

## Lecture 6

# The Curl of a Vector Field

### 6.1 Definition

So far, we have defined two applications of the operator,  $\nabla$ :

- $\nabla\phi$  - the **gradient** of a *scalar* field - the result is a new *vector* field;
- $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{V}$  - the **divergence** of a *vector* field - the results is a new *scalar* field.

We now introduce a third operation involving  $\nabla$ :

- $\nabla \times \mathbf{V}$  - the **curl** of a *vector* field - the result is a new *vector* field.

The link between *curl* and the vector cross product is indicated by the  $\times$  symbol. We can see the similarities by looking at the definition of the curl in Cartesian coordinates:

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{i} \left( \frac{\partial V_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial V_y}{\partial z} \right) + \mathbf{j} \left( \frac{\partial V_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial V_z}{\partial x} \right) + \mathbf{k} \left( \frac{\partial V_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial V_x}{\partial y} \right) \quad (6.1)$$

where  $\mathbf{V} = V_x \mathbf{i} + V_y \mathbf{j} + V_z \mathbf{k}$ .

The above definition is easier to remember using the determinant form,

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{V} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ V_x & V_y & V_z \end{vmatrix}$$

Despite the similarities between the algebraic cross product and the curl operation, there is one important difference. The vector  $\nabla \times \mathbf{V}$  is not necessarily orthogonal to the vector  $\mathbf{V}$ . The direction of  $\nabla \times \mathbf{V}$  can be at any angle to  $\mathbf{V}$  – it can even be parallel to it.

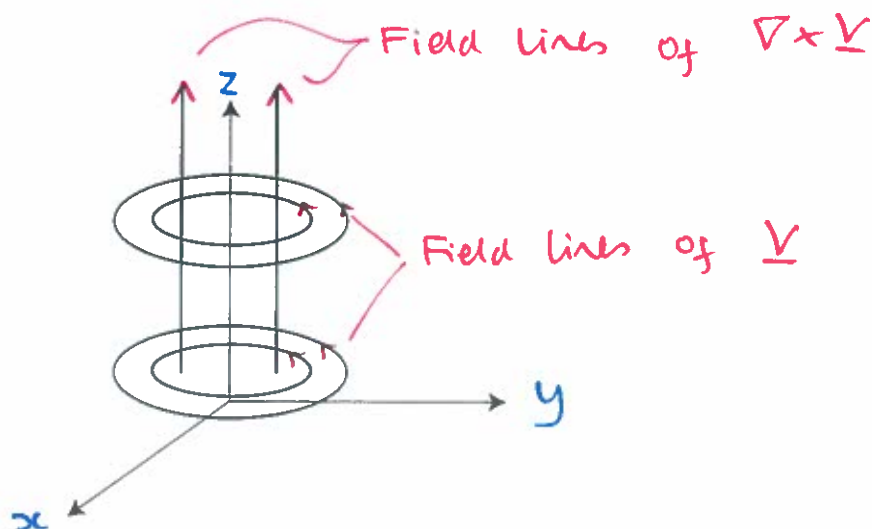
**Example**

Find the field lines of the velocity field  $\mathbf{V} = -\Omega y \mathbf{i} + \Omega x \mathbf{j}$  ( $\Omega$  is a constant) and evaluate  $\nabla \times \mathbf{V}$ .

Field lines:  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-\Omega x}{\Omega y} \Rightarrow x^2 + y^2 = \text{const}$   
(circles centred on  $z$  axis)

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{V} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \partial/\partial x & \partial/\partial y & \partial/\partial z \\ -\Omega y & \Omega x & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \mathbf{k} (\Omega - (-\Omega)) = 2\Omega \mathbf{k}$$

Looking again at  $\mathbf{V}$ ,  $|\mathbf{V}| = \sqrt{(\Omega y)^2 + (\Omega x)^2} = r\Omega$   
i.e. solid-body rotation



The vector field  $\mathbf{V} = -\Omega y \mathbf{i} + \Omega x \mathbf{j}$  represents solid body rotation with angular velocity  $\Omega$ .  $\nabla \times \mathbf{V}$  has constant magnitude  $2\Omega$  and direction parallel to the axis of rotation. For all 2-D vector fields, the curl field is normal to the plane of the original field.

**6.2 Useful identities**

Two important identities are:

- $\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) = 0$  All curl fields are solenoidal
- $\nabla \times (\nabla \phi) = 0$  All vector fields from  $\mathbf{V} = \nabla \phi$  have zero curl

where  $\mathbf{A}$  is any vector field, and  $\phi$  is any scalar field.

In the first of the above identities, we take the curl of  $\mathbf{A}$  to obtain a new vector field and then take the divergence of this new field. The identity tells us that *all curl fields are solenoidal* (even if  $\mathbf{A}$  is not, itself, solenoidal).

In the second identity, we take the curl of the vector field obtained by taking the gradient of the scalar field,  $\phi$ . The identity tells us that all vector fields obtained from this *scalar potential* process have zero curl.

The following identities are also useful and can be proved by expanding in Cartesian form (all are in the Maths Data Book). If  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are vector fields, and  $\phi$  is a scalar field,

$$\nabla \times (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = \nabla \times \mathbf{A} + \nabla \times \mathbf{B} \quad , \quad (6.2)$$

$$\nabla \times (\phi \mathbf{A}) = \nabla \phi \times \mathbf{A} + \phi \nabla \times \mathbf{A} \quad , \quad (6.3)$$

$$\nabla \times (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) = (\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{A} - (\mathbf{A} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{B} + (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B}) \mathbf{A} - (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{B} \quad , \quad (6.4)$$

$$\nabla(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) = (\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{A} + (\mathbf{A} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{B} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) + \mathbf{A} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{B}) \quad . \quad (6.5)$$

Here, we see again the *scalar operator* that we met in Lecture 4, e.g.  $(\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{A}$ . The brackets are not always used because  $\nabla \mathbf{A}$  is not a defined operation. In Cartesian coordinates,  $(\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{A}$  expands as follows,

$$(\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{A} = \left( \overbrace{B_x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + B_y \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + B_z \frac{\partial}{\partial z}}^{\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla} \right) \mathbf{A} \quad (6.6)$$

$$= \mathbf{i} \left( B_x \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial x} + B_y \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial y} + B_z \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial z} \right) \quad (6.7)$$

$$+ \mathbf{j} \left( B_x \frac{\partial A_y}{\partial x} + B_y \frac{\partial A_y}{\partial y} + B_z \frac{\partial A_y}{\partial z} \right) \quad (6.8)$$

$$+ \mathbf{k} \left( B_x \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial x} + B_y \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial y} + B_z \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial z} \right) \quad . \quad (6.9)$$

## 6.3 Curl in non-Cartesian coordinate systems

We include here the cylindrical polar and spherical polar forms of the curl operation,  $\nabla \times \mathbf{V}$ .

If  $\mathbf{V}$  is defined in cylindrical polar coordinates,  $\mathbf{V} = V(r, \theta, z)$ ,

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{V} = \frac{1}{r} \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{e}_r & r\mathbf{e}_\theta & \mathbf{e}_z \\ \partial/\partial r & \partial/\partial \theta & \partial/\partial z \\ V_r & rV_\theta & V_z \end{vmatrix} \quad . \quad (6.10)$$

If  $\mathbf{V}$  is defined in spherical polar coordinates,  $\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{V}(r, \theta, \phi)$ ,

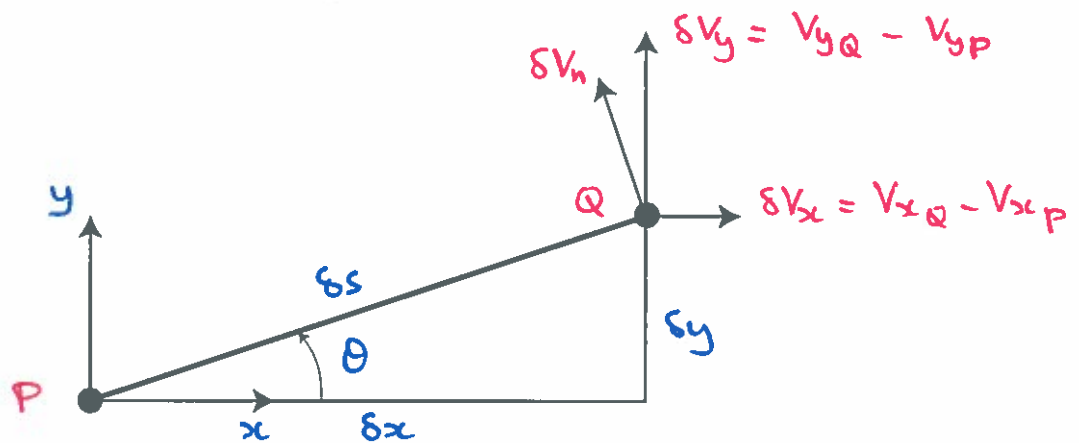
$$\nabla \times \mathbf{V} = \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{e}_r & r\mathbf{e}_\theta & r\sin\theta\mathbf{e}_\phi \\ \partial/\partial r & \partial/\partial \theta & \partial/\partial \phi \\ V_r & rV_\theta & r\sin\theta V_\phi \end{vmatrix}. \quad (6.11)$$

## 6.4 Physical interpretation of curl

We have seen in the example in Section 6.1 that curl is linked to the angular velocity of a particle in the velocity vector field  $\mathbf{V}$ . We now explore that connection further.

For a 2-D velocity field in Cartesian coordinates,  $\mathbf{V} = V_x \mathbf{i} + V_y \mathbf{j}$ , the curl of  $\mathbf{V}$  is,

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{V} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \partial/\partial x & \partial/\partial y & \partial/\partial z \\ V_x & V_y & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \mathbf{k} \left( \frac{\partial V_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial V_x}{\partial y} \right) \quad (6.12)$$



What is the physical significance of  $(\partial V_y / \partial x - \partial V_x / \partial y)$ ? Two points,  $P$  and  $Q$ , are separated by a small line element, of length  $\delta s$ , inclined at an angle  $\theta$  to the  $x$ -axis. The difference in the  $x$ - and  $y$ - components of velocity at  $P$  and  $Q$  can be obtained from a Taylor expansion about  $P$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \delta V_x &\approx \frac{\partial V_x}{\partial x} \delta x + \frac{\partial V_x}{\partial y} \delta y \\ \delta V_y &\approx \frac{\partial V_y}{\partial x} \delta x + \frac{\partial V_y}{\partial y} \delta y \end{aligned}$$

where the derivatives are evaluated at  $P$ . The component of  $\delta \mathbf{V}$  perpendicular to  $PQ$  is,

$$\delta V_n = \delta V_y \cos \theta - \delta V_x \sin \theta$$

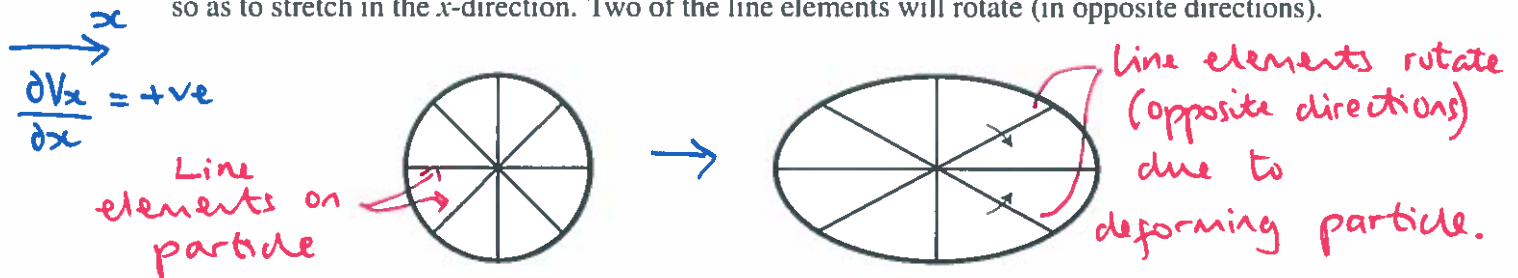
and, noting that  $\delta x = \delta s \cos \theta$  and  $\delta y = \delta s \sin \theta$ , we have

$$\delta V_n = \left( \frac{\partial V_y}{\partial x} \delta s \cos \theta + \frac{\partial V_y}{\partial y} \delta s \sin \theta \right) \cos \theta - \left( \frac{\partial V_x}{\partial x} \delta s \cos \theta + \frac{\partial V_x}{\partial y} \delta s \sin \theta \right) \sin \theta \quad (6.13)$$

As  $\delta s \rightarrow 0$ , the angular velocity of the line element  $\delta s$  is,

$$\frac{dV_n}{ds} = \frac{\partial V_y}{\partial x} \cos^2 \theta - \frac{\partial V_x}{\partial y} \sin^2 \theta + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial V_y}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial V_x}{\partial x} \right) \sin 2\theta \quad (6.14)$$

The angular velocity of our line element, therefore, depends on  $\theta$ . This is because a fluid particle is, in general, deforming as well as rotating. Consider the circular fluid particle below, with 4 line elements drawn on the particle. If  $V_x$  increases with  $x$ , the fluid particle will deform so as to stretch in the  $x$ -direction. Two of the line elements will rotate (in opposite directions).



We can see that the instantaneous *mean* angular velocity of the fluid particle (centred at  $P$ ) is obtained by averaging over all  $\theta$ . Denoting the mean angular velocity by  $\Omega$ ,

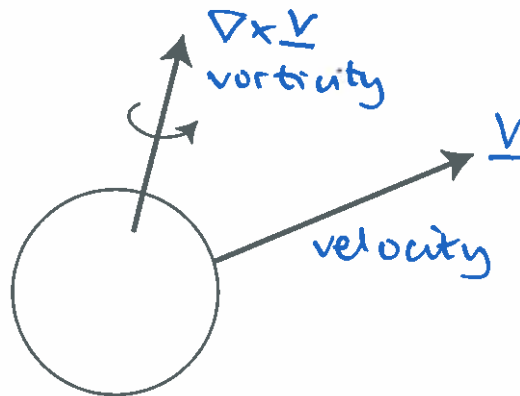
$$\Omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{dV_n}{ds} d\theta = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial V_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial V_x}{\partial y} \right) \quad (6.15)$$

since,  $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 \theta d\theta = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 \theta d\theta = 1/2$  and  $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \sin 2\theta d\theta = 0$ .

The important result is that, for 2-D fields,

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{V} = \left( \frac{\partial V_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial V_x}{\partial y} \right) \mathbf{k} = 2\Omega \mathbf{k} \quad (6.16)$$

The local magnitude of the curl of the velocity field is equal to twice the instantaneous mean angular velocity of a fluid particle at that point. We have shown this for 2-D flows, but the same is true in the general 3-D case: the curl vector points in the direction of the axis of rotation of the fluid particle. In fluid mechanics,  $\nabla \times \mathbf{V}$  is called the vorticity.



Since all curl fields are solenoidal,  $\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{V}) = 0$ , then there can be no sources or sinks of vorticity within the fluid flowfield (vorticity must be generated at solid boundaries).

## 6.5 Irrotational vector fields and the scalar potential

A vector field  $\mathbf{V}$  which has  $\nabla \times \mathbf{V} = 0$  everywhere is called an *irrotational* field.

If a 3-D vector field  $\mathbf{V}$  is irrotational then all three components of  $\nabla \times \mathbf{V}$  must be zero. In Cartesian coordinates,

$$\left( \frac{\partial V_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial V_y}{\partial z} \right) = \left( \frac{\partial V_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial V_z}{\partial x} \right) = \left( \frac{\partial V_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial V_x}{\partial y} \right) = 0 \quad (6.17)$$

There is a close connection between an irrotational field, where  $\nabla \times \mathbf{V} = 0$ , and the scalar potential,  $\phi$ . We found in Lecture 4 that, although it is always possible to obtain a vector field  $\mathbf{V}$  from a given scalar field  $\phi$  using the gradient ( $\mathbf{V} = \nabla \phi$ ), it is not always possible to find a scalar field that will yield a given vector field using  $\mathbf{V} = \nabla \phi$ . i.e., only certain types of vector fields are associated with scalar potentials.

We have already mentioned the identity,

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \phi) = 0$$

which is true for all differentiable scalar fields,  $\phi$ . This implies,

- If  $\mathbf{V} = \nabla \phi$ , then  $\nabla \times \mathbf{V} = 0$  and  $\mathbf{V}$  is irrotational.
- Conversely, if  $\mathbf{V}$  is irrotational, we can find a scalar potential  $\phi$  such that  $\mathbf{V} = \nabla \phi$ .

### Example

If  $\mathbf{V} = (kx)\mathbf{i} - (ky)\mathbf{j}$ , (for  $y > 0$ ), determine if a scalar potential exists and, if so, find the scalar potential function  $\phi = \phi(x, y)$ .

Check to see if scalar potential exists:

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{V} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \partial/\partial x & \partial/\partial y & \partial/\partial z \\ kx & -ky & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 0\mathbf{i} + 0\mathbf{j} + 0\mathbf{k}$$

Field is irrotational  $\therefore$  scalar potential exists

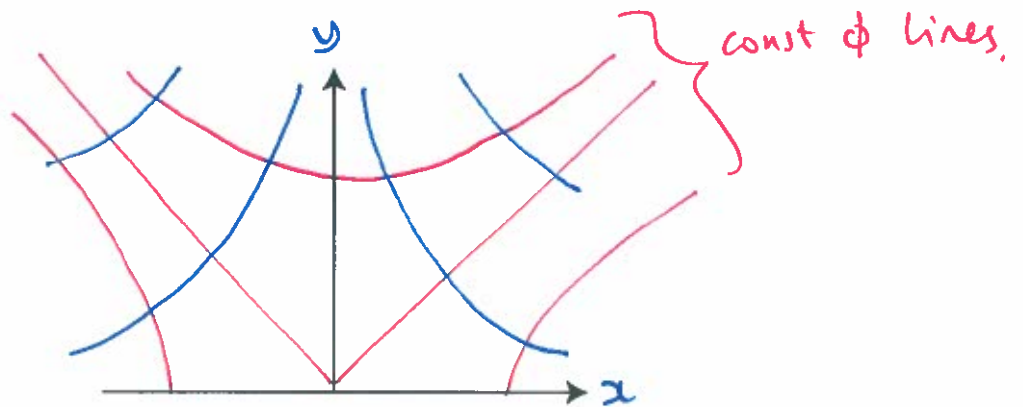
$$\underline{V} = \nabla \phi$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} = V_x = kx \quad \therefore \quad \phi = \frac{kx^2}{2} + f(y, z)$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} = V_y = -ky \quad \therefore \quad \phi = -\frac{ky^2}{2} + g(x, z)$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} = V_z = 0 \quad \therefore \quad \phi = h(x, y)$$

$$\phi = \frac{kx^2}{2} - \frac{ky^2}{2} + c$$



You can now do Examples Paper 2: Q4, 5, 6 and 7