4- The vector product (or the Cross Product)

The vector product of two vectors $\vec{A}$ et $\vec{B}$ (denoted $\vec{A} \wedge \vec{B}(\vec{A}\ vectorial\ \vec{B})$) is a vector . It is defined as the product of the moduli of $\vec{A}$ and $\vec{B}$ by the sine of the angle between the two vectors :

$$\vec{A} \wedge \vec{B} = (A.\ B.\ \sin\theta).\ \vec{u} = \vec{C}$$

where $\vec{u}$ is a unit vector indicating the direction of $\vec{A} \wedge \vec{B}$ which is perpendicular to the plane formed by $\vec{A}$ and $\vec{B}$. Noted that $\vec{A}$, $\vec{B}$ and $\vec{u}$ $(or\ \vec{C})$ form a direct trihedron (i.e., a corkscrew that which turns from $\vec{A}$ to $\vec{B}$ advances in the direction of $\vec{u}$ (or $\vec{C}$).

Note that:

1- If $\vec{A}$ and $\vec{B}$ are parallel, $\vec{A} \wedge \vec{B} = \vec{0}$.

2- The orthogonal unit vectors $(\vec{\imath}, \vec{\jmath}, \vec{k})$ form a direct trihedron, they satisfy:

$\vec{\imath} \wedge \vec{\imath} = \vec{\jmath} \wedge \vec{\jmath} = \vec{k} \wedge \vec{k} = \vec{0}$

$\vec{\imath} \wedge \vec{\jmath} = \vec{k}$, $\quad \vec{\jmath} \wedge \vec{k} = \vec{\imath}$, $\quad \vec{k} \wedge \vec{\imath} = \vec{\jmath}$ (circular permutation)

3- The analytical expression of the vector product:

$$\vec{A} \wedge \vec{B} = (x_A.\vec{\imath} + y_A.\vec{\jmath} + z_A.\vec{k}) \wedge (x_B.\vec{\imath} + y_B.\vec{\jmath} + z_B.\vec{k})$$

$$\vec{A} \wedge \vec{B} = (\ y_A.z_B - z_A.y_B)\vec{\imath} + (\ z_A.x_B - x_A.z_B)\vec{\jmath} + (\ x_A.y_B - y_A.x_B)\vec{k}$$

Or, by using the determinant:

$$\vec{A} \wedge \vec{B} = \begin{vmatrix} \vec{\imath} & \vec{\jmath} & \vec{k} \\ x_A & y_A & z_A \\ x_B & y_B & z_B \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} y_A & z_A \\ y_B & z_B \end{vmatrix}\vec{\imath} - \begin{vmatrix} x_A & z_A \\ x_B & z_B \end{vmatrix}\vec{\jmath} + \begin{vmatrix} x_A & y_A \\ x_B & y_B \end{vmatrix}\vec{k}$$

$$\vec{A} \wedge \vec{B} = (\ y_A.z_B - z_A.y_B)\vec{\imath} + (\ z_A.x_B - x_A.z_B)\vec{\jmath} + (\ x_A.y_B - y_A.x_B)\vec{k}$$

4-The vector product is not commutative: $\overrightarrow{A} \wedge \vec{B} = -\vec{B} \wedge \vec{A}$.

5-The vector product is distributive: $\vec{A} \wedge \overrightarrow{(B + \vec{C})} = \vec{A} \wedge \vec{B} + \vec{A} \wedge \vec{C}$

6- The double vector product : $\vec{A} \wedge \overline{(\vec{B} \wedge \vec{C})} = \vec{B}.(\vec{A}\ .\overrightarrow{C})$- $\vec{C}.(\vec{A}\ .\vec{B})$

7- $|\vec{A} \wedge \vec{B}|$ is the area of a parallelogram with sides $\vec{A}$ *and* $\vec{B}$.

VII.5- The mixed product

A mixed product of three vectors $(\vec{A}, \vec{B}\ and\ \vec{C})$is defined by :

$$\boldsymbol{\vec{A}.(\vec{B} \wedge \vec{C})} = \begin{vmatrix} x_A & y_A & z_A \\ x_B & y_B & z_B \\ x_C & y_C & z_C \end{vmatrix}$$

This mixed product represents the volume of a parallelepiped with sides $\vec{A}, \vec{B}\ and\ \vec{C}$.

We also have $\vec{A}.(\vec{B} \wedge \vec{C}) = \vec{B}.(\vec{C} \wedge \overrightarrow{A}) =\ \vec{C}.(\vec{A}\ \wedge \vec{B})$ (circular permutation).

VII.6- Derivatives of vectors

Let be $\vec{A}(t)$ the vector function in terms of time (t):

$$\vec{A}(t) = x(t)\vec{\imath} + y(t)\vec{\jmath} + z(t)\vec{k},$$

The first derivative of with respect to t is defined by:

$$\frac{d\vec{A}(t)}{dt} = \frac{dx(t)}{dt}\vec{\imath} + \frac{dy(t)}{dt}\vec{\jmath} + \frac{dz(t)}{dt}\vec{k}$$

The second derivative is :

$$\frac{d^2\vec{A}(t)}{dt^2} = \frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{d\vec{A}(t)}{dt}\right) = \frac{d^2x(t)}{dt^2}\vec{\imath} + \frac{d^2y(t)}{dt^2}\vec{\jmath} + \frac{d^2z(t)}{dt^2}\vec{k}$$

So if (λ) is a scalar function and if $\vec{A}$ and $\vec{B}$ are vectors, then:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\lambda\vec{A}) = \frac{d\lambda}{dt}\vec{A} + \lambda\frac{d\vec{A}}{dt}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\vec{A}.\vec{B}) = \frac{d\vec{A}}{dt}\vec{B} + \vec{A}\frac{d\vec{B}}{dt}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\vec{A} \wedge \vec{B}) = \frac{d\vec{A}}{dt} \wedge \vec{B} + \vec{A} \wedge \frac{d\vec{B}}{dt}$$

VII.7- Vector integrals

Let the vector $\vec{A}(t) = x(t)\vec{\imath} + y(t)\vec{\jmath} + z(t)\vec{k}$ which is a vector function of t. We define an integral of $\vec{A}(t)$ by:

$\int\vec{A}(t)dt = \vec{\imath}\int x(t)dt + \vec{\jmath}\int y(t)dt + \vec{k}\int z(t)dt$

VIII- Error in a function of several variables

The error in a function of several variables is approximately the sum of the absolute values of all the partial derivatives, each multiplied by the corresponding errors. Let f(x,y,z) function of three variables (x, y and z) and Δx, Δy, Δz the accuracy (the measurement errors) of the devices that measured x, y and z. We can estimate the absolute error $\Delta f(x,y,z)$ by moving from the differential $df(x,y,z)$ to the error $\Delta f(x,y,z)$:

$$df(x,y,z) = \frac{\partial f(x,y,z)}{\partial x}\,dx + \frac{\partial f(x,y,z)}{\partial y}\,dy + \frac{\partial f(x,y,z)}{\partial z}\,dz$$

$\frac{\partial f(x,y,z)}{\partial x}$ is the partial derivative of $f(x,y,z)$ with respect to x.

So, the absolute error $\Delta f(x,y,z)$ *is*:

$$\Delta f(x,y,z) = \left|\frac{\partial f(x,y,z)}{\partial x}\right|\Delta x + \left|\frac{\partial f(x,y,z)}{\partial y}\right|\Delta y + \left|\frac{\partial f(x,y,z)}{\partial z}\right|\Delta z$$

The relative error is the quotient: $\frac{\Delta f(x,y,z)}{f(x,y,z)}$

This number is expressed in%.

Example

1) $f(x,y) = xy$

$$df(x,y) = \frac{\partial f(x,y)}{\partial x}\,dx + \frac{\partial f(x,y)}{\partial y}\,dy$$

$$df(x,y) = y\,dx + x\,dy$$

$$\Delta f(x,y) = |y|\,\Delta x + |x|\,dy$$

2) A runner travels the distance x in certain time t:

x= 50.0 ± 0.1 m

t = 6.00 ± 0.01 s.

So, the velocity of runner is: $V = \frac{x}{t} = \frac{50}{6} = 8.3333\,m/s$

So V is function of x and t.

$$dV(x,t) = \frac{\partial V(x,t)}{\partial x}\,dx + \frac{\partial V(x,t)}{\partial t}\,dt$$

$$dV(x,t) = \frac{1}{t}\,dx - \frac{x}{t^2}\,dt$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Delta V(x,t) = \left|\frac{1}{t}\right|\,\Delta x + \left|-\frac{x}{t^2}\right|\,\Delta t}$$

$$\Delta V(x,t) = \frac{1}{6}\,0.1 + \frac{50}{6^2}\,0.01 = 0.03\,\frac{m}{s}$$

So, we write: **V= (8.33+0.03) m/s**

The relative error is: $\boldsymbol{\frac{\Delta V}{V} = \frac{0.03}{8.33} = 0.0036}$

The relative error is therefore **0.36 %.**