

Mathematical Methods in Physics I

Based on lectures by Dr. Ritam Mallick

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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.¹

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¹This is how Dexter Chua describes his lecture notes from Cambridge. I could not have described mine in any better way.

1 Vector Analysis

Let $\{\hat{e}_i\}$ be an orthonormal basis, i.e., $\hat{e}_i \cdot \hat{e}_j = \delta_{ij}$ (where δ_{ij} represents the Kronecker delta function), of our vector space. For any vector \mathbf{A} we have

$$\mathbf{A} = \sum_i A_i \hat{e}_i$$

where A_i belong to the scalar field over which the vector space is defined, like \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} .

1.1 Products

Definition 1 (Vector Product). We define a vector product on our basis set

$$\hat{e}_i \times \hat{e}_j = \sum_k \epsilon_{ijk} \hat{e}_k$$

The R.H.S. is a vector itself, hence, the name. Using this and the fact that vector product is distributive over addition we arrive at

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = \sum_i \hat{e}_i \sum_{jk} \epsilon_{ijk} A_j B_k$$

where

$$C_i = \sum_{jk} \epsilon_{ijk} A_j B_k$$

Using this we can find

Theorem 1 (Scalar triple product).

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C}) = \sum_{ijk} \epsilon_{ijk} A_i B_j C_k$$

This is also represented as $[\mathbf{ABC}]$.

We can also calculate

Theorem 2 (Vector triple product).

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A} \times (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C}) &= \sum_i \hat{e}_i \sum_{jk} \epsilon_{ijk} A_j \sum_{pq} \epsilon_{kpq} B_p C_q \\ &= \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C}) - \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) \end{aligned}$$

The vector product is not associative, hence the position of the parenthesis is important in the triple product.

Exercise 1. Show that

$$(\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) \times (\mathbf{C} \times \mathbf{D}) = [\mathbf{ABD}]\mathbf{C} - [\mathbf{ABC}]\mathbf{D}$$

1.2 Coordinate Transformation

The rotation of the 2D coordinate axes by an angle ϕ , keeping the origin fixed, leads to the

Definition 2 (Rotation transformation).

$$\mathbf{A}' = S\mathbf{A}$$

where S is the rotation transformation represented by the matrix

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \phi & \sin \phi \\ -\sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix}$$

in our orthonormal basis. It is clear that $SS^T = I$, i.e., the rotation transformation is orthogonal. It takes the same form in higher dimensions, i.e., rotation of vectors is an orthogonal transformation.

This is a special property of vectors in physics. There is another kind of quantity called

Definition 3 (Pseudovectors).

$$\mathbf{A}' = |S|S\mathbf{A}$$

This is how these quantities transform under rotation, where, S is again a orthogonal transformation and $|S|$ represents the determinant of S .

1.3 Differential Calculus

We require the del operator

$$\nabla \equiv \sum_i \hat{e}_i \frac{\partial}{\partial i}$$

in Cartesian coordinates. Using this we can define quantities like

Definition 4 (Gradient).

$$\text{Grad } f = \nabla f$$

A small change in a scalar field along \mathbf{r} is given by

$$df = \mathbf{r} \cdot \nabla f$$

Say, the direction of ∇f is given by some \hat{r} . We have the most rapid increase in f along \hat{r} and $|\nabla f| = \frac{Df}{D\hat{r}}$ is the directional derivative of f along \hat{r} .

Definition 5 (Divergence).

$$\text{Div } \mathbf{A} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}$$

This gives a measure of the accumulation or depletion of \mathbf{A} at a point. In other words, it finds how strongly a point acts as a source or sink.

Definition 6 (Curl).

$$\text{Curl } \mathbf{A} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$$

This gives a measure of the circulation of \mathbf{A} at a point.

Definition 7 (Laplacian).

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

The Laplacian is also defined for a vector field as

$$\nabla^2 \mathbf{A} = \sum_i \hat{e}_i \nabla^2 A_i$$

These can also be calculated in curvilinear coordinate systems as given in this Wikipedia article. Some useful properties of vector derivatives are

Theorem 3.

$$\begin{aligned}
\nabla \times (\nabla f) &= 0 \\
\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) &= 0 \\
\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) &= \nabla(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}) - \nabla^2 \mathbf{A}
\end{aligned}$$

The last one is only valid in Cartesian coordinates.

1.4 Integral Calculus

A very useful quantity for integration is

Theorem 4 (Infinitesimal length).

$$\begin{aligned}
d\mathbf{l} &= dx \hat{e}_x + dy \hat{e}_y + dz \hat{e}_z \\
&= dr \hat{e}_r + r d\theta \hat{e}_\theta + r \sin \theta d\phi \hat{e}_\phi \\
&= ds \hat{e}_s + s d\phi \hat{e}_\phi + dz \hat{e}_z
\end{aligned}$$

Now, we may define some of the most important vector integrals in physics.

Definition 8 (Line integral).

$$\int_C \mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

Definition 9 (Surface integral).

$$\iint_S \mathbf{A} \cdot d\boldsymbol{\sigma}$$

The contour enclosing a surface S is represented by ∂S .

Definition 10 (Volume integral).

$$\iiint_V \mathbf{A} d\tau$$

The surface enclosing a volume V is represented by ∂V .

Some important theorems that will help simplify integrals are

Theorem 5 (Conservation of gradient).

$$\int_C (\nabla f) \cdot d\mathbf{l} = f(\mathbf{b}) - f(\mathbf{a})$$

where \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} are the endpoints of C (which is directed from \mathbf{a} to \mathbf{b}).

Theorem 6 (Gauss).

$$\oiint_{\partial V} \mathbf{A} \cdot d\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \iiint_V \nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} d\tau$$

Theorem 7 (Stokes).

$$\oint_{\partial S} \mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \iint_S (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) \cdot d\boldsymbol{\sigma}$$

Note that C, S, V need to be “sufficiently nice” for these to be valid, which is often the case in physics.