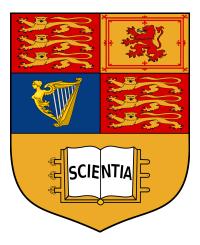
Multivariable Calculus + Differential Equations Concise Notes

MATH50004

Term 1 Content

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Colour Code - Definitions are green in these notes, Consequences are red and Causes are blue

Content from MATH40004 assumed to be known.

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1 Vector Calculus

1.1 Prelim

Definition 1.1.1 - Einstein Summation Convention

$$a_i x_i = \sum_{i=1}^3 x_i$$

Definition 1.1.2 - The Kronecker delta

$$\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

Definition 1.1.3 - The Permutation Symbol

$$\epsilon_{ijk} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if any 2 elements } i, j, k \text{ equal} \\ 1, & \text{if } i, j, k \text{ a cyclic permutation of } 1, 2, 3 \\ -1, & \text{if } i, j, k \text{ an acyclic permutation } 1, 3, 2 \end{cases}$$

Formula - Relation between Kroenecker Delta and Permutation Symbol

$$\epsilon_{ijk}\epsilon_{klm} = \delta_{jl}\delta_{km} - \delta_{jm}\delta_{kl}$$

$$\epsilon_{ijk}\epsilon_{ilm} = \delta_{jl}\delta_{km} - \delta_{jm}\delta kl$$

Definition 1.1.4 - Vector Products

Here are some identities:

•
$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = a_i b_i$$

•
$$[\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}]_i = \epsilon_{ijk} a_j b_k$$

$$\bullet \ \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} \Rightarrow [a \times b]_i = \epsilon_{ijk} a_j b_k$$

•
$$\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{c} = \epsilon_{ijk} a_i b_j c_k$$

•
$$\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c})\mathbf{b} - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})\mathbf{c} \Rightarrow [\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})]_i = (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c})b_i - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})c_i$$

1.2 Gradient, Div, and Curl

Definition 1.2 - Gradient, Directional Derivatives

 $\phi = \text{constant}$, defines a surface in 3D, varying the constant yields a family of surfaces.

$$\hat{\mathbf{n}}\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} = \nabla = (\frac{\delta}{\delta x}, \frac{\delta}{\delta y}, \frac{\delta}{\delta z}) \Rightarrow \nabla \phi = \frac{\delta \phi}{\delta x} + \frac{\delta \phi}{\delta y} + \frac{\delta \phi}{\delta z}$$

Thus, directional derivative towards $\mathbf{s} = \frac{\delta \phi}{\delta s} = \nabla \phi \cdot \hat{\mathbf{s}}$

In **cylindrical coordinates** r, θ, z parametrized by $x = r \cos \theta, y = r \sin \theta$ yields $\nabla \phi = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \frac{\delta \phi}{\delta r} + \frac{\hat{\theta}}{r} \frac{\delta \phi}{\delta \theta} + \mathbf{k} \frac{\delta \phi}{\delta z}$

Definition 1.2.3 - Tangent Plane to $\phi(P)$

$$(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_p) \cdot (\nabla \phi)_P = 0$$

$$\left(\frac{\delta \phi}{\delta x}\right)_P (x - x_P) + \left(\frac{\delta \phi}{\delta y}\right)_P (y - y_P) + \left(\frac{\delta \phi}{\delta z}\right)_P (z - z_P) = 0$$

1.3 Divergence & Curl

Definition 1.3.1 - Divergence and Curl

A a vector function of position

$$\mathbf{Div} \ \mathbf{A} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} = \frac{\delta A_1}{\delta x} + \frac{\delta A_2}{\delta y} + \frac{\delta A_3}{\delta z} \text{ where } A = A_1 \hat{\mathbf{i}} + A_2 \hat{\mathbf{j}} + A_3 \hat{\mathbf{k}}$$

$$\mathbf{Curl} \ \mathbf{A} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{i}} \left(\frac{\delta A_3}{\delta y} - \frac{\delta A_2}{\delta z} \right) - \hat{\mathbf{j}} \left(\frac{\delta A_3}{\delta x} - \frac{\delta A_1}{\delta z} \right) + \hat{\mathbf{k}} \left(\frac{\delta A_2}{\delta x} - \frac{\delta A_1}{\delta y} \right)$$

Definition - Laplacian Operator

$$\nabla^2 \phi = \operatorname{div}(\nabla \phi) = \frac{\delta^2 \phi}{\delta x^2} + \frac{\delta^2 \phi}{\delta y^2} + \frac{\delta^2 \phi}{\delta z^2}$$

1.4 Operations with Grad operator

Resulting Equalities

(i)
$$\nabla(\phi_1 + \phi_2) = \nabla\phi_1 + \nabla\phi_2$$

(ii)
$$\operatorname{div} (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = \operatorname{div} \mathbf{A} + \operatorname{div} \mathbf{B}$$

(iii)
$$\operatorname{curl} (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{A} + \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{B}$$

(iv)
$$\nabla(\phi\psi) = \phi\nabla\psi + \psi\nabla\phi$$

(v)
$$\operatorname{div}(\phi \mathbf{A}) = \phi \operatorname{div} \mathbf{A} + \nabla \phi \cdot \mathbf{A}$$

(vi)
$$\operatorname{curl}(\phi \mathbf{A}) = \phi \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{A} + \nabla \phi \times \mathbf{A}$$

(vii)
$$\operatorname{div}(\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{B} \cdot \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A} \cdot \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{B}$$

(viii)
$$\operatorname{curl}(\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) = (\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} \operatorname{div} \mathbf{A} - (\mathbf{A} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} \operatorname{div} \mathbf{B}$$

(ix)
$$\nabla (\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) = (\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{A} + (\mathbf{A} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{B} \times \text{curl } \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A} \times \text{curl } \mathbf{B}$$

(x) curl
$$(\nabla \phi) = 0$$

(xi) curl (curl
$$\mathbf{A}$$
) = ∇ (div \mathbf{A}) – $\nabla^2 \mathbf{A}$

(xii) div (curl
$$\mathbf{A}$$
) = 0

1 Integration

Definition 1.4.6 - Scalar and Vector Fields

If at each point of region V, scalar function ϕ defined - ϕ a scalar field over VSimilarly if vector function A defined $\forall v \in V$, A a vector field. If curl A = 0, A is an irrotational vector field. If div A = 0, A a solenoidal vector field

1.5 Path Integrals

Definition 1.5.1 - Definition of a Path Integral

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\sum_{n=1}^N f_n \delta s_n = \int_{\gamma} f ds \Rightarrow \int_{\gamma} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} \int_{\gamma} \mathbf{F} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{t}} ds \text{ where } \hat{\mathbf{t}} \text{ is the normalized vector tangent to the path}$$

Definition 1.5.3 - Conservative forces

If $F = \nabla \phi$ for a differentiable scalar function ϕ , F is said to be a conservative field, which has the following properties:

$$\int_{\gamma} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \phi(B) - \phi(A)$$

Result independent of path joining **A** and **B**, in particular for γ a closed curve $(B \equiv A)$ We have:

$$\oint_{\gamma} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$$

Call this a circulation of F around γ

If a vector field \mathbf{F} s.t $\oint_{\gamma} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$, for any closed curve γ say \mathbf{F} a conservative field, if $\mathbf{F} = \nabla \phi \implies \mathbf{F}$ conservative. If \mathbf{F} conservative \implies can always find differentiable scalar function ϕ s.t $\mathbf{F} = \nabla \phi$, call ϕ the **potential of field F**

Definition 1.5.4 - Calculation of Path Integrals

When $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ and the path γ can be parametrized by (x(t), y(t), z(t)), then:

$$\mathbf{r} = x(t)\hat{\mathbf{i}} + y(t)\hat{\mathbf{j}} + z(t)\hat{\mathbf{k}} \Rightarrow d\mathbf{r} = \frac{dx}{dt}\hat{\mathbf{i}} + \frac{dy}{dt}\hat{\mathbf{j}} + \frac{dz}{dt}\hat{\mathbf{k}}$$

$$\implies \int_{\gamma} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \left(\mathbf{F}_1 \frac{dx}{dt} + \mathbf{F}_2 \frac{dy}{dt} + \mathbf{F}_3 \frac{dz}{dt} \right) dt$$

1.6 Surface Integrals

Definition 1.6.1 - Surface Integral

Consider a surface S, where we find the surface integral of f = f(P) over S. Dividing S into small elements of area δS_i , with f_i the values of f at typical points P_i of δS_i . The surface integral of f over S is

$$\int_{S} f dS = \lim_{\substack{N \to \infty \\ \max(\delta S_n) \to 0}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} f_n \delta S_n$$

f may be a vector or a scalar.

1.6.2Types of Surfaces

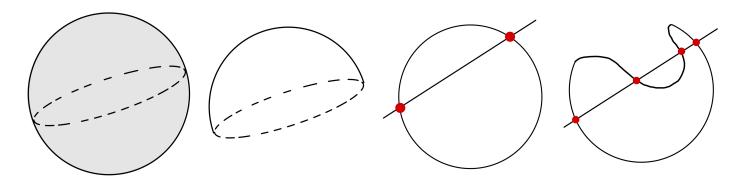


Figure 1: Closed Surface

Figure 2: Open Surface

Figure 3: Convex Surface Figure 4: Non-Convex Surface

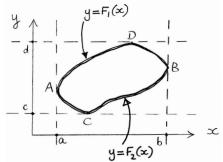
Definitions

- 1. Closed Surface Divides 3D space into 2 non-connected regions; interior and exterior.
- 2. Open Surface Does not divide 3D space into 2 non-connected regions has a rim which can be represented by closed

Can think of closed surfaces as sum of 2 open surfaces.

3. Convex Surface - A surface which is crossed by a straight line at most twice

1.6.3Evaluating surface integrals for plane surfaces in x-v plane



dS infinitesimal area \implies think of as approx. plane.

Vector areal element dS is the vector $\hat{\mathbf{n}}dS$ for $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ the unit normal vector to dS.

For a plane lying in z = 0, we can say dS = dxdy

For a rectangle, x = a, b and y = c, d circumscribing convex S. We let

$$y = \begin{cases} F_1(x) & \text{upper half ADB} \\ F_2(x) & \text{lower half ACB} \end{cases}$$

Area of
$$S = \int_{S} dS = \int_{x=a}^{x=b} \int_{y=F_{2}(x)}^{y=F_{1}(x)} dy dx = \int_{a}^{b} [F_{1}(x) - F_{2}(x)] dx$$

For f(x,y) a function of position

$$\int_S f dS = \int_{x=a}^{x=b} \int_{y=F_2(x)}^{y=F_1(x)} f(x,y) dy dx$$

Equivalently;

$$x = \begin{cases} G_1(x) & \text{right half CBD} \\ G_2(x) & \text{left half CAD} \end{cases}$$

Area of
$$S = \int_{S} dS = \int_{c}^{d} G_{1}(y) - G_{2}(y)dy$$

$$\int_{S} f dS = \int_{y=c}^{y=d} \int_{x=G_{2}(x)}^{x=G_{1}(x)} f(x,y) dx dy$$

1.6.5 Projection of an area onto a plane

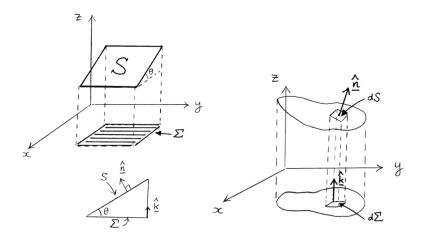


Figure 9: Left; Projection of plane area S onto x-y plane Figure 9: Right; Projection of curved surface S onto x-y plane

$$dS = \frac{d\Sigma}{|\hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{k}}|}$$

1.6.6 The Projection Theorem

P a point on surface S, which at no point is orthogonal to \mathbf{k}

$$\int_{S} f(P)dS = \int_{\Sigma} f(P) \frac{dx \, dy}{|\hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{k}}|}$$

For Σ a projection of S onto z=0, with $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ normal to S

For S given by $z = \phi(x, y)$

$$\int_{S} f(x, y, z) dS = \int_{\Sigma_{z}} f(x, y, \phi(x, y)) \frac{dx \, dy}{|\hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{k}}|}$$

Projecting onto x = 0 or y = 0

$$\int_S f(P) dS = \int_{\Sigma_x} f(x,y,\phi(x,y)) \frac{dy\ dz}{|\hat{\mathbf{n}}\cdot\hat{\mathbf{i}}|} = \int_{\Sigma_y} f(x,y,\phi(x,y)) \frac{dx\ dz}{|\hat{\mathbf{n}}\cdot\hat{\mathbf{j}}|}$$

 Σ_x , projection onto $x=0, \Sigma_y$, projection onto y=0

1.7 Volume Integrals

Definition 1.7.1 - Volume Integral

Considering a volume τ , split into N subregions, $\{\delta\tau_i\}$, with $\{P_i\}$ typical points of $\{\delta\tau_i\}$.

$$\int_{\tau} f d\tau = \lim_{\substack{N \to \infty \\ \max(\delta \tau_i) \to 0}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(P_i) \delta \tau_i$$

In Cartesian coordinates, the volume element $d\tau = dxdydz$

1.8 Results relating line, surface and volume integrals

1.8.1 Green's Theorem in the plane

R a closed plane region bounded by a simple plane closed convex curve in x-y plane. L, M continuous functions of x, y with continuous derivatives throughout R. Then:

$$\oint_C (L \ dx + M \ dy) = \int_R (\frac{\partial M}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial y}) dx dy,$$

For C the boundary of R described in the counter-clockwise sense.

1.8.2 Vector forms of Green's Theorem

(i) 2D Stokes Theorem Let $F = L\mathbf{i} + M\mathbf{j}$ and $d\mathbf{r} = dx\mathbf{i} + dy\mathbf{j}$. Then

$$\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial y}\right) \mathbf{k}$$

Over region R write dxdy = dS.

$$\oint_C F \cdot dr = \int_R k \cdot \text{curl } F dS
= \int_R \text{curl } F \cdot d\mathbf{S}, \qquad d\mathbf{S} = \hat{\mathbf{k}} dS$$
(1)

(ii) Divergence Theorem in 2DLet $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} - L\mathbf{j}$. Then

$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial M}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial y}$$

So we can rewrite Green's Theorem as

$$\int_{R} \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} dx dy = \oint_{C} F \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} ds$$

Green's Theorem holds for more complicated geometries too, if C not convex we can see it as the composition of 2 or more simple convex closed curves.

Joining A, A' form C_1, C_2 enclosing R_1, R_2 s.t $R_1 + R_2 = R$

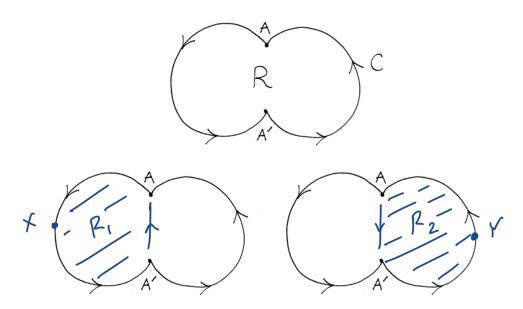


Figure 13: A non-convex boundary

$$\oint_{C} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \oint_{C_{1}} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} + \oint_{C_{2}} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{R} \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

$$\oint_{C_{1}} = \int_{AXA'} + \int_{A'}^{A}$$

$$\oint_{C_{2}} = \int_{A'YA} + \int_{A}^{A'}$$
(2)

1.8.4 Green's Theorem in multiply-connected regions

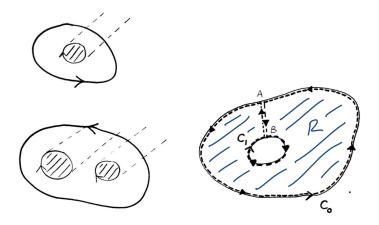


Figure 14: Left; Doubly- and triply- connected regions

Figure 14: Right; Green's Theorem in multiply-connected regions

R simply-connected if any closed curve in R can be shrunk to a point without leaving R. For 2D any region with a hole in it; not simply connected, we say it is multiply-connected Green's theorem still holds in multiply-connected regions. C interpreted as the entire inner and outer boundary.

For doubly-connected region, describe outer C_0 anti-clockwise, C_1 clockwise, and join them via A on C_0 and B on C_1 R now a simply connected region bounded by $(C_0 + AB + C_1 + BA)$

$$\int_{R} \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \left(\oint_{C_0} + \int_{A}^{B} + \oint_{C_0} + \int_{B}^{A} \right) (\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r})$$

$$\int_{R} \operatorname{curl} \, \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \left(\oint_{C_0} + \oint_{C_1} \right) (\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}) = \left(\oint_{C} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} \right)$$

Where $C = C_0 + C_1$

1.8.5 Flux

If S is a surface then the flux of A across S is defined as

$$\int_{S} \mathbf{A} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dS$$

If S a closed surface then by convention draw unit normal $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ out of S.

1.8.6 The divergence theorem

If τ the volume enclosed by a closed surface S with unit outward normal $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ and \mathbf{A} is a vector field with continuous derivatives throughout τ , then:

$$\int_{S} \mathbf{A} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dS = \int_{\tau} div \mathbf{A} d\tau$$

1.8.7 The Divergence theorem in more complicated geometries

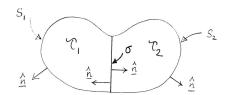


Figure 17: The divergence theorem for a non-convex surface

- (i) Non-convex surfaces non-convex surface S can be divided by surfaces(s) σ into 2 (or more) parts S_1 and S_2 which together with σ form convex surfaces $S_1 + \sigma$, $S_2 + \sigma$ /
 Applying divergence theorem to the convex parts, upon addition yields the same result as before.
- (ii) A region with internal boundaries
 - (a) Simply-connected regions e.g space between concentric spheres...

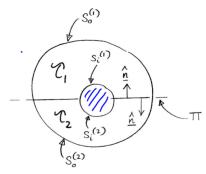


Figure 18: Simply-connected regions

Given interior surface S_i and outer surface S_o . A plane Π cutting both S_o, S_i , divides S_o, S_i into open $S_o^{(1)}, S_o^{(2)}$ and $S_i^{(1)}, S_i^{(2)}$ respectively.

Apply divergence theorem to τ_1, τ_2 bounded by closed $S_o^{(1)} + S_i^{(1)} + \Pi$ and $S_o^{(2)} + S_i^{(2)} + \Pi$. Upon addition contribution from Π cancels.

$$\int_{S_o+S_i} \mathbf{A} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dS = \int_S \mathbf{A} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dS = \int_{\tau_1} div \mathbf{A} d\tau + \int_{\tau_2} div \mathbf{A} d\tau = \int_{\tau} div \mathbf{A} d\tau$$

 $\begin{array}{c} \text{(b)} \ \ \textit{Multiply-connected regions} \\ \text{e.g. region between 2 cyclinders.} \end{array}$

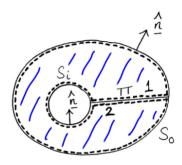


Figure 18: Multiply-connected regions

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Given interior surface S_i and outer surface S_o , linked by plane Π . Consider the closed surface, enclosing simply connected region τ

$$S_i$$
+ side 1 of $\Pi + S_o$ + side 2 of Π

Applying divergence theorem to τ . Once again gives

$$\int_{S_0 + S_i} \mathbf{A} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dS = \int_{\tau} div \mathbf{A} d\tau$$

1.8.8 Green's identity in 3D

For ϕ and ψ 2 scalar fields with continuous derivatives. We consider $\mathbf{A} = \phi \nabla \psi$, for which we have

$$div \mathbf{A} = \phi \nabla^2 \psi + (\underline{\nabla} \phi) \cdot (\underline{\nabla} \psi)$$
$$\hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \mathbf{A} = \phi (\underline{\nabla} \psi) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} = \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial n}$$

Green's first identity

$$\int_{S} \left\{ \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial n} \right\} dS = \int_{\mathcal{T}} \phi \nabla^{2} \psi + (\underline{\nabla} \phi) \cdot (\underline{\nabla} \psi) d\tau$$

Green's Second identity

$$\int_{S} \left\{ \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial n} - \psi \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} \right\} dS = \int_{\tau} \phi \nabla^{2} \psi - \psi \nabla^{2} \phi d\tau$$

1.8.9 Green's identities in 2D

Divergence theorem in 2D: $\int_F div \mathbf{F} dx dy = \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} ds$ Giving the following Green's identities:

$$\oint_C \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial n} ds = \int_R [\phi \nabla^2 \psi + (\nabla \psi) \cdot (\nabla \phi) dx dy]$$

and

$$\oint_C \left[\phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial n} - \psi \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} \right] ds = \int_B \left[\phi \nabla^2 \psi - \psi \nabla^2 \phi \right] dx dy$$

 $\int_{R} \phi \nabla^{2} \psi \ dxdy = \oint_{C} \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial n} ds - \int_{R} (\nabla \psi) \cdot (\nabla \phi) dxdy - \text{Looks like Integration by parts}$

1.8.10 Gauss' Flux Theorem

Let S a closed surface with outward unit normal $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ and let O the origin of the coordinate system. $\mathbf{A} = \frac{\mathbf{r}}{r^3}$ Then:

$$\int_{S} \frac{\hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \mathbf{r}}{r^{3}} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } O \text{ is exterior to } S \\ 4\pi, & \text{if } O \text{ interior to } S \end{cases}$$

1.8.11 Stokes Theorem

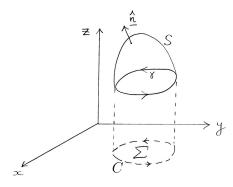


Figure 20: Diagram for proof of Stokes' Theorem

Suppose S is **open** surface with simple closed curve γ forming its boundary. A a vector field with continuous partial derivatives, Then:

$$\oint_{S} \mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{S} curl \mathbf{A} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dS$$

This holds for **any** open surface with γ as a boundary.

Theorem

For $\bf A$ continuously differentiable and simply connected region:

$$\underbrace{\oint_{\gamma} \mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0}_{\Lambda \text{ conservation}} \iff curl\mathbf{A} = 0, \text{ throughout region for which } \gamma \text{ is drawn}$$

1.9 Curvilinear Coordinates

1.9.1 Intro + Definition

Consider generally cartesian coordinates: (x_1, x_2, x_3) with each expressible as single-valued differentiable functions of the new coordinates (u_1, u_2, u_3)

$$x_{i} = x_{i}(u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3})$$

$$\frac{\partial x_{i}}{\partial x_{j}} = \delta_{ij} = \frac{\partial x_{i}}{\partial u_{1}} \frac{\partial u_{1}}{\partial x_{j}} + \frac{\partial x_{i}}{\partial u_{2}} \frac{\partial u_{2}}{\partial x_{j}} + \frac{\partial x_{i}}{\partial u_{3}} \frac{\partial u_{3}}{\partial x_{j}}$$

With the following matrix equation

$$\begin{pmatrix} \partial x_1/\partial u_1 & \partial x_1/\partial u_2 & \partial x_1/\partial u_3 \\ \partial x_2/\partial u_1 & \partial x_2/\partial u_2 & \partial x_2/\partial u_3 \\ \partial x_3/\partial u_1 & \partial x_3/\partial u_2 & \partial x_3/\partial u_3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \partial u_1/\partial x_1 & \partial u_1/\partial x_2 & \partial u_1/\partial x_3 \\ \partial u_2/\partial x_1 & \partial u_2/\partial x_2 & \partial u_2/\partial x_3 \\ \partial u_3/\partial x_1 & \partial u_3/\partial x_2 & \partial u_3/\partial x_3 \end{pmatrix} = I$$

Or more succinctly

$$J(x_u) \cdot J(u_x) = I$$

We say $J(x_u)$ the **Jacobian matrix** for the (x_1, x_2, x_3) system.

$$det(J(x_u)) \neq 0 \implies J(u_x) \text{ exists}$$
$$det(J(x_u)) = \frac{1}{det(J(u_x))}$$

We say (u_1, u_2, u_3) define a curvilinear coordinate system.

With each u_i = constant, defining a family of surfaces, with a member of each family passing through each P(x, y, z)Let $(\hat{\mathbf{a_1}}, \hat{\mathbf{a_2}}, \hat{\mathbf{a_3}})$ unit vectors at P in the direction normal to $u_i = u_i(P)$, s.t u_i increasing in the direction $\hat{\mathbf{a_i}}$

$$\mathbf{\hat{a}_i} = rac{
abla \mathbf{u_i}}{|
abla \mathbf{u_i}|}$$

if we have that $(\hat{a_1}, \hat{a_2}, \hat{a_3})$ mutually orthogonal \implies orthogonal curvilinear coordinate system.

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_i} = \hat{\mathbf{e_i}} h_i$$

For which we define $h_i = |\partial \mathbf{r}/\partial u_i|$. We call these the length scales

1.9.2 Path element

 $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(u_1, u_2, u_3)$ path element $d\mathbf{r}$ given by

$$d\mathbf{r} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_1} du_1 + \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_2} du_2 + \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_3} du_3$$
$$= h_1 du_1 \hat{e}_1 + h_2 du_2 \hat{e}_2 + h_3 du_3 \hat{e}_3$$

For an orthongal system

$$(ds)^{2} = (d\mathbf{r}) \cdot (d\mathbf{r}) = h_{1}(du_{1})^{2} + h_{2}(du_{2})^{2} + h_{3}(du_{3})^{2}$$
$$\hat{e}_{i} = \hat{a}_{i} = \frac{\nabla \mathbf{u_{i}}}{|\nabla \mathbf{u_{i}}|}$$

1.9.3 Volume Element

$$d\tau = (h_1 du_1)(h_2 du_2)(h_3 du_3)$$

= $h_1 h_2 h_3 du_1 du_2 du_3$

1.9.4 Surface element

For u_1 constant.

$$dS = h_2 h_3 du_2 du_3$$

similarly for u_2, u_3

1.9.5 Properties of various orthogonal coordinates

(i) Cartesisan coordinates (x, y, z)

$$d\tau = dxdydz$$

$$(ds)^{2} = (d\mathbf{r}) \cdot (d\mathbf{r}) = (dx)^{2} + (dy)^{2} + (dz)^{2}$$

We have $h_1 = h_2 = h_3$

(ii) Cylindrical polar coordinates (r, ϕ, z)

Related to cartesian by

$$x = r\cos\theta$$
 $y = r\sin\phi$ $z = z$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial r} = (\frac{\partial x}{\partial r})\hat{\mathbf{i}} + (\frac{\partial y}{\partial r})\hat{\mathbf{j}} + (\frac{\partial z}{\partial r})\hat{\mathbf{k}} = (\cos\phi)\hat{\mathbf{i}} + (\sin\phi)\hat{\mathbf{j}} \qquad (\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial r}) \cdot (\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial \phi}) = 0 \qquad h_1 = |\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial r}| = 1$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial \phi} = (\frac{\partial x}{\partial \phi})\hat{\mathbf{i}} + (\frac{\partial y}{\partial \phi})\hat{\mathbf{j}} + (\frac{\partial z}{\partial \phi})\hat{\mathbf{k}} = -(r\sin\phi)\hat{\mathbf{i}} + (r\cos\phi)\hat{\mathbf{j}} \qquad (\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial r}) \cdot (\frac{\partial z}{\partial \phi}) = 0 \qquad h_2 = |\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial \phi}| = r$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial z} = \hat{\mathbf{k}} \qquad (\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial \phi}) \cdot (\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial z}) = 0 \qquad h_3 = |\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial z}| = 1$$

Yielding length and volume elements:

$$(ds)^2 = (dr)^2 + r^2(d\phi)^2 + (dz)^2$$
 $d\tau = rdrd\phi dz$

(iii) Spherical polar coordinates (r, θ, ϕ)

Related to cartesian by:

$$x = r \sin \theta \cos \phi$$
 $y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi$ $z = r \cos \theta$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial r} = (\sin \theta \cos \phi) \hat{\mathbf{i}} + (\sin \theta \sin \phi) \hat{\mathbf{j}} + (\cos \theta) \hat{\mathbf{k}} \qquad (\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial r}) \cdot (\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial \theta}) = 0 \qquad h_1 = |\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial r}| = 1$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial \theta} = (r \cos \theta \cos \phi) \hat{\mathbf{i}} + (r \cos \theta \sin \phi) \hat{\mathbf{j}} + (-r \sin \theta) \hat{\mathbf{k}} \qquad (\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial r}) \cdot (\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial \phi}) = 0 \qquad h_2 = |\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial \theta}| = r$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial \theta} = (-r \sin \theta \sin \phi) \hat{\mathbf{i}} + (r \sin \theta \cos \phi) \hat{\mathbf{j}} + (0) \hat{\mathbf{k}} \qquad (\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial \phi}) \cdot (\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial \theta}) = 0 \qquad h_3 = |\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial \phi}| = r \sin \theta$$

Volume element:

$$d\tau = r^2 \sin\theta dr d\theta d\phi$$

1.9.6 Gradient in orthogonal curvilinear coordinates

Let $\nabla \Phi = \lambda_1 \hat{\mathbf{e}}_1 + \lambda_2 \hat{\mathbf{e}}_2 + \lambda_3 \hat{\mathbf{e}}_3$.

In a general coordinate system for λ_i s to be found.

$$d\mathbf{r} = h_1 du_1 \hat{e}_1 + h_2 du_2 \hat{e}_2 + h_3 du_3 \hat{e}_3$$

$$d\mathbf{\Phi} = (\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial u_1}) du_1 + (\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial u_2}) du_2 + (\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial u_3}) du_3$$

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

$$= [(\nabla \Phi) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \lambda_1 h_1 du_1 + \lambda_2 h_2 du_2 + \lambda_3 h_3 du_3]$$

$$h_i \lambda_i = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial u_i}$$

$$\implies \nabla \Phi = \frac{\hat{e}_1}{h_1} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial u_1} + \frac{\hat{e}_2}{h_2} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial u_2} + \frac{\hat{e}_3}{h_3} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial u_3}$$

(i) Cylindrical polars (r, ϕ, z)

We have:
$$h_1 = 1 h_2 = r \implies \nabla = \hat{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{\hat{\phi}}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} + \hat{z} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} h_3 = 1$$

(ii) Spherical polars (r, θ, ϕ)

We have:
$$h_1 = 1 h_2 = r h_3 = r \sin \theta$$
 $\Rightarrow \nabla = \hat{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{\hat{\theta}}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\hat{\phi}}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}$

1.9.7 Expressions for unit vectors

$$\hat{\mathbf{e}}_i = h_i \nabla u_i$$

Alternatively, unit vectors orthogonal \implies if we know 2 already then

$$\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1 = (\hat{\mathbf{e}}_2 \times \hat{\mathbf{e}}_3) = h_2 h_3 (\nabla u_2 \times \nabla u_3)$$

1.9.8 Divergence in orthogonal curvilinear coordinates

Suppose we have vector field

$$\mathbf{A} = A_1 \hat{\mathbf{e}}_1 + A_2 \hat{\mathbf{e}}_2 + A_3 \hat{\mathbf{e}}_3$$

$$\implies \nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{h_1 h_2 h_3} \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} (A_1 h_2 h_3) + \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} (A_2 h_3 h_1) + \frac{\partial}{\partial u_3} (A_3 h_1 h_2) \right\}$$

So we have divergence in other coordinate systems as follows:

(i) Cylindrical polars (r, ϕ, z)

We have:
$$h_1 = 1$$

$$h_2 = r \implies \nabla \cdot A = \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial r} + \frac{A_1}{r} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial A_3}{\partial z}$$

$$h_3 = 1$$

(ii) Spherical polars (r, θ, ϕ)

We have:
$$h_1 = 1 \\ h_2 = r \\ h_3 = r \sin \theta$$
 $\Rightarrow \nabla \cdot A = \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r^2 \sin \theta A_1) + \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (r \sin \theta A_2) + \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} (r A_3) \right\}$

1.9.9 Curl in orthogonal curvilinear coordinates

$$curl \mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{h_1 h_2 h_3} \begin{vmatrix} h_1 \hat{e}_1 & h_2 \hat{e}_2 & h_3 \hat{e}_3 \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} & \frac{\partial}{\partial u_3} \\ h_1 A_1 & h_2 A_2 & h_3 A_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

(i) Cylindrical polars

$$curl \mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{r} \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{r}} & r\hat{\phi} & \hat{\mathbf{k}} \\ \partial/\partial r & \partial/\partial \phi & \partial/\partial z \\ A_1 & A2 & A_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

(ii) Spherical polars

$$curl \mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{r}} & r\hat{\phi} & r \sin \theta \hat{\phi} \\ \partial/\partial r & \partial/\partial \phi & \partial/\partial z \\ A_1 & rA2 & r \sin \theta A_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

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1.9.10 The Laplacian in orthogonal curvilinear coordinates

From the above grad and div;

$$\nabla^2 \Phi = \nabla \cdot (\nabla \Phi)$$

$$= \frac{1}{h_1 h_2 h_3} \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} \left(\frac{h_2 h_3}{h_1} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial u_1} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} \left(\frac{h_1 h_3}{h_2} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial u_2} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial u_3} \left(\frac{h_1 h_2}{h_3} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial u_3} \right) \right\}$$

(i) Cylindrical polars (r, ϕ, z)

$$\begin{split} \nabla^2 \Phi &= \frac{1}{r} \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \phi} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(r \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial z} \right) \right\} \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial z^2} \end{split}$$

(ii) Spherical polars (r, θ, ϕ)

$$\begin{split} \nabla^2 \Phi &= \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r^2 \sin \theta \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin \theta \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \phi} \right) \right\} \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial r^2} + \frac{2}{r} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial r} + \frac{\cot \theta}{r^2} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \theta} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial \theta^2} + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial \phi^2} \end{split}$$

1.10 Changes of variables in surface integration

Suppose we have surface S, parametrized by quantities u_1, u_2 . We can write:

$$x = x(u_1, u_2), \quad y = y(u_1, u_2), \quad z = z(u_1, u_2)$$

Consider surface to be comprised of arbitrarily small parallelograms, its sides given by keeping either u_1 or u_2

$$dS$$
 = Area of parallelogram with sides $\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_1} du_1$ and $\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_2} du_2$
= $|\mathbf{J}| du_1 du_2$

Vector Jacobian J given by $\mathbf{J} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{du_1} \times \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{du_2}$. Useful in substitution of surface integrals:

$$\int_{S} f(x,y,z)dS = \int_{S} F(u_1,u_2)|\mathbf{J}|du_1du_2|$$

$$F(u_1, u_2) = f(x(u_1, u_2), y(u_1, u_2), z(u_1, u_2))$$

For S a region R in the x-y plane we can write:

$$\int_{R} f(x,y)dxdy = \int_{R} F(u_{1}, u_{2})|det(J(x_{u}))|du_{1}du_{2}$$
$$|\mathbf{J}| = \left|\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{du_{1}} \times \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{du_{2}}\right| = det(J(x_{u})) = \begin{vmatrix} \partial x/\partial u_{1} & \partial x/\partial u_{2} \\ \partial y/\partial u_{1} & \partial y/\partial u_{2} \end{vmatrix}$$

For a surface described by z = f(x, y). We have $x = u_1, y = u_2$ and $\mathbf{r} = (x, y, f(x, y))$ We have:

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_1} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial x} &= \hat{\mathbf{i}} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \hat{\mathbf{k}} \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_2} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial y} &= \hat{\mathbf{j}} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \hat{\mathbf{k}} \end{split}$$

$$\left| \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_1} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_2} \right| = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{i}} & \hat{\mathbf{j}} & \hat{\mathbf{k}} \\ 1 & 0 & \partial f / \partial x \\ 0 & 1 & \partial f / \partial y \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= \sqrt{1 + |\nabla f|^2}$$

So we have area of surface given by

$$\int_{\Sigma} \sqrt{1 + |\nabla f|^2} dx dy$$

for Σ the projection of S onto the x-y plane.