

Lecture 2

- *Length l of a curve C :* Let C be a curve given by the parametric representation $\vec{r}(t)$ and let $\vec{r}(a)$ and $\vec{r}(b)$ denote the position vectors of two points on C . The length of C between these points is then given as

$$l = l(a, b) = \int_a^b \sqrt{\vec{r}'(t) \cdot \vec{r}'(t)} dt.$$

- *Example:* We consider a circle with radius R in the xy -plane and centre at the origin with the parametric representation

$$\vec{r}(t) = (R \cos t, R \sin t, 0), \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi.$$

The tangent vectors are

$$\vec{r}'(t) = (-R \sin t, R \cos t, 0)$$

and the scalar product gives

$$\vec{r}'(t) \cdot \vec{r}'(t) = R^2 \sin^2(t) + R^2 \cos^2(t) = R^2.$$

We therefore have the length of the circle given as

$$l = l(0, 2\pi) = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{\vec{r}'(t) \cdot \vec{r}'(t)} dt = \int_0^{2\pi} R dt = 2R\pi.$$

- *Example:* A helix with radius a and slope c along the z -axis with 3 rotations (see Figure 1) is given by the parametric representation

$$\vec{r}(t) = (a \cos t, a \sin t, ct), \quad 0 \leq t \leq 6\pi.$$

The tangent vectors are

$$\vec{r}'(t) = (-a \sin t, a \cos t, c)$$

and the scalar product is

$$\vec{r}'(t) \cdot \vec{r}'(t) = a^2 \sin^2(t) + a^2 \cos^2(t) + c^2 = a^2 + c^2.$$

We thus calculate the length of the helix as

$$l = l(0, 6\pi) = \int_0^{6\pi} \sqrt{\vec{r}'(t) \cdot \vec{r}'(t)} dt = \int_0^{6\pi} \sqrt{a^2 + c^2} dt = 6\pi \sqrt{a^2 + c^2}.$$

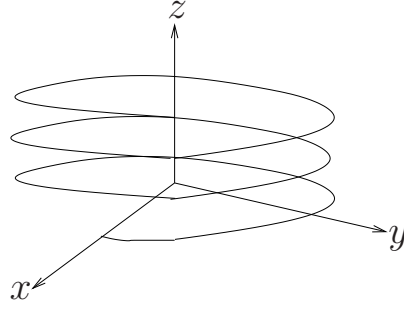


Figure 1: Illustration of a helix along the z -axis with 3 rotations.

1.5 The gradient of a scalar field

- *Taylor expansion:* Consider a scalar field $f(x, y, z)$ and two points $P(x, y, z)$, $P_0(x + dx, y + dy, z + dz)$ that are very close to each other, i.e. dx , dy and dz are very small. Let $\vec{r} = (x, y, z)$ and $\vec{r}_0 = (x + dx, y + dy, z + dz)$ be the corresponding position vectors. The *Taylor expansion* then gives

$$f(x + dx, y + dy, z + dz) = f(x, y, z) + \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial z} dz + \text{higher order terms in } dx, dy, dz.$$

The higher order terms can be neglected for $dx \rightarrow 0$, $dy \rightarrow 0$ and $dz \rightarrow 0$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} f(x + dx, y + dy, z + dz) - f(x, y, z) &= \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial z} \right) \cdot (dx, dy, dz) \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial z} \right) \cdot (\vec{r}_0 - \vec{r}). \end{aligned}$$

- *Definition:* Consider a scalar field $f(x, y, z)$ and its partial derivatives

$$\frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial y}, \quad \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial z}.$$

The *gradient* of $f(x, y, z)$ is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{grad} f(x, y, z) = \nabla f(x, y, z) &= \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial x} \vec{i} + \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial y} \vec{j} + \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial z} \vec{k} \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial z} \right) \end{aligned}$$

where ∇ denotes the so-called Nabla operator

$$\nabla = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \vec{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \vec{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \vec{k} = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right).$$

Note that the gradient of the scalar field f is a vector field.

- *Example:* Let $\vec{r}_0 = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$ be a fixed position vector. We consider the scalar field

$$f(x, y, z) = f(\vec{r}) = \vec{r} \cdot \vec{r}_0 = xx_0 + yy_0 + zz_0.$$

The partial derivatives are

$$\frac{\partial f(\vec{r})}{\partial x} = x_0, \quad \frac{\partial f(\vec{r})}{\partial y} = y_0, \quad \frac{\partial f(\vec{r})}{\partial z} = z_0$$

and the gradient is

$$\nabla f(\vec{r}) = x_0 \vec{i} + y_0 \vec{j} + z_0 \vec{k} = (x_0, y_0, z_0) = \vec{r}_0.$$

- *Example:* Consider the gravitational force

$$\vec{p}(x, y, z) = \vec{p}(\vec{r}) = -c \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3}, \quad r = |\vec{r}|$$

where c is a constant and let

$$f(x, y, z) = f(\vec{r}) = \frac{c}{r} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}.$$

Then

$$\frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial x} = c \left(-\frac{1}{2} \right) (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-3/2} 2x = -c \frac{x}{r^3}$$

and

$$\frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial y} = -c \frac{y}{r^3}, \quad \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial z} = -c \frac{z}{r^3}.$$

Therefore

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = \left(-c \frac{x}{r^3}, -c \frac{y}{r^3}, -c \frac{z}{r^3} \right) = -c \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} = \vec{p}(\vec{r})$$

i.e. the gravitational force \vec{p} is the gradient of the scalar field f .

- *Directional derivative:* We are interested in the rate of change of a scalar field $f(x, y, z)$ in direction $\vec{b} = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$ at the point $P(p_1, p_2, p_3)$. The rate of change at the point P is the relative difference between $f(Q)$ and $f(P)$ where $Q(q_1, q_2, q_3)$ is a point in direction \vec{b} that gets closer and closer to P (see Figure 2). Let $\vec{q} = (q_1, q_2, q_3)$ be the position vector of Q . We have that

$$\vec{q} = (p_1, p_2, p_3) + s \frac{\vec{b}}{|\vec{b}|} = \left(p_1 + s \frac{b_1}{|\vec{b}|}, p_2 + s \frac{b_2}{|\vec{b}|}, p_3 + s \frac{b_3}{|\vec{b}|} \right).$$

Using the Taylor expansion, we get for $s \rightarrow 0$

$$f(Q) - f(P) = \nabla f(P) \cdot s \left(\frac{b_1}{|\vec{b}|}, \frac{b_2}{|\vec{b}|}, \frac{b_3}{|\vec{b}|} \right) = \nabla f(P) \cdot s \frac{\vec{b}}{|\vec{b}|}.$$

Thus

$$\text{rate of change} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(Q) - f(P)}{s} = \frac{\vec{b} \cdot \nabla f(P)}{|\vec{b}|} = D_{\vec{b}} f(P)$$

where $D_{\vec{b}} f(P)$ is also called the *directional derivative*.

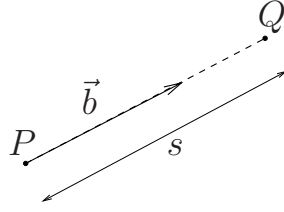


Figure 2: The point Q in direction \vec{b} is approaching P when the distance s is approaching zero.

- *Example:* Consider the scalar field

$$f(x, y, z) = 2x^2 + 3y^2 + z^2$$

and let $\vec{b} = (1, 0, -2)$ and $P(2, 1, 3)$. We then get

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = (4x, 6y, 2z), \quad \nabla f(P) = (8, 6, 6)$$

and

$$D_{\vec{b}}f(P) = \frac{(1, 0, -2) \cdot (8, 6, 6)}{\sqrt{5}} = -\frac{4}{\sqrt{5}}.$$

The $-$ sign tells us that f is decreasing at P in direction \vec{b} .

- *Direction of maximum increase:* Consider the directional derivative of $f(\vec{r})$ in direction \vec{b} at a given point P . We are interested in finding the direction of maximum increase of f . For that, let γ denote the angle between $\nabla f(P)$ and \vec{b} . Then

$$D_{\vec{b}}f(P) = \frac{\vec{b} \cdot \nabla f(P)}{|\vec{b}|} = \frac{|\vec{b}| |\nabla f(P)| \cos \gamma}{|\vec{b}|} = |\nabla f(P)| \cos \gamma$$

which has a maximum value if $\gamma = 0$, i.e. \vec{b} points in direction of $\nabla f(P)$. The gradient $\nabla f(P)$ always has the *direction of the maximum increase of f at P* .

- *Surfaces:* A surface S consisting of points $P(x, y, z)$ can, in many cases, be described by an equation of the form

$$f(x, y, z) = c$$

where c is a constant and f is a scalar field. Each point $P(x, y, z)$ whose coordinates fulfil this equation belongs to the surface S .

- *Example:* A sphere with radius R is described by

$$f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = R^2.$$

- *Tangent plane and normal vector:* Consider a surface S given by $f(x, y, z) = c$ and let $P(x, y, z)$ be a point on S such that the gradient $\nabla f(P)$ exists. Then there is a unique plane T that touches the surface S at P and $\nabla f(P)$ is orthogonal to T (see Figure 3). T is called the *tangent plane* of S at P and $\nabla f(P)$ is called the *normal vector* of S at P .

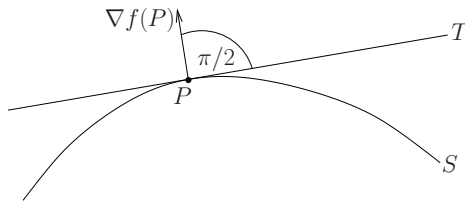


Figure 3: The geometry of a surface S , its tangent plane T and the normal vector $\nabla f(P)$.

- *Example:* Let S be a sphere of radius R given by

$$f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = R^2.$$

The normal vector at $P(x, y, z)$ is always along the position vector $\vec{r} = (x, y, z)$ of P (see Figure 4)

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = (2x, 2y, 2z) = 2\vec{r}.$$

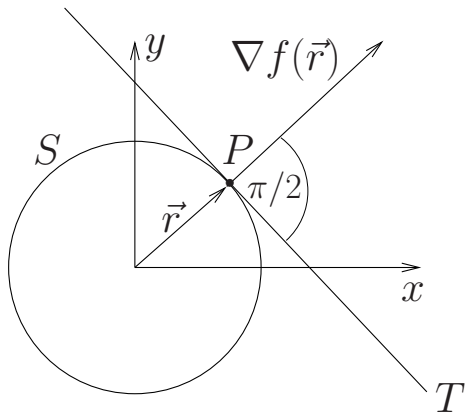


Figure 4: The normal vector of a sphere.

- *Example:* Let S be a cone along the z -axis given by

$$f(x, y, z) = 4(x^2 + y^2) - z^2 = 0, \quad z \geq 0.$$

The normal vector at $P(x, y, z)$ is

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = (8x, 8y, -2z).$$

We define the *unit surface normal vector* by

$$\vec{n} = \frac{\nabla f(x, y, z)}{|\nabla f(x, y, z)|} = \frac{(8x, 8y, -2z)}{\sqrt{64(x^2 + y^2) + 4z^2}} = \frac{(8x, 8y, -2z)}{\sqrt{20z^2}} = \frac{(4x, 4y, -z)}{\sqrt{5}z}.$$

Figure 5 illustrates the cone and its unit surface normal vector.

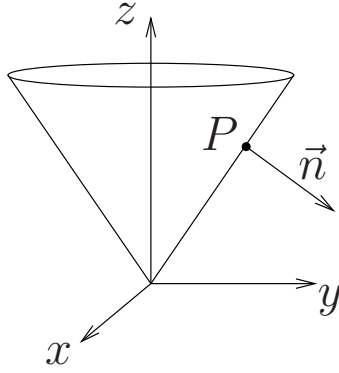


Figure 5: The unit surface normal vector \vec{n} of a cone.

- *Example:* Let S be a cylinder with radius R and height H along the z -axis given by

$$f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 = R^2, \quad 0 \leq z \leq H.$$

The normal vector at $P(x, y, z)$ is

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = (2x, 2y, 0)$$

and the unit surface normal vector is given as

$$\vec{n} = \frac{\nabla f(x, y, z)}{|\nabla f(x, y, z)|} = \frac{(x, y, 0)}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} = \frac{(x, y, 0)}{R}.$$

Figure 6 illustrates the cylinder and its unit surface normal vector.

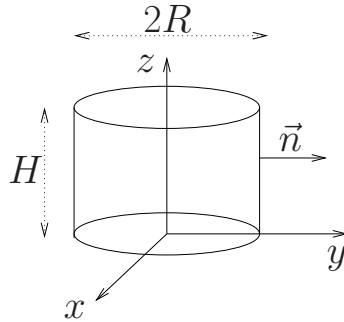


Figure 6: The unit surface normal vector of a cylinder.

1.6 The divergence of a vector field

- *Definition of the divergence:* Let $\vec{v}(x, y, z) = (v_1(x, y, z), v_2(x, y, z), v_3(x, y, z))$ be a differentiable vector field, i.e. all partial derivatives of the components of \vec{v} exist. Then we define the *divergence* of \vec{v} as

$$\operatorname{div} \vec{v}(x, y, z) = \frac{\partial v_1(x, y, z)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_2(x, y, z)}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_3(x, y, z)}{\partial z}$$

which is a scalar field. We can also rewrite the divergence in terms of the Nabla operator as

$$\begin{aligned}\operatorname{div} \vec{v}(x, y, z) &= \nabla \cdot \vec{v}(x, y, z) = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \cdot (v_1(x, y, z), v_2(x, y, z), v_3(x, y, z)) \\ &= \frac{\partial v_1(x, y, z)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_2(x, y, z)}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_3(x, y, z)}{\partial z}.\end{aligned}$$

- *Example:* Let $\vec{v}(x, y, z) = (x, y, z)$. Then

$$\operatorname{div} \vec{v}(x, y, z) = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3.$$

- *Example:* Let $\vec{\omega} = (\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3)$ be a fixed vector and consider

$$\vec{v}(x, y, z) = \vec{v}(\vec{r}) = \vec{\omega} \times \vec{r} = \begin{vmatrix} \vec{i} & \vec{j} & \vec{k} \\ \omega_1 & \omega_2 & \omega_3 \\ x & y & z \end{vmatrix} = (\omega_2 z - \omega_3 y, \omega_3 x - \omega_1 z, \omega_1 y - \omega_2 x).$$

Then

$$\operatorname{div} \vec{v}(\vec{r}) = 0 + 0 + 0 = 0.$$

- *Example:* Let $f(x, y, z)$ be a scalar field and consider the vector field

$$\vec{v}(x, y, z) = \nabla f(x, y, z) = \left(\frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f(x, y, z)}{\partial z} \right).$$

Then

$$\operatorname{div} \vec{v}(x, y, z) = \nabla \cdot \nabla f(x, y, z) = \frac{\partial^2 f(x, y, z)}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f(x, y, z)}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f(x, y, z)}{\partial z^2} = \nabla^2 f(x, y, z)$$

where

$$\nabla^2 = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}$$

is the so-called *Laplace operator*.

- *Flow of a fluid:* Consider a fluid in a region R with density $\rho(x, y, z, t)$ and velocity $\vec{v}(x, y, z, t)$ and let $\vec{u}(x, y, z, t) = \rho(x, y, z, t)\vec{v}(x, y, z, t)$. Here x, y, z denote the spatial coordinates and t denotes time. We assume that there are no sources (points where fluid is produced) and no sinks (points where fluid disappears). In this case we have the so-called continuity equation

$$\frac{\partial \rho(x, y, z, t)}{\partial t} + \operatorname{div} \vec{u}(x, y, z, t) = 0.$$

To illustrate the physics behind the divergence consider the small box around the point (x, y, z) in Figure 7. If there is more inflow than outflow, then we get

$$\frac{\partial \rho(x, y, z, t)}{\partial t} > 0$$

and

$$\operatorname{div} \vec{u}(x, y, z, t) < 0$$

from the continuity equation.

On the other hand, if there is more outflow than inflow, then we get

$$\frac{\partial \rho(x, y, z, t)}{\partial t} < 0$$

and

$$\operatorname{div} \vec{u}(x, y, z, t) > 0$$

from the continuity equation.

In summary, the divergence of $\vec{u}(x, y, z, t)$ measures outflow minus inflow.

In case the flow is incompressible, i.e. $\rho(x, y, z, t) = \rho_0 = \text{constant}$, then

$$\operatorname{div}(\rho_0 \vec{v}(x, y, z, t)) = \rho_0 \operatorname{div} \vec{v}(x, y, z, t) = 0$$

and we get the condition of incompressibility

$$\operatorname{div} \vec{v}(x, y, z, t) = 0.$$

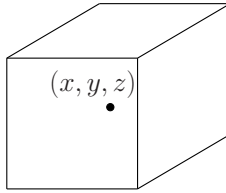


Figure 7: A small box around the point (x, y, z) .

Exercises

1. Consider the curve C given by the parametric representation

$$\vec{r}(t) = (\cos(t^2), 0, \sin(t^2)), \quad 0 \leq t \leq \sqrt{2\pi}.$$

Calculate the length of C .

2. Consider the surface S consisting of all points $P(x, y, z)$ such that

$$y + z = c.$$

- (a) Sketch the surface S for $c = 0$. Calculate the unit surface normal vector. Sketch some of the unit surface normal vectors.
- (b) Sketch the surface S for $c = 1$. Calculate the unit surface normal vector. Sketch some of the unit surface normal vectors.

3. Consider the surface S consisting of all points $P(x, y, z)$ such that

$$x^2 + y^2 = 1, \quad x > 0, \quad y > 0, \quad 0 \leq z \leq 1.$$

Sketch the surface S . Calculate the unit surface normal vector. Sketch some of the unit surface normal vectors.

4. Calculate the directional derivative of

(a) $f(x, y, z) = xyz$ at $P(1, 1, 1)$ in direction $\vec{b} = (1, 1, 1)$

(b) $f(x, y, z) = \cos(xyz)$ at $P(1, \pi/2, 1)$ in direction $\vec{b} = (1, 1, 1)$

5. Calculate the divergence of

(a)

$$\vec{v}(x, y, z) = (x^y, yz, (xy + zx)^3)$$

(b)

$$\vec{v}(x, y, z) = \left(\frac{x+y}{x}, \frac{y}{x+y}, \frac{x+z}{y+z} \right).$$