

102 , where v_{\perp} is normal component of charge rate to the vector, which connects the moving charge and observation
 103 point.

104 Expression for the scalar potential, created by the moving charge, for this case will be written down as follows:
 105
$$\phi(r, t) = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{r} \left(1 - \frac{v}{c} \cos\theta \right) \quad (2.22)$$

106 where $\phi(r)$ is scalar potential of fixed charge. The potential $\phi(r, t)$
 107 can be named scalar-vector, since it depends not only on the absolute value of charge, but also on speed and
 108 direction of its motion with respect to the observation point. Maximum value this potential has in the direction
 109 normal to the motion of charge itself. Moreover, if charge rate changes, which is connected with its acceleration,
 110 then can be calculated the electric fields, induced by the accelerated charge.

111 During the motion in the magnetic field, using the already examined method, we obtain:
 112
$$\mathbf{H} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{r^2} \left(\frac{v}{c} \sin\theta \right) \mathbf{e}_{\perp} \quad (2.23)$$

113 where v_{\perp} is speed normal to the direction of the magnetic field.
 114 If we apply the obtained results to the electromagnetic wave and to designate components fields on parallel
 115 speeds IS as $E_{\parallel}, H_{\parallel}$, and E_{\perp}, H_{\perp} as components normal to it, then with the conversion fields on components,
 116 parallel to speed will not change, but components, normal to the direction of speed are converted according to
 117 the rule, 1

118
$$E_{\parallel} \rightarrow E_{\parallel}, \quad H_{\parallel} \rightarrow H_{\parallel}, \quad E_{\perp} \rightarrow \gamma(E_{\perp} - \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{H}_{\perp}), \quad H_{\perp} \rightarrow \gamma(H_{\perp} + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{E}_{\perp}) \quad (2.23)$$

119 where c is speed of light.
 120 Conversions fields (2.23) they were for the first time obtained in the work [8].

121 If one assumes that the speed of system is summarized for the classical law of addition of velocities, i.e. the
 122 speed of final IS
 123

124 6 N K K ?=

125 relative to the initial system K is $v_N = v$, then we will obtain the matrix system of the differential equations
 126 of However, the iteration technique, utilized for obtaining the given relationships, it is not possible to consider
 127 strict, since its convergence is not explained Let us give a stricter conclusion in the matrix form [7].
 128
$$d\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{U} dv \quad (2)$$

129 Let us examine the totality IS of such, that IS K 1 moves with the speed v relative to IS K, IS K 2 moves
 130 with the same speed v relative to K 1, etc. If the module of the speed v is small (in comparison with the
 131 speed of light c), then for the transverse components fields on in IS K 1, K 2, etc. we have:
 132
$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{E}, \quad \mathbf{B} \rightarrow \mathbf{B} + \frac{1}{c} \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{E} \quad (2.24)$$

133 (2.24) Upon transfer to each following IS of field are here \mathbf{U} is matrix column fields on in the system K, and
 134 \mathbf{U}' is matrix column fields on in the system K'. obtained increases in E_{\parallel} and B_{\parallel} ,
 135
$$E_{\parallel} \rightarrow \gamma(E_{\parallel} + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B}_{\perp}), \quad B_{\parallel} \rightarrow \gamma(B_{\parallel} + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{E}_{\perp}) \quad (2)$$

136 Substituting (2.28) into system (2.27), we are convinced, that \mathbf{U}' is actually the solution of system (2.27):
 137
$$\exp(\mathbf{A} dv) \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{U}' \quad (2.28)$$

138 It remains to find this exponential curve by its expansion in the series:
 139
$$\exp(\mathbf{A} dv) = \mathbf{1} + \mathbf{A} dv + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{A}^2 (dv)^2 + \frac{1}{6} \mathbf{A}^3 (dv)^3 + \dots$$

140 where \mathbf{E} is unit matrix with the size 4
 141 \times . For this it is convenient to write down the matrix \mathbf{A} in the unit type form
 142
$$\mathbf{A} = \frac{v}{c} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.29)$$

143 And the elements of matrix exponential curve take the form where \mathbf{I} is the unit matrix 2×2 . It is not difficult
 144 to see that $\exp(\mathbf{A} dv) = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A} dv + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{A}^2 (dv)^2 + \dots$
 145
$$\exp(\mathbf{A} dv) = \begin{pmatrix} \cosh \frac{v}{c} dv & \sinh \frac{v}{c} dv \\ \sinh \frac{v}{c} dv & \cosh \frac{v}{c} dv \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.29)$$

152 This is conversions (2.23).
 153

154 7 III.

155 8 Unipolar Induction in the Concept of the Scalar-Vector 156 Potential

157 Let us examine the case, when there is a single long conductor, along which flows the current. We will as before
 158 consider that in the conductor is a system of the mutually inserted charges of the positive lattice $g+$ and free
 159 electrons $g-$, which in the absence current neutralize each other (Fig. 1).

The electric field, created by rigid lattice depending on the distance r from the center of the conductor, that is located along the axis z it takes the We will consider that the direction of the vector of electric field coincides with the direction r . If electronic flux moves with the speed, then the electric field of this flow is determined by the equality

$$(3.2) \text{ Adding (3.1) (3.2), we obtain: } 2 \frac{1}{2} \frac{4}{g} \frac{v}{E} \frac{c}{r} \text{ ?? ? ? ? ? = ? ? ? + ? ? ? ? .}$$

. This means that around the conductor with the current is an electric field, which corresponds to the negative charge of conductor. However, this field has insignificant value, since in the real conductors. This field can be discovered only with the current densities, which can be achieved in the superconductors, which is experimentally confirmed in works.

$$(3.4) \text{ z r } 1 \text{ g } + 1 \text{ g } - 1 \text{ v } \text{ v } \text{ Fig. ?? : Moving conductor with the current .Adding (3.3) and (3.4), we obtain: } 2 \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{2}{2} \frac{v}{v} \frac{g}{g} \frac{E}{E} \frac{r}{r} \text{ c ?? + ? ? = + ? ? ? ? , (3.3) } 2 \frac{1}{2} \frac{2}{2} \frac{v}{v} \frac{g}{g} \frac{E}{E} \frac{r}{r} \text{ c ?? ? ? ? ? ? = ? ? ? ? ? ? . (3.4) z r } 1 \text{ g } + 1 \text{ g } - 1 \text{ v } \text{ v } \text{ (3.5)}$$

In this relationship as the specific charge is undertaken its absolute value. since the speed of the mechanical motion of conductor is considerably more than the drift velocity of electrons, the second term in the brackets can be disregarded. In this case from (3.5) we obtain Let us examine the case, when very section of the conductor, on which with the speed $1 v$ flow the electrons, moves in the opposite direction with speed v (Fig. ??). In this case relationships (3.1) and (3.2) will take the form

If we conductor roll up into the ring and to revolve it then so that the linear speed of its parts would be equal v , then around this ring will appear the electric field, which corresponds to the presence on the ring of the specific charge indicated. But this means that the consists. During the motion of linear conductor with the current the electric field will be observed with respect to the fixed observer, but if observer will move together with the conductor, then such fields will be absent.

As is obtained the unipolar induction, with which on the fixed contacts a potential difference is obtained, it is easy to understand from Fig. 3. We will consider that $1 r$ and $2 r$ of the coordinate of the points of contact of the tangency of the contacts, which slide along the edges of the metallic plate, which moves with the same speed as the conductor, along which flows the current. Contacts are connected to the voltmeter, which is also fixed. Then, it is possible to calculate a potential difference between these contacts, after integrating relationship (3.6): But in order to the load, in this case to the voltmeter, to apply this potential difference, it is necessary sliding contacts to lock by the cross connection, on which there is no potential difference indicated. But since metallic plate moves together with the conductor, a potential difference is absent on it. It serves as that cross connection, which gives the possibility to convert this composite outline into the source emf with respect to the voltmeter. Now it is possible wire to roll up into the ring (Fig. ??) of one or several turns, and to feed it from the current source [9][10][11]. Moreover contacts 1 should be derived on the collector rings, which are located on the rotational axis and to them joined the friction fixed brushes. Thus, it is possible to obtain the revolving magnet. In this magnet should be placed the conducting disk with the opening, which revolves together with the turns of the wire, which serves as magnet, and with the aid of the fixed contacts, that slide on the generatrix of disk, tax voltage on the voltmeter. As the limiting case it is possible to take continuous metallic disk and to connect sliding contacts to the generatrix of disk and its axis. Instead of the revolving turn with the current it is possible to take the disk, magnetized in the axial direction, which is equivalent to turn with the current, in this case the same effect will be obtained.

Different combinations of the revolving and fixed magnets and disks are possible. , and a potential difference between the points $1 r$ and $2 r$ in the coordinate system, which moves together with the plate, will be equal .

Since in the fixed with respect to the magnet of the circuit of voltmeter the induced potential difference is absent, the potential difference indicated will be equal by the electromotive force of the generator examined. As earlier moving conducting plate can be rolled up into the disk with the opening, and the wire, along which flows the current into the ring with the current, which is the equivalent of the magnet, magnetized in the end direction.

Thus, the concept of scalar-vector potential gives answers to all presented questions.

9 IV. Conclusion

The unipolar induction was discovered still Faraday almost 200 years ago, but in the classical electrodynamics of final answer to that as and why work some constructions of unipolar generators, there is no up to now. Let us show that the concrete answers to all these questions can be obtained within the framework the concept of scalar-vector potential. This concept, obtained from the symmetrical laws of induction, assumes the dependence of the scalar potential of charge and pour on it from the charge rate. The symmetrization of the equations of induction is achieved by the way of their record with the use by substantial derivative. Different the schematics of unipolar generators are given and is examined their operating principle within the framework of the concept of scalarvector potential.



8

Figure 1: 8 Fe

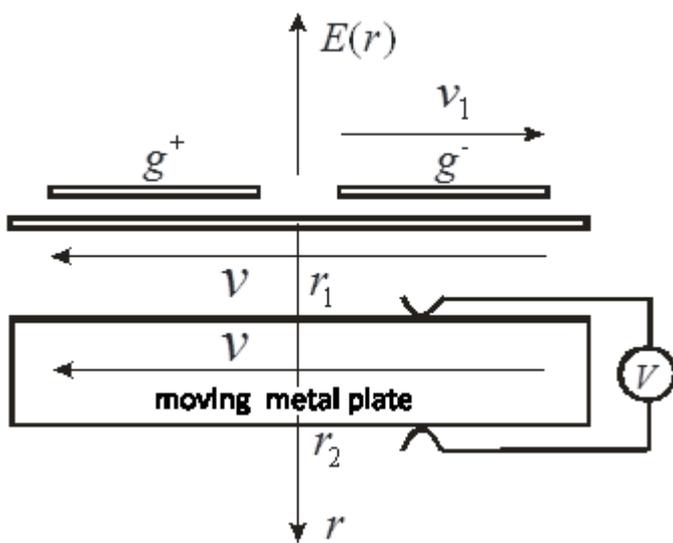


Figure 2:

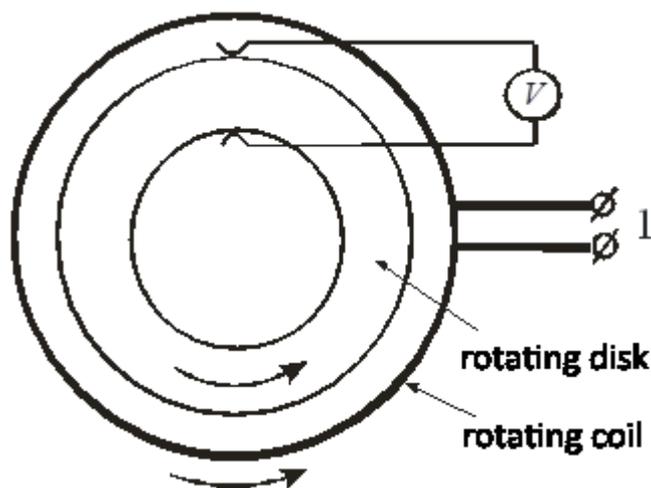
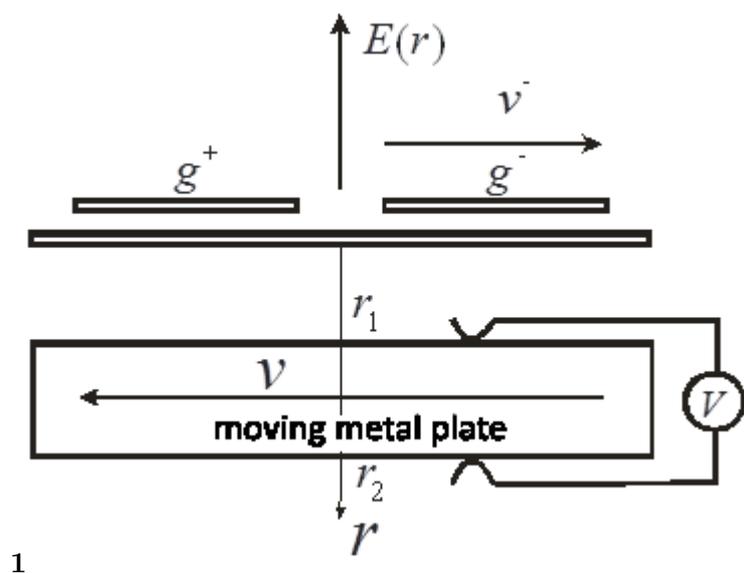


Figure 3:



1

Figure 4: Fig. 1 :

The relationship (2.21) attest to the fact that in the case of relative motion of frame of references, between the fields E and H there is a cross coupling, which were for the first time examined in the work.

The

$$E = \frac{2}{g} r \text{ outside the rod}$$

charged long rod with a linear density g decreases as $1/r$

[Note: (2.21) In relationships (2.19-2.21), which assume the , where r is distance from the central axis of the rod to the observation point.]

Figure 5:

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