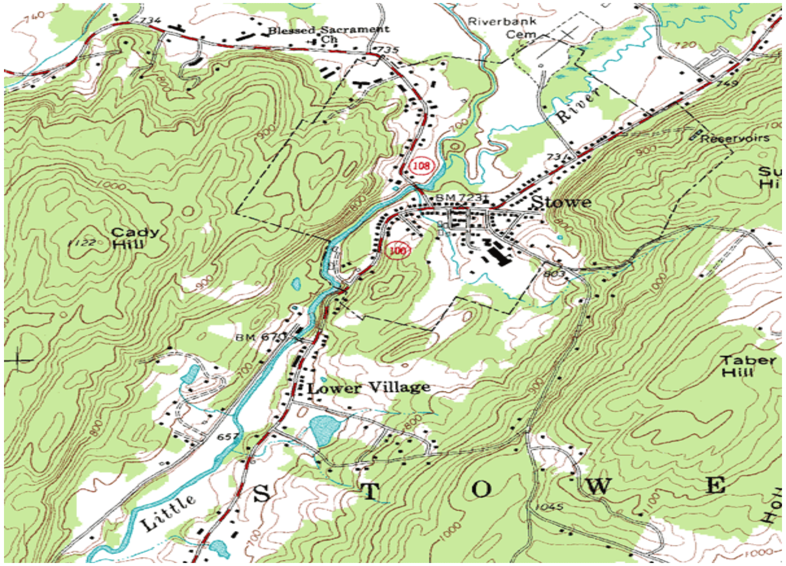
Lecture – 3

Date: 12.01.2015

- Gradient of a Scalar Field
- Conservative Vector Field
- Divergence of a Vector Field
- Divergence Theorem
- Curl of a Vector Field
- Stoke’s Theorem
- Solenoidal Vector Field

The Gradient

- Consider the **topography** of the Earth's surface.



We use contours of constant elevation—called **topographic contours**—to express on maps (a 2-dimensional graphic) the third dimension being elevation (i.e., surface height).

Moreover, we can infer the **direction** of these slopes—a hillside might slope toward the south, or a cliff might drop-off toward the East.

Thus, the slope of the Earth's surface has both a magnitude (e.g., flat or steep) and a direction (e.g. toward the north). In other words, the slope of the Earth's surface is a **vector quantity**!

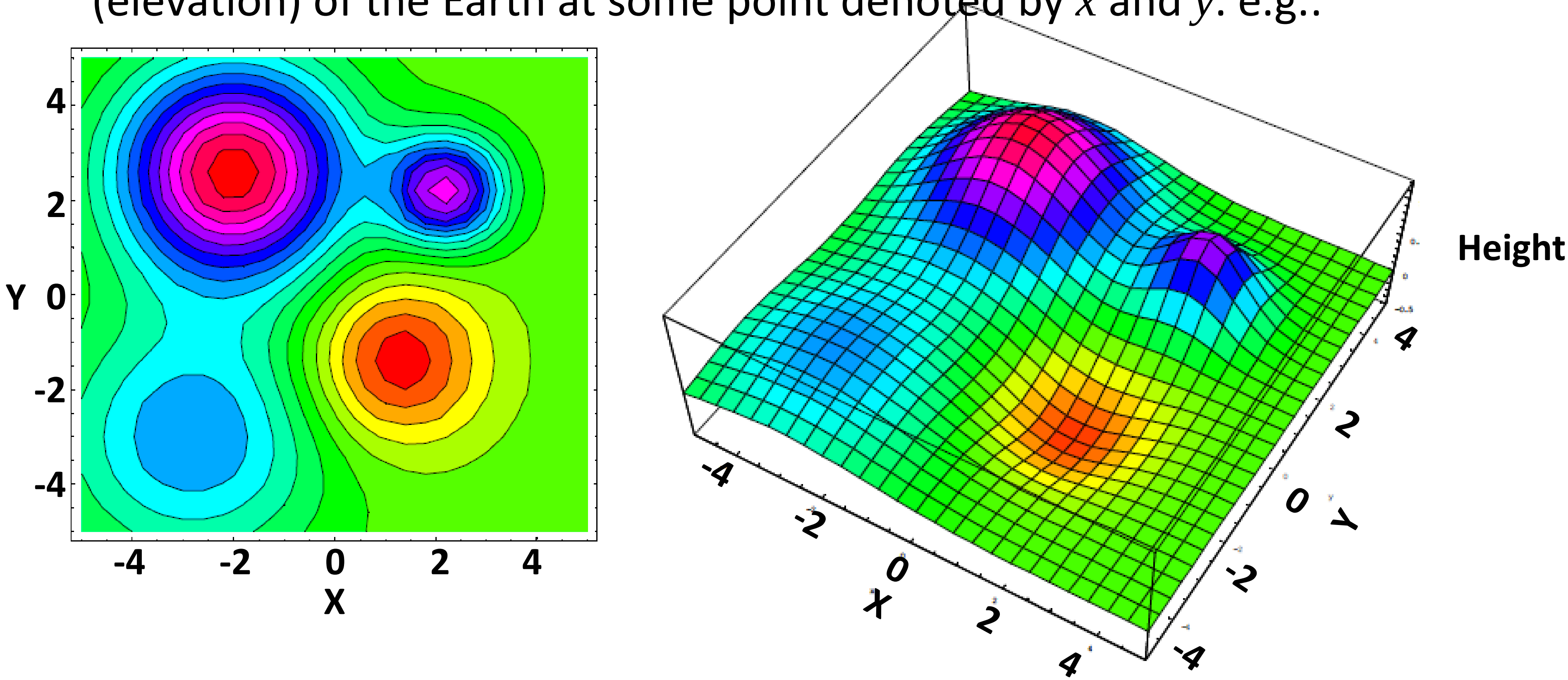
The Gradient (contd.)

- Thus, the surface slope at every point across some section of the Earth (e.g., Dwarka, Shimla, or Asia) must be described by a **vector field**!

A: Yes, there is a very easy way, called the **gradient**.

The Gradient (contd.)

- Say the topography of some small section of the earth's surface can be described as a **scalar** function $h(x, y)$, where h represents the **height** (elevation) of the Earth at some point denoted by x and y. e.g.:



- Now, we take the **gradient** of scalar field $h(x, y)$ which is denoted by:

$$\nabla h(\bar{r})$$

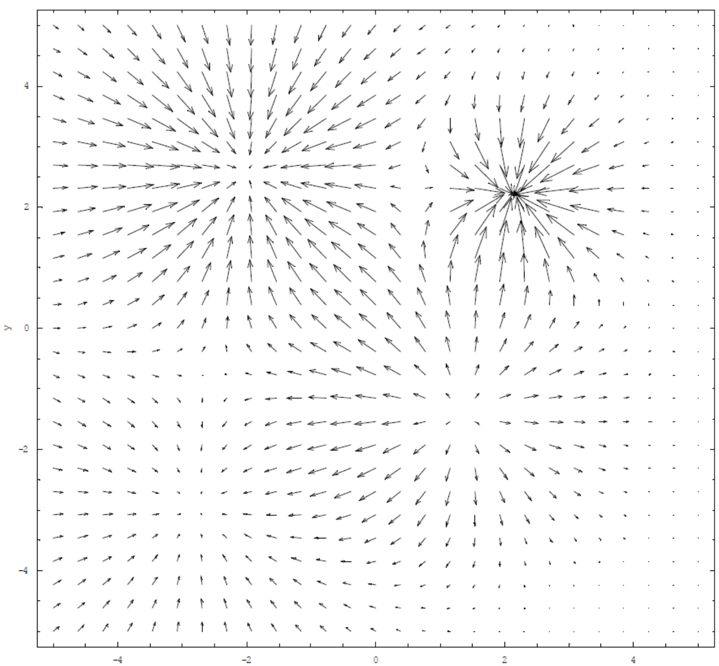
The Gradient (contd.)

- The result of taking the gradient of a scalar field is a **vector field**, i.e.:

$$\nabla h(\bar{r}) = \vec{A}(\bar{r})$$

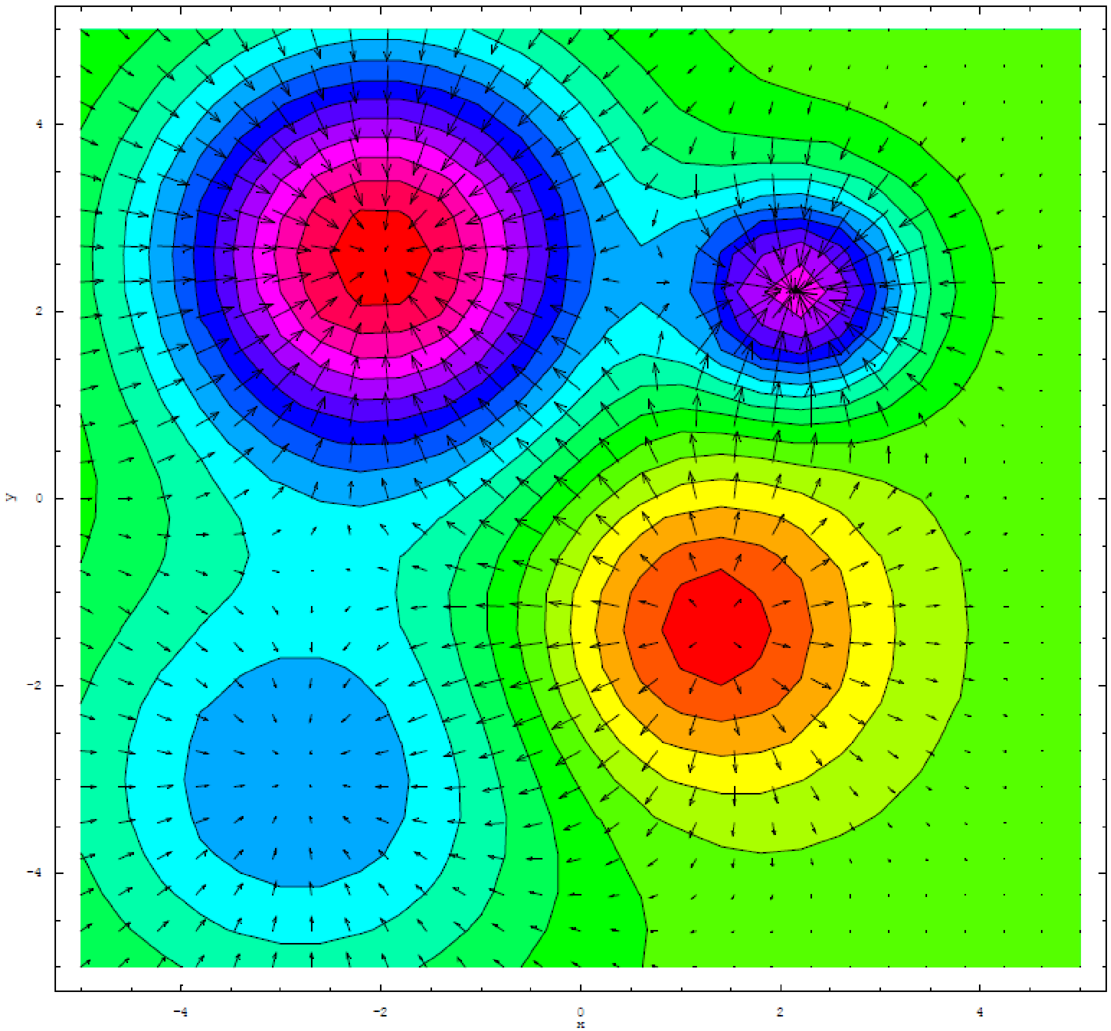
Q: So just what **is** this resulting vector field, and how does it **relate** to scalar field $h(\bar{r})$??

For our example here, taking the **gradient** of surface elevation *h(x,y)* results in this **vector** field:



The Gradient (contd.)

- To see how this **vector** field **relates** to the surface height $h(x, y)$, let's place the vector field on top of the topographic plot:

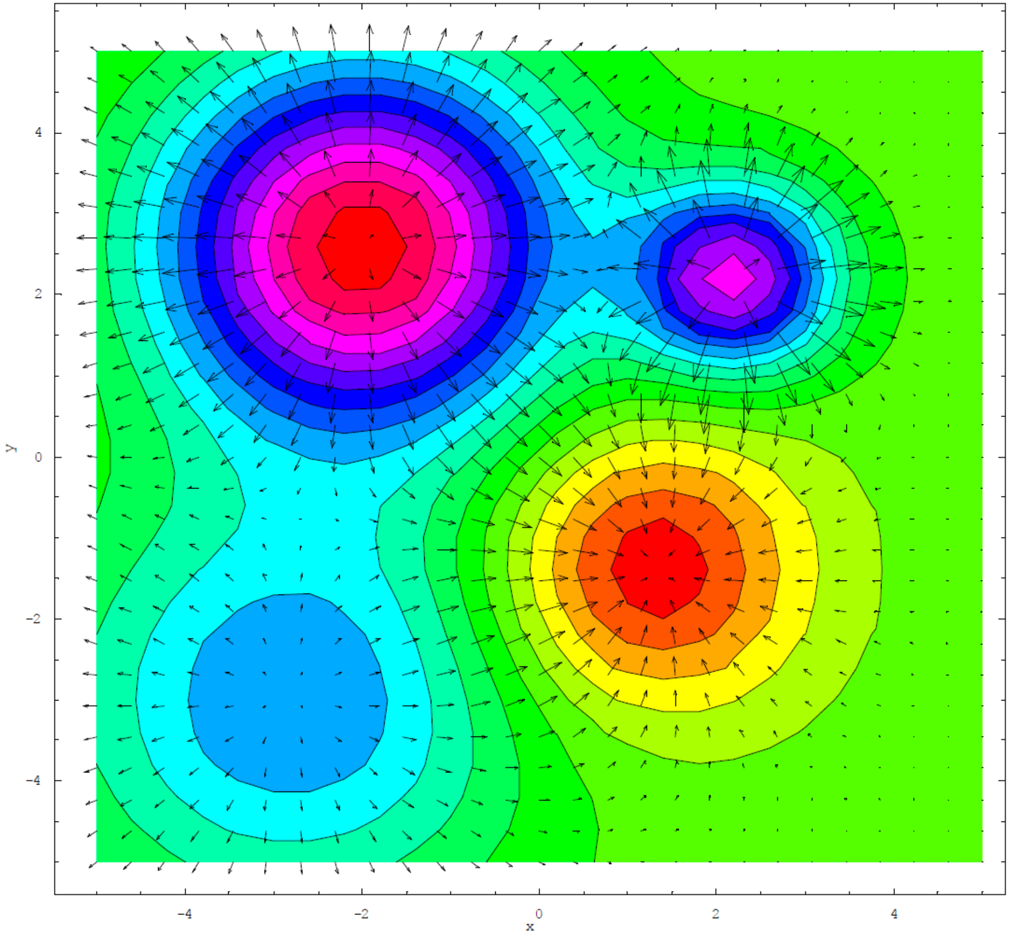


Q: It appears that the vector field indicates the slope of the surface topology—both its **magnitude** and **direction**!

A: That's right! The gradient of a **scalar** field provides a **vector** field that states how the scalar value is **changing** throughout space—a change that has both a **magnitude** and **direction**.

The Gradient (contd.)

- It is a bit more "natural" and instructive for our example to examine the **opposite** of the gradient of *h(x,y)* (i.e., $\vec{A}(\bar{r}) = -\nabla \mathrm{h}(\bar{r})$). In other words, to plot the vectors such that they are pointing in the "**downhill**" direction.

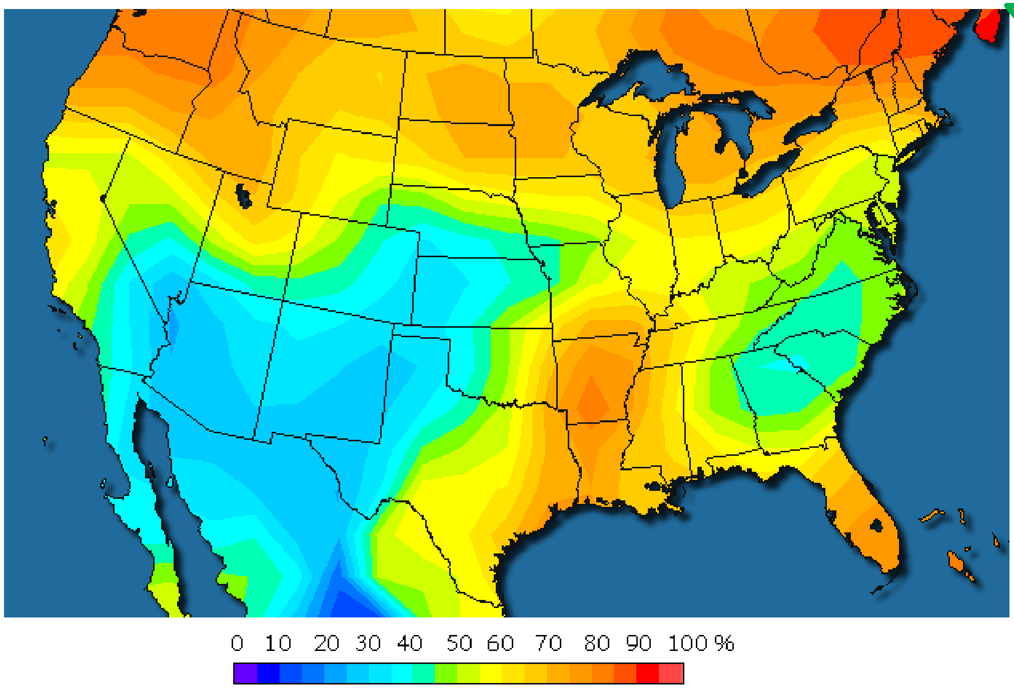


Note these important facts:

- The vectors point in the direction of **maximum change** (i.e., they point straight down the mountain!).
- The vectors always point **orthogonal** to the topographic contours (i.e., the contours of equal surface height).

The Gradient (contd.)

- Now, it is important to understand that the scalar fields we will consider will **not** typically describe the height or altitude of anything! Thus, the slope provided by the gradient is more mathematically “abstract”, in the same way we speak about the slope (i.e., derivative) of some curve.
- For example, consider the **relative humidity** across USA—a **scalar** function of position.



If we travel in some directions, we find that the humidity quickly changes. But if we travel in other directions, the humidity doesn’t change at all.

The Gradient (contd.)

Q: Say we are located at some point, how can we determine the direction where we will experience the greatest change in humidity ?? Also, how can we determine what that change will be ??

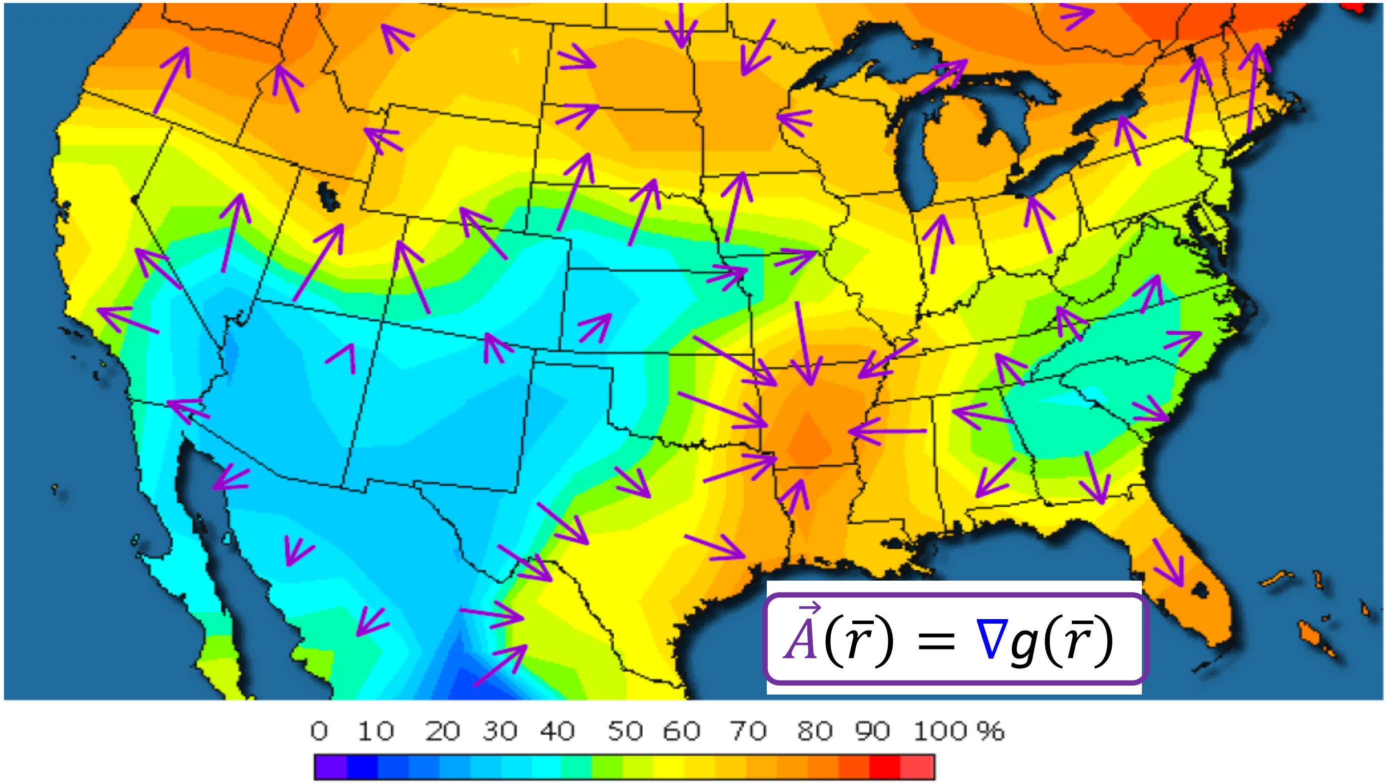
A: The answer to both questions is to take the **gradient** of the scalar field that represents humidity!

- If $g(\bar{r})$ is the scalar field that represents the humidity across USA, then we can form a vector field $\vec{A}(\bar{r})$ by taking the gradient of $g(\bar{r})$:

$$\vec{A}(\bar{r}) = \nabla g(\bar{r})$$

This vector field indicates the **direction** of greatest humidity change (i.e., the direction where the derivative is the largest), as well as the **magnitude** of that change, at every point in the USA!

The Gradient (contd.)



This is likewise true for **any** scalar field. The gradient of a scalar field produces a **vector** field indicating the direction of greatest change (i.e., largest derivative) as well as the magnitude of that change, at every point in space.

The Gradient Operator in Coordinate Systems

- For the **Cartesian** coordinate system, the Gradient of a scalar field is expressed as:

$$\nabla g(\bar{r}) = \frac{\partial g(\bar{r})}{\partial x}\hat{a}_x + \frac{\partial g(\bar{r})}{\partial y}\hat{a}_y + \frac{\partial g(\bar{r})}{\partial z}\hat{a}_z$$

- Now let's consider the gradient operator in the **other** coordinate systems.
- Pfft! This is easy! The gradient operator in the spherical coordinate system is:

$$\nabla g(\bar{r}) = \frac{\partial g(\bar{r})}{\partial r}\hat{a}_r + \frac{\partial g(\bar{r})}{\partial \theta}\hat{a}_\theta + \frac{\partial g(\bar{r})}{\partial \phi}\hat{a}_\phi$$

Right ??

NO!! The above equation is **not** correct!

- Instead, for **spherical** coordinates, the gradient is expressed as:

$$\nabla g(\bar{r}) = \frac{\partial g(\bar{r})}{\partial r}\hat{a}_r + \frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial g(\bar{r})}{\partial \theta}\hat{a}_\theta + \frac{1}{r\sin\theta}\frac{\partial g(\bar{r})}{\partial \phi}\hat{a}_\phi$$

- And for the **cylindrical** coordinate system we likewise get:

$$\nabla g(\bar{r}) = \frac{\partial g(\bar{r})}{\partial \rho}\hat{a}_\rho + \frac{1}{\rho}\frac{\partial g(\bar{r})}{\partial \phi}\hat{a}_\phi + \frac{\partial g(\bar{r})}{\partial z}\hat{a}_z$$

The Conservative Vector Field

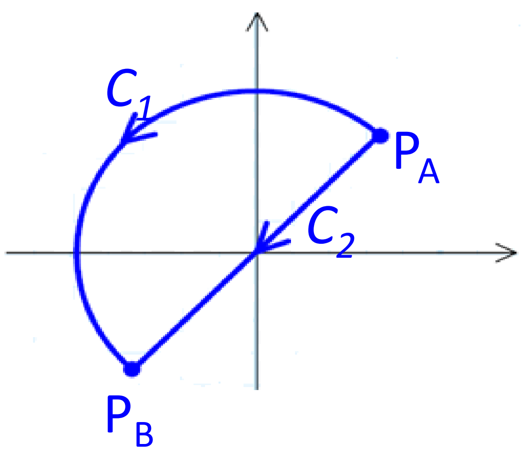
- Of all possible vector fields $\vec{A}(\bar{r})$, there is a subset of vector fields called **conservative** fields. A conservative vector field is a vector field that can be expressed as the **gradient** of some scalar field $g(\bar{r})$:

$$\vec{C}(\bar{r}) = \Delta g(\bar{r})$$

In other words, the gradient of **any** scalar field **always** results in a conservative field!

- A conservative field has the interesting property that its line integral is dependent on the **beginning** and **ending** points of the contour **only**! In other words, for the two contours:

$$\int_{C_1} \vec{C}(\vec{r}).\overline{dl} = \int_{C_2} \vec{C}(\vec{r}).\overline{dl}$$



- We therefore say that the line integral of a conservative field **is path independent**.

The Conservative Vector Field (contd.)

- This path independence is evident when considering the **integral identity**:

$$\int_C \nabla g(\bar{r}).\overline{dl} = g\left(\bar{r} = \bar{r}_B\right) - g\left(\bar{r} = \bar{r}_A\right)$$

position vector $\bar{r}_B$ denotes the **ending** point (P_B) of contour C, and $\bar{r}_A$ denotes the **beginning** point (P_A). $g(\bar{r} = \bar{r}_B)$ denotes the value of scalar field $g(\bar{r})$ evaluated at the point denoted by $\bar{r}_B$, and $g(\bar{r} = \bar{r}_A)$ denotes the value of scalar field $g(\bar{r})$ evaluated at the point denoted by $\bar{r}_A$.

- For **one** dimension, the above identity simply reduces to the familiar expression:

$$\int_{x_a}^{x_b} \frac{\partial g(x)}{\partial x} dx = g\left(x = x_b\right) - g\left(x = x_a\right)$$

- Since **every** conservative field can be written in terms of the **gradient** of a scalar field, we can use this identity to conclude:

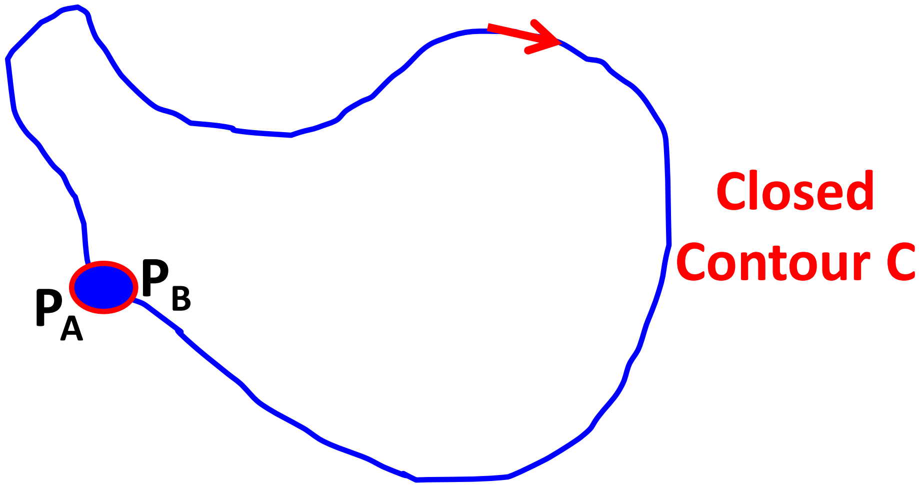
$$\int_C \vec{C}(\bar{r}).\overline{dl} = \int_C \nabla g(\bar{r}).\overline{dl} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \therefore \int_C \vec{C}(\bar{r}).\overline{dl} = g\left(\bar{r} = \bar{r}_B\right) - g\left(\bar{r} = \bar{r}_A\right)$$

Consider then what happens then if we integrate over a **closed** contour.

The Conservative Vector Field (contd.)

Q: What the heck is a closed contour ??

A: A closed contour's beginning and ending is the **same** point! e.g.,



A contour that is **not** closed is referred to as an **open** contour.

- Integration over a closed contour is **denoted** as:

$$\oint_C \vec{A}(\bar{r}).\overline{dl}$$

- The integration of a **conservative** field over a **closed** contour is therefore:

$$\oint_C \vec{C}(\bar{r}).\overline{dl} == \oint_C \nabla g(\bar{r}).\overline{dl} \Rightarrow = g(\bar{r}=\bar{r}_B) - g(\bar{r}=\bar{r}_A) \Rightarrow = 0$$

This result is due to the fact that $\bar{r}_A = \bar{r}_B \Rightarrow g(\bar{r}=\bar{r}_B) = g(\bar{r}=\bar{r}_A)$

The Conservative Vector Field (contd.)

- Let's **summarize** what we know about a **conservative** vector field:

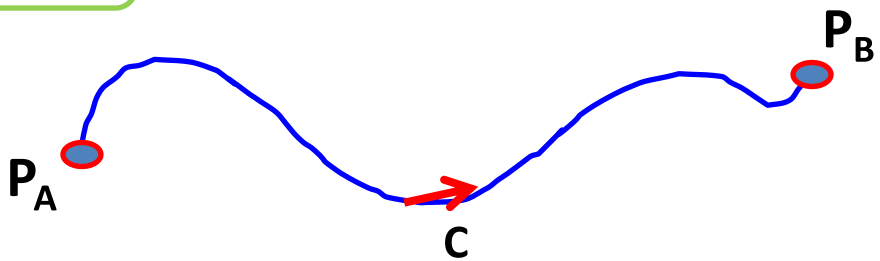
1. A conservative vector field can always be expressed as the **gradient** of a **scalar** field.
2. The gradient of **any** scalar field is therefore a conservative vector field.
3. Integration over an **open** contour is dependent **only** on the value of scalar field $g(\bar{r})$ at the beginning and ending points of the contour (i.e., integration is **path independent**).
4. Integration of a conservative vector field over any **closed** contour is always equal to **zero**.

Example – 1

- Consider the conservative vector field: $\vec{A}(\bar{r}) = \nabla\left(x^2 + y^2\right)z$
- Evaluate the contour integral: $\int_C \vec{A}(\bar{r}).\overline{dl}$

where $\vec{A}(\bar{r}) = \nabla\left(x^2 + y^2\right)z$

and contour C is:



- The **beginning** of contour C is the point denoted as: $\bar{r}_A = 3\hat{a}_x - \hat{a}_y + 4\hat{a}_z$
- while the **end** point is denoted with position vector: $\bar{r}_B = -3\hat{a}_x - 2\hat{a}_z$

Note that ordinarily, this would be an **impossible** problem for **us** to do!

Example – 1 (contd.)

- we note that vector field $\vec{A}(\bar{r})$ is **conservative,** therefore:

$$\int_C \vec{A}(\bar{r}).\overline{dl} = \int_C \nabla g(\bar{r}).\overline{dl}$$

$$= g(\bar{r} = \bar{r}_B) - g(\bar{r} = \bar{r}_A)$$

- For this problem, it is evident that: $g(\bar{r}) = \left(x^2 + y^2\right)z$

- Therefore, $g(\bar{r} = \bar{r}_A)$ is the **scalar** field evaluated at $x = 3, y = -1, z = 4$; while $g(\bar{r} = \bar{r}_B)$ is the **scalar** field evaluated at at $x = -3, y = 0, z = -2$.

$$g(\bar{r} = \bar{r}_A) = \left((3)^2 + (-1)^2\right)4 = 40$$

$$g(\bar{r} = \bar{r}_B) = \left((-3)^2 + (0)^2\right)(-2) = -18$$

Therefore:

$$g(\bar{r} = \bar{r}_B) = \left((-3)^2 + (0)^2\right)(-2) = -18$$

$$= -18 - 40 = -58$$

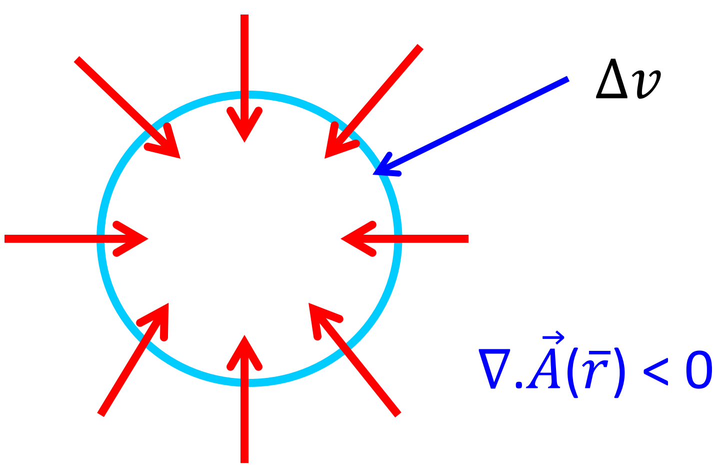
The Divergence of a Vector Field

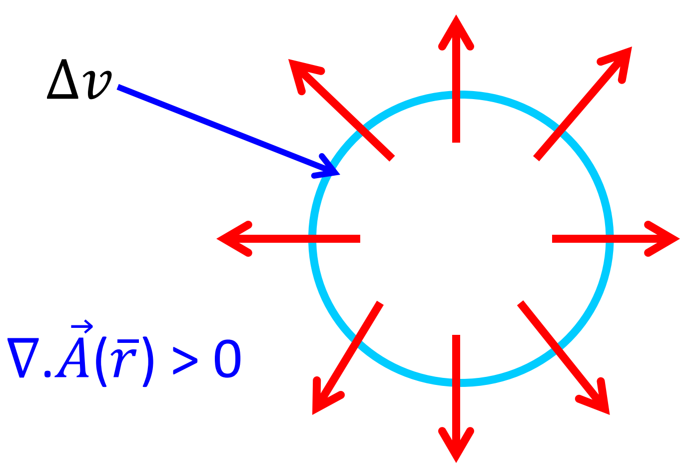
- The **mathematical** definition of divergence is:

$$\nabla.\vec{A}(\bar{r}) = \lim_{\Delta v \to 0} \frac{\oiint_S \vec{A}(\bar{r}).\overline{ds}}{\Delta v}$$

where the surface S is a **closed** surface that **completely** surrounds a **very small** volume Δv at point $\bar{r}$, and $\overline{ds}$ points **outward** from the closed surface.

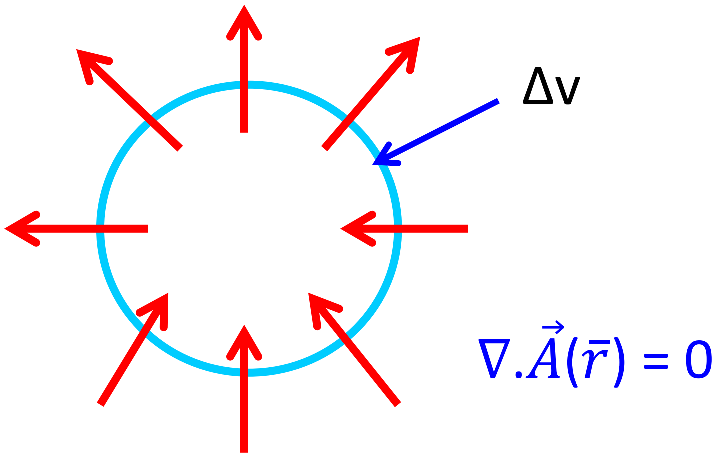
- The divergence indicates the amount of vector field $\vec{A}(\bar{r})$ that is **converging to**, or **diverging from**, a given point.
- For example, consider the vector fields in the region of a **specific point**:

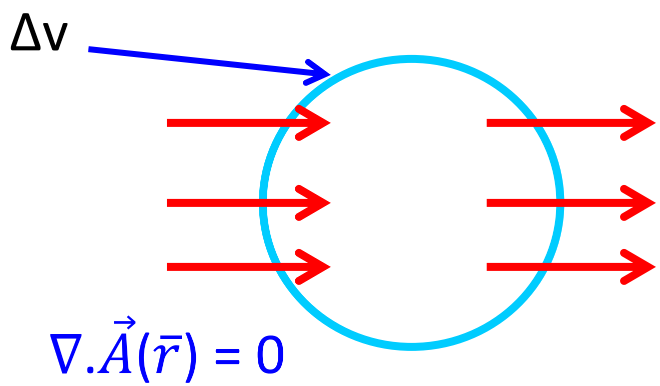




The Divergence of a Vector Field (contd.)

- The field on the left is **converging** to a point, and therefore the divergence of the vector field at that point is **negative**. Conversely, the vector field on the right is **diverging** from a point. As a result, the divergence of the vector field at that point is **greater than zero**.
- Lets consider some **other** vector fields in the region of a specific point:

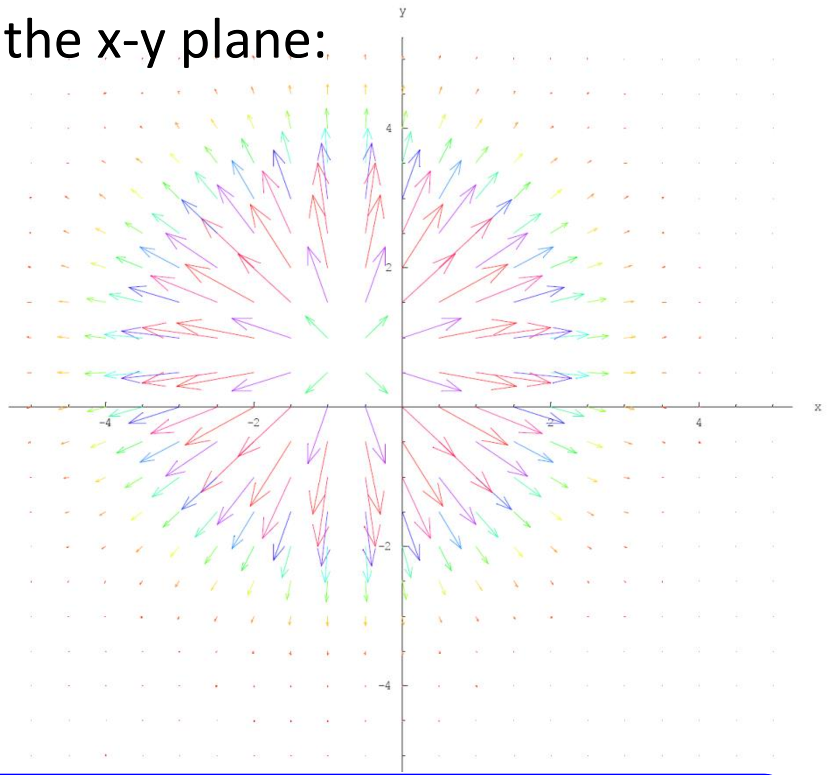




For these vector fields, the surface integral is **zero**. Over some portions of the surface, the component is positive, whereas on other portions, the component is negative. However, **integration** over the entire surface is equal to zero—the divergence of the vector field for this region is zero.

The Divergence of a Vector Field (contd.)

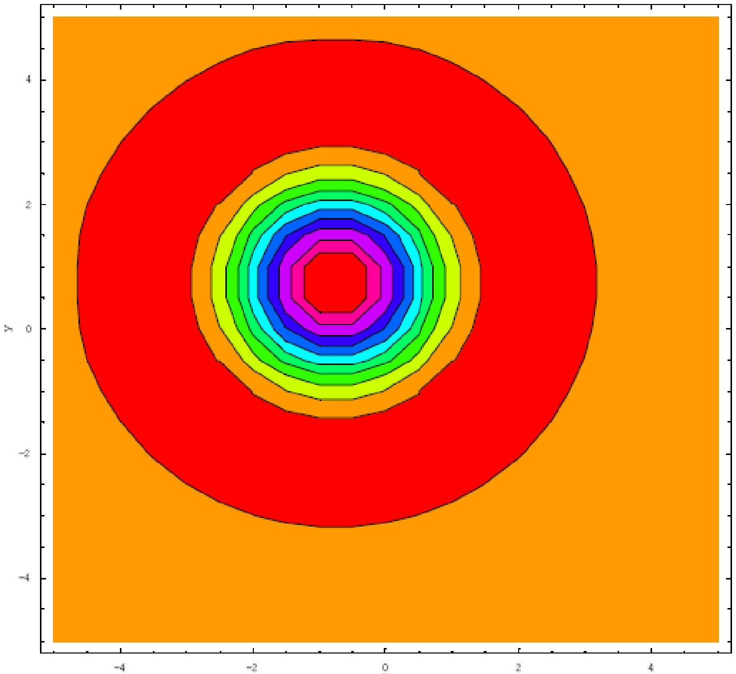
- The divergence of a vector field results in a scalar field (divergence) that is positive in some regions in space, negative in other regions, and zero elsewhere.
- For most **physical** problems, the divergence of a vector field provides a scalar field that represents the **sources** of the vector field.
- For example, consider the following 2-D vector field $\vec{A}(x,y)$ plotted on the x-y plane:

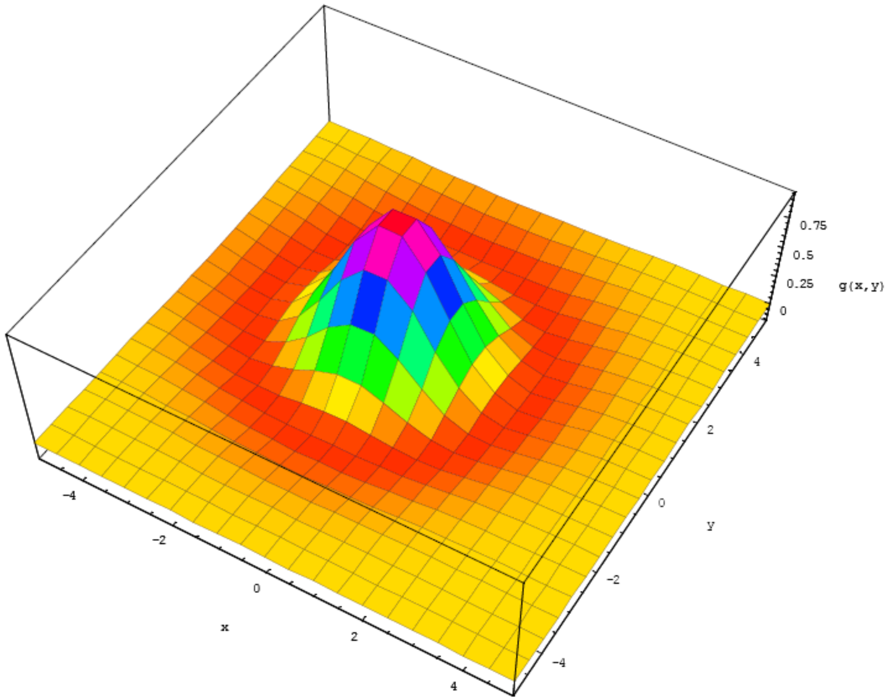


We can take the divergence of this vector field, resulting in the scalar field $g(x,y) = \nabla . \vec{A}(x,y)$.

The Divergence of a Vector Field (contd.)

- Plot of field $g(x, y) = \nabla . \vec{A}(x, y)$ on the xy-plane will look as:

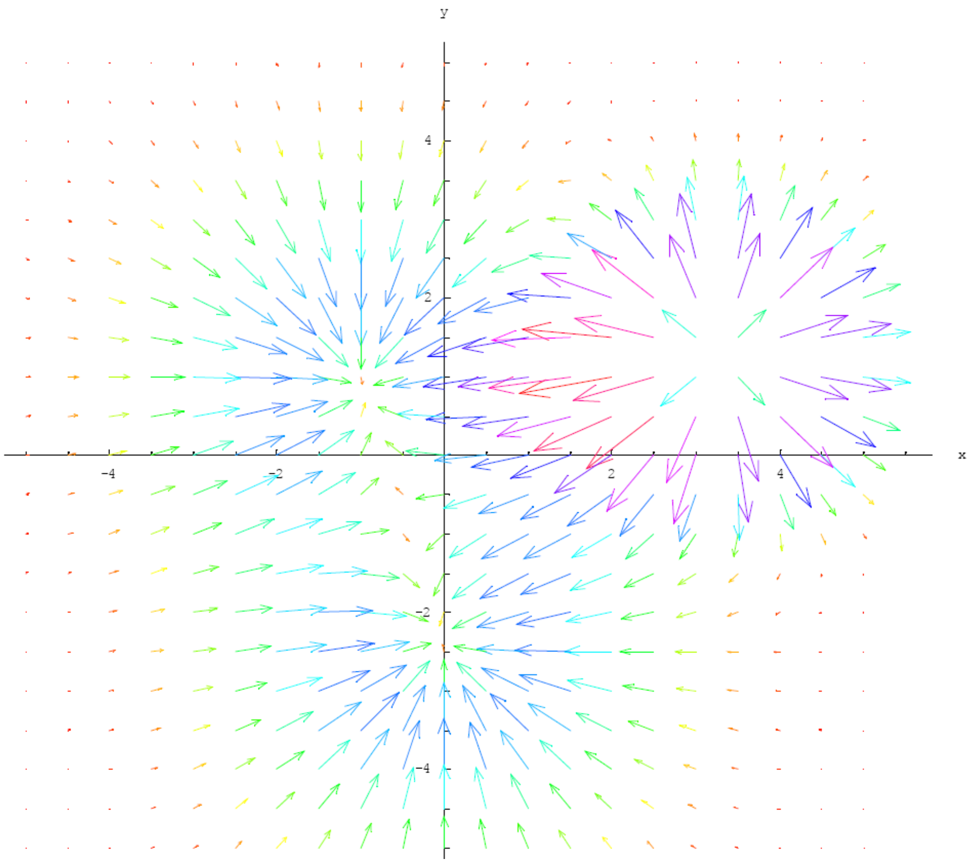




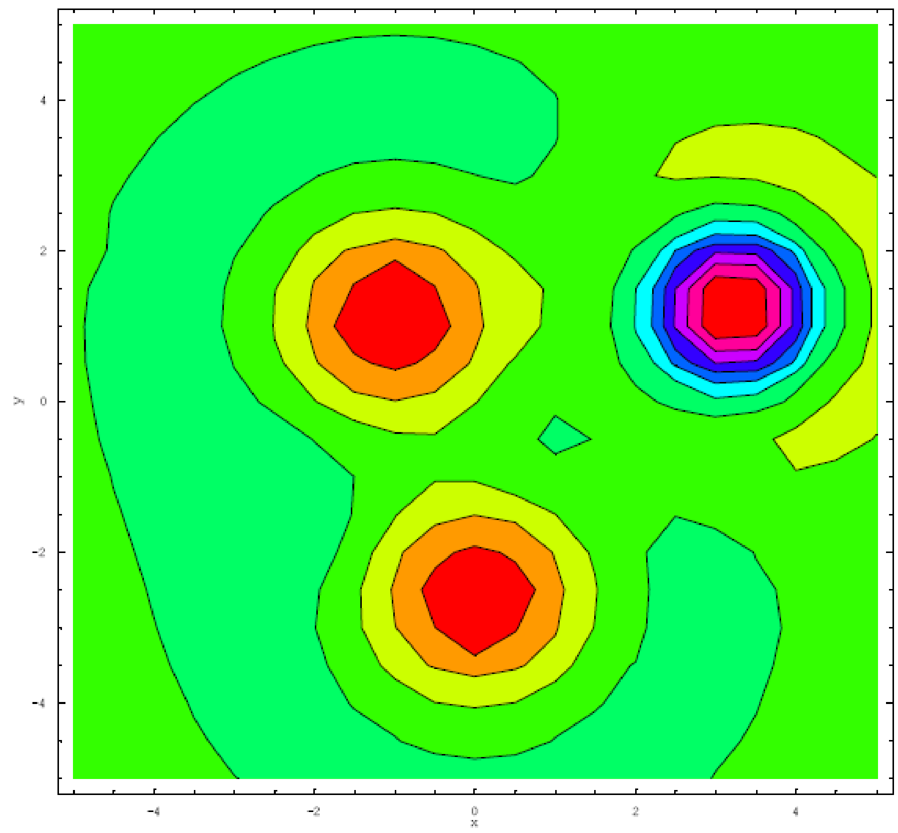
Both plots indicate that the divergence is largest in the vicinity of point x=-1, y=1. However, notice that the value of g(x,y) is non-zero (both positive and negative) for most points (x,y).

The Divergence of a Vector Field (contd.)

- Consider now this vector field:

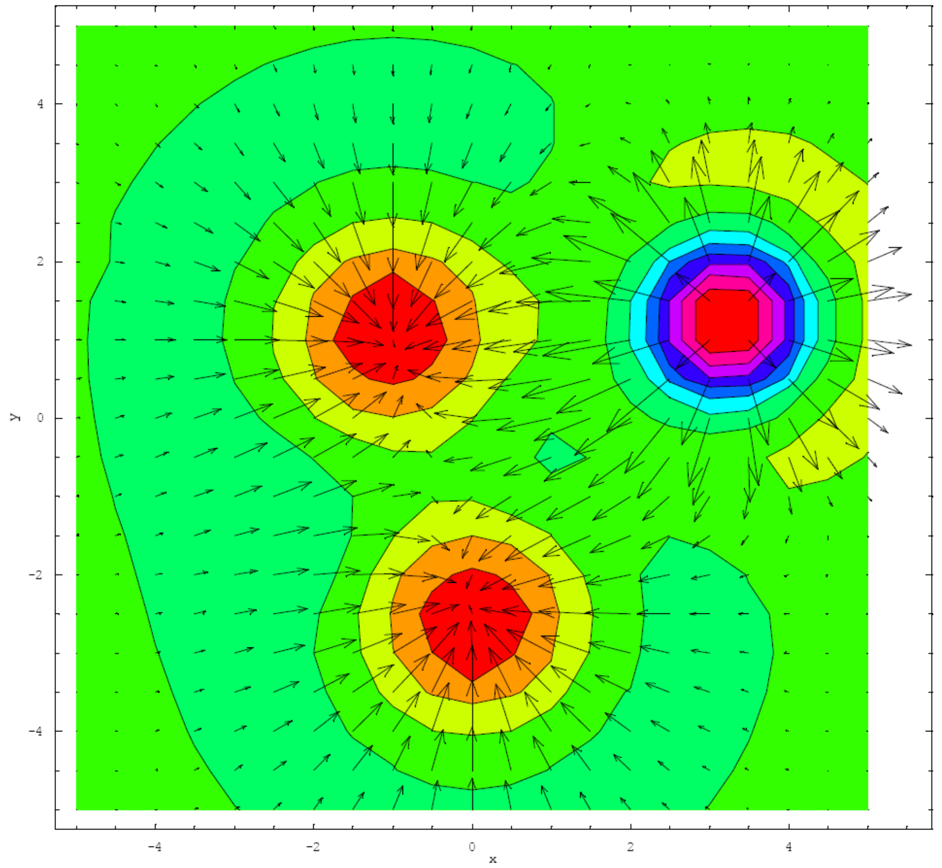


- The **divergence** of this vector field is the **scalar** field.



The Divergence of a Vector Field (contd.)

- **Combining** the vector field and scalar field plots, we can examine the **relationship** between each.
- Look closely! Although the relationship between the scalar field and the vector field may appear at first to be the **same** as with the **gradient** operator, the two relationships are **very** different.

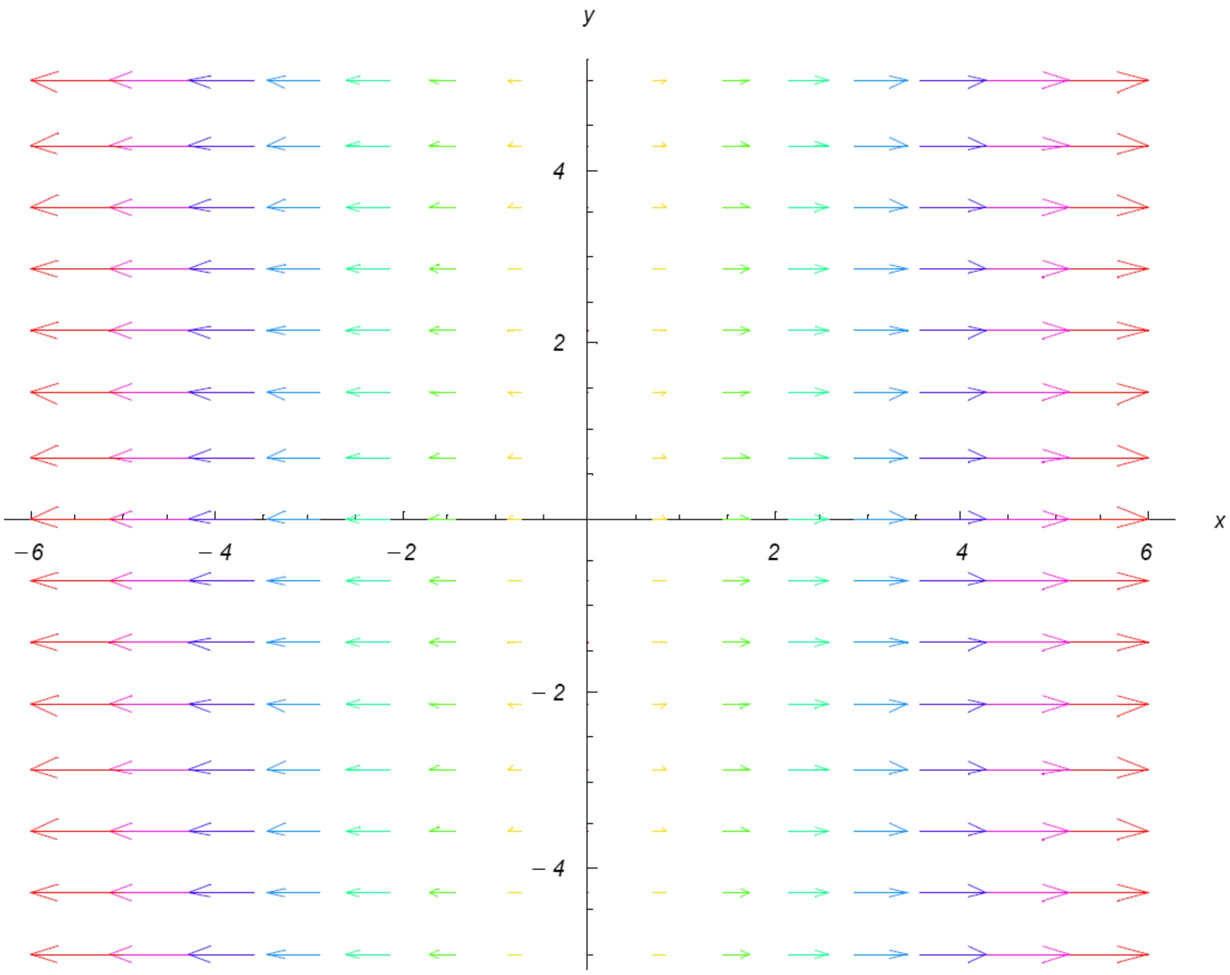


Remember:

- **gradient** produces a **vector** field that indicates the change in the original **scalar** field, whereas:
- **divergence** produces a **scalar** field that indicates some change (i.e., divergence or convergence) of the original **vector** field.

The Divergence of a Vector Field (contd.)

- The divergence of **this** vector field is interesting—it steadily increases as we move away from the y-axis.



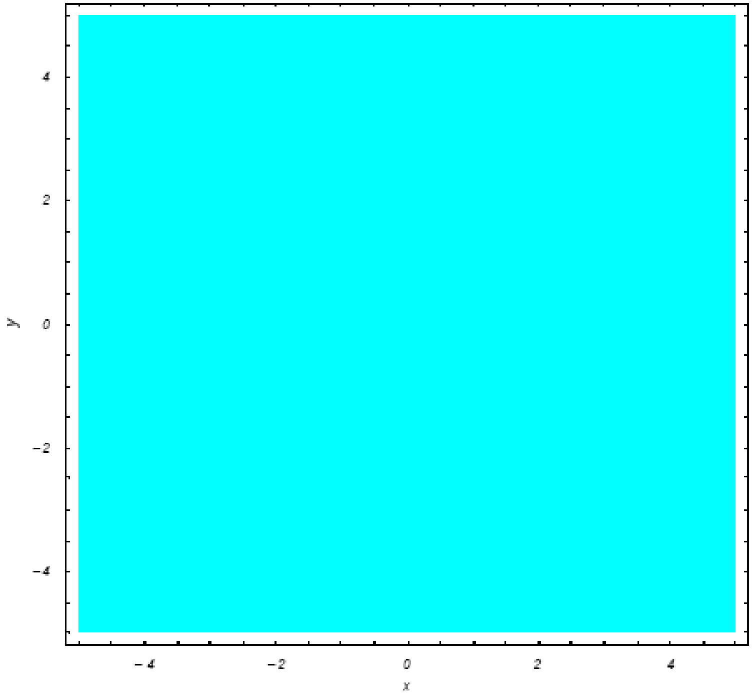
$$\vec{F}(\bar{r}) = x\hat{a}_x$$

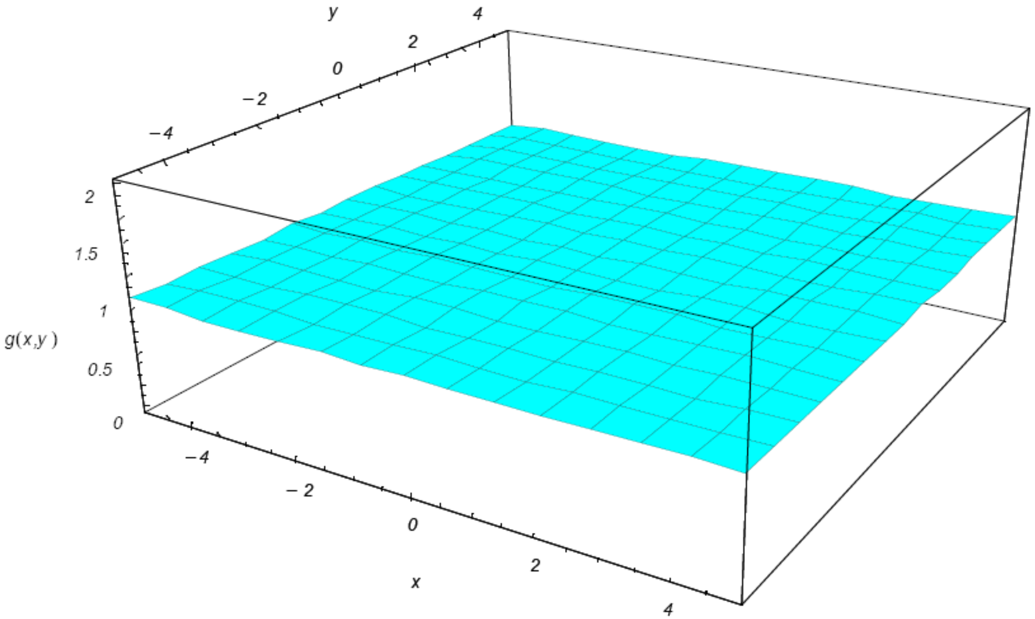
The Divergence of a Vector Field (contd.)

- Yet, the divergence of this vector field produces a scalar field equal to one—**everywhere** (i.e., a **constant** scalar field)!

$$\nabla.\vec{F} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}x + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}0 = 1$$

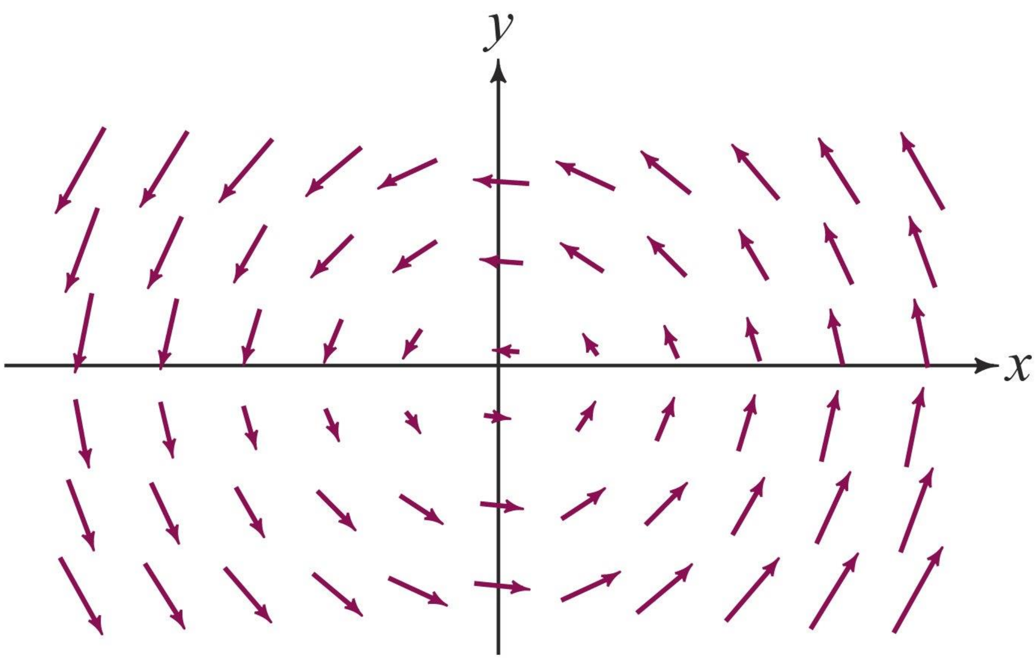
HA #1: Part-1





The Divergence of a Vector Field (contd.)

- Likewise, note the divergence of the following vector fields—it is **zero** at all points (x, y);



$$\vec{F} = -y\hat{a}_x + x\hat{a}_y$$

$$\nabla.\vec{F} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(-y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(x) = 0$$

HA #1: Part-2

Although the examples we have examined here were all 2-D, keep in mind that both the original vector field, as well as the scalar field produced by divergence, will typically be **3-D**!

The Divergence in Coordinate Systems

- Consider now the **divergence** of vector fields expressed with our **coordinate systems**:

Cartesian

$$\nabla.\vec{A}(\bar{r}) = \frac{\partial A_x(\bar{r})}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial A_y(\bar{r})}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial A_z(\bar{r})}{\partial z}$$

Cylindrical

$$\nabla.\vec{A}(\bar{r}) = \frac{1}{\rho}\left[\frac{\partial\left(\rho A_\rho(\bar{r})\right)}{\partial \rho}\right] + \frac{1}{\rho}\frac{\partial A_\phi(\bar{r})}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial A_z(\bar{r})}{\partial z}$$

Spherical

$$\nabla.\vec{A}(\bar{r}) = \frac{1}{r^2}\left[\frac{\partial\left(r^2 A_r(\bar{r})\right)}{\partial r}\right] + \frac{1}{r\sin\theta}\frac{\partial\left(\sin\theta A_\theta(\bar{r})\right)}{\partial \theta} + \frac{1}{r\sin\theta}\frac{\partial A_\phi(\bar{r})}{\partial \phi}$$

Note that, as with the gradient expression, the divergence expressions for cylindrical and spherical coordinate systems are more **complex** than those of Cartesian. Be **careful** when you use these expressions!

The Divergence Theorem

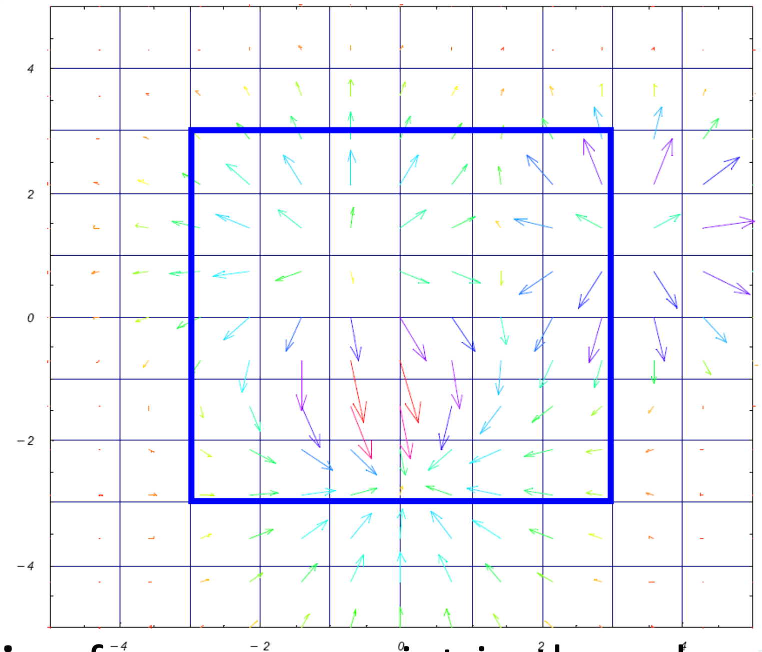
- Recall we studied volume integrals of the form: $$\iiint_v g(\bar{r})dv$$
- It turns out that **any** and **every** scalar field can be written as the divergence of some **vector** field, i.e.: $$g(\bar{r}) = \nabla.\vec{A}(\bar{r})$$
- Therefore we can equivalently write any volume integral as: $$\iiint_v \nabla.\vec{A}(\bar{r})dv$$
- The **divergence theorem** states that this integral is equal to: $$\iiint_v \nabla.\vec{A}(\bar{r})dv = \oiint_S \vec{A}(\bar{r}).\overline{ds}$$

where S is the **closed** surface that completely surrounds volume v, and vector $\overline{ds}$ points **outward** from the closed surface. For example, if volume v is a **sphere**, then S is the **surface** of that sphere.

The divergence theorem states that the **volume** integral of a scalar field can be likewise evaluated as a **surface** integral of a vector field!

The Divergence Theorem (contd.)

- What the divergence theorem indicates is that the **total** "divergence" of a vector field through the **surface** of any volume is equal to the sum (i.e., integration) of the divergence at **all points** within the **volume**.



- In other words, if the vector field is **diverging** from some point in the volume, it must simultaneously be **converging** to another adjacent point within the volume—the net effect is therefore **zero**!
- Thus, the only values that make **any** difference in the **volume integral** are the divergence or convergence of the vector field across the surface surrounding the volume—vectors that will be converging or diverging to adjacent points **outside** the volume (across the surface) from points **inside** the volume. Since these points just outside the volume are not included in the integration, their net effect is **non-zero**!

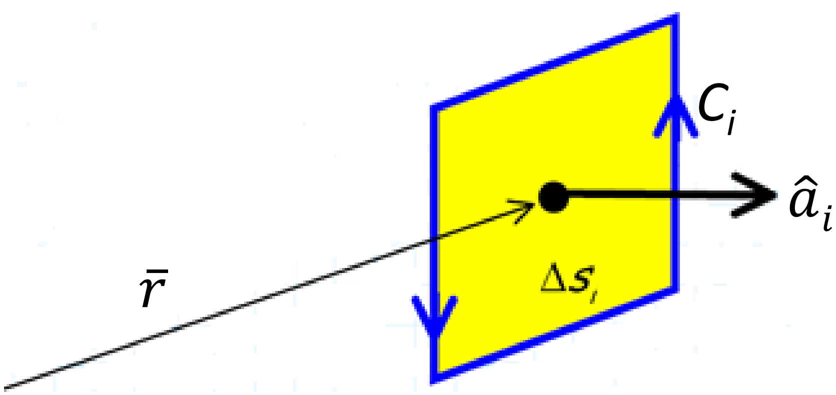
The Curl of a Vector Field

Say $\nabla \times \vec{A}(\bar{r}) = \vec{B}(\bar{r})$. The **mathematical** definition of Curl is given as:

$$B_i(\bar{r}) = \lim_{\Delta s \to 0} \frac{\oint_{C_i} \vec{A}(\bar{r}).\overline{dl}}{\Delta s_i}$$

This rather complex equation requires some **explanation** !

- $B_i(\bar{r})$ is the scalar component of vector $\vec{B}(\bar{r})$ in the direction defined by unit vector $\hat{a}_i$ (e.g., $\hat{a}_x$, $\hat{a}_\rho$, $\hat{a}_\theta$).
- The small surface Δs_i is centered at point $\bar{r}$, and oriented such that it is normal to unit vector $\hat{a}_i$.
- The contour C_i is the closed contour that surrounds surface Δs_i.



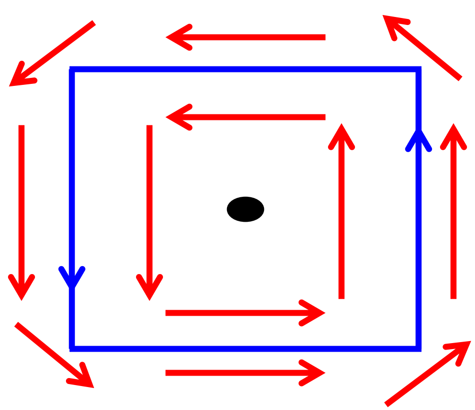
Note that this derivation must be completed for **each** of the **three** orthonormal base vectors in order to completely define $\nabla \times \vec{A}(\bar{r}) = \vec{B}(\bar{r})$.

The Curl of a Vector Field (contd.)

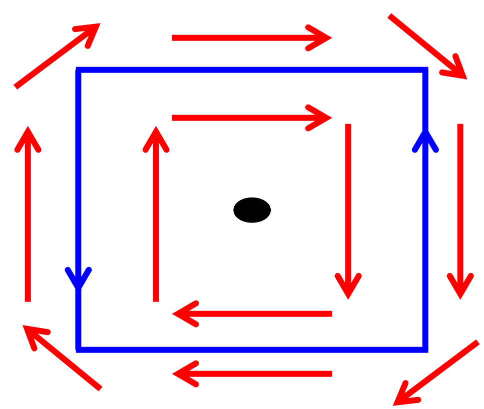
Q: What does curl tell us ?

A: Curl is a measurement of the **circulation** of vector field $\vec{A}(\bar{r})$ around point $\bar{r}$.

- If a component of vector field $\vec{A}(\bar{r})$ is pointing in the direction $\overline{dl}$ at every point on contour C_i (i.e., **tangential** to the contour). Then the line integral, and thus the curl, will be **positive**.
- If, however, a component of vector field $\vec{A}(\bar{r})$ points in the opposite direction $(-\overline{dl})$ at every point on the contour, the curl at point $\bar{r}$ will be **negative**.



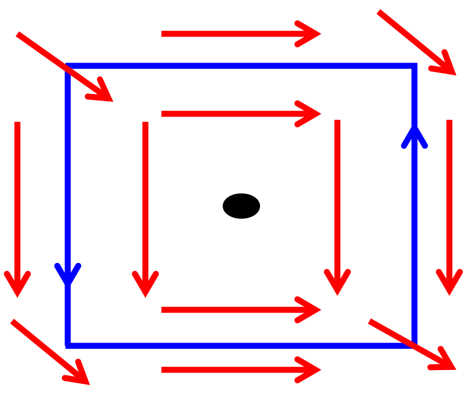
$B_i > 0$



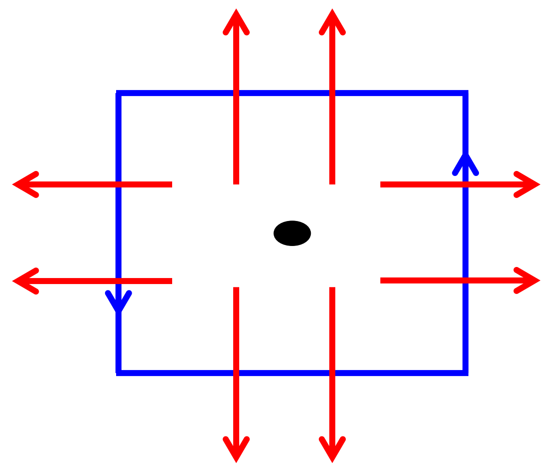
$B_i < 0$

The Curl of a Vector Field (contd.)

- **following** vector fields will result in a curl with **zero** value at point $\bar{r}$:



$B_i = 0$

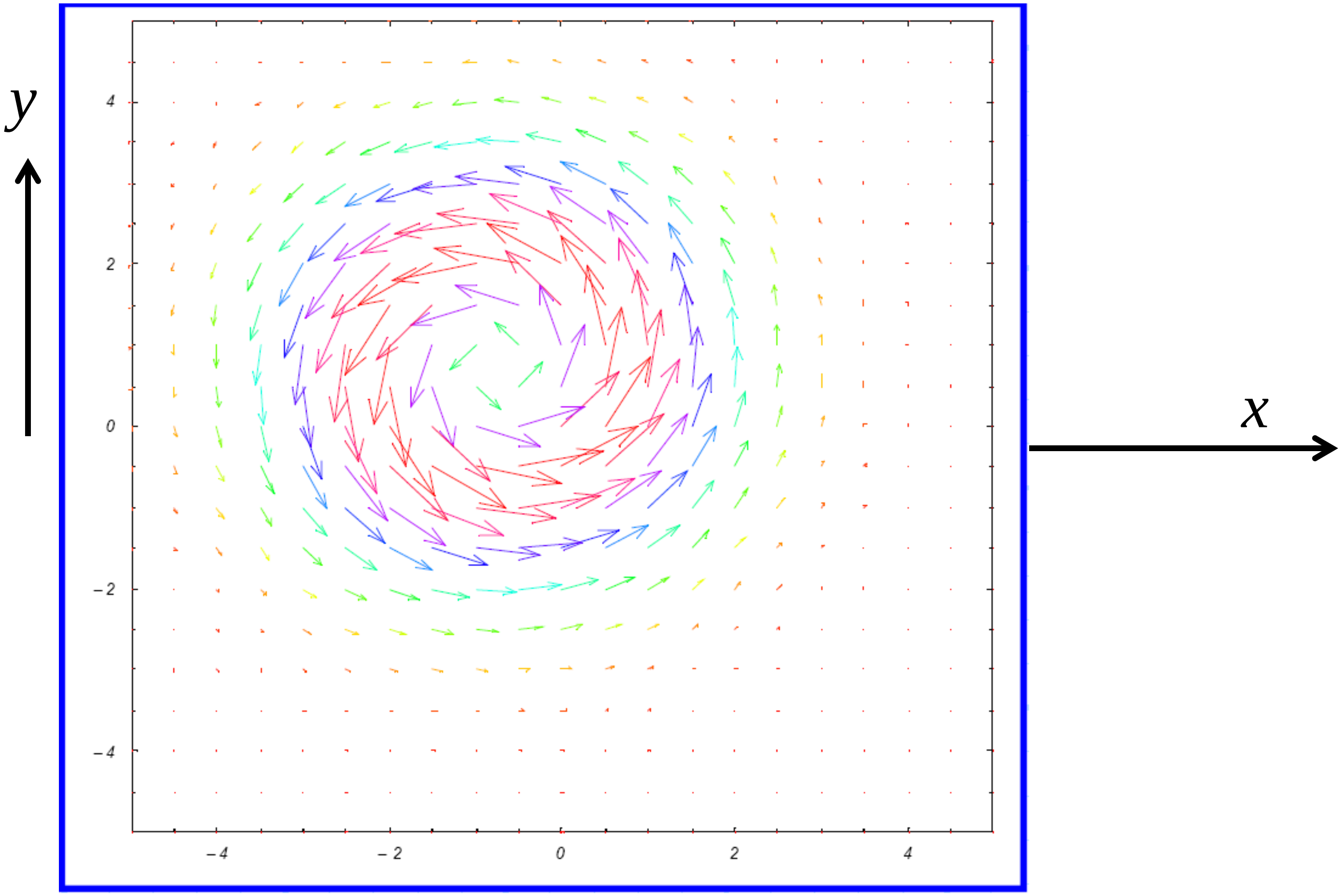


$B_i = 0$

- **Generally**, the curl of a vector field result in another vector field whose magnitude is positive in some regions of space, negative in other regions, and zero elsewhere.
- For most **physical** problems, the curl of a vector field provides another vector field that indicates **rotational sources** (i.e., “paddle wheels”) of the original vector field.

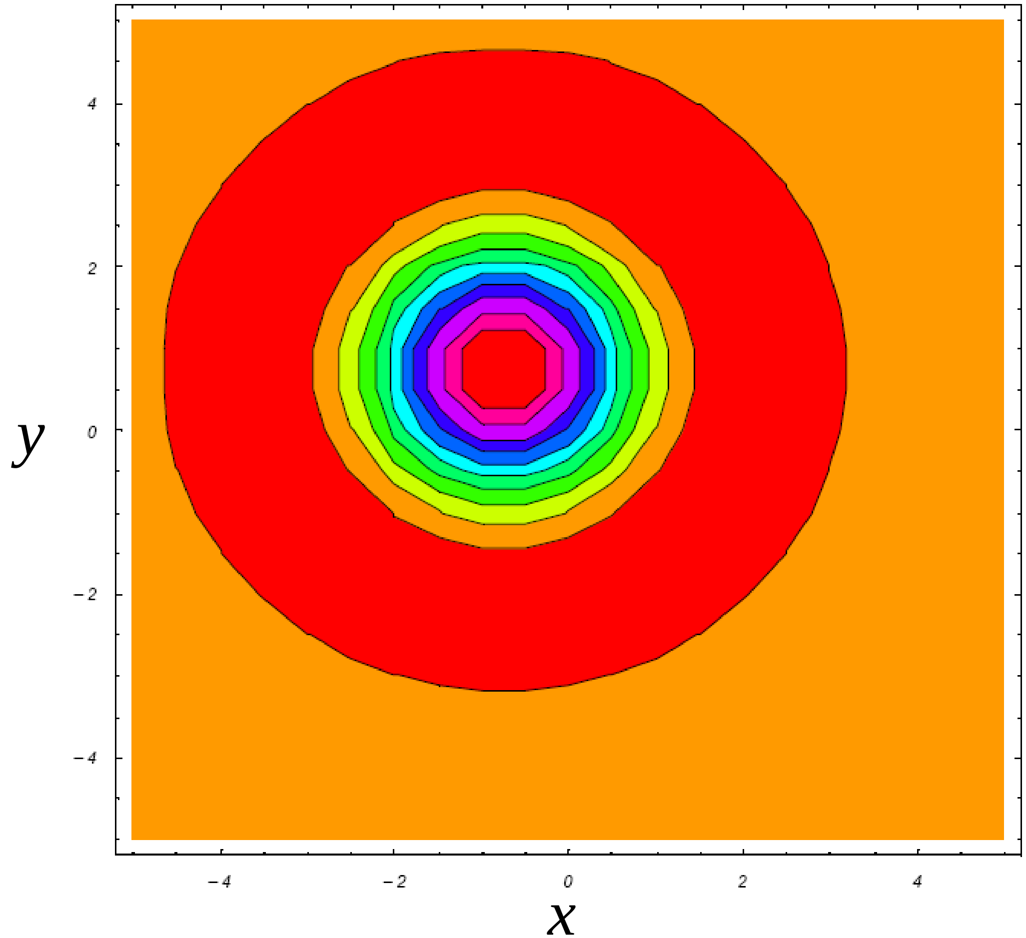
The Curl of a Vector Field (contd.)

- For example, consider this vector field $\vec{A}(\bar{r})$:

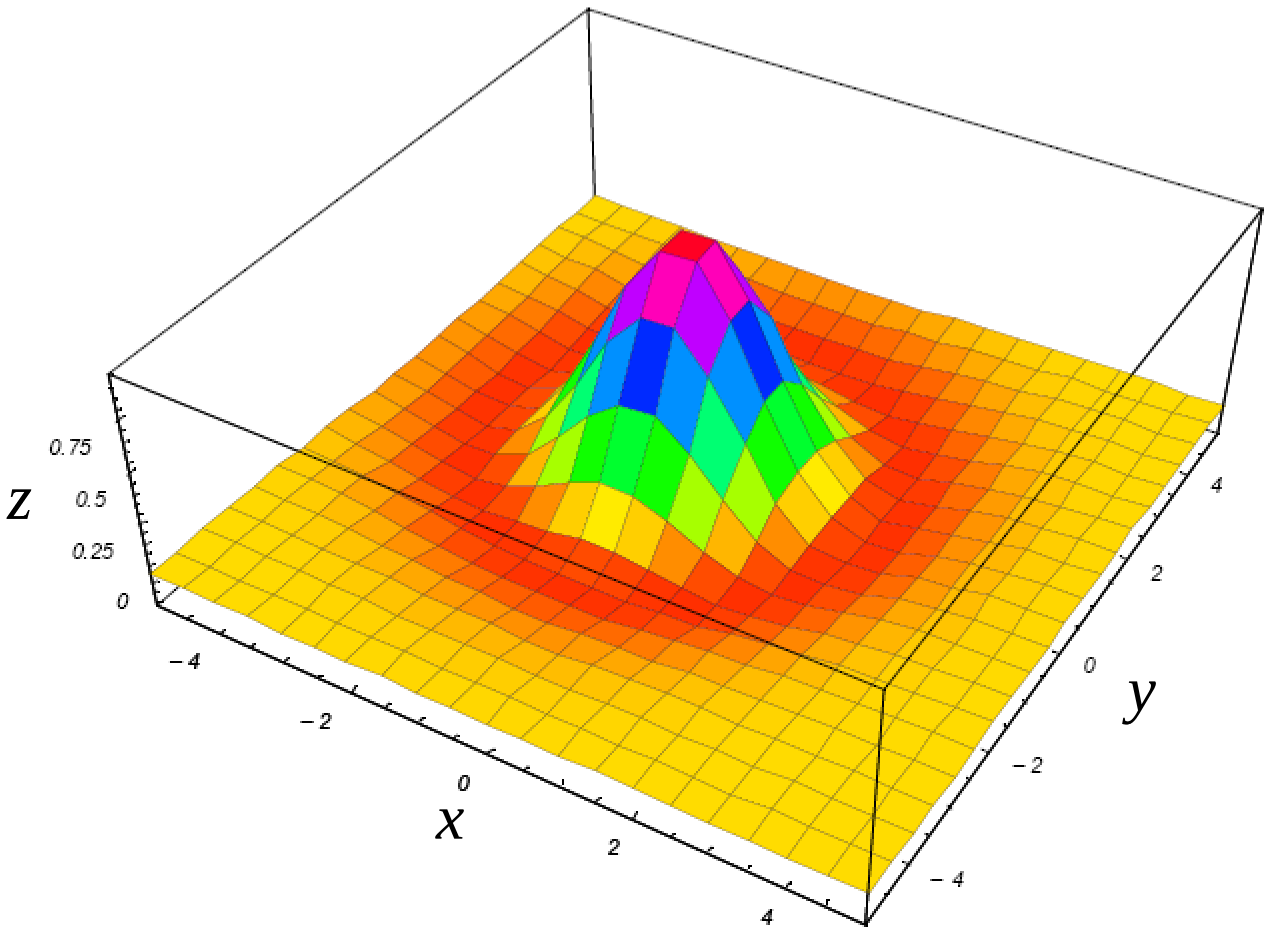


The Curl of a Vector Field (contd.)

- If we take the curl of $\vec{A}(\bar{r})$, we get a **vector field** which points in the direction $\hat{a}_z$ at **all** points (x, y). The **scalar component** of this resulting vector field (i.e., $B_z(\bar{r})$) is:

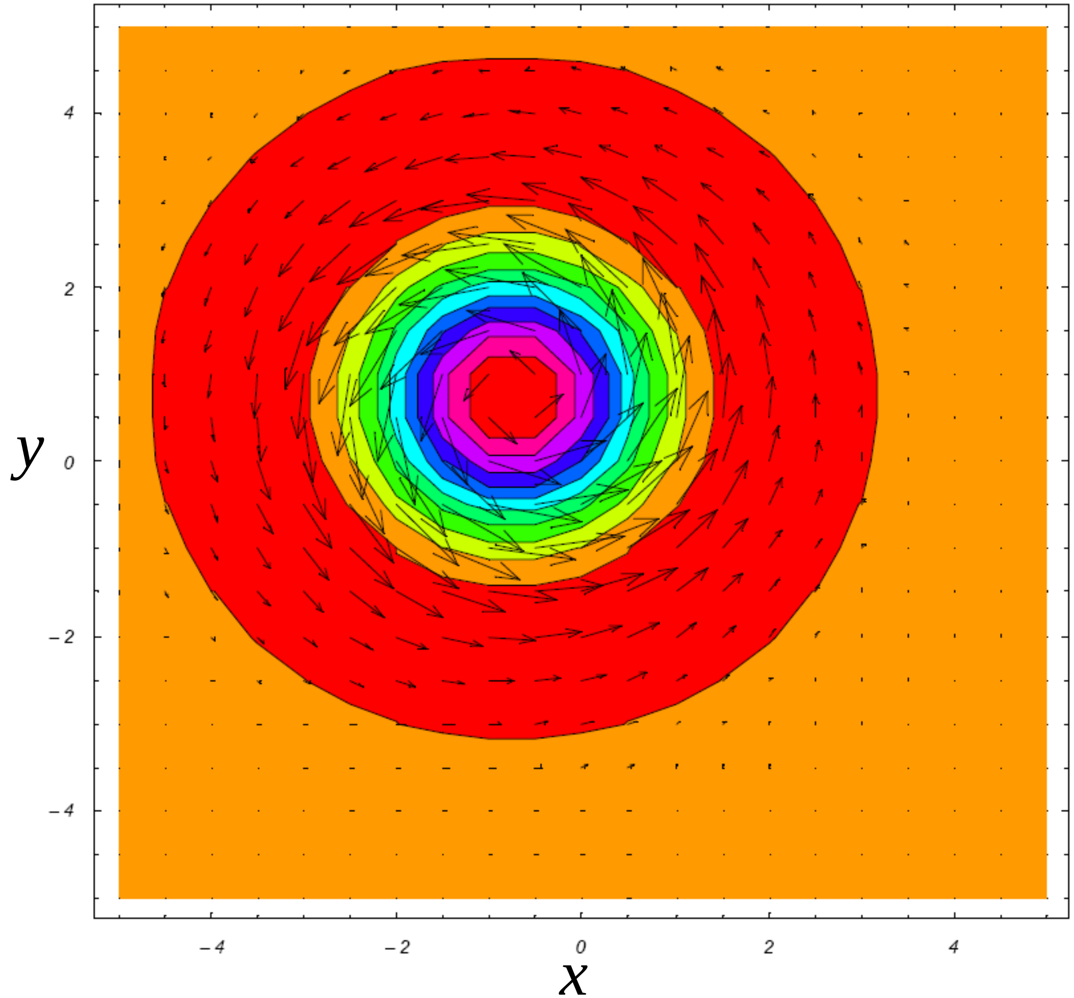


The Curl of a Vector Field (contd.)



The Curl of a Vector Field (contd.)

- The relationship between the original vector field $\vec{A}(\bar{r})$ and its resulting curl perhaps is best shown when plotting both together:



Note this **scalar** component is **largest** in the region near point x=-1, y=1, indicating a “**rotational source**” in this region. This is likewise apparent from the original plot of vector field $\vec{A}(\bar{r})$.

Curl in Coordinate Systems

- Consider now the curl of vector fields expressed using our coordinate systems.

$$\nabla\times\vec{A}(\bar{r})=\left[\frac{\partial A_y(\bar{r})}{\partial z}-\frac{\partial A_z(\bar{r})}{\partial y}\right]\hat{a}_x+\left[\frac{\partial A_z(\bar{r})}{\partial x}-\frac{\partial A_x(\bar{r})}{\partial z}\right]\hat{a}_y+\left[\frac{\partial A_x(\bar{r})}{\partial y}-\frac{\partial A_y(\bar{r})}{\partial x}\right]\hat{a}_z$$

$$\nabla\times\vec{A}(\bar{r})=\left[\frac{1}{\rho}\frac{\partial A_z(\bar{r})}{\partial\phi}-\frac{\partial A_\phi(\bar{r})}{\partial z}\right]\hat{a}_\rho+\left[\frac{\partial A_\rho(\bar{r})}{\partial z}-\frac{\partial A_z(\bar{r})}{\partial\rho}\right]\hat{a}_\phi+\left[\frac{1}{\rho}\frac{\partial}{\partial\rho}\left(\rho A_\phi(\bar{r})\right)-\frac{1}{\rho}\frac{\partial A_\rho(\bar{r})}{\partial\phi}\right]\hat{a}_z$$

$$\nabla\times\vec{A}(\bar{r})=\left[\frac{1}{r\sin\theta}\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}\left(\sin\theta A_\phi(\bar{r})\right)-\frac{1}{r\sin\theta}\frac{\partial A_\theta(\bar{r})}{\partial\phi}\right]\hat{a}_r+\left[\frac{1}{r\sin\theta}\frac{\partial A_r(\bar{r})}{\partial\phi}-\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(rA_\phi(\bar{r})\right)\right]\hat{a}_\theta$$
$$+\left[\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(rA_\theta(\bar{r})\right)-\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial A_r(\bar{r})}{\partial\theta}\right]\hat{a}_\phi$$

Yikes! These expressions are **very** complex. Precision, organization, and patience are required to **correctly** evaluate the **curl** of a vector field !

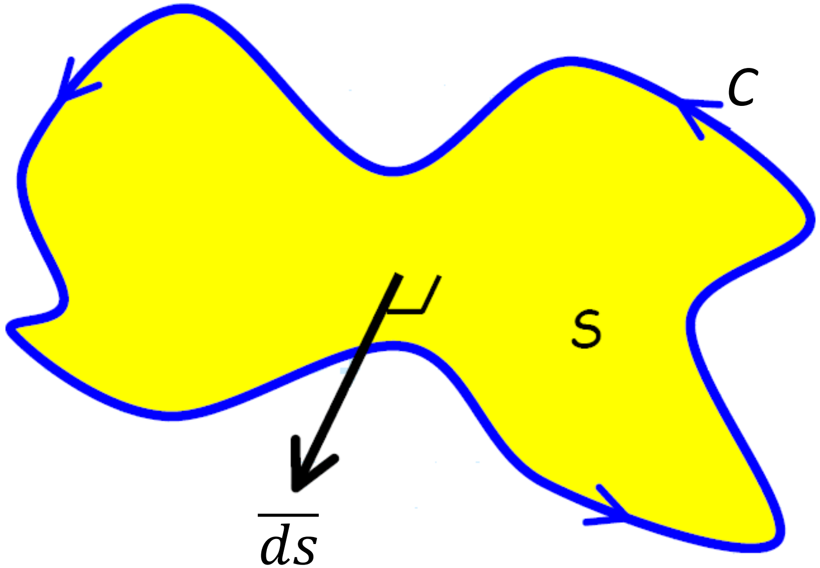
Stokes' Theorem

- Consider a vector field $\vec{B}(\bar{r})$ where: $\vec{B}(\bar{r}) = \nabla \times \vec{A}(\bar{r})$

- Say we wish to integrate this vector field over an **open** surface **S**: $\iint_S \vec{B}(\bar{r}).\overline{dS} = \iint_S \nabla \times \vec{A}(\bar{r}).\overline{dS}$

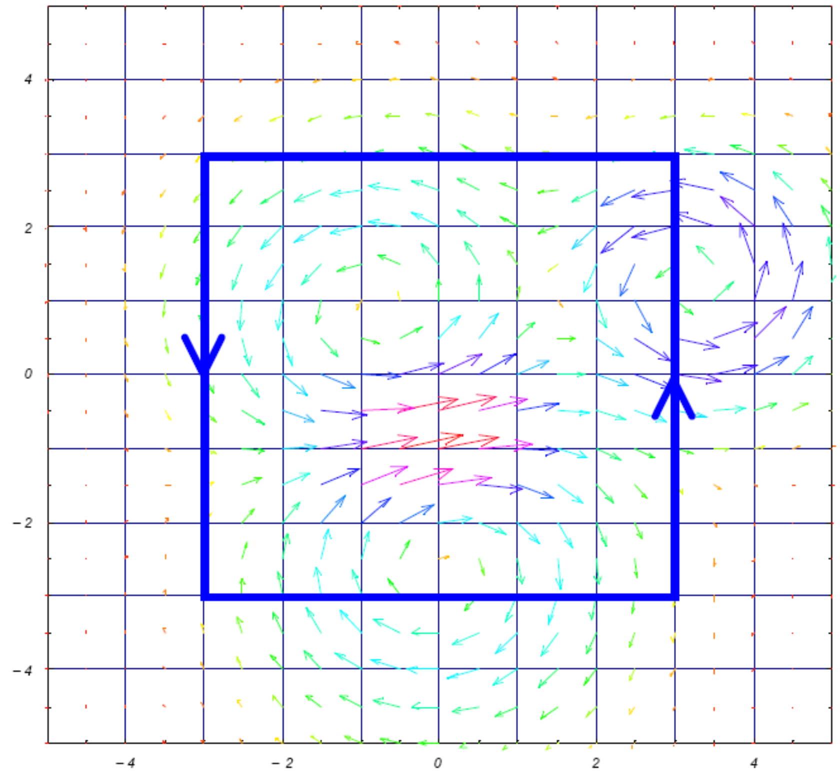
- We can likewise evaluate this integral using **Stokes' Theorem**: $\iint_S \nabla \times \vec{A}(\bar{r}).\overline{dS} = \oint_C \vec{A}(\bar{r}).\overline{dl}$

- In this case, the contour C is a **closed** contour that **surrounds** surface **S**. The direction of C is defined by $\overline{ds}$ and the **right - hand rule**. In other words C rotates **counter clockwise** around $\overline{ds}$. e.g.,



Stokes' Theorem (contd.)

- Stokes' Theorem allows us to evaluate the **surface** integral of a curl as a **contour** integral !
- Stokes' Theorem states that the summation (i.e., integration) of the circulation at **every** point on a surface is simply the **total** "circulation" around the closed **contour** surrounding the surface.



In other words, if the vector field is **rotating counter clockwise** around some point in the volume, it must simultaneously be **rotating clockwise** around adjacent points within the volume—the net effect is therefore **zero**!

Stokes' Theorem (contd.)

- Thus, the only values that make **any** difference in the **surface integral** is the rotation of the vector field around points that lie on the surrounding contour (i.e., the very edge of the surface S). These vectors are likewise rotating in the opposite direction around adjacent points—but these points do **not** lie on the surface (thus, they are **not** included in the integration). The net effect is therefore **non-zero**!
- Note that if S is a **closed surface**, then there is **no** contour C that exists! In other words:

$$\iint_S \nabla \times \vec{A}(\overline{r}).\overline{dS} = \oint_C \vec{A}(\overline{r}).\overline{dl} = 0$$

Therefore, integrating the **curl of any vector field** over a **closed** surface **always** equals zero.

The Curl of Conservative Fields

- Recall that every **conservative** field can be written as the gradient of some scalar field:

$$\vec{C}(\bar{r}) = \nabla g(\bar{r})$$

- Consider now the **curl of a conservative field**:

$$\nabla \times \vec{C}(\bar{r}) = \nabla \times \nabla g(\bar{r})$$

- Recall that if $\vec{C}(\bar{r})$ is expressed using the **Cartesian** coordinate system, the curl of $\vec{C}(\bar{r})$ is:

$$\nabla \times \vec{C}(\bar{r}) = \left[\frac{\partial C_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial C_y}{\partial z}\right]\hat{a}_x + \left[\frac{\partial C_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial C_z}{\partial x}\right]\hat{a}_y + \left[\frac{\partial C_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial C_x}{\partial y}\right]\hat{a}_z$$

- Likewise, the **gradient** of $g(\bar{r})$ is:

$$\nabla \times \vec{C}(\bar{r}) = \left[\frac{\partial C_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial C_y}{\partial z}\right]\hat{a}_x + \left[\frac{\partial C_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial C_z}{\partial x}\right]\hat{a}_y + \left[\frac{\partial C_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial C_x}{\partial y}\right]\hat{a}_z$$

Therefore:

$$C_x(\bar{r}) = \frac{\partial g(\bar{r})}{\partial x} \qquad C_y(\bar{r}) = \frac{\partial g(\bar{r})}{\partial y} \qquad C_z(\bar{r}) = \frac{\partial g(\bar{r})}{\partial z}$$

- Combining these two results:

$$\nabla \times \nabla g(\bar{r}) = \nabla \times \vec{C}(\bar{r}) = \left[\frac{\partial^2 g(\bar{r})}{\partial y \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 g(\bar{r})}{\partial z \partial y}\right]\hat{a}_x + \left[\frac{\partial^2 g(\bar{r})}{\partial z \partial x} - \frac{\partial^2 g(\bar{r})}{\partial x \partial z}\right]\hat{a}_y + \left[\frac{\partial^2 g(\bar{r})}{\partial x \partial y} - \frac{\partial^2 g(\bar{r})}{\partial y \partial x}\right]\hat{a}_z$$

The Curl of Conservative Fields (contd.)

- We know: $$\frac{\partial^2 g(\bar{r})}{\partial y \partial z} = \frac{\partial^2 g(\bar{r})}{\partial z \partial y}$$
- each component of $\nabla \times \nabla g(\bar{r})$ is then equal to **zero**, and we can say: $$\nabla \times \nabla g(\bar{r}) = \nabla \times \vec{C}(\bar{r}) = 0$$

⇒ The **curl** of every **conservative** field is **equal to zero** !

Q: Are there some **non-**conservative fields whose curl is also equal to zero?
A: NO! The curl of a conservative field, and **only** a conservative field, is equal to **zero**.

- Thus, we have way to **test** whether some vector field $\vec{A}(\bar{r})$ is conservative: **evaluate its curl**!
  1. If the result **equals zero**—the vector field **is** conservative.
  2. If the result is **non-zero**—the vector field **is not** conservative.

The Curl of Conservative Fields (contd.)

- Let's again **recap** what we've learnt about **conservative** fields:

1. The line integral of a conservative field is **path independent**.
2. Every conservative field can be expressed as the **gradient** of some scalar field.
3. The gradient of **any** and **all** scalar fields is a conservative field.
4. The line integral of a conservative field around any **closed** contour is equal to zero.
5. The **curl** of every conservative field is equal to **zero**.
6. The **curl** of a vector field is zero **only** if it is conservative.

The Solenoidal Vector Field

1. We know that a **conservative** vector field $\vec{C}(\bar{r})$ can be identified from its curl, which is always equal to zero:

$$\nabla \times \vec{C}(\bar{r}) = 0$$

- Similarly, there is **another** type of vector field $\vec{S}(\bar{r})$, called a **solenoidal** field, whose **divergence** always equals zero:

$$\nabla . \vec{S}(\bar{r}) = 0$$

Moreover, it should be noted that **only** solenoidal vector have zero divergence! Thus, zero divergence is a **test** for determining if a given vector field is solenoidal.

We sometimes refer to a solenoidal field as a **divergenceless** field.

The Solenoidal Vector Field (contd.)

2. Recall that **another** characteristic of a **conservative** vector field is that it can be expressed as the **gradient** of some **scalar** field (i.e., $\vec{C}(\bar{r}) = \nabla g(\bar{r})$).

- Solenoidal vector fields have a **similar** characteristic! Every solenoidal vector field can be expressed as the **curl** of some other vector field (say $\vec{A}(\bar{r})$).

$$\vec{S}(\bar{r}) = \nabla \times \vec{A}(\bar{r})$$

- Additionally, it is important to note that **only** solenoidal vector fields can be expressed as the curl of some other vector field.

The curl of **any** vector field **always** results in a solenoidal field!

- Note if we **combine** these two previous equations, we get a **vector identity**:

$$\nabla . \nabla \times \vec{A}(\bar{r}) = 0$$

a result that is always true for **any** and **every** vector field $\vec{A}(\bar{r})$.

The Solenoidal Vector Field (contd.)

3. Now, let's recall the **divergence theorem**:

$$\iiint_v \nabla.\vec{A}(\bar{r})dv = \oiint_S \vec{A}(\bar{r}).\overline{ds}$$

- **If** the vector field $\vec{A}(\bar{r})$ is **solenoidal**, we can write this theorem as:

$$\iiint_v \nabla.\vec{S}(\bar{r})dv = \oiint_S \vec{S}(\bar{r}).\overline{ds}$$

But the divergence of a solenoidal field is **zero:**

$$\nabla.\vec{S}(\bar{r}) = 0$$

As a result, the **left** side of the divergence theorem is zero, and we can conclude that:

$$\oiint_S \vec{S}(\bar{r}).\overline{ds} = 0$$

In other words the **surface** integral of **any** and **every** solenoidal vector field across a **closed** surface is equal to zero.

- Note this result is **analogous** to evaluating a line integral of a conservative field over a closed contour:

$$\oint_C \vec{C}(\bar{r}).\overline{dl} = 0$$

The Solenoidal Vector Field (contd.)

- Lets **summarize** what we know about **solenoidal** vector fields:

1. **Every** solenoidal field can be expressed as the **curl** of some **other** vector field.
2. The curl of **any** and **all** vector fields always results in a solenoidal vector field.
3. The **surface integral** of a solenoidal field across any **closed** surface is equal to **zero.**
4. The **divergence** of every solenoidal vector field is equal to **zero**.
5. The divergence of a vector field is zero **only** if it is **solenoidal**.

HA #1: Part-3

- Find the divergence of $\vec{F} = 2xz\hat{a}_x - xy\hat{a}_y - z\hat{a}_z$

  Also use MATLAB to demonstrate 2-D and 3-D plots of the vector and the divergence operation.

HA #1: Part-4

- Find the divergence of $\vec{F} = x\hat{a}_x$

  Also use MATLAB to demonstrate 2-D and 3-D plots of the vector and the divergence operation.

HA #1: Part-5

- Find the divergence of $\vec{F} = x\hat{a}_x + y\hat{a}_y$

  Also use MATLAB to demonstrate 2-D and 3-D plots of the vector and the divergence operation.

HA #1: Part-6

- Find the divergence of $\vec{F} = -x\hat{a}_x - y\hat{a}_y$

  Also use MATLAB to demonstrate 2-D and 3-D plots of the vector and the divergence operation.

Some Important Identities

$$\nabla(U+V)=\nabla U+\nabla V$$

$$\nabla(UV)=U\nabla V+V\nabla U$$

$$\nabla V^{n}=nV^{n-1}\nabla V$$

$$\nabla.\left(\vec{U}_1+\vec{U}_2\right)=\nabla.\vec{U}_1+\nabla.\vec{U}_2$$

$$\nabla\times\left(\vec{A}+\vec{B}\right)=\nabla\times\vec{A}+\nabla\times\vec{B}$$

$$\nabla.\left(\nabla\times\vec{A}\right)=0$$

$$\nabla\times\left(\nabla V\right)=0$$

Miscellaneous

- Let us consider the generic Maxwell's equations:

$$\nabla.\vec{D} = \rho_v \qquad \nabla\times\vec{E} = -\frac{\partial B}{\partial t} \qquad \nabla.\vec{B} = 0 \qquad \nabla\times\vec{H} = \vec{J} + \frac{\partial \vec{D}}{\partial t}$$

  - $\vec{E}$ and $\vec{D}$ are the electric field intensity and electric flux density respectively
  - $\vec{B}$ and $\vec{H}$ are the magnetic field intensity and magnetic flux density respectively

- Under static conditions, none of the quantities appearing above are functions of time (i.e., $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} = 0$) → this happens when all charges are permanently fixed in space, or, if they move, they do so at steady rate so that ρ_v and $\vec{J}$ are constant in time.

- Under the static conditions we get:

$$\nabla.\vec{D} = \rho_v \qquad \nabla\times\vec{E} = 0 \qquad \nabla.\vec{B} = 0 \qquad \nabla\times\vec{H} = \vec{J}$$

Miscellaneous (contd.)

$\nabla.\vec{D} = \rho_v$ $\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0$ $\nabla.\vec{B} = 0$ $\nabla \times \vec{H} = \vec{J}$

Electric and Magnetic fields become decoupled under static conditions

Enables us to study electricity and magnetism as distinct separate phenomena

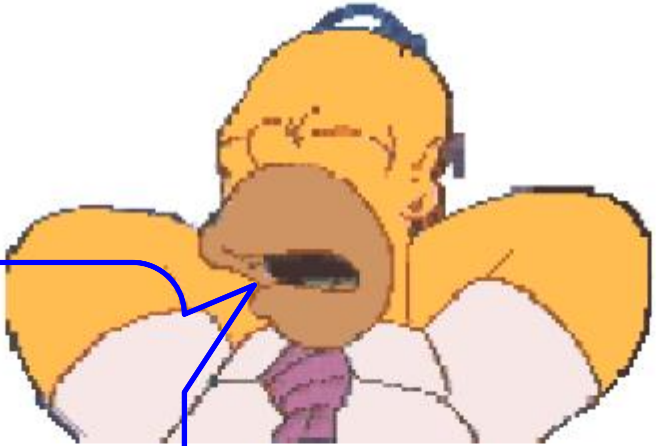
We refer the study of electric and magnetic phenomena under static conditions as ***electrostatics*** and ***magnetostatics***

The experience gained through studying electrostatics and magnetostatics phenomena will prove invaluable in tackling the more involved concepts which deal with time-varying fields

Miscellaneous (contd.)

- **Oh yes!** We do not study electrostatics just as a prelude to the study of time-varying fields.
- **Electrostatics** is an **important concept** in its own right.
- Many electronics devices and systems are based on the principles of electrostatics.
- **Examples include:** x-ray machines, oscilloscopes, ink-jet electrostatic printers, liquid crystal displays, copy machines, micro-electro-mechanical switches (MEMS), accelerometers, and solid-state-based control devices etc.
- **Electrostatic principles** also guide the design of medical diagnostic sensors, such as the electrocardiogram, which records the heart’s pumping pattern, and electroencephalogram, which records brain activity.

Miscellaneous (contd.)



Q: I see ! Electrostatics is important as a distinct phenomena but not Magnetostatics. Right?

A: that is not correct! Magnetostatics is equally important and this concept is utilized in design of systems such as Loudspeakers, Door Bells, Magnetic Relays, Maglev Trains etc.