

Physics II (PH 102)

Electromagnetism (Lecture 4)

Udit Raha

Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati

Jan 2020

1st Fundamental Theorem for Gradients

Theorem

If ϕ is a differentiable scalar field with continuous gradient $\mathbf{F} = \nabla\phi$ in \mathbb{R}^3 and A and B are any two points in this 3D space, then the total change in ϕ in going from A and B is

$$\int_C \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_A^B \nabla\phi \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_A^B d\phi = \phi(B) - \phi(A)$$

over any smooth path C joining A and B .

Note: Here we used the **CHAIN RULE**:

$$d\phi(x, y, z) = \left(\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial x}\right) dx + \left(\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial y}\right) dy + \left(\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial z}\right) dz = \nabla\phi \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

In other words, the integral of the gradient of a function over some interval is given by the value of the function at the boundaries.

Corollary

(1) $\int_A^B \nabla\phi \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is independent of path C .

Corollary

(2) $\oint \nabla\phi \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$, for EVERY closed path (\because end points are identical.)

2nd Fundamental Theorem for Gradients

Theorem

Let \mathbf{F} be a continuous vector field over \mathbb{R}^3 such that its line integral between any two points in space is independent of the path. Also, let ϕ be a scalar field over \mathbb{R}^3 such that

$$\phi(\mathbf{r}) = \int_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{r}} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}') \cdot d\mathbf{r}'$$

where $\mathbf{a} = (a_x, a_y, a_z)$ is some fixed reference point in the 3D space. Then it follows that $\nabla\phi = \mathbf{F}$.

Corollary

(1) If $\oint \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$ for EVERY closed path, then $\nabla\phi = \mathbf{F}$. The field \mathbf{F} is then said to be **CONSERVATIVE**, while the field ϕ is the **SCALAR POTENTIAL**.

Corollary

(2) Since $\nabla\phi = \mathbf{F}$, it must be that $\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times (\nabla\phi) = 0$.

Fundamental Theorem for Divergence

Theorem

Gauss' Theorem: Let V be a closed bounded region in \mathbb{R}^3 whose boundary is the smooth or piecewise smooth closed surface S with $\hat{\mathbf{N}}_{\text{out}}$ being the unit outward normal. If \mathbf{F} is a vector function with continuous partial derivatives in V , then the volume integral of its divergence over V is equal to the surface integral of the outer normal component of \mathbf{F} over the bounding surface S , i.e.,

$$\iiint_V (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}) dv = \oiint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{N}}_{\text{out}} dS.$$

Corollary

(1) If $\oiint \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 0$ for EVERY closed surface, then $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = 0$ IDENTICALLY, in which case \mathbf{F} is **SOLENOIDAL**.

Corollary

(2) If there exists a vector field \mathbf{A} , such that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$, then the identity $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) = 0$ implies $\oiint \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 0$ for EVERY closed surface in which case \mathbf{A} is termed as the **VECTOR POTENTIAL** of the field \mathbf{F} .

Corollaries (1) & (2): For every **SOLENOIDAL** vector field there exists a **VECTOR POTENTIAL** and vice versa.

Verification of Gauss' Theorem (Simple Example)

Example

Let $\mathbf{V} = x\hat{\mathbf{i}} + y\hat{\mathbf{j}} + z\hat{\mathbf{k}} \equiv \mathbf{r}$ and S be the surface of the sphere, $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$, enclosing the region V . Verify Gauss' Theorem.

- ▶ **Outward unit normal on S :** Define $F(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - a^2 = 0$.

Then,

$$\hat{\mathbf{N}} = \left(\frac{\nabla F}{|\nabla F|} \right)_S = \left[\frac{2(x\hat{\mathbf{i}} + y\hat{\mathbf{j}} + z\hat{\mathbf{k}})}{\sqrt{4(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)}} \right]_S = \frac{x\hat{\mathbf{i}} + y\hat{\mathbf{j}} + z\hat{\mathbf{k}}}{a} = \frac{\mathbf{r}}{a} = \hat{\mathbf{r}}$$

- ▶ $(\mathbf{V} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{N}})_S dS = (\mathbf{r} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}})_S dS = a dS$

- ▶ **Closed Surface Integral:**

$$\oiint_S \mathbf{V} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{N}} dS = a \oiint_S dS = a(4\pi a^2) = 4\pi a^3$$

- ▶ $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{V} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(z) = 3$

- ▶ **Volume Integral:**

$$\iiint_V \nabla \cdot \mathbf{V} dv = 3 \iiint_V dv = 3\left(\frac{4}{3}\pi a^3\right) = 4\pi a^3$$

- ▶ Hence, Gauss' Theorem is verified.

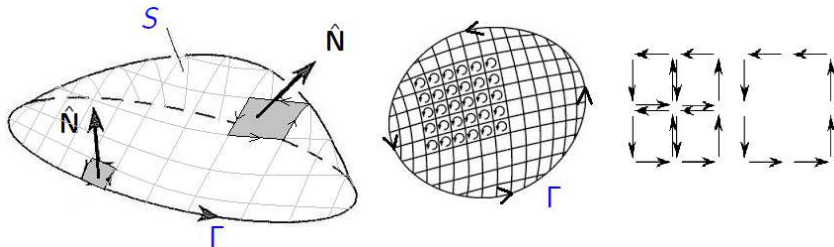
Fundamental Theorem For Curl

Theorem

Stokes' Theorem: Let S be a smooth orientable (i.e., two sided) open surface in \mathbb{R}^3 bounded by simple (i.e., nonintersecting), smooth or piecewise smooth closed curve Γ . If \mathbf{F} is a continuously differentiable vector field, then the surface integral of the normal component of its curl over the surface S is equal to the circulation of \mathbf{F} about Γ , i.e.,

$$\iint_S (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{N}} dS = \oint_{\Gamma} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r},$$

where for the surface S the direction of unit normal vector $\hat{\mathbf{N}}$ is determined by the right hand rule (traversing Γ in the positive direction.)



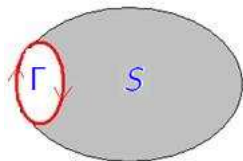
Fundamental Theorem for Curl (contd.)

Corollary

(1) The integral $\iint_S (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) \cdot d\mathbf{S}$ is independent of the geometry of the bounded open surface S , and depends ONLY on the nature of boundary curve Γ .

Corollary

(2) For EVERY closed surface S , $\oiint (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 0$ IDENTICALLY, since for ALL closed surfaces there are no boundary curves.



Corollary

(3) If $\oint \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$ for EVERY closed loop, then $\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = 0$ IDENTICALLY, in which case \mathbf{F} is **IRROTATIONAL**.

Verification of Stokes' Theorem (Simple Example)

Example

Let $\mathbf{F} = (2xz + 3y^2)\hat{\mathbf{j}} + 4yz^2\hat{\mathbf{k}}$ and S be the square in yz -plane, i.e., $x = 0$, with $0 \leq (y, z) \leq 1$. Verify Stokes' Theorem.

► $d\mathbf{S} = dydz\hat{\mathbf{i}} \rightarrow +$ sign chosen by right-hand rule

► $\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = (4z^2 - 2x)\hat{\mathbf{i}} + 2z\hat{\mathbf{k}}$

► **Surface Integral:** Evaluate with $x = 0$ on S

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_S (\nabla \times \mathbf{F})_{x=0} \cdot d\mathbf{S} &= 4 \int_{z=0}^{z=1} z^2 dz \int_{y=0}^{y=1} dy \\ &= 4/3\end{aligned}$$

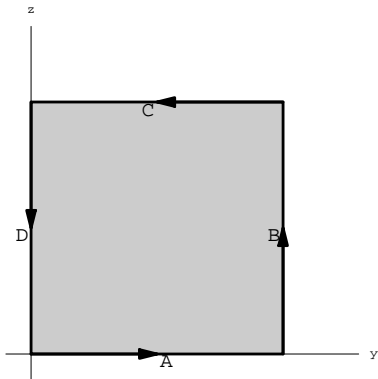
► **Contour Integral:** Break it into 4 Line Integrals

$$\oint_{ABCD} (\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r})_{x=0} = \oint_{ABCD} (3y^2 dy + 4yz^2 dz)$$

$$\int_A \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 1 \quad , \quad \int_B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 4/3,$$

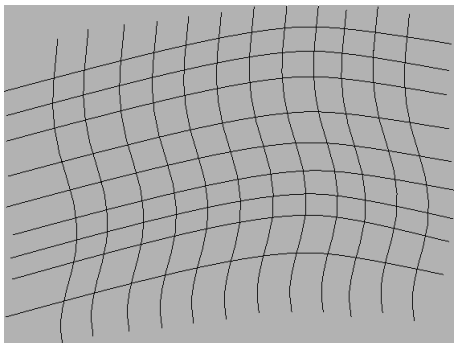
$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = -1 \quad , \quad \int_D \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0.$$

► $\oint_{ABCD} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 4/3$. Hence, Stokes' Theorem is verified



General Curvilinear Co-ordinate System

- ▶ In 3D geometry, *Curvilinear Co-ordinate Systems* refer to a systems where the co-ordinate lines are curved, unlike the familiar *Rectangular Cartesian Co-ordinate System* (x, y, z).
- ▶ The curvilinear system could be *orthogonal* in which co-ordinate lines always intersect at right angles (*Spherical Polar*, *Cylindrical*, *Parabolic Cylindrical*, *Paraboloidal*, *Elliptic Cylindrical*, *Ellipsoidal*, ...).
- ▶ Skew or *non-orthogonal* co-ordinate sytems are much complicated and seldom useful in physical applications.



General Curvilinear Co-ordinate System (contd.)

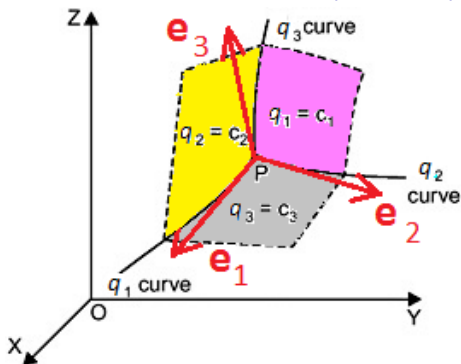
- Consider the co-ordinates of a point P in 3D space. The curvilinear coordinates, say $P(q_1, q_2, q_3)$ may be derived from the Cartesian coordinates $P(x, y, z)$ through certain unique & invertible relations in terms of smooth functions $f_{1,2,3}$ and $g_{1,2,3}$ called *Co-ordinate Transformations*:

$$\begin{aligned}q_1 &= f_1(x, y, z) & ; & & x &= g_1(q_1, q_2, q_3) \equiv f_1^{-1}, \\q_2 &= f_2(x, y, z) & ; & & y &= g_2(q_1, q_2, q_3) \equiv f_2^{-1}, \\q_3 &= f_3(x, y, z) & ; & & z &= g_3(q_1, q_2, q_3) \equiv f_3^{-1}.\end{aligned}$$

- The choice of the co-ordinate systems are fixed *only for convenience purpose*, often utilizing the *constraints/symmetries* of applications.
- *Cuboidal*, *Spherical* and *Cylindrical* symmetries are very common in Physical (electrodynamical) application, hence we shall deal with *Spherical Polar* and *Cylindrical curvilinear co-ordinate systems* and study their transformations to and from *Cartesian system*.

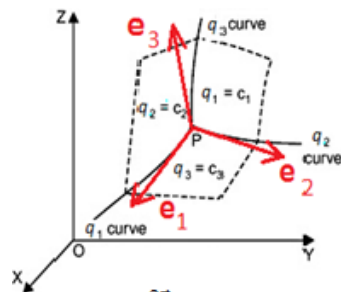
WARNING: All physics should be independent of the co-ordinate system used.

Typical Orthogonal Curvilinear System in 3D (q_1, q_2, q_3); $q_i \in \mathbb{R}$



- ▶ The curved surfaces $q_1 = c_1 = \text{const.}$, $q_2 = c_2 = \text{const.}$, and $q_3 = c_3 = \text{const.}$ are called **co-ordinate surfaces**. Any point $P(q_1, q_2, q_3)$ is the intersection of the three such co-ordinate surfaces.
- ▶ The orthogonal set of curves formed by the intersection of pairs of co-ordinate surfaces are called **co-ordinate lines/axes**.
- ▶ The **unit vector** ($\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3$), unlike the Cartesian ones ($\hat{i}, \hat{j}, \hat{k}$), do not point in specific directions in space. Their directions are instead specified by the tangents to the co-ordinate lines at each point $P(q_1, q_2, q_3)$.

Unit vectors ($\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2, \hat{e}_3$) as the Orthonormal Basis



Unit vector

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k} \equiv \vec{r}(x, y, z)$$

$$\vec{r} = \vec{r}(q_1, q_2, q_3)$$

$$\vec{A}(q_1, q_2, q_3) = A_1\hat{e}_1 + A_2\hat{e}_2 + A_3\hat{e}_3$$

A tangent vector to the q_i curve at P is $\frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial q_i}$

$$\frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial q_i} = h_i \hat{e}_i ; \quad \hat{e}_i \rightarrow \text{unit vector tangent to the coordinate curves}$$

$h_i \rightarrow \text{scale factor}$

A unit tangent vector in the direction of q_1 -axis : $\hat{e}_1 = \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial q_1} / \left| \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial q_1} \right|$

$$\hat{i} = \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial x} \Rightarrow h_x = \left| \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial x} \right| = 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{e}_1 \cdot \hat{e}_1 &= 1, & \hat{e}_2 \cdot \hat{e}_2 &= 1, & \hat{e}_3 \cdot \hat{e}_3 &= 1, \\ \hat{e}_1 \cdot \hat{e}_2 &= 0, & \hat{e}_1 \cdot \hat{e}_3 &= 0, & \hat{e}_2 \cdot \hat{e}_3 &= 0, \\ \hat{e}_1 \times \hat{e}_2 &= \hat{e}_3, & \hat{e}_2 \times \hat{e}_3 &= \hat{e}_1, & \hat{e}_3 \times \hat{e}_1 &= \hat{e}_2, \\ \hat{e}_1 \times \hat{e}_1 &= 0, & \hat{e}_2 \times \hat{e}_2 &= 0, & \hat{e}_3 \times \hat{e}_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

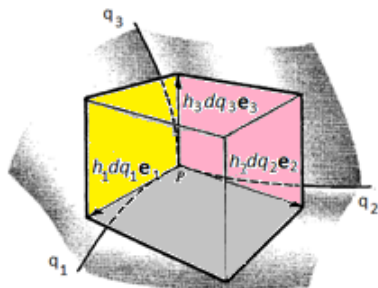
Line (Arc), Area and Volume elements

$$\vec{r} = \vec{r}(q_1, q_2, q_3)$$

$$d\vec{r} = \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial q_1} dq_1 + \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial q_2} dq_2 + \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial q_3} dq_3$$

$$= h_1 dq_1 \hat{e}_1 + h_2 dq_2 \hat{e}_2 + h_3 dq_3 \hat{e}_3$$

$$= ds_1 \hat{e}_1 + ds_2 \hat{e}_2 + ds_3 \hat{e}_3$$



Arc elements : $ds_1 = h_1 dq_1$, $ds_2 = h_2 dq_2$, $ds_3 = h_3 dq_3$

Volume element : $dV = h_1 h_2 h_3 dq_1 dq_2 dq_3$

Area elements : $d\vec{a}_1 = h_2 h_3 \hat{e}_1 dq_2 dq_3$

$$d\vec{a}_2 = h_1 h_3 \hat{e}_2 dq_1 dq_3$$

$$d\vec{a}_3 = h_1 h_2 \hat{e}_3 dq_1 dq_2$$

Gradient Operator (∇) for a scalar field $\Phi(\mathbf{r}) \equiv \Phi(q_1, q_2, q_3)$

$$\begin{aligned}d\Phi &= \vec{\nabla}\Phi \cdot d\vec{r} \\&= (f_1 \hat{e}_1 + f_2 \hat{e}_2 + f_3 \hat{e}_3) \cdot (h_1 \hat{e}_1 dq_1 + h_2 \hat{e}_2 dq_2 + h_3 \hat{e}_3 dq_3) \\&= h_1 f_1 dq_1 + h_2 f_2 dq_2 + h_3 f_3 dq_3\end{aligned}$$

$$d\Phi(q_1, q_2, q_3) = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial q_1} dq_1 + \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial q_2} dq_2 + \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial q_3} dq_3$$

$$f_1 = \frac{1}{h_1} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial q_1}, \quad f_2 = \frac{1}{h_2} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial q_2}, \quad \text{and} \quad f_3 = \frac{1}{h_3} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial q_3}$$

$$\vec{\nabla}\Phi = \frac{\hat{e}_1}{h_1} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial q_1} + \frac{\hat{e}_2}{h_2} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial q_2} + \frac{\hat{e}_3}{h_3} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial q_3} \Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} = \frac{\hat{e}_1}{h_1} \frac{\partial}{\partial q_1} + \frac{\hat{e}_2}{h_2} \frac{\partial}{\partial q_2} + \frac{\hat{e}_3}{h_3} \frac{\partial}{\partial q_3}$$

Divergence ($\nabla \cdot$), Curl ($\nabla \times$), and Laplacian (∇^2) Operators

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = \frac{1}{h_1 h_2 h_3} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial q_1} (A_1 h_2 h_3) + \frac{\partial}{\partial q_2} (A_2 h_1 h_3) + \frac{\partial}{\partial q_3} (A_3 h_1 h_2) \right]$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = \frac{1}{h_1 h_2 h_3} \begin{vmatrix} h_1 \hat{e}_1 & h_2 \hat{e}_2 & h_3 \hat{e}_3 \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial q_1} & \frac{\partial}{\partial q_2} & \frac{\partial}{\partial q_3} \\ A_1 h_1 & A_2 h_2 & A_3 h_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\vec{\nabla}^2 \Phi = \frac{1}{h_1 h_2 h_3} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} \left(\frac{h_2 h_3}{h_1} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial q_1} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} \left(\frac{h_1 h_3}{h_2} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial q_2} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial u_3} \left(\frac{h_1 h_2}{h_3} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial q_3} \right) \right]$$