

Year 2 — Vector Calculus

Based on lectures by Hamid Alemi Arkadani

Notes taken by James Arthur

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These notes are not endorsed by the lecturers, and I have modified them (often significantly) after lectures. They are nowhere near accurate representations of what was actually lectured, and in particular, all errors are almost surely mine (especially the typos!).

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1 Lecture 1: Basic Definitions

1.1 Suffix Notation

Let there be a vector $\underline{c} = \underline{a} + \underline{b}$, where $\underline{a} = a_1\hat{i} + a_2\hat{j} + a_3\hat{k}$ and $\underline{b} = b_1\hat{i} + b_2\hat{j} + b_3\hat{k}$. Then \underline{c} is equivalent to:

$$c_i = a_i + b_i$$

In suffix notation:

$$c_j = a_j + b_j \quad j = 1, 2, 3$$

The inner product of two vectors:

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot b &= a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_3 \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^3 a_jb_j \end{aligned}$$

For a vector $\underline{a} = a_i$, i is a free index. For the dot product above: $\sum_{j=1}^3 a_jb_j$, j is a dummy suffix.

For suffix notation, an index cannot be repeated more than two times in an equation.

Example 1. Write $(a \cdot b)(c \cdot d)$ in suffix notation

Solution. Here we take that:

$$a \cdot b = a_jb_j \quad j = 1, 2, 3$$

and that

$$c \cdot d = c_id_i \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$

Now we can say that

$$(a \cdot b)(c \cdot d) = a_jb_jc_id_i \quad i, j = 1, 2, 3$$

Example 2. Write $a_jb_ic_j$ in normal vector notation

Solution. We know that

$$a_jb_ic_j = a_jc_jb_i$$

Which is:

$$(a \cdot c)b$$

Example 3. Write the vector notation $\underline{u} + (\underline{a} \cdot \underline{b})\underline{v} = |\underline{a}|^2(\underline{b} \cdot \underline{v})\underline{a}$ in suffix notation

Solution. We know that

$$a_jb_ic_j = a_jc_jb_i$$

Which is:

$$(a \cdot c)b$$

Example 4. Write the vector notation $\underline{\mathbf{u}} + (\underline{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{b}})\underline{\mathbf{v}} = |\underline{\mathbf{a}}|^2(\underline{\mathbf{b}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{v}})\underline{\mathbf{a}}$ in suffix notation

Solution. Firstly:

$$[\underline{\mathbf{u}} + (\underline{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{b}})\underline{\mathbf{v}}]_i = [|\underline{\mathbf{a}}|^2(\underline{\mathbf{b}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{v}})\underline{\mathbf{a}}]_i$$

Then,

$$u_i + (a_j b_j)v_i = a_j a_j b_l v_l a_i \quad j, l = 1, 2, 3$$

1.2 The Kronecker Delta $\delta_{i,j}$

The function is defined:

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

The suffixes i and j can each take the values 1, 2, 3 so $\delta_{i,j}$ has nine elements.

We can write the function as the identity matrix:

$$\delta_{i,j} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\delta_{i,j}$ is called a substitution tensor, since it's effect when multiplied by a_j is to replace j with i .

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_{i,j} a_j &= \sum_{j=1}^3 \delta_{i,j} a_j \\ &= \delta_{i1} a_1 + \delta_{i2} a_2 + \delta_{i3} a_3 \\ &= \delta_{11} a_1 + \delta_{12} a_2 + \delta_{13} a_3 \\ &\quad + \delta_{21} a_1 + \delta_{22} a_2 + \delta_{23} a_3 \\ &\quad + \delta_{31} a_1 + \delta_{32} a_2 + \delta_{33} a_3 \\ &= a_1 + a_2 + a_3 \end{aligned}$$

From this we can say: $\delta_{i,j} a_i = a_j$ and $\delta_{i,j} a_j = a_i$

Example 5. $\delta_{i,j}$ and dot product

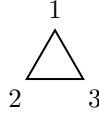
Solution.

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot b &= a_i b_i \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \\ &= \delta_{i,j} a_j b_i \\ &= a_j \delta_{i,j} b_i \\ &= a_j b_j \end{aligned}$$

1.3 The Alternating Tensor, $\varepsilon_{i,j,k}$

$\varepsilon_{i,j,k}$ is useful for manipulating expressions involving the cross product of two vectors and curl of a vector.

$$\varepsilon_{i,j,k} = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } (i, j, k) = (1, 2, 3), (2, 3, 1) \text{ or } (3, 1, 2) \\ -1 & \text{if } (i, j, k) = (3, 2, 1), (2, 1, 3) \text{ or } (1, 3, 2) \\ 0 & \text{if any of } i, j, k \text{ are equal} \end{cases}$$



The +1 case can be also written as 1, 2 or 3 are in clockwise order. So if you take a triangle and then go clockwise around it from the first element, that the order they are in. The -1 are in anticlockwise order. Hence meaning the opposite of clockwise.

The six non-zero elements of ε_{ijk} :

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon_{123} &= \varepsilon_{231} = \varepsilon_{312} = +1 \\ \varepsilon_{321} &= \varepsilon_{213} = \varepsilon_{132} = -1 \\ \varepsilon_{ijk} &= 0, \text{ otherwise} \end{aligned}$$

We can take that; $\varepsilon_{ijk} = \varepsilon_{jki}$ as they are in clockwise order. This also implies $\varepsilon_{ijk} = -\varepsilon_{jik}$ because if ijk are in clockwise order then jik must be in counterclockwise order.

1.4 $\varepsilon_{i,j,k}$ and cross product

Let $\underline{\mathbf{a}} = a_1 \hat{\mathbf{i}} + a_2 \hat{\mathbf{j}} + a_3 \hat{\mathbf{k}}$ and $\underline{\mathbf{b}} = b_1 \hat{\mathbf{i}} + b_2 \hat{\mathbf{j}} + b_3 \hat{\mathbf{k}}$. Then their cross product is:

$$\underline{\mathbf{a}} \times \underline{\mathbf{b}} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{i}} & \hat{\mathbf{j}} & \hat{\mathbf{k}} \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

and in suffix notation, we can write the above as; $(\underline{\mathbf{a}} \times \underline{\mathbf{b}})_i = \varepsilon_{ijk} a_j b_k$ where j, k are dummy suffixes and must be summed over 1 to 3.

1.5 ε_{ijk} and the scalar triple product

We can take the scalar triple product, $\underline{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{b}} \times \underline{\mathbf{c}}$, then we can do the following:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{b}} \times \underline{\mathbf{c}} &= a_i (\underline{\mathbf{b}} \times \underline{\mathbf{c}})_i \\ &= a_i \varepsilon_{ijk} b_j c_k \\ &= \varepsilon_{ijk} a_i b_j c_k \\ &= c_k \varepsilon_{ijk} a_i b_j \end{aligned}$$

from the above we show that $\underline{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{b}} \times \underline{\mathbf{c}} = \underline{\mathbf{c}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{a}} \times \underline{\mathbf{b}}$. We can expand $\varepsilon_{ijk} a_i b_j c_k$ to get:

$$\begin{aligned} &= \varepsilon_{123} a_1 b_2 c_3 + \varepsilon_{231} a_2 b_3 c_1 + \varepsilon_{312} a_3 b_1 c_2 \\ &\quad + \varepsilon_{321} a_3 b_2 c_1 + \varepsilon_{213} a_2 b_1 c_3 + \varepsilon_{132} a_1 b_3 c_2 \\ &= a_1 b_2 c_3 + a_2 b_3 c_1 + a_3 b_1 c_2 - a_3 b_2 c_1 - a_2 b_1 c_3 - a_1 b_3 c_2 \end{aligned}$$

which is the expanded form of the triple scalar product.

1.6 A relation between ε_{ijk} and $\delta_{i,j}$

We are going to prove the following statement:

$$\varepsilon_{ijk}\varepsilon_{klm} = \delta_{il}\delta_{jm} - \delta_{im}\delta_{jl}$$

Since all of the coordinate axis are the same, just consider $i = 1$:

If then $j = 1$, we get that $\varepsilon_{11k} = 0$ and so LHS = 0. Then considering the RHS, we get that $\delta_{1l}\delta_{1m} - \delta_{1m}\delta_{1l} = 0$, so equation holds.

If $j = 2$, then $\varepsilon_{ijk} = \varepsilon_{12k} = 0$, unless $k = 3$, so then only $k = 3$ contributes to the sum. So $\varepsilon_{klm} = \varepsilon_{3lm}$, so zero unless l and m are 1 and 2. So we can conclude that $\varepsilon_{ijk}\varepsilon_{klm} = \varepsilon_{123}\varepsilon_{312}$ or $\varepsilon_{123}\varepsilon_{321}$, so the LHS is either ± 1 . Looking at RHS, we have either: $\delta_{11}\delta_{22} - \delta_{12}\delta_{21}$ or $\delta_{12}\delta_{21} - \delta_{11}\delta_{22}$. This gives ± 1 in the same permutation as the LHS. So equation holds.

2 Gradient, Divergence and Curl

2.1 Gradient

Assume we have a $f = f(x, y, z)$ or $f = f(x_1, x_2, x_3)$, so a scalar valued function. Then we define grad f as:

$$\underline{\nabla} f = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \hat{\mathbf{i}} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \hat{\mathbf{j}} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \hat{\mathbf{k}} \right) f$$

We say grad of f is a differential operator. So:

$$\underline{\nabla} f = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \hat{\mathbf{i}} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \hat{\mathbf{j}} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \hat{\mathbf{k}} \right)$$

and we can write it in suffix notation aswell:

$$[\underline{\nabla} f]_i = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$

2.2 Divergence

Assume we have a vector field, $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}(x, y, z, t)$. We define the divergence of this vector field as;

$$\underline{\nabla} \cdot \mathbf{u} = \left(\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial u_3}{\partial x_3} \right)$$

Placing this in suffix notation, we get that:

$$[\underline{\nabla} \cdot \mathbf{u}]_j = \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_j}$$

2.3 Curl

the curl of a vector field can be written as:

$$\underline{\nabla} \times \mathbf{u}$$

To write this in suffix notation, we can just use the cross produce formula:

$$[\underline{\nabla} \times \mathbf{u}]_i = \varepsilon_{ijk} \underline{\nabla}_j u_k$$

which then can be manipulated into:

$$[\underline{\nabla} \times \mathbf{u}]_i = \varepsilon_{ijk} \frac{\partial u_k}{\partial x_j} \quad j, k = 1, 2, 3$$

where i is a free index and j, k are dummy suffixes, so $j, k = 1, 2, 3$

3 Combinations of gradient, divergence and curl

3.1 Divergence of Gradient

If we take $\underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{\nabla} f$ where $f = (x_1, x_2, x_3, t)$. We can write the div of grad as:

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{\nabla} f &= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \hat{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \hat{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \hat{k} \right) \cdot \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \hat{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \hat{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \hat{k} \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_3} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_3} \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_3^2} \\ &= \Delta f\end{aligned}$$

Where the $\Delta = \underline{\nabla}^2$ is the laplacian. So how do we write this in suffix notation?

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{\nabla} f &= \underline{\nabla}_j [\underline{\nabla} f]_j \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j^2}\end{aligned}$$

3.2 Curl of Gradient

We can write the curl of gradient as:

$$\begin{aligned}[\underline{\nabla} \times \underline{\nabla} f]_i &= \varepsilon_{ijk} \underline{\nabla}_j \underline{\nabla}_k f \\ &= \varepsilon_{ijk} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_k} \\ &= \varepsilon_{ikj} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} \\ &= -\varepsilon_{ijk} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} \\ &= -\varepsilon_{ijk} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_k} \quad \text{if } f \in c^2 \\ &\implies \underline{\nabla} \times \underline{\nabla} f = 0\end{aligned}$$

3.3 Gradient of Divergence

Assume we have a \underline{u} , vector field, and we want $\underline{\nabla} f \underline{\nabla} \cdot$.

$$\begin{aligned}[\underline{\nabla} f \underline{\nabla} \cdot]_i &= \underline{\nabla}_i \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_j} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_j} \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 u_j}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}\end{aligned}$$

3.4 Divergence of Curl

We can write divergence of curl as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 [\nabla \cdot \nabla \times \mathbf{u}]_i &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} [\nabla \times \mathbf{u}]_i \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \varepsilon_{ijk} \frac{\partial u_k}{\partial x_j} \\
 i, j, k &= 1, 2, 3, \text{ so } i \leftrightarrow j \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \varepsilon_{jik} \frac{\partial u_k}{\partial x_i} \\
 &= -\varepsilon_{ijk} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial u_k}{\partial x_i} \\
 &= -\varepsilon_{ijk} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial u_k}{\partial x_j} \quad \text{as } \mathbf{u} \in C^2
 \end{aligned}$$

As $\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{u}) = -\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{u})$, then we know that $\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{u}) = 0$

3.5 Curl of Curl

We can write curl of curl, $\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{u})$, as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 [\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{u})]_i &= \varepsilon_{ijk} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} (\nabla \times \mathbf{u})_k \\
 &= \varepsilon_{ijk} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \varepsilon_{klm} \frac{\partial u_m}{\partial x_l} \\
 &= (\delta_{il} \delta_{jm} - \delta_{im} \delta_{jl}) \frac{\partial^2 u_m}{\partial x_j \partial x_l} \\
 &= \delta_{il} \delta_{jm} \frac{\partial^2 u_m}{\partial x_j \partial x_l} - \delta_{im} \delta_{jl} \frac{\partial^2 u_m}{\partial x_j \partial x_l} \\
 &= \frac{\partial^2 u_j}{\partial x_j \partial x_i} - \frac{\partial^2 u_i}{\partial x_j \partial x_j} \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_j} - \frac{\partial^2 u_i}{\partial x_j^2} \\
 &= [\nabla (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u})]_i - [\Delta \mathbf{u}]_i \\
 &= [\nabla (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}) - \nabla^2 \mathbf{u}]_i
 \end{aligned}$$

4 Scalar Field / Vector Fields Definitions

A scalar or vector quantity is said to be a **field** if it is a function of position. Examples

- (i) **Temperature** is a scalar field, $T = T(x, y, z) = T(\mathbf{r})$
- (ii) **Pressure and Density** are also scalar fields $P = P(\mathbf{r})$ and $\rho = \rho(\mathbf{r})$
- (iii) if a physical quantity is a scalar we speak of a scalar field or function of position.

If a physical quantity is a vector, such as force $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$. We speak of a **vector field** or **vector function**.

A **vector-valued function** is an $f : A \subset \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^m$. So, for each $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in A$, f assigns a value $f(\mathbf{x})$, an m -tuple, in \mathbb{R}^m . These functions, f , are called vector-valued functions if $m > 1$ and scalar if $m = 1$.

Example 6. Take the function, $f : (x, y, z) \mapsto (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}$

Solution. It's a scalar function from \mathbb{R}^3 to \mathbb{R} .

Example 7. Take the function $g : (x_1, x_2, x_3) \mapsto (x_1 x_2 x_3, \sqrt{x_1 x_3})$

Solution. This is a vector valued function from \mathbb{R}^3 to \mathbb{R}^2

To specify a temperature T in a region A of space requires a function $T : A \subset \mathbb{R}^m \mapsto \mathbb{R}$. $T = T(x, y, z)$.

To specify the velocity of a fluid moving in space requires a map, $\mathbf{v} : \mathbb{R}^4 \mapsto \mathbb{R}^3$ where $\mathbf{v}(x, y, z, t)$ is the velocity of the fluid at (x, y, z) at time t .

When $f : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, we say that f is a real valued function of n -variables with domain U .

Let $f : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, then graph $f = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} : (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in U\}$. If $n = 1$, then we can conclude that graph f is curve in \mathbb{R}^2 and if $n = 2$, then graph f is a surface in \mathbb{R}^3 .

4.1 Level Sets, Curves and Surfaces

A level set is a subset of \mathbb{R}^3 on which f is constant. For example, for $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$, the set where $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ is a level set. A level set is a set of $(x, y, z) : f(x, y, z) = c$ where $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

For functions $f(x, y)$, we speak of level curves or contours. example, $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, $f(x, y) = x + y + 2$, has as its graph the inclined plane $z = x + y + 2$. The plane intersects the xy plane where $z = 0$ in the line $y = -x - 2$ and the z -axis at $(0, 0, 2)$. For any $c \in \mathbb{R}$, the level curve of c is the straight line: $y = -x + (c - 2) : L_c\{(x, y) : y = -x + c - 2\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$

5 Differentiating Scalar Fields

Definition 5.1: Partial Differentiation

Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be an open set. The $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}$ partial derivatives of $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ which at point \underline{x} are defined by:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_1, \dots, x_j + h, \dots, x_n) - f(x_1, \dots, x_n)}{h}$$

where the limit exists for j from 1 to n .

Example 8. If $f(x, y) = x^2y + y^3$, then find $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$

Solution. We can simply work out that:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} &= 2xy \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} &= x^2 + 3y^2 \end{aligned}$$

To say that a partial derivative shall be evaluated at a point (x_0, y_0) , we write; $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Big|_{(x_0, y_0)}$

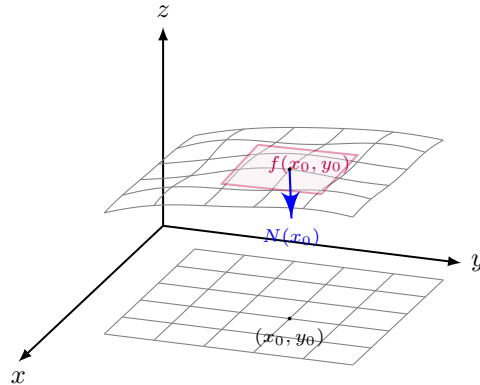
5.1 Equations of Tangent planes

Definition 5.2: Tangent Plane

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable at (x_0, y_0) , the plane described by:

$$z_p = f(x_0, y_0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_0} \Big| (x - x_0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Big| (y - y_0)$$

is called the tangent plane of f at (x_0, y_0) .



Definition 5.3

Let f be a function $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ we say that f is differentiable at (x_0, y_0) , if $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ exists at (x_0, y_0) and if

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} \frac{f(x,y) - z_p}{\|(x,y) - (x_0,y_0)\|}$$

then z_p is a good approximation of f .

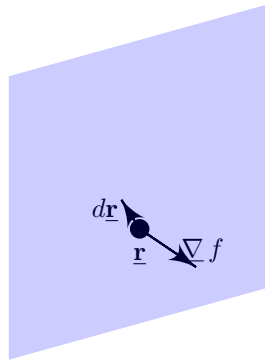
5.2 Gradient of a scalar field**Definition 5.4**

The gradient of a scalar field is a vector field with a direction that is perpendicular to the level surface and pointing in the direction of increasing f , with a magnitude equal to the rate of change of f in this direction.

$$\underline{\nabla} f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \hat{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \hat{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \hat{k}$$

Consider an infinitesimal change in the position in space from $\underline{\mathbf{r}}$ to $d\underline{\mathbf{r}}$. This results in a small change in the value of f , from f to $f + df$.

$$\begin{aligned} df &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} dz \\ &= \underline{\nabla} f \cdot d\underline{\mathbf{r}} \end{aligned}$$



Suppose that $d\underline{\mathbf{r}}$ lies in the level surface $f = C$, then $df = \underline{\nabla} f \cdot d\underline{\mathbf{r}} = 0$ so $\underline{\nabla} f$ and $d\underline{\mathbf{r}}$ are perpendicular. To show that $\underline{\nabla} f$ has the required magnitude, let $d\underline{\mathbf{r}} = \hat{\underline{\mathbf{n}}} ds$, where $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{n}}}$ is normal to the surface and s is a distance measured along the normal.

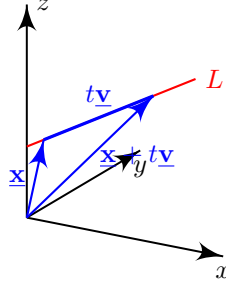
$$\begin{aligned} df &= \underline{\nabla} f \cdot d\underline{\mathbf{r}} \\ &= \underline{\nabla} f \cdot \hat{\underline{\mathbf{n}}} ds \\ &= |\underline{\nabla} f| ds \end{aligned}$$

So we know that $\underline{\nabla} f \parallel ds \implies \frac{df}{ds} = |\underline{\nabla} f|$.

Example 9. Let $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$, the euclidean norm.

Solution. Then we know that $\underline{\nabla} f = \left(\frac{x}{r}, \frac{y}{r}, \frac{z}{r}\right) = \frac{\mathbf{r}}{r}$, where $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ and $\mathbf{r} = x\hat{\mathbf{i}} + y\hat{\mathbf{j}} + z\hat{\mathbf{k}}$

6 Directional Derivative



Suppose $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, let $\underline{\mathbf{v}}, \underline{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ be fixed vectors. Consider the function from $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined as:

$$t \mapsto f(\underline{\mathbf{x}} + t\underline{\mathbf{v}}) \quad (\dagger)$$

The set of points of the form $\underline{\mathbf{x}} + t\underline{\mathbf{v}}$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$ is the line L through which the point $\underline{\mathbf{x}}$ is parallel to $\underline{\mathbf{v}}$. (\dagger) is a function, f , restricted to L .

Definition 6.1: Directional Derivative

If $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the directional derivative of f at $\underline{\mathbf{x}}$ along a vector $\underline{\mathbf{v}}$ is given by:

$$\left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} f(\underline{\mathbf{x}} + t\underline{\mathbf{v}})$$

if it exists.

Note that we usually choose $\underline{\mathbf{v}}$ to be of length unity.

Theorem 6.1

If $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and differentiable, then all directional derivatives exist. The directional derivative at $\underline{\mathbf{x}}$ in direction $\underline{\mathbf{v}}$ is given by:

$$\left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} f(\underline{\mathbf{x}} + t\underline{\mathbf{v}}) = \underline{\nabla} f(\underline{\mathbf{x}}) \cdot \underline{\mathbf{v}}$$

Proof. Let $\underline{\mathbf{c}}(t) = \underline{\mathbf{x}} + t\underline{\mathbf{v}}$, $f(\underline{\mathbf{x}} + t\underline{\mathbf{v}}) = f(\underline{\mathbf{c}}(t))$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} f(\underline{\mathbf{c}}(t)) &= \underline{\nabla} f(\underline{\mathbf{c}}(t)) \cdot \underline{\mathbf{c}}'(t) \\ &= \underline{\nabla} f(\underline{\mathbf{c}}(0)) \cdot \underline{\mathbf{c}}'(0) \\ &= \underline{\nabla} f(\underline{\mathbf{x}}) \cdot \underline{\mathbf{v}} \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 6.2

Assume that $\underline{\nabla} f \neq 0$. Then $\underline{\nabla} f(x)$ points in the direction along which f is increasing fastest

Proof. If $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ is a unit vector, the rate of change of f in the direction $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ is given by:

$$\nabla f \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} = |\nabla f| |\hat{\mathbf{n}}| \cos \vartheta = |\nabla f| \cos \vartheta$$

where ϑ is the angle between $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ and ∇f . This maximum is when $\vartheta = 0$, so $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ and ∇f are parallel. If we wish to move in the direction in which f decreases the fastest, we should proceed in the direction, $-\nabla f$. \square

Example 10. Find the unique normal to $x^2 + y^2 - z = 0$ at $(1, 1, 2)$

Solution. We say that $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 - z = 0$, and that ∇f is normal as f is a level surface. So:

$$\nabla f = 2x\hat{\mathbf{i}} + 2y\hat{\mathbf{j}} - \hat{\mathbf{k}}$$

and we can work out $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ as:

$$\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \frac{(2x, 2y, -1)}{\sqrt{1 + 4(x^2 + y^2)}} \Big|_{(1,1,2)}$$

and so $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \frac{1}{3}(2, 2, -1)$

6.1 Properties of Gradient

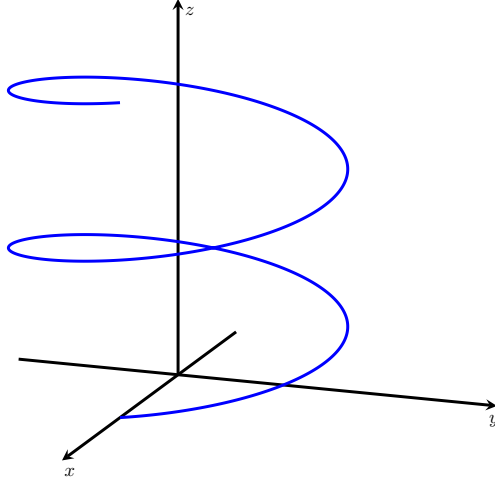
For any scalar functions of $f(x, y, z)$ and $g(x, y, z)$ and any $c \in \mathbb{R}$, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla(f + g) &= \nabla f + \nabla g \\ \nabla(cf) &= c\nabla f \\ \nabla(fg) &= f\nabla g + g\nabla f \\ \nabla(f \circ g) &= f'(g(x))\nabla g \end{aligned}$$

7 Parameterised Curves

We consider smooth curves in \mathbb{R}^3 specified in terms of rectangular cartesian coordinates (x, y, z) . Such curves are generated by three smooth functions of a single parameter, t .

Example 11. A good example is a circular helix, $\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\hat{\mathbf{i}} + y(t)\hat{\mathbf{j}} + z(t)\hat{\mathbf{k}}$, where: $x(t) = a \cos t$, $y(t) = b \sin t$ and $z(t) = ct$



We can calculate the length of a path using an integral. Take a function that parameterised with three variables, $x(t), y(t), z(t)$ and between two points, $t_0 \leq t \leq t_1$, we can find the length, L :

$$L(\underline{\mathbf{r}}) = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \sqrt{\dot{x}^2(t) + \dot{y}^2(t) + \dot{z}^2(t)} dt$$

We could also parameterise a curve using an arc length parameter, s , where differential of arc-length satisfy the equation:

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= d\mathbf{r} \cdot d\mathbf{r} \\ &= dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 \end{aligned}$$

We call ds the line element of the curve. We can also write this with respect to t :

$$\dot{s}^2 = \dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2 = \dot{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}}$$

Now we have a curve in a space $\underline{\mathbf{r}}(t)$. Then we can find a tangent, $\dot{\underline{\mathbf{r}}} = (\dot{x}, \dot{y}, \dot{z})$, which then we know that $|\dot{\underline{\mathbf{r}}}| = \dot{s}$ and $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{t}}} = \frac{\dot{\underline{\mathbf{r}}}}{|\dot{\underline{\mathbf{r}}}|}$. We have now swapped the parameter from t to s .

$$\hat{\underline{\mathbf{t}}} = \frac{dx}{ds}\hat{\mathbf{i}} + \frac{dy}{ds}\hat{\mathbf{j}} + \frac{dz}{ds}\hat{\mathbf{k}}$$

As we then know that $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{t}}}$ is a unit vector, $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{t}}} \cdot \hat{\underline{\mathbf{t}}} = 1$, now differentiate and $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{t}}} \cdot \frac{d\hat{\underline{\mathbf{t}}}}{ds} = 0$, hence $\frac{d\hat{\underline{\mathbf{t}}}}{ds} \perp \hat{\underline{\mathbf{t}}}$. The $\frac{d\hat{\underline{\mathbf{t}}}}{ds}$ is in the direction of the principle normal, $\underline{\mathbf{n}}$, of the curve. So $\frac{d\hat{\underline{\mathbf{t}}}}{ds} = \kappa(s)\hat{\underline{\mathbf{n}}}$

The plane spanned by $\hat{\mathbf{t}}(s)$ and $\hat{\mathbf{n}}(s)$ is the osculating plane.

So if we have a curve $\mathbf{r}(t) \in \mathbb{R}^3$, then $\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}$, so we can now say that $\frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{ds} = \hat{\mathbf{t}}$. Now we can take derivatives and hence:

$$\frac{d\hat{\mathbf{t}}}{ds} = \kappa \hat{\mathbf{n}}$$

Moving forward now, we can take $\hat{\mathbf{t}} = \mathbf{r}'(s)$ and then differentiating: $\hat{\mathbf{t}} = \mathbf{r}''(s)$, which then implies:

$$\kappa = |\mathbf{r}''(s)|$$

and then we know that $\dot{\mathbf{r}}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(s)\dot{s}$ and then $\ddot{\mathbf{r}}(t) = r''\dot{s}^2 + \frac{\ddot{s}}{\dot{s}}\dot{\mathbf{r}}$ and hence we can say that: $\mathbf{r}''(s) = \frac{1}{\dot{s}^2}\ddot{\mathbf{r}} - \frac{\ddot{s}}{\dot{s}^3}\dot{\mathbf{r}}$. So now,

$$\kappa^2(s) = \frac{1}{(\dot{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}})^3} ((\ddot{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \ddot{\mathbf{r}})(\dot{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}}) - (\dot{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \ddot{\mathbf{r}})^2)$$

Given a unit tangent vector, $\hat{\mathbf{t}}$ and a unit normal vector, $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ at a point on a curve in \mathbb{R}^3 , we can define a third unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ which is the unit binormal vector.

$$\hat{\mathbf{b}} = \hat{\mathbf{t}} \times \hat{\mathbf{n}}$$

They form a right handed system of unit vectors, this forms the moving trihedron as s varies.

$$\hat{\mathbf{b}} = \hat{\mathbf{t}} \times \hat{\mathbf{n}}, \quad \hat{\mathbf{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{b}} \times \hat{\mathbf{t}}, \quad \hat{\mathbf{t}} = \hat{\mathbf{n}} \times \hat{\mathbf{b}}$$

7.1 Deriving Frenet-Serret Equations

We can now differentiate the other two equations, and get; $\frac{d\hat{\mathbf{b}}}{ds} \perp \hat{\mathbf{b}}$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\hat{\mathbf{b}}}{ds} &= \frac{d\hat{\mathbf{t}}}{ds} \times \hat{\mathbf{n}} + \hat{\mathbf{t}} \times \frac{d\hat{\mathbf{n}}}{ds} \\ &= \kappa \hat{\mathbf{n}} \times \hat{\mathbf{n}} + \hat{\mathbf{t}} \times \frac{d\hat{\mathbf{n}}}{ds} \\ &= \hat{\mathbf{t}} \times \frac{d\hat{\mathbf{n}}}{ds} \end{aligned}$$

which also tells us that:

$$\frac{d\hat{\mathbf{b}}}{ds} \perp \hat{\mathbf{t}}, \quad \frac{d\hat{\mathbf{n}}}{ds}$$

and hence $\frac{d\hat{\mathbf{n}}}{ds} \parallel \hat{\mathbf{n}}$ and so,

$$\frac{d\hat{\mathbf{b}}}{ds} = -\tau \hat{\mathbf{n}}$$

we call, τ the torsion of the curve.

Example 12. We shall take the helix again,

$$\begin{aligned} d\mathbf{r} &= -a \sin t dt \hat{\mathbf{i}} + a \cos t dt \hat{\mathbf{j}} + c dt \hat{\mathbf{k}} \\ ds^2 &= (a^2(\sin^2 t + \cos^2 t) + c^2) dt^2 \\ ds &= (a^2 + c^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} dt \\ \implies t &= (a^2 + c^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} s \end{aligned}$$

Now we can find the tangent to any point.

$$\underline{\mathbf{r}}'(s) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 + c^2}} \left(-a \sin \frac{s}{\sqrt{a^2 + c^2}} \hat{\mathbf{i}} + a \cos \frac{s}{\sqrt{a^2 + c^2}} \hat{\mathbf{j}} + c \hat{\mathbf{k}} \right)$$

and now for $\hat{\mathbf{t}}'(s)$

$$\hat{\mathbf{t}}' = \underline{\mathbf{r}}''(s) = \frac{a}{a^2 + c^2} \left(-\cos \frac{s}{\sqrt{a^2 + c^2}} \hat{\mathbf{i}} - \sin \frac{s}{\sqrt{a^2 + c^2}} \hat{\mathbf{j}} \right)$$

comparing both sides, we can say that: $\kappa(s) = \frac{a}{a^2 + c^2}$. Finally, we find $\hat{\mathbf{b}}(s)$ as:

$$\hat{\mathbf{b}} = \hat{\mathbf{t}} \times \hat{\mathbf{n}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 + c^2}} \left(-c \sin \frac{s}{\sqrt{a^2 + c^2}} \hat{\mathbf{i}} - c \cos \frac{s}{\sqrt{a^2 + c^2}} \hat{\mathbf{j}} + a \hat{\mathbf{k}} \right)$$

and to find torsion:

$$\hat{\mathbf{b}}' = \frac{c}{a^2 + c^2} \left(\cos \frac{s}{\sqrt{a^2 + c^2}} \hat{\mathbf{i}} + \sin \frac{s}{\sqrt{a^2 + c^2}} \hat{\mathbf{j}} + a \hat{\mathbf{k}} \right)$$

and so torsion:

$$\tau(s) = \frac{c}{a^2 + c^2}$$

Now for $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$, we can differentiate once and get:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\hat{\mathbf{n}}}{ds} &= \frac{d\hat{\mathbf{b}}}{ds} \times \hat{\mathbf{t}} + \hat{\mathbf{b}} \times \frac{d\hat{\mathbf{t}}}{ds} \\ &= -\tau(s) \hat{\mathbf{n}} \times \hat{\mathbf{t}} + \hat{\mathbf{b}} \times \kappa \hat{\mathbf{n}} \\ &= \tau(s) \hat{\mathbf{b}} - \kappa(s) \hat{\mathbf{t}} \end{aligned}$$

Definition 7.1: Frenet-Serret Equations in \mathbb{R}^3

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\hat{\mathbf{t}}(s)}{ds} &= \kappa(s) \hat{\mathbf{n}}(s) \\ \frac{d\hat{\mathbf{b}}(s)}{ds} &= -\tau(s) \hat{\mathbf{n}}(s) \\ \frac{d\hat{\mathbf{n}}(s)}{ds} &= \tau(s) \hat{\mathbf{b}} - \kappa(s) \hat{\mathbf{t}} \end{aligned}$$

If you are given $\hat{\mathbf{t}}$, $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$, κ and τ , you can use the Frenet Serret equations to determine $\hat{\mathbf{t}}$, $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$ and thus determine the curve in its entirety.

8 Differentiation and Vector Fields

If $\underline{\mathbf{A}}(t) = A(t)_1 \hat{\mathbf{i}} + A(t)_2 \hat{\mathbf{j}} + A(t)_3 \hat{\mathbf{k}}$, then:

$$\frac{d\underline{\mathbf{A}}(t)}{dt} = \frac{dA(t)}{dt}_1 \hat{\mathbf{i}} + \frac{dA(t)}{dt}_2 \hat{\mathbf{j}} + \frac{dA(t)}{dt}_3 \hat{\mathbf{k}}$$

and let $\Phi = \Phi(x, y, z, t)$, $\underline{\mathbf{A}}(\underline{\mathbf{x}}, t)$, $B(\underline{\mathbf{x}}, t)$, then:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\Phi \underline{\mathbf{A}}) = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} \underline{\mathbf{A}} + \Phi \frac{\partial \underline{\mathbf{A}}}{\partial t} \quad (*)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\underline{\mathbf{A}} + \underline{\mathbf{B}}) = \frac{\partial \underline{\mathbf{A}}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \underline{\mathbf{B}}}{\partial t} \quad (*^2)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\underline{\mathbf{A}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{B}}) = \frac{\partial \underline{\mathbf{A}}}{\partial t} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{B}} + \underline{\mathbf{A}} \cdot \frac{\partial \underline{\mathbf{B}}}{\partial t} \quad (*^3)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\underline{\mathbf{A}} \times \underline{\mathbf{B}}) = \frac{\partial \underline{\mathbf{A}}}{\partial t} \times \underline{\mathbf{B}} + \underline{\mathbf{A}} \times \frac{\partial \underline{\mathbf{B}}}{\partial t} \quad (*^4)$$

Now for the second derivatives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 \underline{\mathbf{A}}}{\partial x \partial y} &= \frac{\partial^2 \underline{\mathbf{A}}}{\partial y \partial x} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial \underline{\mathbf{A}}}{\partial y} \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 \underline{\mathbf{A}}_1}{\partial x \partial y} \hat{\mathbf{i}} + \frac{\partial^2 \underline{\mathbf{A}}_2}{\partial x \partial y} \hat{\mathbf{j}} + \frac{\partial^2 \underline{\mathbf{A}}_3}{\partial x \partial y} \hat{\mathbf{k}} \end{aligned}$$

8.1 Divergence of a vector field

The divergence of a vector field $u(\underline{\mathbf{x}}, t)$ is a scalar field. It's value at a point P is defined:

$$\nabla \cdot u = \lim_{\delta \underline{\mathbf{V}} \rightarrow 0} \oint \underline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{n}} ds$$

where $\underline{\mathbf{V}}$ is a small volume enclosing P . Physically this is the amount of flux in vector field, $\underline{\mathbf{U}}$ out of $\delta \underline{\mathbf{V}}$ divided by the volume.

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{\mathbf{u}} = \frac{\partial \underline{\mathbf{u}}_1}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \underline{\mathbf{u}}_2}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \underline{\mathbf{u}}_3}{\partial z}$$

Assume $P(x, y, z)$ is enclosed by a cube of side length, $\delta x, \delta y, \delta z$. Assume P is at the centre of the cube. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_S \underline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{n}} ds &= \iint_{S_1} \underline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{n}} ds + \iint_{S_2} \underline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{n}} ds + \iint_{S_3} \underline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{n}} ds \\ &\quad + \iint_{S_4} \underline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{n}} ds + \iint_{S_5} \underline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{n}} ds + \iint_{S_6} \underline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{n}} ds \\ &= u_1(x + \frac{\delta x}{2}, y, z) \delta y \delta z - u_1(x - \frac{\delta x}{2}, y, z) \delta y \delta z \\ &\quad + u_2(x, y + \frac{\delta y}{2}, z) \delta x \delta z - u_2(x, y - \frac{\delta y}{2}, z) \delta x \delta z \\ &\quad + u_3(x, y, z + \frac{\delta z}{2}) \delta x \delta y - u_3(x, y, z - \frac{\delta z}{2}) \delta x \delta y \\ &= \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x} \delta \underline{\mathbf{V}} + \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial y} \delta \underline{\mathbf{V}} + \frac{\partial u_3}{\partial z} \delta \underline{\mathbf{V}} \end{aligned}$$

So we can conclude that:

$$\lim_{\delta \mathbf{V} \rightarrow 0} \oiint \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} ds = \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial u_3}{\partial z} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}$$

Example 13. Compute divergence of $F = x^2y\hat{\mathbf{i}} + z\hat{\mathbf{j}} + xyz\hat{\mathbf{k}}$

Solution.

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \cdot F &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x^2y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(z) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(xyz) \\ &= 3xy\end{aligned}$$

9 Curl of a Vector Field

The curl of a vector field $\underline{\mathbf{u}}(\underline{\mathbf{x}}, t)$ is a vector field. The component in the direction of the $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$,

$$\hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \nabla \times \underline{\mathbf{u}} = \lim_{\delta S \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\delta S} \oint_{\delta C} \underline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot d\underline{\mathbf{r}}$$

$\nabla \times \underline{\mathbf{u}}$ is related to the rotation or twisting of the vector field.

$$\nabla \times \underline{\mathbf{u}} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{i}} & \hat{\mathbf{j}} & \hat{\mathbf{k}} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \end{vmatrix} =$$

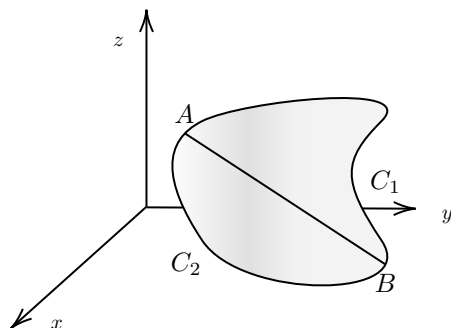
To prove this:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \nabla \times \underline{\mathbf{u}} &= \lim_{\delta S \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\delta S} \oint_{\delta C} \underline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot d\underline{\mathbf{r}} \\ &= \oint_{C_1} \underline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot d\underline{\mathbf{r}} + \oint_{C_2} \underline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot d\underline{\mathbf{r}} \\ &\quad + \oint_{C_3} \underline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot d\underline{\mathbf{r}} + \oint_{C_4} \underline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot d\underline{\mathbf{r}} \\ &\approx u_1(x, y - \frac{\delta y}{2}, z) \delta x + -u_1(x, y + \frac{\delta y}{2}, z) \delta x \\ &\quad + u_2(x + \frac{\delta x}{2}, y, z) \delta y - u_2(x - \frac{\delta x}{2}, y, z) \delta y \\ &= -\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial y} \delta y \delta x + \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial x} \delta x \delta y \\ &= \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial y} \end{aligned}$$

The other components of $\nabla \times \underline{\mathbf{u}}$ can be found with similar arguments.

10 Conservative Fields

10.1 Gradients and Conservative Field



Definition 10.1: Conservative Vector Field

A conservative vector field is one which the line integral along a curve connecting two points does not depend on the path taken.

What this says, is that we can write:

$$\int_C \underline{\mathbf{F}} \cdot d\underline{\mathbf{r}} = \int_{C_1} \underline{\mathbf{F}} \cdot d\underline{\mathbf{r}} = \int_{C_2} \underline{\mathbf{F}} \cdot d\underline{\mathbf{r}}$$

Theorem 10.1

Suppose that a vector field $\underline{\mathbf{F}}$ is related to a scalar field $\Phi(\underline{\mathbf{x}})$ by $\underline{\mathbf{F}} = \underline{\nabla}\Phi$ and $\underline{\nabla}\Phi$ exists everywhere in some region D . Conversely, if $\underline{\mathbf{F}}$ is conservative, then $\underline{\mathbf{F}}$ can be written as the gradient of a scalar field, $\underline{\mathbf{F}} = \underline{\nabla}\Phi$

Proof. Suppose that $\underline{\mathbf{F}} = \underline{\nabla}\Phi$, then F is conservative on D . So we can write;

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C \underline{\mathbf{F}} \cdot d\underline{\mathbf{r}} &= \int_C \underline{\nabla}\Phi \cdot d\underline{\mathbf{r}} \\ &= \int_C \left(\frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial z} \right) \cdot (dx, dy, dz) \\ &= \int_C \frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial z} dz \\ &= \int_C d\Phi \\ &= \Phi \Big|_A^B \\ &= \Phi(B) - \Phi(A) \end{aligned}$$

So as this result only matters about the end points, \mathbf{F} is conservative. Now assume that \mathbf{F} is conservative, then a scalar field $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$ can be defined as the line integral of \mathbf{F} from the origin to the point \mathbf{x} :

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi(\mathbf{x}) &= \int_{\mathbf{0}}^{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} \\ d\Phi &= \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} \\ &= \nabla\Phi \cdot \mathbf{r} \\ &= \frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial y}dy + \frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial z}dz\end{aligned}$$

and we can now say that $\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \nabla\Phi \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ and hence, $F = \nabla\Phi$ □

If a vector field is conservative, $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$ which satisfies $\mathbf{F} = \nabla\Phi$ is called the potential of the vector field.

10.2 Curl and conservative vector fields

Suppose that $\mathbf{u} = \nabla\Phi$, then,

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \times \mathbf{u} &= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \times (u_1, u_2, u_3) \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{i}} & \hat{\mathbf{j}} & \hat{\mathbf{k}} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial u_3}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial z} \right) \hat{\mathbf{i}} + \left(\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial u_3}{\partial x} \right) \hat{\mathbf{j}} + \left(\frac{\partial u_2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial y} \right) \hat{\mathbf{k}} \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial^2\Phi}{\partial y\partial z} - \frac{\partial^2\Phi}{\partial z\partial y} \right) \hat{\mathbf{i}} + \left(\frac{\partial^2\Phi}{\partial z\partial x} - \frac{\partial^2\Phi}{\partial x\partial z} \right) \hat{\mathbf{j}} \\ &\quad + \left(\frac{\partial^2\Phi}{\partial x\partial y} - \frac{\partial^2\Phi}{\partial y\partial x} \right) \hat{\mathbf{k}} \\ &= \mathbf{0} \quad \text{As } \Phi \in C^2\end{aligned}$$

So for any vector \mathbf{u} that can be written as the gradient of a vector field is irrotational. Conversely, any irrotational vector field is conservative.

10.3 Laplacian of a scalar field

Suppose that a scalar field Φ , is twice differentiable. Then $\nabla\Phi$ is a differentiable vector field, so we can take divergence of $\nabla\Phi$ and obtain another scalar field

Definition 10.2: Laplacian

The scalar field $\nabla \cdot \nabla\Phi$ is called the Laplacian of Φ and is denoted, ∇^2 or Δ

The Laplacian can also act on a vector field, which results in another vector field.

$$\nabla^2 \mathbf{u} = \nabla^2 u_1 \hat{\mathbf{i}} + \nabla^2 u_2 \hat{\mathbf{j}} + \nabla^2 u_3 \hat{\mathbf{k}}$$

If we have $\Delta\Phi = 0$, this is a known PDE known as the Laplace equation.

Theorem 10.2: Divergence of curl

For any \mathcal{C}^2 vector field, $\underline{\mathbf{F}}$,

$$\underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{\nabla} \times \underline{\mathbf{F}} = 0$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\nabla} \times \underline{\mathbf{F}} &= \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{i}} & \hat{\mathbf{j}} & \hat{\mathbf{k}} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ F_1 & F_2 & F_3 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial F_3}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial z} \right) \hat{\mathbf{i}} + \left(\frac{\partial F_1}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial F_3}{\partial x} \right) \hat{\mathbf{j}} + \left(\frac{\partial F_2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial y} \right) \hat{\mathbf{k}} \\ \underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{\nabla} \times \underline{\mathbf{F}} &= \frac{\partial F_3}{\partial x \partial y} - \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial x \partial z} + \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial y \partial z} \\ &\quad - \frac{\partial F_3}{\partial x \partial y} + \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial x \partial z} - \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial y \partial z} \\ &= \underline{\mathbf{0}} \end{aligned}$$

□

10.4 Vector Operators Identities

Let Φ, f, g be scalar fields and $\underline{\mathbf{F}}, \underline{\mathbf{G}}$ be vector fields, then:

$$\underline{\nabla} \cdot (\underline{\nabla} \times \underline{\mathbf{F}}) = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$\underline{\nabla} \times \underline{\nabla} \Phi = \underline{\mathbf{0}} \quad (2)$$

$$\underline{\nabla}(f + g) = \underline{\nabla} f + \underline{\nabla} g \quad (3)$$

$$\underline{\nabla} \cdot (\underline{\mathbf{F}} + \underline{\mathbf{G}}) = \underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{F}} + \underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{G}} \quad (4)$$

$$\underline{\nabla} \times (\underline{\mathbf{F}} + \underline{\mathbf{G}}) = \underline{\nabla} \times \underline{\mathbf{F}} + \underline{\nabla} \times \underline{\mathbf{G}} \quad (5)$$

$$\underline{\nabla}(fg) = f\underline{\nabla}g + g\underline{\nabla}f \quad (6)$$

$$\underline{\nabla} \cdot (\Phi \underline{\mathbf{F}}) = \Phi \underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{F}} + \underline{\mathbf{F}} \cdot \underline{\nabla} \Phi \quad (7)$$

$$\underline{\nabla} \times (\Phi \underline{\mathbf{F}}) = \Phi \underline{\nabla} \times \underline{\mathbf{F}} - \underline{\mathbf{F}} \times \underline{\nabla} \Phi \quad (8)$$

$$\underline{\nabla}(\underline{\mathbf{F}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{G}}) = \underline{\mathbf{F}} \times (\underline{\nabla} \times \underline{\mathbf{G}}) + \underline{\mathbf{G}} \times (\underline{\nabla} \times \underline{\mathbf{F}}) \quad (9)$$

$$+ (\underline{\mathbf{F}} \cdot \underline{\nabla}) \underline{\mathbf{G}} + (\underline{\mathbf{G}} \cdot \underline{\nabla}) \underline{\mathbf{F}} \quad (10)$$

$$(11)$$

$$\underline{\nabla} \cdot (\underline{\mathbf{F}} \times \underline{\mathbf{G}}) = \underline{\mathbf{G}} \cdot (\underline{\nabla} \times \underline{\mathbf{F}}) - \underline{\mathbf{F}} \cdot (\underline{\nabla} \times \underline{\mathbf{G}}) \quad (12)$$

$$\underline{\nabla} \times (\underline{\mathbf{F}} \times \underline{\mathbf{G}}) = \underline{\mathbf{F}}(\underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{G}}) - \underline{\mathbf{G}}(\underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{F}}) \quad (13)$$

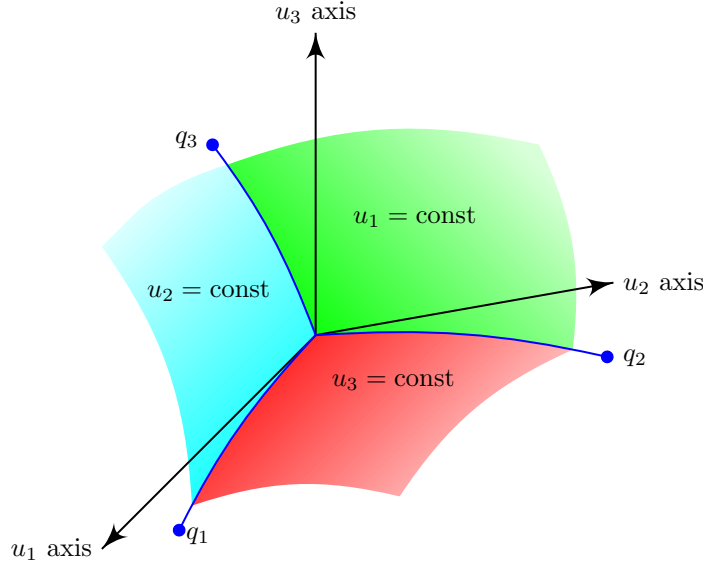
$$+ (\underline{\mathbf{G}} \cdot \underline{\nabla}) \underline{\mathbf{F}} - (\underline{\mathbf{F}} \cdot \underline{\nabla}) \underline{\mathbf{G}} \quad (14)$$

$$\underline{\nabla} \times (\underline{\nabla} \times \underline{\mathbf{F}}) = \underline{\nabla}(\underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{F}}) - \underline{\nabla}^2 \underline{\mathbf{F}} \quad (15)$$

11 Orthogonal Curvilinear Co-ordinate Systems

Assume a one to one map from x_i to u_i , the surfaces $u_i = k$ are defined as a co-ordinate surface and the intersection of the co-ordinate curves.

$$d\mathbf{r} = (dx_1, dx_2, dx_3) = \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_1} du_1 + \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_2} du_2 + \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_3} du_3$$



11.1 Scale Factors

If we let \mathbf{e}_1 be an arbitrary unit vector in the direction of u_1 , and similarly for \mathbf{e}_2 and \mathbf{e}_3 , then:

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_1} \frac{1}{h_1} \quad h_1 = \left| \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_1} \right|$$

and similarly for \mathbf{e}_2 and \mathbf{e}_3 . Now we can rewrite $d\mathbf{r}$:

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

We want, $\mathbf{e}_i \cdot \mathbf{e}_j = \delta_{ij}$ and $(\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3)$ to be right handed.

11.2 Differential of arc length

Let $d\mathbf{r} = h_1 du_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + h_2 du_2 \mathbf{e}_2 + h_3 du_3 \mathbf{e}_3$, then, $ds^2 = h_1^2 du_1^2 + h_2^2 du_2^2 + h_3^2 du_3^2$. Now we find dS , by taking the cross product between $\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_1} du_1$ and $\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_3} du_3$. Hence for u_1 surface, $dS = h_2 h_3 du_2 du_3$

11.3 Grad, Curl and Div in Curvilinear Co-ordinates

11.4 Cylindrical and Spherical Co-ordinate Systems