

M.Sc
Electrodynamics
LectureSlide

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1. Vector Calculus
2. Theory of Vector Fields

Vector Calculus

Table of Contents



Table of Contents	Gradient
Vector Operations	Divergence
Introduction	
Component Form	
Triple Products	
Examples	Line Integral
Vector Triple Products	Surface Integral
Short Hand Notation	Volume Integral
How Vectors Transform	Gauss's Theorem
Differentiation	
Ordinary Derivatives	Integration by Parts
	Cylindrical Coordinates
	The 1D Delta (δ) Function
	The 3D Delta (δ) Function



- Displacements (straight line segments going from one point to another) have **direction** as well as **magnitude**, and it is essential to take both into account when combining them.
- These objects in question are called **vectors**.
 - i.e., velocity (\mathbf{v}), acceleration (\mathbf{a}), force (\mathbf{F}), momentum (\mathbf{p}) ...
- If an object has magnitude but no direction, it is **scalar**.
 - i.e., mass (m), charge (q), density (d), temperature (T) ...
- In this lecture series boldface (i.e., \mathbf{A}) is used for *vectors* and normal type (A) is used for scalars.
- In diagrams, vectors are denoted by arrows (\rightarrow):
 - The **length** of the arrow is proportional to the **magnitude** of the vector, and the arrowhead indicates its direction.
- $-\mathbf{A}$ has the same magnitude of \mathbf{A} , but in **opposite** direction.



@ r r@ @	Traits	Mathematical Example	Additional Notes
3*	Addition of multiple vectors	$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}$ - This is known as <i>commutative</i> . $(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) + \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C})$ - This is known as <i>associative</i> . $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{B})$ - This is known as <i>distributive</i> .	
2*	Multiplication by a scalar	$a(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = a\mathbf{A} + a\mathbf{B}$ - If $a > 0$, direction remains. - If $a < 0$, direction is reversed.	
4*	Dot product of two vectors	$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \equiv AB \cos \theta$ - θ : angle between two vectors. $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A}$ - $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}$ is a scalar value. $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A} = A^2$ $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$ if $\mathbf{A} \perp \mathbf{B}$	
4*	Cross product of two vectors	$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = AB \sin \theta \hat{\mathbf{n}}$ - $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$: unit vector. $\mathbf{A} \times (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) + (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{C})$ - This is known as <i>distributive</i> . $\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A} = -(\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B})$ - $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$ is a vector. $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{A} = 0$	

The unit vector ($\hat{\mathbf{n}}$) points perpendicular to the plane of \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} . Of course, there are two possible directions perpendicular to any plane: "in" and "out". This ambiguity is resolved by the **right-hand rule**: let your fingers point in the direction of the first vector-and curl around toward the second; then your thumb indicates the direction of ($\hat{\mathbf{n}}$).



Example

Let $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$. Using this information, calculate the dot product of \mathbf{C} with itself. (i.e., $\mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{C}$)



Solution

As requested, let's do the dot product (\cdot) of C with itself.

$$\begin{aligned}C \cdot C &= (A - B) \cdot (A - B), \\&= A \cdot A - A \cdot B - B \cdot A + B \cdot B.\end{aligned}$$

This can also be represented using the [law of cosines](#).



- It is often easier to set up Cartesian coordinates $x, y, z \dots$
 - ...and work with vector *components*.
- Let $\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}$ be the unit vectors of x, y, z .
- A vector of \mathbf{A} can be therefore shown as:

$$\mathbf{A} = A_x \hat{\mathbf{x}} + A_y \hat{\mathbf{y}} + A_z \hat{\mathbf{z}},$$

where A_x, A_y, A_z are the **components** of \mathbf{A} .

Geometrically, these are the projection of \mathbf{A} along the three coordinate axes.



Example

Find the angle between the face diagonals of a cube.

Tip: Use a cube of side 1.



Solution

We might as well use a cube of side 1, and place it as shown in question, with one corner at the origin. The face diagonals \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are:

$$\mathbf{A} = 1 \hat{\mathbf{x}} + 0 \hat{\mathbf{y}} + 1 \hat{\mathbf{z}} \quad \mathbf{B} = 0 \hat{\mathbf{x}} + 1 \hat{\mathbf{y}} + 1 \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

In component form,

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = 1 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 1 = 1.$$

In abstract form:

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = AB \cos \theta = \sqrt{2}\sqrt{2} \cos \theta = 2 \cos \theta.$$

Therefore:



- As the **cross product** of two vectors is a **vector**, it can be dotted or crossed to form a **triple product**.
- **Scalar triple product:** This is simply $\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C})$.
 - This property also presents the following equivalence.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C}) &= \mathbf{B} \cdot (\mathbf{C} \times \mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{C} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}), \\ \mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{C} \times \mathbf{B}) &= \mathbf{B} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{C} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A}).\end{aligned}$$

- This behaviour could also be presented in its component form.
- The dot and cross can be interchanged.

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C}) = (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) \cdot \mathbf{C}.$$



- This is shown as $\mathbf{A} \times (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C})$.
 - This can be simplified using the **BAC-CAB** rule:

$$\mathbf{A} \times (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C}) - \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}).$$

This is a **different vector**. Cross product is **not commutative**.

$$\begin{aligned}(\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) \times \mathbf{C} &= -\mathbf{C} \times (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) = -\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C}) + \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C}), \\(\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) \times \mathbf{C} &\neq \mathbf{A} \times (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C}).\end{aligned}$$

- All higher vector products can be similarly reduced.

$$\begin{aligned}(\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) \cdot (\mathbf{C} \times \mathbf{D}) &= (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{C})(\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{D}) - (\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{D})(\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C}), \\\mathbf{A} \times (\mathbf{B} \times (\mathbf{C} \times \mathbf{D})) &= \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{C} \times \mathbf{D})) - (\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B})(\mathbf{C} \times \mathbf{D}).\end{aligned}$$



- A point \mathbf{r} in 3D can be described using Cartesian (x, y, z) :

$$\mathbf{r} \equiv x \hat{\mathbf{x}} + y \hat{\mathbf{y}} + z \hat{\mathbf{z}},$$

where \mathbf{r} is the position of the **vector** with its magnitude (r):

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

- This is the distance from the **origin**, and:

$$\hat{\mathbf{r}} = \frac{\mathbf{r}}{r} = \frac{x \hat{\mathbf{x}} + y \hat{\mathbf{y}} + z \hat{\mathbf{z}}}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}},$$

is the **unit vector** pointing radially outward.



- In electrodynamics, we often use two (2) points.
source point (\mathbf{r}') where an electric charge is located,
field point (\mathbf{r}) where the electric, magnetic field is calculated.
- For this lecture series, we shall adopt a short-hand notation for the **separation vector** from the source point to the field point.

$$\mathbf{r} \equiv \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}',$$

separation vector

$$r = |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|,$$

magnitude

$$\hat{\mathbf{r}} = \frac{\mathbf{r}}{r} = \frac{\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'}{| \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}' |}.$$

unit vector



- in Cartesian coordinates:

$$\boldsymbol{r} = (x - x') \hat{\mathbf{x}} + (y - y') \hat{\mathbf{y}} + (z - z') \hat{\mathbf{z}},$$

$$r = \sqrt{(x - x')^2 + (y - y')^2 + (z - z')^2},$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{r}} = \frac{(x - x') \hat{\mathbf{x}} + (y - y') \hat{\mathbf{y}} + (z - z') \hat{\mathbf{z}}}{\sqrt{(x - x')^2 + (y - y')^2 + (z - z')^2}}.$$



- Allows to change the position of an object in a coordinate frame
 - i.e., rotate, translate, flip.
- The \bar{x} , \bar{y} , \bar{z} system is rotated by angle ϕ relative to x , y , z about the common $x = \bar{x}$ axes.

$$A_y = A \cos \theta, \quad A_z = A \sin \theta,$$

- while ...

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{A}_y &= A \cos \bar{\theta} = A \cos (\theta - \phi), \\ &= A (\cos \theta \cos \phi + \sin \theta \sin \phi), \\ &= \cos \phi A_y + \sin \phi A_z.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{A}_z &= A \sin \bar{\theta} = A \sin (\theta - \phi), \\ &= A (\sin \theta \cos \phi - \cos \theta \sin \phi), \\ &= -\sin \phi A_y + \cos \phi A_z.\end{aligned}$$



- It is **simpler** to express this in a matrix:
- A more general approach would be:
- In a compact fashion

$$\bar{A}_i = \sum_{j=1}^3 R_{ij} A_j.$$



Assume we have a function that only has **one** variable. Call it $f(\cdot)x$.
What is the point of calculating df/dx ?

It would tell us how rapidly the function $f(\cdot)x$ varies when we change the argument by an *infinitesimal* amount dx .

$$df = \left(\frac{df}{dx} \right) dx.$$

- If we change x by an amount dx , then f changes by an amount df ;
 - The derivative is the proportionality factor.
- Geometrically, df/dx is the slope of the graph of f vs. x



- A simple derivative can tell the **change of a variable**.
- For example dT/dx tells how T changes as we move along the x axis.
- However, last we checked we live in 3 dimensions so we need to model it in not only x , but y and z .
- Such as a temperature in a room...
you can move one place and it can rise it can stay or fall.
- We write it as following:

$$dT = \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right) dx + \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right) dy + \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \right) dz,$$

to simplify, we can write it as

$$dT = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \hat{x} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \hat{y} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \hat{z} \right)}_{\nabla T} \cdot (dx \hat{x} + dy \hat{y} + dz \hat{z}).$$



- Using nabla (∇) we can define **divergence**:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} &= \left(\hat{\mathbf{x}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{\mathbf{y}} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \cdot (v_x \hat{\mathbf{x}} + v_y \hat{\mathbf{y}} + v_z \hat{\mathbf{z}}), \\ &= \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z}.\end{aligned}$$

- Divergence of a vector \mathbf{v} is itself a *scalar*.

You can't have the divergence of a scalar: **that's meaningless.**

- $\nabla \cdot$ is a measure of how much a vector **spreads**.

Positive Arrows point outward (i.e., source).

Negative Arrows point inward (i.e., sink).

Zero No change in magnitude.



- Has the following expression:

$$\int_{\mathcal{P}} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \int_a^b \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l}.$$

where \mathbf{v} is a vector function, $d\mathbf{l}$ is the infinitesimal displacement vector and the integral is to be carried out along a prescribed path \mathcal{P} from point a to b .

- If the path is closed ($a = b$):

$$\oint \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l}.$$

- At each point on the path, take the dot product of \mathbf{v} with the $d\mathbf{l}$ to the next point on the path.

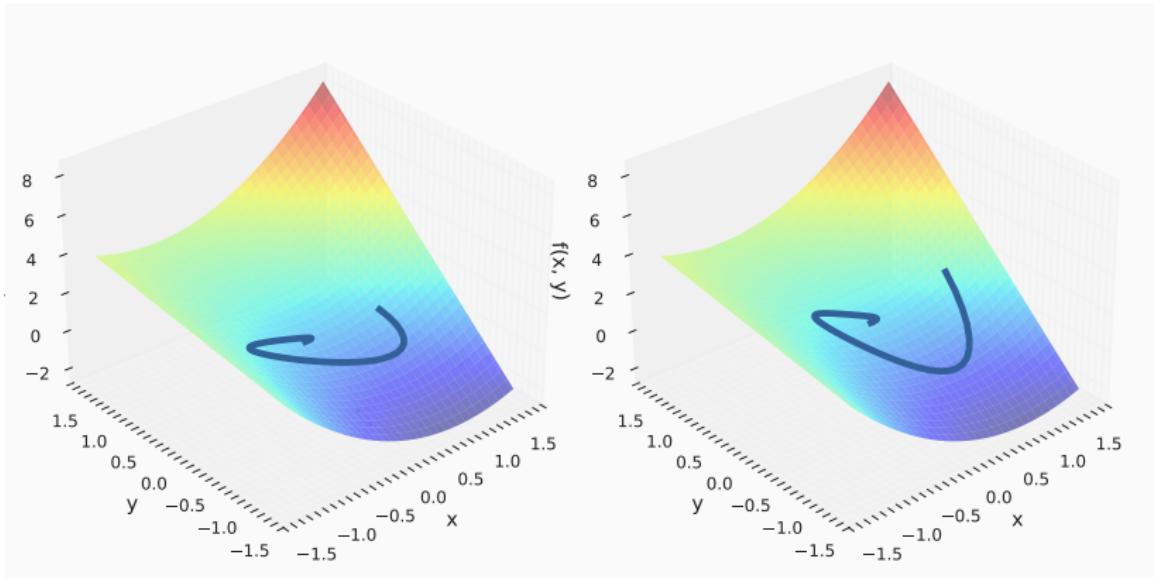


Figure 1:



- Has the following expression:

$$\int_S \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a},$$

where \mathbf{v} is a vector function, $d\mathbf{a}$ is the infinitesimal area,

- with a direction pointing outward.

- There are two directions perpendicular to any surface so the sign is intrinsically ambiguous.
- If the area is closed (i.e., balloon):

$$\oint \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a}.$$

- For analogy, if \mathbf{v} represents fluid flow, then $\int \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a}$ represents the total mass per unit time passing through the surface (i.e., the flux).



- Has the following expression:

$$\int_V T \, d\tau,$$

where T is a scalar function and the $d\tau$ is an infinitesimal volume element.

- in Cartesian the volume element is:

$$d\tau = dx dy dz.$$

if T is the density of a substance (varying from point to point), the volume integral would give the total mass.



- Suppose $f(x)$ is a function of one variable.
- The **fundamental theorem of calculus** states.

$$\int_a^b \frac{df}{dx} dx = f(b) - f(a),$$

$$\int_a^b F(x) dx = f(b) - f(a), \quad \text{where } df/dx = F(x).$$

- This gives us a relation between **differentiation** and **integration**.

For a function $f(\cdot)x$, an anti-derivative may be obtained $F(x)$ as the integral of f over interval.

Implies the existence of anti-derivatives for continuous functions.



- Suppose $T(x, y, z)$ is a **scalar** function of three (3) variables.
 - These being x, y, z .
- The **fundamental theorem of gradients** states:

$$\int_a^b (\nabla T) \cdot dI = T(b) - T(a).$$

This means, the integral of a gradient is given by the value of the function at the boundaries (i.e., a and b).

This also means the result is **independent** from the path taken.



- The fundamental theorem for divergence states:

$$\int_{\mathcal{V}} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) d\tau = \oint_S \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a}.$$

- The integral of a derivative ($\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}$) over a region (\mathcal{V}) is equal to the value of the function at boundary (surface that bounds the volume).
- Imagine \mathbf{v} as an incompressible fluid.
- Then $\mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a}$ would be the fluid passing through a surface.
- Divergence of \mathbf{v} would mean the spreading out of the fluid.
- To measure the amount of water in a region you could either:
 - Count the water coming from a source (i.e., a faucet),
 - Measure the flow coming from the region.



- The fundamental theorem for curl (i.e., Stokes' Theorem) states:

$$\oint_S (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \oint_{\mathcal{P}} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l}.$$

- The integral of the derivative ($\nabla \times \mathbf{v}$) over a region (S) is equal to the value of the function at boundary (the perimeter of the patch).

Remember, curl measures the **twist** of the vector \mathbf{v} .

- Now, the integral of the curl over some surface represents the **total amount of twist**.
- We can also determine this **twist** by finding how much flow is following the boundary.



- The technique known as **integration by parts** exploits the product rule for derivatives:

$$\frac{d}{dx} (fg) = f \left(\frac{dg}{dx} \right) + g \left(\frac{df}{dx} \right).$$

- where, f and g are *continuous* functions.
- Integrating both sides, and using the fundamental theorem:

$$\int_a^b \frac{d}{dx} (fg) \, dx = fg \Big|_a^b = \int_a^b f \left(\frac{dg}{dx} \right) \, dx + \int_a^b g \left(\frac{df}{dx} \right) \, dx.$$

When integrating the product of one function (f) and the derivative of another (g), you can transfer of the derivative from g to f , at the cost of a **minus sign and a boundary term**.



Example

Evaluate the following integral:

$$\int_0^{\infty} x \exp(-x) dx.$$



Solution

The exponential can be expressed as a derivative:

$$\exp(-x) = \frac{d}{dx} [-\exp(-x)].$$

Here $f(x) = x$, $g(x) = -\exp(-x)$, and $df/dx = 1$. Therefore:

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^\infty x [-\exp(-x)] dx &= \{[-\exp(-x)] - x\} [-\exp(-x)] \Big|_0^\infty \\ &= -\exp(-x) \Big|_0^\infty = 1 \quad \blacksquare\end{aligned}$$



- The product rule is also applicable in **vector calculus**.
- Using the correct fundamental theorems, we can do calculus in parts.

$$\nabla \cdot (f\mathbf{A}) = f(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}) + \mathbf{A} \cdot (\nabla \cdot f).$$

- Over a volume (\mathcal{V}), invoking the **divergence theorem**, presents:

$$\int_V \nabla \cdot (f\mathbf{A}) \, d\tau = \int_V f(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}) \, d\tau + \int_V \mathbf{A} \cdot (\nabla f) \, d\tau = \oint_S f\mathbf{A} \cdot da,$$
$$\int_V f(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}) \, d\tau = - \int_V \mathbf{A} \cdot (\nabla \cdot f) \, d\tau + \oint_S f\mathbf{A} \cdot da.$$

- The integrand is $f(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A})$.
- Using integration by parts to transfer the derivative from \mathbf{A} to f .
 - Where f becomes a gradient.
- We introduce a minus sign and a boundary term (a surface integral).



- The relation to Cartesian coordinates is:

$$x = r \sin \theta \cos \phi, \quad y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi, \quad z = r \cos \theta.$$

- The unit vectors are:

$$\hat{r} = \sin \theta \cos \phi \hat{x} + \sin \theta \sin \phi \hat{y} + \cos \theta \hat{z},$$

$$\hat{\theta} = \cos \theta \cos \phi \hat{x} + \cos \theta \sin \phi \hat{y} - \sin \theta \hat{z},$$

$$\hat{\phi} = -\sin \phi \hat{x} + \cos \phi \hat{y}.$$

- The infinitesimal displacements are,

$$dl_r = dr, \quad dl_\theta = r d\theta, \quad dl_\phi = r \sin \theta d\phi.$$

$$dl = dr \hat{r} + r d\theta \hat{\theta} + r \sin \theta d\phi \hat{\phi}.$$

- The range of r is $[0, \infty)$, θ is $[0, \pi]$, and ϕ is $[0, 2\pi)$.



- The relation to Cartesian coordinates is:

$$x = s \cos \phi, \quad y = \sin \phi, \quad z = z.$$

- The unit vectors are:

$$\hat{\mathbf{s}} = \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \sin \phi \hat{\mathbf{y}},$$

$$\hat{\phi} = -\sin \phi \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{y}},$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{z}} = \hat{\mathbf{z}}.$$

- The infinitesimal displacements are,

$$dl_s = ds, \quad dl_\phi = s d\phi, \quad dl_z = dz,$$

$$d\mathbf{l} = ds \hat{\mathbf{s}} + s d\phi \hat{\phi} + dz \hat{\mathbf{z}}.$$

- The range of s is $[0, \infty)$, ϕ is $[0, 2\pi]$, and z is $(-\infty, \infty)$.



- Consider the vector function,

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}.$$

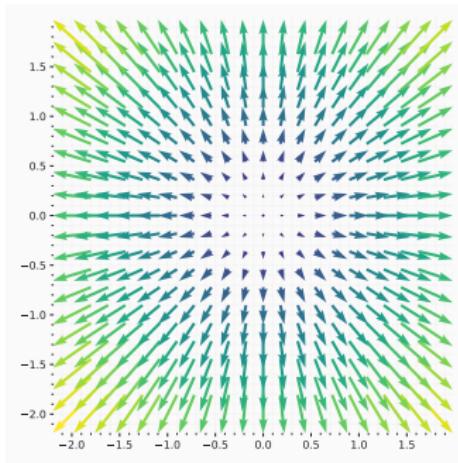


Figure 2: The vector field of the function.



- Here, \mathbf{v} is directed radially outward at every location.
- This function should have a **positive divergence**.

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r^2 \frac{1}{r^2} \right) = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (1) = 0.$$

- It seems we have reached a paradox. Let's test this out with the **divergence theorem**.

$$\begin{aligned}\oint \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} &= \int \left(\frac{1}{R^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}} \right) \cdot (R[2] \sin \theta d\theta \phi \hat{\mathbf{r}}) \\ &= \left(\int_0^\pi \sin \theta d\theta \right) \left(\int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \right) = 4\pi \quad ■\end{aligned}$$



- Here, \mathbf{v} is directed radially outward at every location.
- This function should have a **positive divergence**.

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r^2 \frac{1}{r^2} \right) = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (1) = 0.$$

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- But the *volume integral* ($\int \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} d\tau$) is zero.
- Is the divergence theorem false?



- Problem lies at the point $r = 0$ where r approaches an incalculable value.
 - Where we, without meaning to, divide by zero.
- The divergence is 0 in every point in space, except at one point where it explodes to infinite.
- This bizarre behaviour can be remedied by defining a new mathematical function.

This new function is called Dirac delta function.



- The 1D delta function is an infinitely high, infinitesimally narrow **spike**, with an area of 1.

$$\delta(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ \infty, & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$

- The functions integration is equal to 1.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(x) dx = 1.$$

- Technically, $\delta(x)$ is not a function at all, since its value is *infinite* at $x = 0$.
- This is known as a **generalised function**¹, or distribution.

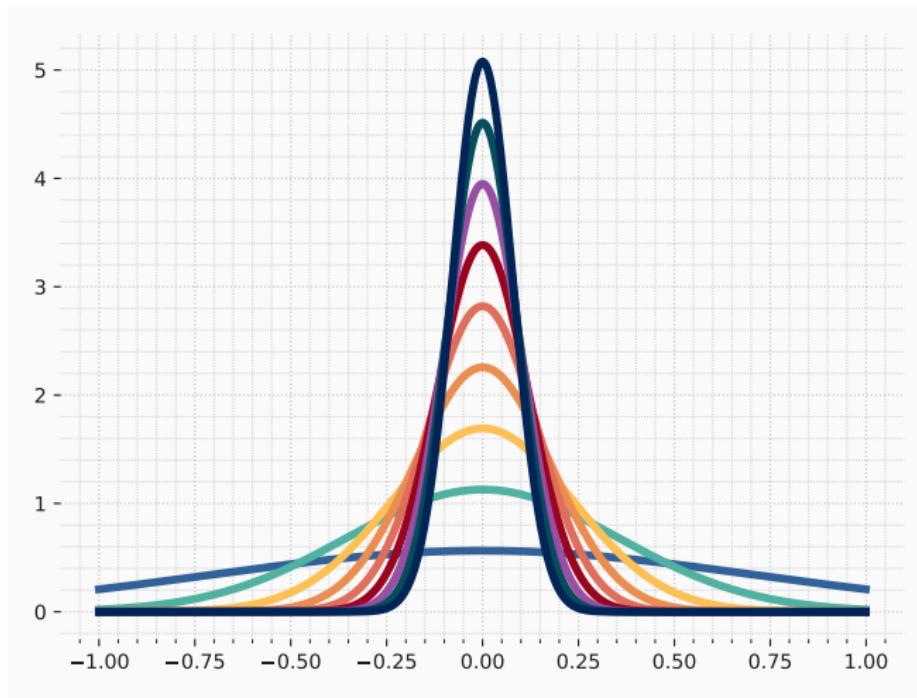


Figure 3: The Dirac delta as the limit as the limit reaches zero.

The 1D Delta (δ) Function



- If $f(x)$ is some *ordinary continuous* function (i.e., not a delta function), the product $(f(x)\delta(x))$ is zero everywhere except at $x = 0$.

$$f(x)\delta(x) = f(0)\delta(x). \quad (1)$$

This is the most important fact about the delta function, so make sure you understand why it is true: since the product is zero anyway except at $x = 0$, we may as well replace $f(x)$ by the value it assumes at the origin.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x)\delta(x) dx = f(0) \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(x) dx = f(0). \quad (2)$$

- Under an integral, the delta function **picks out** $f(x)$ value at $x = 0$.

The 1D Delta (δ) Function
The integral need not run from ∞ to ∞ ;



- We can shift the spike from $x = 0$ to some arbitrary point, $x = a$.

$$\delta(x - a) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \neq a \\ \infty & \text{if } x = a \end{cases} \quad \text{with} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(x - a) dx = 1. \quad (3)$$

- Based on this Eq. (1) and Eq. (2) become:

$$f(x) \delta(x - a) = f(a) \delta(x - a), \quad (4)$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \delta(x - a) dx = f(a). \quad (5)$$



- Even though δ itself is not a legitimate function, integrals over δ are perfectly acceptable.
- Think of the delta function as something that is always intended for use under an integral sign.
- In particular, two expressions involving delta functions (say, $D_1(x)$ and $D_2(x)$) are considered equal if:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) D_1(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) D_2(x) dx. \quad (6)$$

The reason as to why we don't call Dirac delta function a valid one is no function can have a value at $x = 0$ and zero at any other point in space.

```
variables= "high" : 5, "low" : -5 , "vl" : 4 locals().update(variables)
import sympy as sy from sympy.abc import x
Eq = x ** 3 * sy.DiracDelta(x - vl) Sol = sy.integrate(Eq, (x, low, high))
print(locals())
```



Evaluate the following integral:

$$\int_{«!low»}^{«!high»} x^3 \delta(x - «!vl») dx.$$

The delta function picks out the value of x^3 at the point $x = «!vl »$, so the integral is $2^3 = «!Sol»$.

Notice, if the upper limit had been 1 (instead of 3) the answer would be 0, because the spike would then be outside the domain of integration.



- From 1D, it is easy to create a 3D version of the delta function.

$$\delta^3(\mathbf{r}) = \delta(x)\delta(y)\delta(z),$$

- where $\mathbf{r} \equiv x \hat{\mathbf{x}} + y \hat{\mathbf{y}} + z \hat{\mathbf{z}}$ is the position vector.
- This function is zero everywhere except at $(0, 0, 0)$ where it is infinite.
- The volume integral is 1.

$$\int_V \delta^3(\mathbf{r}) d\tau = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x)\delta(y)\delta(z) dx dy dz = 1.$$

- Generalising Eq. (5) gives us the following:

$$\int_V f(\cdot) \mathbf{r} \sigma^3(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{a}) d\tau = f(\mathbf{a})$$

- We can now solve the paradox shown previously.

Vector Theory



- As we are going to work on vectors *quite often*, it is worth covering some cases.
- For example,
 - say we define the scalar value of D as a divergence of \mathbf{F} and vector value \mathbf{C} as curl of \mathbf{F} :

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = D, \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{C}.$$

- Is it possible to determine the function \mathbf{F} ?



- Actually it is not possible ... yet.
- For example:
 - The following function is zero for both its divergence and its curl.

$$\mathbf{F} = yz \hat{\mathbf{x}} + xz \hat{\mathbf{y}} + xy \hat{\mathbf{z}}.$$

- To solve electrodynamics problems we need **boundary conditions**.
- Through this additional information **Helmholtz theorem** guarantees the field is uniquely determined by its divergence and curl.



- If the curl of a vector field (\mathbf{F}) is zero everywhere, then \mathbf{F} can be written as the gradient of a **scalar potential** (V):

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{F} \quad \rightarrow \quad \mathbf{F} = -\nabla V.$$

- The minus sign is there for convention.
- If the divergence of a vector field (\mathbf{F}) is zero everywhere, \mathbf{F} can be written as the curls of a **vector potential** (\mathbf{A}).

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} \quad \rightarrow \quad \mathbf{F} = -\nabla \times \mathbf{A}.$$

- For all cases a vector field (\mathbf{F}) can be written as sum of the scalar gradient and vector curl:

$$\mathbf{F} = -\nabla V + \nabla \times \mathbf{A}.$$

List of Acronyms i



