Course Webpage:

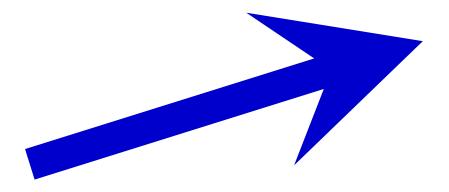
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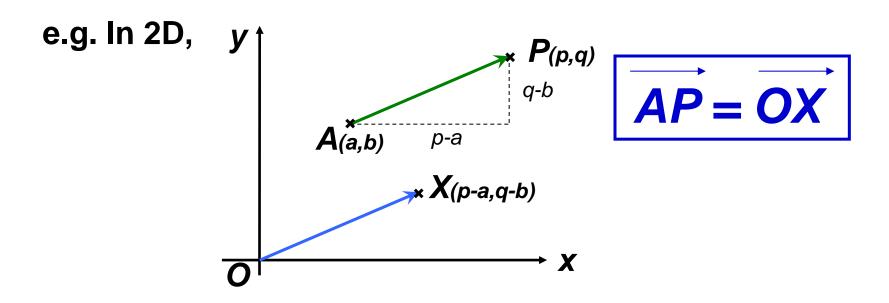
Vector Analysis

What is a vector?

A vector in n dimension is any set of n-components that transforms in the same manner as a displacement when you change coordinates



Displacement is the model for the behavior of all vectors



vector: direction + magnitude

What is scalar?

A scalar has no direction and remains unchanged when one changes the coordinates.

Example:

Scalars: mass, charge, density, temperature

Vectors: velocity, acceleration, force, momentum

Notation:

vector – **Bold face** \mathbf{A} , in handwriting \mathbf{A} scalar – ordinary character \mathbf{A}

The magnitude of the vector is denoted by:

$$A = \left| \mathbf{A} \right| = \left| \vec{A} \right|$$

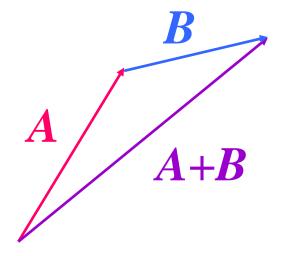
Vector Algebra

Vector Operations

(a) Addition of two vectors

Parallelogram law:

To find A+B, place the tail of B at the head of A and draw the vector from the tail of A to the head of B



From the definition, the addition of vectors is

(i)Commutative

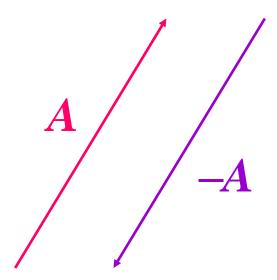
$$A+B=B+A$$

(ii)Associative

$$(A+B)+C=A+(B+C)$$

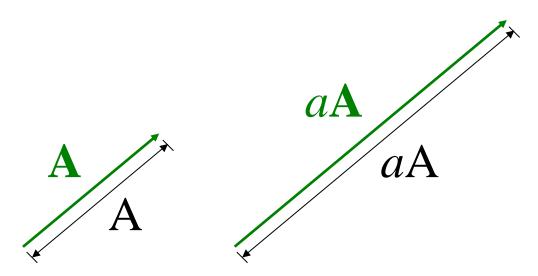
(b) Negative of a vector

The negative of a vector is defined as the vector with the same magnitude but opposite direction:



(c) Multiplication by a scalar

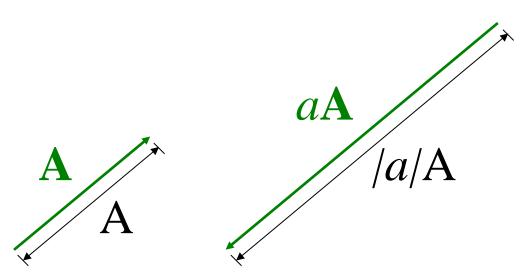
Multiplication by a positive real number a multiplies the magnitude by a times while leaving the direction unchanged.



(c) Multiplication by a scalar

Multiplication by a negative real number a is defined by

$$a\mathbf{A} = |a|(-\mathbf{A})$$



(c) Multiplication by a scalar

Multiplication by 0 gives the null vector 0 which satisfies

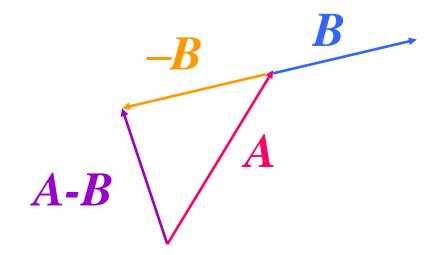
$$A+0=A$$

Multiplication is distributive, i.e.,

$$a(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B})=a\mathbf{A}+a\mathbf{B}$$

(d) Subtraction of two vectors

 $A \hbox{-} B$ is defined by $A \hbox{+} (\hbox{-} B)$



(e) Dot product of two vectors

$$\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = AB \cos \theta$$

$$A$$

$$A$$

$$B$$

Dot product is also called scalar product or inner product

(e) Dot product of two vectors

Dot product is commutative:

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A}$$

Dot product is distributive:

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

(can u proof it?)

(e) Dot product of two vectors

If A, B perpendicular,

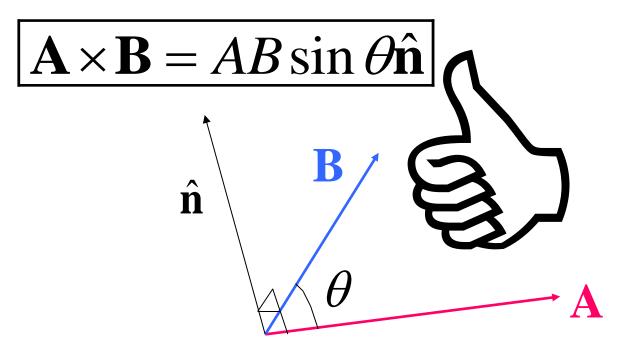
$$\theta = \pi/2 \rightarrow \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

If A, B point to the same direction,

$$\theta = 0 \rightarrow \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = AB$$

In particular, $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A} = A^2$

(f) Cross product of two vectors



 $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ is a unit vector (magnitude =1) perpendicular to the plane spanned by A and B, with direction (up or down) determined by the right-hand rule

(f) Cross product of two vectors

Cross product is distributive:

$$A \times (B + C) = A \times B + A \times C$$

(can u proof it?)

Cross product is NOT commutative:

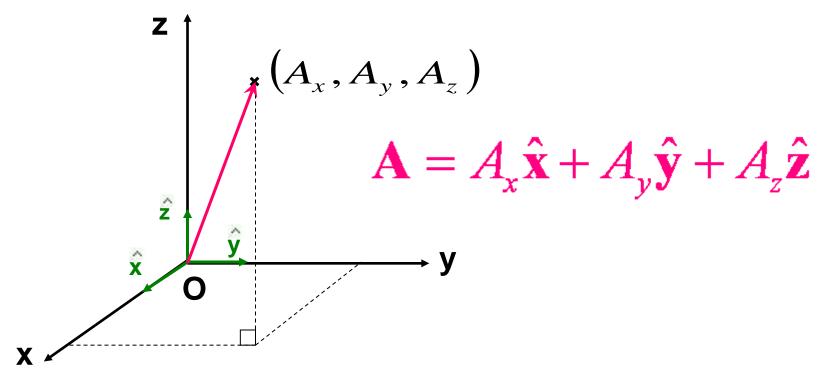
$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = -\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A}$$

In particular, $A \times A = 0$

Vector Algebra

Component Form

Using Cartesian coordinate, with unit vectors $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$, $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$, $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ parallel to the \mathbf{x} , \mathbf{y} , and \mathbf{z} axes, respectively.



(a) To add vectors, add like components

$$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \left(A_{x} \hat{\mathbf{x}} + A_{y} \hat{\mathbf{y}} + A_{z} \hat{\mathbf{z}} \right) + \left(B_{x} \hat{\mathbf{x}} + B_{y} \hat{\mathbf{y}} + B_{z} \hat{\mathbf{z}} \right)$$

$$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = (A_x + B_x)\hat{\mathbf{x}} + (A_y + B_y)\hat{\mathbf{y}} + (A_z + B_z)\hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

(b) To multiply by a scalar, multiply each component

$$\left| aA = (aA_x)\hat{\mathbf{x}} + (aA_y)\hat{\mathbf{y}} + (aA_z)\hat{\mathbf{z}} \right|$$

(c) Since

$$\hat{x} \cdot \hat{x} = \hat{y} \cdot \hat{y} = \hat{z} \cdot \hat{z} = 1$$
$$\hat{x} \cdot \hat{y} = \hat{y} \cdot \hat{z} = \hat{z} \cdot \hat{x} = 0$$

$$\overrightarrow{A} \cdot \overrightarrow{B} = (A_x \hat{x} + A_y \hat{y} + A_z \hat{z}) \cdot (B_x \hat{x} + B_y \hat{y} + B_z \hat{z})$$

$$|\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = (A_x B_x + A_y B_y + A_z B_z)|$$

(d)
$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} \times \hat{\mathbf{x}} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} \times \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \hat{\mathbf{z}} \times \hat{\mathbf{z}} = 0$$

 $\hat{\mathbf{x}} \times \hat{\mathbf{y}} = -\hat{\mathbf{y}} \times \hat{\mathbf{x}} = \hat{\mathbf{z}}$
 $\hat{\mathbf{y}} \times \hat{\mathbf{z}} = -\hat{\mathbf{z}} \times \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}$
 $\hat{\mathbf{z}} \times \hat{\mathbf{x}} = -\hat{\mathbf{x}} \times \hat{\mathbf{z}} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} \rightarrow$
 $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = (A_x \hat{\mathbf{x}} + A_y \hat{\mathbf{y}} + A_z \hat{\mathbf{z}}) \times (B_x \hat{\mathbf{x}} + B_y \hat{\mathbf{y}} + B_z \hat{\mathbf{z}})$
 $= (A_y B_z - A_z B_y) \hat{\mathbf{x}} + (A_z B_x - A_x B_z) \hat{\mathbf{y}} + (A_x B_y - A_y B_x) \hat{\mathbf{z}}$

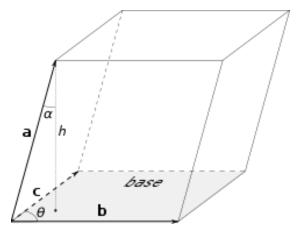
$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{x}} & \hat{\mathbf{y}} & \hat{\mathbf{z}} \\ A_x & A_y & A_z \\ B_x & B_y & B_z \end{vmatrix}$$

Triple Product

$$(\mathbf{a}) \mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C}) = (A_x \hat{\mathbf{x}} + A_y \hat{\mathbf{y}} + A_z \hat{\mathbf{z}}) \cdot ((B_y C_z - B_z C_y) \hat{\mathbf{x}} + (B_z C_x - B_x C_z) \hat{\mathbf{y}} + (B_x C_y - B_y C_x) \hat{\mathbf{z}})$$

$$= A_x (B_y C_z - B_z C_y) + A_y (B_z C_x - B_x C_z) + A_z (B_x C_y - B_y C_x)$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C}) = \begin{vmatrix} A_x & A_y & A_z \\ B_x & B_y & B_z \\ C_x & C_y & C_z \end{vmatrix}$$



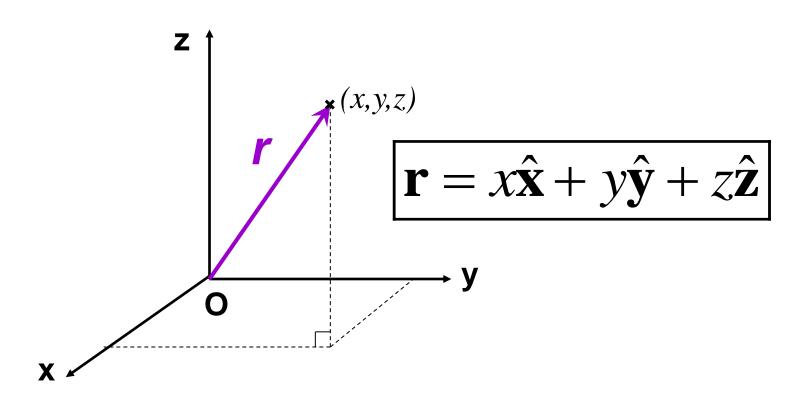
(signed) volume of the parallelepiped defined by the three vectors

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

Vector Analysis

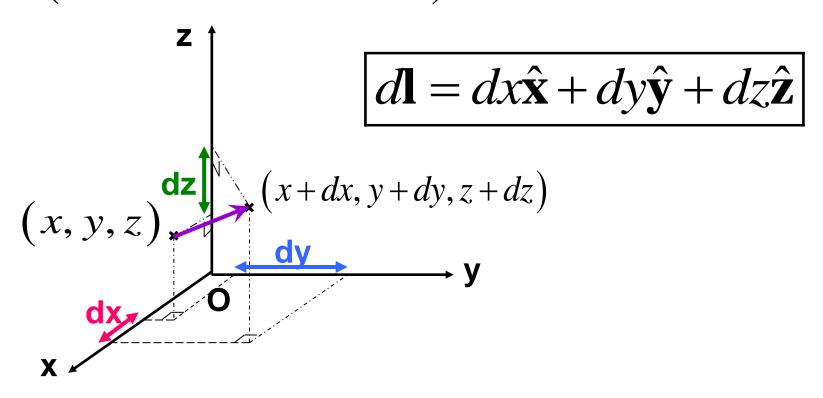
Position, Displacement, Separation Vectors

(a) Position vector pointing from origin to (x, y, z):

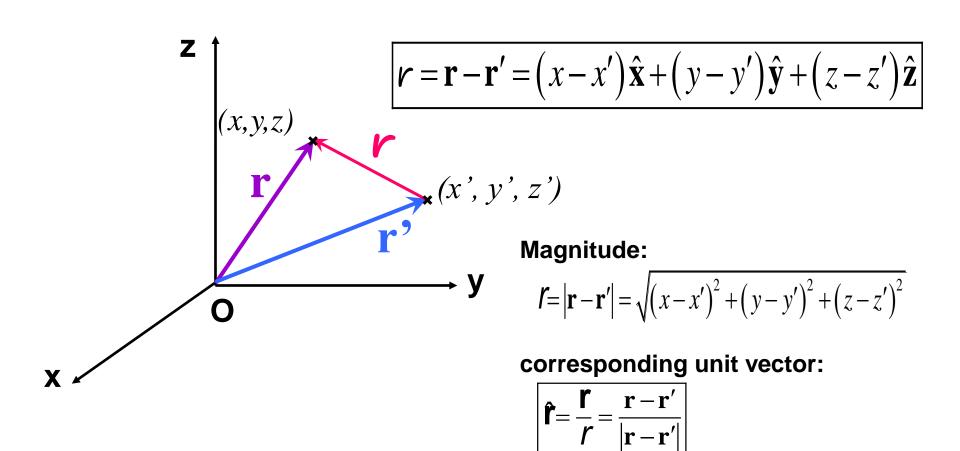


(b) Infinitesimal displacement vector pointing from (x, y, z) to

$$(x+dx, y+dy, z+dz)$$
:



(c) Separation vector from r' to r:



Vector Analysis

Vector Transformation

How vectors transform?

Let R be the rotation matrix:

$$R = egin{pmatrix} R_{xx} & R_{xy} & R_{xz} \ R_{yx} & R_{yy} & R_{yz} \ R_{zx} & R_{zy} & R_{zz} \end{pmatrix}$$

 $\mathbf{A} = (A_x, A_y, A_z)$ is a vector if, under the rotation, its components transform like $\overline{A}_i = \sum_{j=1}^3 R_{ij} A_j$

where \overline{A}_i are the components of the vector in the rotated frame, and $1 \leftrightarrow x, 2 \leftrightarrow y, 3 \leftrightarrow z$

In matrix notation, the transformation reads

$$\begin{pmatrix} \overline{A}_{x} \\ \overline{A}_{y} \\ \overline{A}_{z} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} R_{xx} & R_{xy} & R_{xz} \\ R_{yx} & R_{yy} & R_{yz} \\ R_{zx} & R_{zy} & R_{zz} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_{x} \\ A_{y} \\ A_{z} \end{pmatrix}$$

Note:

Rotation matrices have the special property that $R^{-1} = R^{T}$ (they are orthogonal).

Tensors

- Scalar = 0th rank tensor
- Vector = 1st rank tensor
- 2nd rank tensor → In the form of a matrix
- In general, tensor can be of any rank

A (second rank) tensor

$$T = egin{pmatrix} T_{xx} & T_{xy} & T_{xz} \ T_{yx} & T_{yy} & T_{yz} \ T_{zx} & T_{zy} & T_{zz} \end{pmatrix}$$

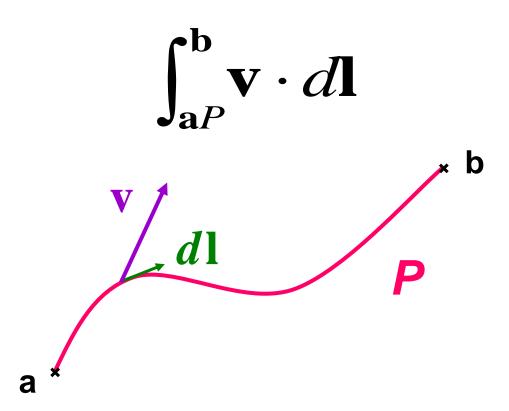
has nine components, which transform under rotation like

$$ar{T}_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{3} \sum_{l=1}^{3} R_{ik} R_{jl} T_{kl}$$

Vector Calculus

Line, Surface, and Volume Integrals

(a) Line Integrals



For closed path, a=b, we use the notation

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

- In general, the line integral depends on a,
 b, and the path P.
- In particular, if it depends only on a, b, and is independent of P, we say that the field is a <u>conservative</u> field.

(b) Surface Integral

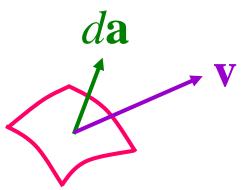
$$\int_{S} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a}$$

da: Area of the infinitesimal area Direction of da: Normal to the area (two directions, choose either one)

For closed surface, we use the notation

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

For closed surface, usually we take <u>outward</u> as the direction of $d\mathbf{a}$.



(c) Volume Integral

(i) Volume integral of scalar field T

$$\int_{V} T d\tau \qquad d\tau = dx dy dz$$

(ii) Volume integral of vector field v

$$\int_{V}$$
 $\mathbf{v}d au$

$$\int_{V} \mathbf{v} d\tau = \int_{V} (v_x \hat{x} + v_y \hat{y} + v_z \hat{z}) d\tau = \hat{x} \int v_x d\tau + \hat{y} \int v_y d\tau + \hat{z} \int v_z d\tau$$

Vector Calculus

The "Del" Operator

What is the "Del" Operator?

Definition of the "del" operator:

$$\nabla = \hat{\mathbf{x}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{\mathbf{y}} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$$

What is the "Del" Operator?

- It is an operator, without specific meaning until a function is provided for it to act on
- It is a vector operator. Though not being a vector in the usual sense, it mimics the behavior of an ordinary vector in virtually every way
 - 1. Acting on a scalar field T: the gradient
 - 2. Acting on a vector field **v**, via the dot product: the **divergence**
 - 3. Acting on a vector field **v**, via the cross product: the **curl**

Vector Calculus

Gradient, Divergence, and Curl

Gradient

Consider a scalar field T(x,y,z)

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

It can be written as

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

Recall that

$$d\mathbf{l} = dx\hat{\mathbf{x}} + dy\hat{\mathbf{y}} + dz\hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

Then

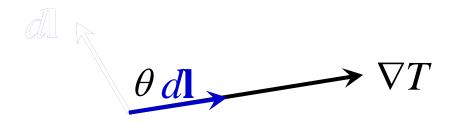
$$|dT = (\nabla T) \cdot (d\mathbf{l})|$$

Geometrical meaning:

$$dT = |\nabla T| |d\mathbf{I}| \cos \theta$$

where θ is the angle between ∇T and $d\mathbf{l}$, the direction along which you move

When $d\mathbf{l}$ points to the same direction as ∇T , $\theta = 0$ and $dT = |\nabla T| |d\mathbf{l}|$ attains its maximum value.



- The gradient ∇T points in the direction of maximum increase of T
- The magnitude $|\nabla T|$ gives the slope (rate of increase) along this maximal direction

Example:

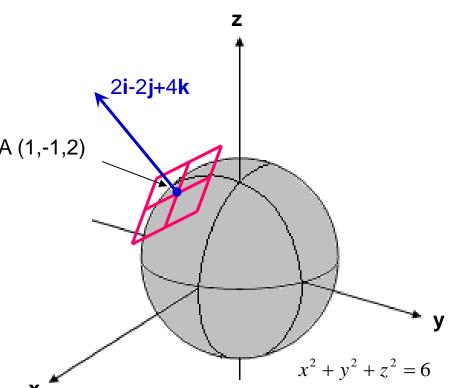
$$T(x, y, z) = x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2} = r^{2}$$

$$\nabla T = 2x\hat{i} + 2y\hat{j} + 2z\hat{k}$$

$$= 2\left(x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}\right)$$

$$= 2\vec{r}$$

$$|\nabla T| = 2r$$



Consider point A(1,-1,2),

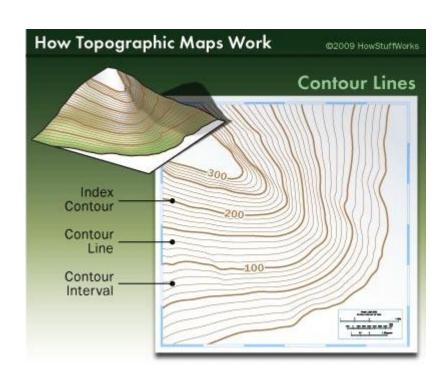
Max. rate of increase of T

$$=|\nabla T(1,-1,2)|=2\sqrt{6}$$

In particular, when

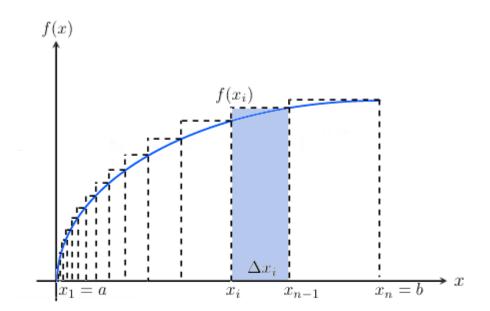
 $d\mathbf{l} \perp \nabla T$

$dT=0 \rightarrow$ moving along the contour line

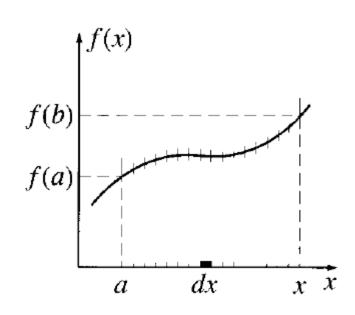


The fundamental theorem of Calculus

$$\int_{b}^{a} f'(x) dx = f(a) - f(b)$$



Area under curve
$$f(x) = \int_a^b f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x_i$$



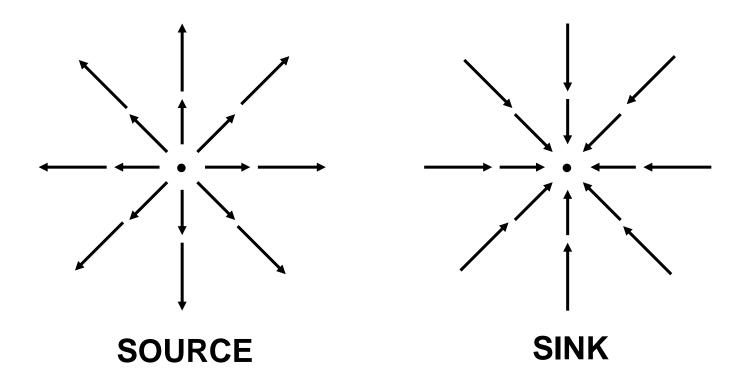
(method of exhaustion)

The fundamental theorem of gradient:

$$\left| \int_{\mathbf{a}P}^{\mathbf{b}} (\nabla T) \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \int_{\mathbf{a}P}^{\mathbf{b}} dT = T(\mathbf{b}) - T(\mathbf{a}) \right|$$

Divergence

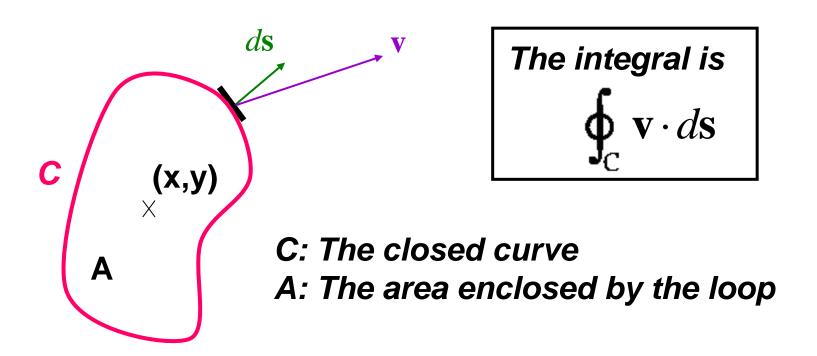
To measure the flux ("source/sink") density



How much does a vector spreads out (diverges) from a certain point

Divergence for a flat plane: 2D

A vector field v in the xy plane. Evaluate the flux through a closed curve enclosing a point (x,y)



This integral measures the flux and hence the source enclosed by the loop.
Therefore,

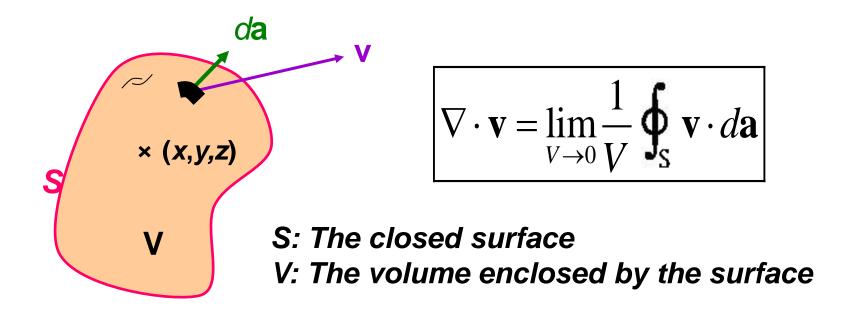
$$\lim_{A\to 0} \frac{1}{A} \oint_{\mathcal{C}} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$$

is the flux density at that point.

In 2D, the divergence of a vector field v is defined by

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = \lim_{A \to 0} \frac{1}{A} \oint_{C} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$$

Divergence for a closed surface in 3D:



$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z}$$

The Divergence Theorem

(Gauss' or Green's Theorem)

Consider the integral:

$$\oint_{S} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a}$$

over a closed surface S enclosing a volume V

The fundamental theorem for divergences states that:

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

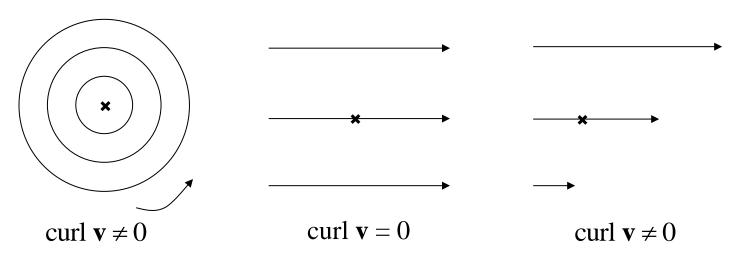
Integral of a divergence over a volume is equal to the value of the function at the boundary!

Curl

The curl of a vector field v measures how much the vector v "curls around" the point in question.



You can depict it as placing a tiny paddle wheel probe in a flowing fluid to determine whether it will turn and how fast the angular velocity is



This depends on the *orientation* (the plane) of the paddle wheel.

Consider a plane with normal vector n. Draw a small closed loop C on the plane around the point in question, enclosing an area A.

Evaluate

$$\lim_{A\to 0} \frac{1}{A} \oint_C \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

The *direction* of the line integral is determined by *right-hand rule*

Curl v is a <u>vector</u> defined by:

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{v} = \hat{\mathbf{x}} \left(\frac{\partial v_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial z} \right) + \hat{\mathbf{y}} \left(\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial x} \right) + \hat{\mathbf{z}} \left(\frac{\partial v_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} \right)$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{x}} & \hat{\mathbf{y}} & \hat{\mathbf{z}} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ v_x & v_y & v_z \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \left(\hat{\mathbf{x}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{\mathbf{y}} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \times \left(v_x \hat{\mathbf{x}} + v_y \hat{\mathbf{y}} + v_z \hat{\mathbf{z}} \right)$$

In general, for a plane with unit normal vector n

$$\lim_{A\to 0} \frac{1}{A} \oint_C \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{n}$$

Physical meaning: curl v is a vector pointing along a direction in which a paddle wheel will have the *greatest tendency to turn*

For a small loop C with area da and unit normal vector n,

$$\oint_{C} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l} \approx (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{n} da = (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot d\mathbf{a}$$

Stokes' theorem

Consider the line integral along a closed loop C

$$\oint_{S} (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) d\mathbf{a} = \oint_{C} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

Integral of a curl over a surface is equal to the value of the function at the boundary

Vector Calculus

Product Rules Involving the Del Operator

Product Rules Involving the Del Operator

$$\nabla (fg) = f \nabla g + g \nabla f$$

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

$$(\mathbf{A} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{B} = \left(A_x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + A_y \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + A_z \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \left(B_x \hat{\mathbf{x}} + B_y \hat{\mathbf{y}} + B_z \hat{\mathbf{z}} \right)$$

$$\mathbf{Note:} \qquad = \hat{\mathbf{x}} \left(A_x \frac{\partial B_x}{\partial x} + A_y \frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y} + A_z \frac{\partial B_x}{\partial z} \right)$$

$$+ \hat{\mathbf{y}} \left(A_x \frac{\partial B_y}{\partial x} + A_y \frac{\partial B_y}{\partial y} + A_z \frac{\partial B_y}{\partial z} \right)$$

$$+ \hat{\mathbf{z}} \left(A_x \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial x} + A_y \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial y} + A_z \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial z} \right)$$

Product Rules Involving the Del Operator

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

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

•
$$\nabla \times (f\mathbf{A}) = f(\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) - \mathbf{A} \times (\nabla f)$$

$$\nabla \times (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) = (\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{A} - (\mathbf{A} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B}) - \mathbf{B} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A})$$

Vector Calculus

Second Derivatives

Second Derivatives

Laplacian – Divergence of gradient

$$\nabla^{2}T = \nabla \cdot (\nabla T)$$

$$= \left(\hat{\mathbf{x}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{\mathbf{y}} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right) \cdot \left(\hat{\mathbf{x}} \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + \hat{\mathbf{y}} \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} + \hat{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\partial T}{\partial z}\right)$$

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

The Laplacian of a scalar T is a scalar. The Laplacian of a vector \mathbf{v} is similarly defined by:

$$\nabla^2 \mathbf{v} = \hat{\mathbf{x}} \nabla^2 v_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}} \nabla^2 v_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}} \nabla^2 v_z$$

Second Derivatives

Curl of gradient

The curl of a gradient is always zero

$$\nabla \times (\nabla T) = 0$$

Gradient of divergence

$$\nabla (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v})$$

(Seldom occurs in physics)

Second Derivatives

Divergence of curl

The divergence of a curl is always zero

$$\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) = 0$$

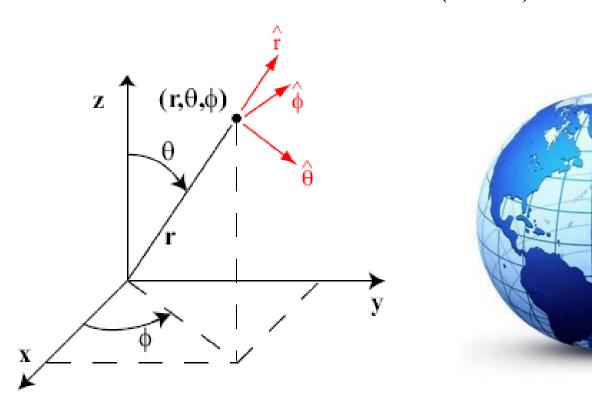
Curl of Curl

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) = \nabla (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) - \nabla^2 \mathbf{v}$$

Curvilinear Coordinates

Spherical Polar Coordinates

Spherical Polar Coordinates (r, θ, ϕ)



- r: Distance from the origin
- θ : Polar angle angle down from the z axis
- ϕ : Azimuthal angle angle around from the x axis (right-hand rule)

Relation between Cartesian and Spherical Polar Coordinates:

$$\begin{cases} x = r \sin \theta \cos \phi \\ y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi \Leftrightarrow \end{cases} \begin{cases} r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \\ \theta = \cos^{-1} \frac{z}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}} \end{cases}$$
$$z = r \cos \theta \end{cases} \phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}$$

Basis vectors

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\mathbf{r}} = \sin \theta \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \sin \theta \sin \phi \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \cos \theta \hat{\mathbf{z}} \\ \hat{\mathbf{\theta}} = \cos \theta \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \cos \theta \sin \phi \hat{\mathbf{y}} - \sin \theta \hat{\mathbf{z}} \\ \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} = -\sin \phi \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{y}} \end{cases}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \hat{\mathbf{x}} = \sin\theta\cos\phi\hat{\mathbf{r}} + \cos\theta\cos\phi\hat{\mathbf{\theta}} - \sin\phi\hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \\ \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \sin\theta\sin\phi\hat{\mathbf{r}} + \cos\theta\sin\phi\hat{\mathbf{\theta}} + \cos\phi\hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \\ \hat{\mathbf{z}} = \cos\theta\hat{\mathbf{r}} - \sin\theta\hat{\mathbf{\theta}} \end{cases}$$

Basis vectors

- The direction of the basis vectors is along the direction of increase of the corresponding coordinates, keeping others fixed.
- They constitute an orthogonal basis set

$$\hat{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}} = \hat{\mathbf{\theta}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{\theta}} = \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} = 1$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{\theta}} = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} = \hat{\mathbf{\theta}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} = 0$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{\theta}} \times \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} = \hat{\mathbf{r}}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \times \hat{\mathbf{r}} = \hat{\mathbf{\theta}}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{r}} \times \hat{\mathbf{\theta}} = \hat{\mathbf{\phi}}$$

A vector A can be expressed in component form as

$$\mathbf{A} = A_r \hat{\mathbf{r}} + A_\theta \hat{\mathbf{\theta}} + A_\phi \hat{\mathbf{\phi}}$$

 The same basis vector associated with different points are along different directions

$$\frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{r}}}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{\theta}}}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{\phi}}}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{\phi}}}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{r}}}{\partial \theta} = \hat{\mathbf{\theta}}$$

$$\frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{\phi}}}{\partial \phi} = -\sin \theta \hat{\mathbf{r}} - \cos \theta \hat{\mathbf{\theta}}$$

Infinitesimal displacement

- $d\mathbf{l} = dr\hat{\mathbf{r}} + rd\theta\hat{\mathbf{\theta}} + r\sin\theta d\phi\hat{\mathbf{\phi}}$

Infinitesimal volume element

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

Infinitesimal area element on a spherical surface with radius *r*

 $d\mathbf{a} = r^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi \hat{\mathbf{r}}$

The gradient, divergence, curl, Laplacian etc. in spherical polar coordinate can be derived by the relations between the coordinates and the basis vectors.

For example:

$$\nabla T = \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial r} \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial \phi} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \right) \left(\sin \theta \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{r}} + \cos \theta \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{\theta}} - \sin \phi \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \right) + \cdots$$

The expressions are:

Gradient

$$\nabla T = \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} \hat{\mathbf{r}} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta} \hat{\mathbf{\theta}} + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \phi} \hat{\mathbf{\phi}}$$

Divergence

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r^2 v_r) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\sin \theta v_\theta) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial v_\phi}{\partial \phi}$$

Curl

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin \theta v_{\phi} \right) - \frac{\partial v_{\theta}}{\partial \phi} \right] \hat{\mathbf{r}} + \frac{1}{r} \left[\frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial v_{r}}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r v_{\phi} \right) \right] \hat{\mathbf{\theta}} + \frac{1}{r} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r v_{\theta} \right) - \frac{\partial v_{r}}{\partial \theta} \right] \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \right]$$

Hence,

Laplacian

$$\nabla^{2}T = \nabla \cdot (\nabla T)$$

$$= \frac{1}{r^{2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r^{2} (\nabla T)_{r}) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\sin \theta (\nabla T)_{\theta}) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial (\nabla T)_{\phi}}{\partial \phi}$$

$$= \frac{1}{r^{2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r^{2} \frac{\partial T}{\partial r}) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\sin \theta \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta}) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} (\frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \phi})$$

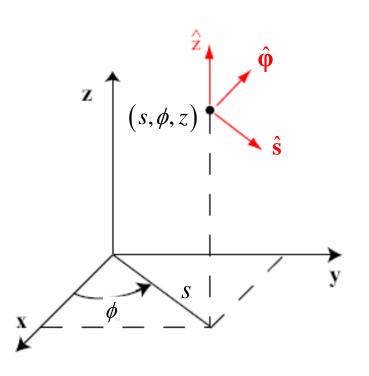
$$\nabla^{2}T = \frac{1}{r^{2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r^{2} \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^{2} \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin \theta \frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{r^{2} \sin^{2} \theta} \frac{\partial^{2} T}{\partial \phi^{2}}$$

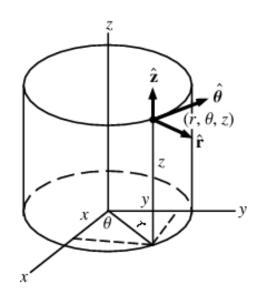
Curvilinear Coordinates

Cylindrical Coordinates



Cylindrical Coordinates (s, ϕ, z)





s: Distance from the z axis

 ϕ : Angle around from the x axis (right-hand rule)

z: Distance from the x-y plane

Relation between Cartesian and Cylindrical Coordinates:

$$\begin{cases} x = s \cos \phi \\ y = s \sin \phi \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} s = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \\ \phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x} \\ z = z \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\mathbf{s}} = \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \sin \phi \hat{\mathbf{y}} \\ \hat{\mathbf{q}} = -\sin \phi \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{y}} \\ \hat{\mathbf{z}} = \hat{\mathbf{z}} \end{cases}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \hat{\mathbf{x}} = \cos\phi \hat{\mathbf{s}} - \sin\phi \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \\ \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \sin\phi \hat{\mathbf{s}} + \cos\phi \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \\ \hat{\mathbf{z}} = \hat{\mathbf{z}} \end{cases}$$

- The direction of the basis vectors is along the direction of increase of the corresponding coordinates, keeping others fixed.
- They constitute an orthogonal basis set

$$\hat{\mathbf{s}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{s}} = \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} = \hat{\mathbf{z}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{z}} = 1$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{s}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} = \hat{\mathbf{s}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{z}} = \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{z}} = 0$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{s}} \times \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} = \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{\phi}} \times \hat{\mathbf{z}} = \hat{\mathbf{s}}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{z}} \times \hat{\mathbf{s}} = \hat{\mathbf{\phi}}$$

A vector A can be expressed in component form as

$$\mathbf{A} = A_{s}\hat{\mathbf{s}} + A_{\phi}\hat{\mathbf{\phi}} + A_{z}\hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

 The same basis vector associated with different points are along different directions

$$\frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{z}}}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{z}}}{\partial \phi} = \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{z}}}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{q}}}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{q}}}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{q}}}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{s}}}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{s}}}{\partial z} = \mathbf{0}$$

Infinitesimal displacement

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

Infinitesimal volume element

• $d\tau = sdsd\phi dz$

Infinitesimal area element on a spherical surface with radius *r*

 $d\mathbf{a} = sd\phi dz\hat{\mathbf{s}}$

The gradient, divergence, curl, Laplacian etc. in spherical polar coordinate can be derived by the relations between the coordinates and the basis vectors.

For example:

$$\nabla T = \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial s} \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial \phi} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \right) (\cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{s}} - \sin \phi \hat{\mathbf{\phi}}) + \cdots$$

The expressions are:

Gradient

$$\left| \nabla T = \frac{\partial T}{\partial s} \hat{\mathbf{s}} + \frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \phi} \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \hat{\mathbf{z}} \right|$$

Divergence

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} (s v_s) + \frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial v_{\phi}}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z}$$

Curl

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{v} = \left[\frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\partial v_{\phi}}{\partial z} \right] \hat{\mathbf{s}} + \left[\frac{\partial v_s}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial s} \right] \hat{\mathbf{\phi}} + \frac{1}{s} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(s v_{\phi} \right) - \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial \phi} \right] \hat{\mathbf{z}} \right]$$

Hence,

Laplacian

$$\nabla^{2}T = \nabla \cdot (\nabla T)$$

$$= \frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(s (\nabla T)_{s} \right) + \frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial (\nabla T)_{\phi}}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial (\nabla T)_{z}}{\partial z}$$

$$= \frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(s \frac{\partial T}{\partial s} \right) + \frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \phi} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \frac{\partial T}{\partial z}$$

$$\nabla^2 T = \frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(s \frac{\partial T}{\partial s} \right) + \frac{1}{s^2} \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}$$

Dirac Delta Function

Consider the vector field

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

Using divergence in spherical polar coordinate

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

For r = 0, consider the flux through a spherical surface S with radius R centered at the origin

$$\oint_{S} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \int \left(\frac{1}{R^{2}} \hat{\mathbf{r}}\right) \cdot \left(R^{2} \sin \theta d\theta d\phi \hat{\mathbf{r}}\right)$$
$$= \int_{0}^{\pi} \sin \theta d\theta \int_{0}^{2\pi} d\phi = 4\pi$$

Therefore,
$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = \lim_{V \to 0} \frac{1}{V} \oint_{S} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a}$$

$$= \lim_{R \to 0} \frac{4\pi}{4\pi R^{3}/3} = \lim_{R \to 0} \frac{3}{R^{3}} = \infty$$

In addition,

$$\int_{V} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} d\tau = 0$$

if V does not include the origin.

If V includes the origin, consider the spherical surface S with radius R centered at the origin. From divergence theorem

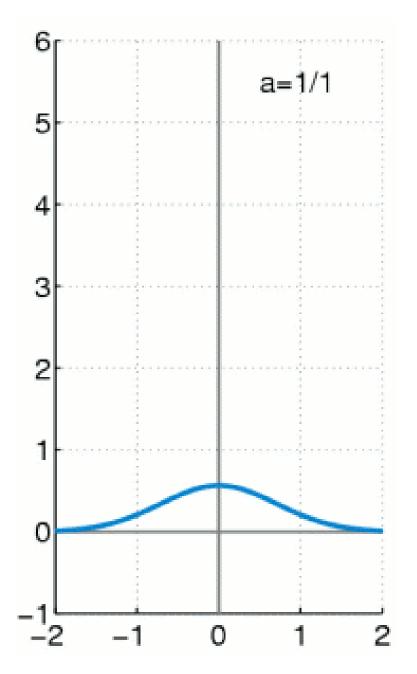
$$\int_{V} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} d\tau = \oint_{S} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = 4\pi$$

What is a delta function?

The delta function is a generalized function, or distribution, that can be thought of as the limit of a class of delta sequences.

The delta function is sometimes called "Dirac delta function" or the "impulse symbol"

$$\delta_a(x) = \lim_{a \to 0^+} \frac{1}{a\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-x^2/a^2}$$



Dirac Delta Function

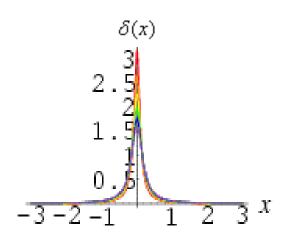
One-Dimensional

A one-dimensional delta function $\delta(x)$ satisfies

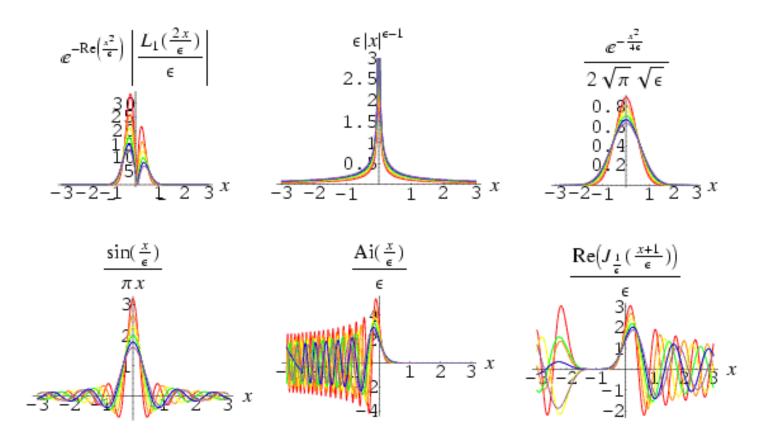
$$\int_{a}^{b} \delta(x) dx = 0 \quad \text{,if } 0 \notin (a,b)$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} \delta(x) dx = 1 \quad \text{,if } 0 \in (a,b)$$

e.g.
$$\delta(x) = \frac{\epsilon}{\pi(x^2 + \epsilon^2)}$$



Other examples:



We get $\delta(x)$ when $\varepsilon \to 0$ in the above examples.

For "well-behaved" functions f(x):

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)\delta(x)dx = 0 \quad \text{,if } 0 \notin (a,b)$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)\delta(x)dx = f(0) \text{,if } 0 \in (a,b)$$

The definition can be generalized to $\delta(x-x_0)$:

$$\int_{a}^{b} \delta(x - x_0) dx = 0 \quad \text{,if } x_0 \notin (a, b)$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} \delta(x - x_0) dx = 1 \quad \text{,if } x_0 \in (a, b)$$

For "well-behaved" functions f(x):

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)\delta(x-x_{0})dx = 0 \quad \text{,if } x_{0} \notin (a,b)$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)\delta(x-x_{0})dx = f(x_{0}) \text{,if } x_{0} \in (a,b)$$

Dirac Delta Function

Three-Dimensional

The 3D delta function $\delta^3(\mathbf{r})$ satisfies the basic requirement that

$$\int_{V} \delta^{3}(\mathbf{r}) d\tau = 0 \quad ,if \ \mathbf{0} \notin V$$

$$\int_{V} \delta^{3}(\mathbf{r}) d\tau = 1 \quad ,if \ \mathbf{0} \in V$$

and,
$$\int_{V} f(\mathbf{r}) \delta^{3}(\mathbf{r}) d\tau = 0$$
 , if $\mathbf{0} \notin V$
$$\int_{V} f(\mathbf{r}) \delta^{3}(\mathbf{r}) d\tau = f(\mathbf{0})$$
 , if $\mathbf{0} \in V$

The definition can be generalized to $\delta(\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r_0})$:

$$\int_{V} \delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r_{0}}) d\tau = 0 \quad \text{,if } \mathbf{r_{0}} \notin V$$

$$\int_{V} \delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r_{0}}) d\tau = 1 \quad \text{,if } \mathbf{r_{0}} \in V$$

For "well-behaved" functions f(x):

$$\int_{V} f(\mathbf{r}) \delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r_0}) d\tau = 0 \quad \text{,if } \mathbf{r_0} \notin V$$

$$\int_{V} f(\mathbf{r}) \delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r_0}) d\tau = f(\mathbf{r_0}) \quad \text{,if } \mathbf{r_0} \notin V$$

We have shown that

$$\nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\hat{\mathbf{r}}}{r^2}\right) = 4\pi \delta^3 \left(\mathbf{r}\right)$$

Or more generally,

$$\left|\nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\hat{r}}{r^2}\right) = 4\pi \delta^3(r)\right| \quad \text{where } r = \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'$$

Note: r' is kept constant during differentiation

It can be shown that

$$\nabla \left(\frac{1}{r}\right) = -\frac{\hat{r}}{r^2}$$

Therefore,

$$\nabla^2 \frac{1}{r} = -4\pi \delta^3 (r)$$

