

# Analytic geometry and non-relativistic field theory

Adam Boulton ([www.bou.lt](http://www.bou.lt))

March 2, 2024

# Contents

I	Analytic geometry	2
1	Points, lines and affine transformations	3
2	Euclidian transformations, lengths and angles	4
3	Volumes, perimeters and surface areas	8
4	2D polygons	9
5	3D polygons	11
6	Algebraic geometry and spheres	12
II	Mechanics with a constant field: SUVAT	13
7	Newtonian mechanics	14
III	Mechanics of varying fields	18
8	Harmonics	19
9	Orbits, Galileo's laws, Copernicus's laws	20
10	Music	21
IV	2 body gravity	22
V	3 body gravity	23
VI	Dynamical systems: Attractors and strange attrac-	

<i>CONTENTS</i>	2
tors	24
VII Geometrical optics	25
VIII Observations	26
IX Physical models	27
11 Paths	28
12 Symmetry	34
13 Fields	35
X Electromagnetism	36
14 Electromagnetism, waves, action on a field, least action on a field and gauge theory	37
XI Lagrangian formations	38
XII Hamiltonian formations	39
15 Hamiltonian	40

## Part I

# Analytic geometry

## Chapter 1

# Points, lines and affine transformations

### 1.1 Affine spaces

#### 1.1.1 Lines

#### 1.1.2 Parallel lines

## Chapter 2

# Euclidian transformations, lengths and angles

### 2.1 Linear metrics

#### 2.1.1 Metrics

We defined a norm as:

$$||v|| = v^T M v$$

A metric is the distance between two vectors.

$$d(u, v) = ||u - v|| = (u - v)^T M (u - v)$$

#### **Metric space**

A set with a metric is a metric space.

#### 2.1.2 Inducing a topology

Metric spaces can be used to induce a topology.

#### 2.1.3 Translation symmetry

The distance between two vectors is:

$$(v - w)^T M (v - w)$$

So what operations can we do now?

As before, we can do the transformations which preserve  $u^T M v$ , such as the orthogonal group.

But we can also do other translations

$$(v - w)^T M (v - w)$$

$$v^T M v + w^T M w - v^T M w - w^T M v$$

so symmetry is now  $O(3, 1)$  and affine translations

### Translation matrix

$[[1, x][0, 1]]$  moves vector by  $x$ .

## 2.2 Specific groups

### 2.2.1 The affine group

### 2.2.2 The Euclidian group

### 2.2.3 The Galilean group

### 2.2.4 The Poincaré group

## 2.3 Non-linear norms

### 2.3.1 $L_p$ norms ( $p$ -norms)

#### $L^p$ norm

This generalises the Euclidian norm.

$$\|x\|_p = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p)^{1/p}$$

This can be defined for different values of  $p$ . Note that the absolute value of each element in the vector is used.

Note also that:

$$\|x\|_2$$

Is the Euclidian norm.

#### Taxicab norm

This is the  $L^1$  norm. That is:

$$\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$$

## Angles

### Cauchy-Schwarz

## 2.4 To linear forms

### 2.4.1 Norms

We can use norms to denote the "length" of a single vector.

$$||v|| = \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle}$$

$$||v|| = \sqrt{v^* M v}$$

#### Euclidian norm

If  $M = I$  we have the Euclidian norm.

$$||v|| = \sqrt{v^* v}$$

If we are using the real field this is:

$$||v|| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2}$$

#### Pythagoras' theorem

If  $n = 2$  we have in the real field we have:

$$||v|| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2}$$

We call the two inputs  $x$  and  $y$ , and the length  $z$ .

$$z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$z^2 = x^2 + y^2$$

### 2.4.2 Angles

#### Recap: Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

This states that:

$$|\langle u, v \rangle|^2 \leq \langle u, u \rangle \langle v, v \rangle$$

Or:

$$\langle v, u \rangle \langle u, v \rangle \leq \langle u, u \rangle \langle v, v \rangle$$

#### Introduction

$$\langle v, u \rangle \langle u, v \rangle \leq \langle u, u \rangle \langle v, v \rangle$$

$$\frac{\langle v, u \rangle \langle u, v \rangle}{||u|| \cdot ||v||} \leq ||u|| \cdot ||v||$$



$$\frac{||u|| \cdot ||v||}{\langle v, u \rangle} \geq \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{||u|| \cdot ||v||}$$
$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{||u|| \cdot ||v||}$$

## 2.5 Other

### 2.5.1 Convex hulls

## Chapter 3

# Volumes, perimeters and surface areas

## Chapter 4

# 2D polygons

### 4.1 Elementary geometry in 2 dimensions

#### 4.1.1 Triangles

Area of a triangle

Circumference of a triangle

Sum of angles of a triangle

Angles in a triangle add to  $\pi$ .

#### 4.1.2 Quadrilaterals

#### 4.1.3 Oblongs

Area of an oblong

Circumference of an oblong

#### 4.1.4 Squares

Area of a square

$$A = l^2$$

Circumference of a square

$$C = 4l$$

Angles in a square

Angles in a square sum to  $2\pi$ .

**4.1.5 Pentagon**

**4.2 Other**

**4.2.1 Border**

**4.2.2 Interior**

**4.2.3 Open**

**4.2.4 Closed**

**4.2.5 Self-intersecting polygon**

## Chapter 5

# 3D polygons

### 5.1 Elementary geometry in 3 dimensions

#### 5.1.1 Pyramid

#### 5.1.2 Cubes

Volume of a cube:

$$V = l^3$$

Surface area of a cube:

$$A = 6l^2$$

## Chapter 6

# Algebraic geometry and spheres

### 6.1 Circles

#### 6.1.1 Defining circles

$$x^2 + y^2 = r^2$$

#### 6.1.2 Area of a circle

$$A = \pi r^2$$

#### 6.1.3 Circumference of a circle

$$C = 2\pi r$$

### 6.2 Spheres

#### 6.2.1 Defining spheres

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = r^2$$

#### 6.2.2 Volume of a sphere

$$V =$$

#### 6.2.3 Surface area of a sphere

$$A =$$

## Part II

# Mechanics with a constant field: SUVAT

# Chapter 7

## Newtonian mechanics

### 7.1 Introduction

#### 7.1.1 SUVAT

##### Introduction

For a constant acceleration environment we want to find equations to link:

- Initial speed:  $v_{t_0}$
- End speed:  $v_{t_1}$
- Time:  $t_1 - t_0$
- Acceleration:  $a$
- Displacement  $s_{t_1} - s_{t_0}$

##### The SUVAT equations

These are the following, and are derived below.

- $v_{t_1} = a(t_1 - t_0) + v_{t_0}$
- $(s_{t_1} - s_{t_0}) = v_{t_0}(t_1 - t_0) + \frac{1}{2}a(t_1 - t_0)^2$
- $(s_{t_1} - s_{t_0}) = v_{t_1}(t_1 - t_0) - \frac{1}{2}a(t_1 - t_0)^2$
- $v_{t_1}^2 = v_{t_0}^2 + 2a(s_{t_1} - s_{t_0})$
- $(s_{t_1} - s_{t_0}) = (t_1 - t_0)\frac{v_{t_1} + v_{t_0}}{2}$



**Equation 1: No displacement**

This equation is:

$$v_{t_1} = a(t_1 - t_0) + v_{t_0}$$

To derive this start with:

$$v_t := \frac{\delta s_t}{\delta t}$$

$$a := \frac{\delta v_t}{\delta t}$$

If acceleration is constant, then

$$\frac{\delta v_t}{\delta t} = a$$

$$v_t = \int a dt + v_0$$

$$v_t = at + v_0$$

**Equation 2: No end velocity**

This equation is:

$$(s_{t_1} - s_{t_0}) = v_{t_0}(t_1 - t_0) + \frac{1}{2}a(t_1 - t_0)^2$$

To derive this start with:

$$v := \frac{\delta s_t}{\delta t}$$

Then:

$$\frac{\delta s_t}{\delta t} = at + v_0$$

$$s_t = \frac{1}{2}at^2 + v_0t + s_0$$

$$(s_t - s_0) = v_0t + \frac{1}{2}at^2$$

**Equation 3: No start velocity**

This equation is:

$$(s_{t_1} - s_{t_0}) = v_{t_1}(t_1 - t_0) - \frac{1}{2}a(t_1 - t_0)^2$$

To derive this start with:

$$v_t = at + v_0$$

$$(s_t - s_0) = t \frac{v_t + v_0}{2}$$

So:

$$v_0 = v_t - at$$

$$v_0 = \frac{2}{t}(s_t - s_0) - v_t$$

$$v_t - at = \frac{2}{t}(s_t - s_0) - v_t$$

$$(s_t - s_0) = v_t t - \frac{1}{2}at^2$$

**Equation 4: No time**

This equation is:

$$v_{t_1}^2 = v_{t_0}^2 + 2a(s_{t_1} - s_{t_0})$$

To derive this start with:

$$v_t = at + v_0$$

$$(s_t - s_0) = t \frac{v_t + v_0}{2}$$

So:

$$t = \frac{v_t - v_0}{a}$$

$$t = 2 \frac{s_t - s_0}{v_t + v_0}$$

$$\frac{v_t - v_0}{a} = 2 \frac{s_t - s_0}{v_t + v_0}$$

$$(v_t - v_0)(v_t + v_0) = 2a(s_t - s_0)$$

$$v_t^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(s_t - s_0)$$

**Equation 5: No acceleration**

This equation is:

$$(s_{t_1} - s_{t_0}) = (t_1 - t_0) \frac{v_{t_1} + v_{t_0}}{2}$$

To derive this start with:

$$v_t = at + v_0$$

$$s_t - s_0 = \frac{1}{2}at^2 + v_0 t$$

So:

$$a = \frac{v_t - v_0}{t}$$

$$a = \frac{2[(s_t - s_0) - v_0 t]}{t^2}$$

$$\frac{v_t - v_0}{t} = \frac{2[(s_t - s_0) - v_0 t]}{t^2}$$

$$t(v_t - v_0) = 2[(s_t - s_0) - v_0 t]$$

$$t(v_t + v_0) = 2(s_t - s_0)$$

$$(s_t - s_0) = t \frac{v_t + v_0}{2}$$

## Part III

# Mechanics of varying fields

## Chapter 8

# Harmonics

### 8.1 Introduction

#### 8.1.1 Introduction

Acceleration inversely proportional to distance.

## Chapter 9

# Orbits, Galileo's laws, Copernicus's laws

### 9.1 Introduction

#### 9.1.1 Deriving Galileo's laws from Newton

#### 9.1.2 Deriving Copernicus's laws from Newton

# Chapter 10

## Music

### 10.1 Introduction

#### 10.1.1 Pure tones

Describe a pitch by vibration frequency Hertz Hz, period

octave up is 2x frequency

phenomenon of finding similarity between octaves, so can be named similarly.

Musical interval 2:1 - octave 1:1 - unison

consonance and dissonance phenomena of whether we see pitches as in harmony or not

how to create notes between? equal temperament: want  $[n]$  number, so each ratio is  $2^{1/n}$

for 12 tone scale,  $2^{1/12}$

harmonic of a tone take tone. integer multiples of the frequencies are the harmonic sequence. frequencies here are "rational" frequencies of equal temperament are irrational (between octaves)

pythagorean scale generated by pure 5ths (3:2)(aka perfect fifth) and octaves (2:1) result is unevenly spaced notes

#### 10.1.2 Chords

major chord: root, major third, perfect fifth minor chord: root, minor third, perfect fifth

Ohm's acoustic law: we can hear individual notes when put together

## Part IV

# 2 body gravity



## Part V

# 3 body gravity

## Part VI

# **Dynamical systems: Attractors and strange attractors**

## Part VII

# Geometrical optics

Part VIII

Observations

## Part IX

# Physical models

# Chapter 11

## Paths

### 11.1 Describing paths

#### 11.1.1 Describing events

In vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$\mathbf{q} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

#### 11.1.2 Describing the path of a particle

Also known as a worldline.

Index to  $t$

$$\mathbf{q}(t)$$

#### 11.1.3 Describing the velocity of a particle

$$v = \frac{\delta \mathbf{q}}{\delta t}$$

#### 11.1.4 Describing the acceleration of a particle

$$a = \frac{\delta v}{\delta t}$$

$$a = \frac{\delta^2 \mathbf{q}}{\delta t^2}$$

## 11.2 Action

### 11.2.1 Action

We observe a particle moving in a path. We want to model the path that the particle takes.

The path is in a vector space, with coordinates  $\mathbf{q}$ . These coordinates could refer to the  $x$ ,  $y$ ,  $z$  and  $t$  coordinates we are familiar with.

For the path we have a start point  $a$  and end point  $b$ . We can define the length of the path as:

$$S = \int_a^b d\tau$$

We call  $S$  the action.

### 11.2.2 Linear metrics

We use a linear metric.

$$\tau^2 = \mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{M} \mathbf{q}$$

So:

$$d\tau^2 = (d\mathbf{q})^T \mathbf{M} d\mathbf{q}$$

$$S = \int_a^b \sqrt{(d\mathbf{q})^T \mathbf{M} d\mathbf{q}}$$

### 11.2.3 Time and velocity

$$S = \int_a^b \sqrt{\frac{1}{dt^2} (d\mathbf{q})^T \mathbf{M} d\mathbf{q}} dt$$

$$S = \int_a^b \sqrt{\left(\frac{d\mathbf{q}}{dt}\right)^T \mathbf{M} \frac{d\mathbf{q}}{dt}} dt$$

$$S = \int_a^b \sqrt{(\dot{\mathbf{q}})^T \mathbf{M} \dot{\mathbf{q}}} dt$$

## 11.3 The Lagrangian

### 11.3.1 Lagrangians

We have:

$$S = \int_a^b \sqrt{(\dot{\mathbf{q}})^T \mathbf{M} \dot{\mathbf{q}}} dt$$

We can define:

$$L = \sqrt{(\dot{\mathbf{q}})^T \mathbf{M} \dot{\mathbf{q}}}$$

So we have:

$$S = \int_a^b L dt$$

### 11.3.2 Principle of stationary action

$$\delta A = 0$$

That is, the coordinates and their velocities are such that action is stationary.

### 11.3.3 Euler-Lagrange

We have  $q(t)$  which makes the action stationary. Consider adding proportion  $\epsilon$  of another function  $f(t)$  to  $q(t)$ .

$$A' = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} L[q(t) + \epsilon f(t), \dot{q}(t) + \epsilon \dot{f}(t)] dt$$

$$\frac{A' - A}{\epsilon} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \int_{t_0}^{t_1} L[q(t) + \epsilon f(t), \dot{q}(t) + \epsilon \dot{f}(t)] - L[q, \dot{q}] dt$$

We can do a Taylor expansion of  $A'$ .

$$A' = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} L[q(t) + \epsilon f(t), \dot{q}(t) + \epsilon \dot{f}(t)] dt$$

$$A' = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} L[q(t), \dot{q}(t)] + \epsilon [f \frac{\delta L}{\delta q} + \dot{f} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}}] + \epsilon^2 [\dots] dt$$

So:

$$\frac{A' - A}{\epsilon} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \int_{t_0}^{t_1} L[q(t), \dot{q}(t)] + \epsilon [f \frac{\delta L}{\delta q} + \dot{f} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}}] + \epsilon^2 [\dots] - L[q, \dot{q}] dt$$

$$\frac{A' - A}{\epsilon} = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} [f \frac{\delta L}{\delta q} + \dot{f} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}}] + \epsilon [\dots] dt$$

We can now make the left side 0, by using the definition of stationary action.

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{A' - A}{\epsilon} = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} [f \frac{\delta L}{\delta q} + \dot{f} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}}] dt$$

$$\int_{t_0}^{t_1} [f \frac{\delta L}{\delta q} + \dot{f} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}}] dt = 0$$

$$\int_{t_0}^{t_1} [f \frac{\delta L}{\delta q}] dt + \int_{t_0}^{t_1} [\dot{f} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}}] dt = 0$$

Note that

$$\int_{t_0}^{t_1} [\dot{f} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}}] dt = [f \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}}]_{t_0}^{t_1} - \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}} dt$$

We assume that  $f(t_0) = f(t_1) = 0$  and so:

$$\int_{t_0}^{t_1} [\dot{f} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}}] dt = - \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}} dt$$

Plugging this back in we get:



$$\int_{t_0}^{t_1} [f \frac{\delta L}{\delta q}] - f \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}} dt = 0$$

$$\int_{t_0}^{t_1} f [\frac{\delta L}{\delta q}] - \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}} dt = 0$$

Since this applies to all possible functions we get:

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta q} = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}}$$

### 11.3.4 Definition: Momentum

$$p = \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}}$$

### 11.3.5 EL v2

$$L = \sqrt{(\dot{\mathbf{q}})^T \mathbf{M} \dot{\mathbf{q}}}$$

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta q} - \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}} \right) = 0$$

We have

$$S = \int_a^b L(q(t), \dot{q}(t)) dt$$

$$\delta S = \delta \int_a^b L(q(t), \dot{q}(t)) dt$$

$$J = \int_a^b L(t, q(t), \dot{q}(t)) dt$$

$$J = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1}$$

### 11.3.6 EL v3

$$A = \sum L(x(t), \dot{x}(t)) \delta t$$

$$A = \sum L\left(\frac{x(t) + x(t-1)}{2}, \frac{x(t) - x(t-1)}{\delta t}\right) \delta t$$

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta x(t)} A = \sum \frac{\delta}{\delta x(t)} L\left(\frac{x(t) + x(t-1)}{2}, \frac{x(t) - x(t-1)}{\delta t}\right) \delta t$$

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta x(t)} A = \delta t \left[ \frac{\delta}{\delta x(t)} L\left(\frac{x(t) + x(t-1)}{2}, \frac{x(t) - x(t-1)}{\delta t}\right) + \frac{\delta}{\delta x(t)} L\left(\frac{x(t+1) + x(t)}{2}, \frac{x(t+1) - x(t)}{\delta t}\right) \right]$$

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta x(t)} A = \delta t \left[ \frac{1}{2} L_x + \frac{1}{\delta t} L_{\dot{x}} + \frac{1}{2} L_x - \frac{1}{\delta t} L_{\dot{x}} \right]$$

$$A = \int_a^b L(q(t), \dot{q}(t)) dt$$

$$A = \sum L(q(t), \dot{q}(t)) \delta t$$

$$A = \sum L\left(\frac{q(t) + q(t-1)}{2}, \frac{q(t) - q(t-1)}{\delta t}\right) \delta t$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\delta}{\delta q_i(t)} A &= \sum \frac{\delta}{\delta q_i(t)} L\left(\frac{q(t) - q(t-1)}{2}, \frac{q(t) - q(t-1)}{\delta t}\right) \delta t \\ \frac{\delta}{\delta q_i(t)} A &= \delta t \left[ \frac{\delta}{\delta q_i(t)} L\left(\frac{q(t) + q(t-1)}{2}, \frac{q(t) - q(t-1)}{\delta t}\right) + \frac{\delta}{\delta q_i(t)} L\left(\frac{q(t+1) + q(t)}{2}, \frac{q(t+1) - q(t)}{\delta t}\right) \right] \\ \frac{\delta}{\delta q_i(t)} A &= \delta t \left[ \frac{1}{2} L_{q_i} + \frac{1}{\delta t} L_{\dot{q}_i} + \frac{1}{2} L_{q_i} - \frac{1}{\delta t} L_{\dot{q}_i} + \frac{\delta}{\delta q_i(t)} L\left(\frac{q(t+1) + q(t)}{2}, \frac{q(t+1) - q(t)}{\delta t}\right) \right]\end{aligned}$$

## 11.4 The Euclidian metric

### 11.4.1 The Euclidian metric

For the Euclidian metric:

$$M = I$$

$$(dv)^T M dv = (dv)^T dv = dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2$$

$$Action = \int \sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2}$$

$$Action = \int \sqrt{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2} dt$$

$$Action = \int v dt$$

What are symmetries here? Gallilean group and?

### 11.4.2 Euclidian rotations

### 11.4.3 The Euclidan group

### 11.4.4 The Galilean group

## 11.5 Examples from Euler-Lagrange

### 11.5.1 Outcome

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta q} = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}}$$

$$L = \sqrt{(\dot{\mathbf{q}})^T \mathbf{M} \dot{\mathbf{q}}}$$

If  $M = I$ , then:

$$L = \sqrt{\dot{\mathbf{q}}^T \dot{\mathbf{q}}}$$

In 1 dimension, Euclid:

$$L = \sqrt{\dot{q}^2} \quad L = \dot{q}$$

So:

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta q} = \frac{\delta}{\delta q} \dot{q} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}} = 0$$

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}} = \frac{\delta}{\delta \dot{q}} \dot{q} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}} = 1$$

Into Euler-Lagrange:

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta q} = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}} = 0 = \frac{d}{dt} 1$$

In three dimensions:

$$L = \sqrt{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2}$$

So:

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta q} = \frac{\delta}{\delta q} \sqrt{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2} \frac{\delta L}{\delta q} = 0$$

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}} = \frac{\delta}{\delta \dot{q}} \sqrt{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2}$$

## 11.6 Other

### 11.6.1 Momentum

We define the momentum as:

$$p_j = \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{q}_j}$$

$$p_j = \frac{\delta}{\delta \dot{q}_j} \sqrt{(\dot{\mathbf{q}})^T \mathbf{M} \dot{\mathbf{q}}}$$

### 11.6.2 Force

# Chapter 12

## Symmetry

### 12.1 Introduction

#### 12.1.1 Symmetry

We have a system of particles or something. we can do a measure on it.

We can do functions on the system.

What is preserved is an invariant measure

We observe event, worldline. other observers can:

#### 12.1.2 Rotations

#### 12.1.3 Translations

#### 12.1.4 Boosts

Part here on adding velocities. show classical limit of normal adding them.

# Chapter 13

## Fields

### 13.1 Introduction

#### 13.1.1 Fields

#### 13.1.2 Action on a field

#### 13.1.3 The Euler-Lagrange equations for fields

## Part X

# Electromagnetism

## Chapter 14

# Electromagnetism, waves, action on a field, least action on a field and gauge theory

### 14.1 Introduction

#### 14.1.1 Introduction

$$\vec{\mathbf{F}} = e\vec{\mathbf{E}} \quad \vec{\mathbf{F}} = e\vec{v} \times \vec{\mathbf{B}} \quad \vec{\mathbf{F}} = e\vec{\mathbf{E}} + \vec{v} \times \vec{\mathbf{B}}$$

$$\text{div}\vec{\mathbf{B}} = 0 \quad \text{div}\vec{\mathbf{E}} =$$

#### 14.1.2 Electric fields

#### 14.1.3 Magnetic fields

#### 14.1.4 Electric potential

#### 14.1.5 Magnetic potential

#### 14.1.6 Coulomb's law

$$\vec{\mathbf{F}} = k_e \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$$

## Part XI

# Lagrangian formations



## Part XII

# Hamiltonian formations

## Chapter 15

# Hamiltonian

### 15.1 Introduction

#### 15.1.1 Legendre transformation