

Griffiths Electrodynamics Chapter 1 Summary: Vector Analysis

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05Aug20

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Vector Algebra

Vector addition is **commutative**, and **associative**. Each vector also has an **additive inverse**.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} &= \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} \\ (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) + \mathbf{C} &= \mathbf{A} + (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) \\ \mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{A}) &= \mathbf{0}\end{aligned}$$

Scalar multiplication is **distributive**.

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

The **dot product** of two vectors is

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = AB \cos(\theta)$$

with θ being the angle between each vector. The dot product is **commutative**, and **distributive**.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} &= \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A} \\ \mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) &= \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C}\end{aligned}$$

The **cross product** of two vectors is

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = AB \sin(\theta) \hat{\mathbf{n}}$$

with $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ pointing normal to both vectors with the sign following the right-hand rule. The cross product is **distributive**, and **anti-commutative**

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{A} \times (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) &= (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) + (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{C}) \\ (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) &= -(\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A})\end{aligned}$$

Vectors can be broken up into their components. Using Cartesian coordinates, a vector \mathbf{A} will be

$$\mathbf{A} = A_x \hat{\mathbf{x}} + A_y \hat{\mathbf{y}} + A_z \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

Adding vectors is as simple as adding components. For a dot product, you multiply identical components.

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha \mathbf{A} + \beta \mathbf{B} &= (\alpha A_x + \beta B_x) \hat{\mathbf{x}} + (\alpha A_y + \beta B_y) \hat{\mathbf{y}} + (\alpha A_z + \beta B_z) \hat{\mathbf{z}} \\ \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} &= A_x B_x + A_y B_y + A_z B_z\end{aligned}$$

The cross product is a little more complicated, but can be found taking a determinant of a special matrix.

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

The **scalar triple product** is $\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C})$. The dot and cross product can be interchanged.

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

The **vector triple product** is $\mathbf{A} \times (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C})$ and is simplified with the **BAC-CAB rule**.

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

It is important to recognize that cross-products are not associative.

The **position vector** \mathbf{r} in Cartesian coordinates is

$$\mathbf{r} = x\hat{x} + y\hat{y} + z\hat{z}$$

with a magnitude

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

We can then define a **displacement vector** $d\mathbf{l}$ as

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

We want to define one more vector, the **separation vector** \mathcal{R} which is

$$\mathcal{R} = \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'$$

with \mathbf{r}' being the source point, where the electric charge is located, and \mathbf{r} being the field point, where you are calculating the electric or magnetic field.

Example: Dot Product

Let $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$. The dot product of \mathbf{C} with itself is

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

$$C^2 = A^2 + B^2 - 2AB \cos(\theta)$$

Example: Cube Angles

We want to find the angle between the face diagonals of a cube. Using the unit cube will make it easiest, so our two angles are

$$\mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

We can then take the dot product to find what we need.

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = 1 = 2 \cos(\theta)$$

So

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}$$

or

$$\theta = \frac{\pi}{3}$$

Differential Calculus

The differential of a scalar function T can be represented as

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

Using dot products and gradients, this can be written as

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

There are three different types of differential operators for vector calculus: the **gradient**, the **divergence**, and the **curl**. These can be represented by the following representations in Cartesian, spherical, and cylindrical coordinates, respectively.

The Gradient:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla &= \hat{\mathbf{x}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{\mathbf{y}} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ &= \hat{\mathbf{r}} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}}{r \sin(\theta)} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \\ &= \hat{\mathbf{s}} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} + \frac{\hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}}{s} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} + \hat{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\end{aligned}$$

The Divergence:

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

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r^2 v_r) + \frac{1}{r \sin(\theta)} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (v_\theta \sin(\theta)) + \frac{1}{r \sin(\theta)} \frac{\partial v_\phi}{\partial \phi} \\
&= \frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} (s v_s) + \frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial v_\phi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z}
\end{aligned}$$

The Curl:

$$\begin{aligned}
\nabla \times \mathbf{v} &= \left(\frac{\partial v_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial z} \right) \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \left(\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial x} \right) \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \left(\frac{\partial v_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} \right) \hat{\mathbf{z}} \\
&= \frac{1}{r \sin(\theta)} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (v_\phi \sin(\theta)) - \frac{\partial v_\theta}{\partial \phi} \right) \hat{\mathbf{r}} + \frac{1}{r} \left(\frac{1}{\sin(\theta)} \frac{\partial v_r}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r v_\phi) \right) \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} + \frac{1}{r} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r v_\theta) - \frac{\partial v_r}{\partial \theta} \right) \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}} \\
&= \left(\frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\partial v_\phi}{\partial z} \right) \hat{\mathbf{s}} + \left(\frac{\partial v_s}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial s} \right) \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}} + \frac{1}{s} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial s} (s v_\phi) - \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial \phi} \right) \hat{\mathbf{z}}
\end{aligned}$$

Another important differential operator is the **Laplacian** ∇^2 .

The Laplacian:

$$\begin{aligned}
\nabla^2 &= \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \\
&= \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin(\theta)} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin(\theta) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2(\theta)} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} \\
&= \frac{1}{s} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(s \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \right) + \frac{1}{s^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}
\end{aligned}$$

The product rules are:

$$\begin{aligned}
\nabla(fg) &= f\nabla g + g\nabla f \\
\nabla(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) &= \mathbf{A} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{B}) + \mathbf{B} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) + (\mathbf{A} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{B} + (\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{A} \\
\nabla \cdot (f\mathbf{A}) &= f(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}) + \mathbf{A} \cdot (\nabla f) \\
\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) &= \mathbf{B} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) - \mathbf{A} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{B}) \\
\nabla \times (f\mathbf{A}) &= f(\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) - \mathbf{A} \times (\nabla f) \\
\nabla \times (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) &= (\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{A} - (\mathbf{A} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B}) - \mathbf{B}(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A})
\end{aligned}$$

Integral Calculus

Line Integrals

A line integral can be expressed as

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

where \mathbf{v} is some vector function and $d\mathbf{l}$ is an infinitesimal displacement vector that points in the direction of the path. There is a special notation for a line integral over a closed path which is

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

Example: Line Integral Calculation

We want to calculate the line integral with the vector function $\mathbf{v} = y^2\hat{\mathbf{x}} + 2x(y+1)\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ from $\mathbf{a} = (1, 1, 0)$ to the point $\mathbf{b} = (2, 2, 0)$ along two separate paths.

For path (1), the horizontal portion will have a displacement vector of $d\mathbf{l} = dx\hat{\mathbf{x}}$. The y -value is also unchanged at $y = 1$. The vertical portion will have a displacement vector of $d\mathbf{l} = dy\hat{\mathbf{y}}$. The x -value will be unchanged at $x = 2$. We can solve the line integral by adding up the line integrals for each segment.

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \int_1^2 y^2 dx + \int_1^2 2x(y+1) dy = \int_1^2 dx + \int_1^2 4(y+1) dy = 11$$

For path (2), $x = y$, $dx = dy$, so the displacement vector is $d\mathbf{l} = dx\hat{\mathbf{x}} + dx\hat{\mathbf{y}}$. This will give us the integrand $\mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = (3x^2 + 2x)dx$. Integrating this gives us

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \int_1^2 (3x^2 + 2x) dx = 10$$

Since these values are not the same, the integral is not path independent and \mathbf{v} is not conservative.

Surface Integrals

A surface integral is of the form

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

and has the closed form

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

The \mathbf{v} is some vector function, and the integral is over some specified surface \mathcal{S} .

Example: Surface Integral Calculation

We are going to calculate the surface integral of the vector function $\mathbf{v} = 2xz\hat{\mathbf{x}} + (x+2)\hat{\mathbf{y}} + y(z^2-3)\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ over 5 sides of a cube with side length 2.

For side (i) we have $x = 2$, $d\mathbf{a} = dydz\hat{\mathbf{x}}$, $\mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = 2xzd ydz = 4zdydz$.

$$\int \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = 4 \int_0^2 \int_0^2 zdydz = 16$$

For side (ii) we have $x = 0$, and $d\mathbf{a} = -dydz\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ so this integral will be zero.

For side (iii) we have $y = 2$, $d\mathbf{a} = dx dz\hat{\mathbf{y}}$, $\mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = (x+2)dx dz$ so

$$\int \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \int_0^2 \int_0^2 (x+2)dx dz = 12$$

For side (iv) we have $y = 0$, $-dx dz\hat{\mathbf{y}}$, $\mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = -(x+2)dx dz$ so

$$\int \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = - \int_0^2 \int_0^2 (x+2)dx dz = -12$$

For side (v) we have $z = 2$, $d\mathbf{a} = dx dy\hat{\mathbf{z}}$, $\mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = y(z^2-3)dx dy = ydx dy$ so

$$\int \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \int_0^2 \int_0^2 ydx dy = 4$$

Adding these all together gives us

$$\int_S \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = 20$$

Volume Integrals

Volume integrals will be of the form

$$\int_{\mathcal{V}} T d\tau$$

or

$$\int_{\mathcal{V}} \mathbf{v} d\tau$$

with T being some scalar function.

Example: Volume Integral Calculation

We are going to evaluate the integral of scalar function $T = xyz^2$ over the prism.

$$\int T d\tau = \int_0^3 \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-y} xyz^2 dx dy dz = \frac{3}{8}$$

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

In one dimension, this theorem looks like

$$\int_a^b \left(\frac{df}{dx} \right) dx = f(b) - f(a)$$

This can also be applied in multiple dimensions for gradients.

$$\int_a^b (\nabla T) \cdot d\mathbf{l} = T(\mathbf{b}) - T(\mathbf{a})$$

This tells us that gradients have line integrals that are path independent.

Example: The Fundamental Theorem for Gradients Calculation

We will apply the fundamental theorem of calculus for gradients to a scalar field $T = xy^2$ from $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$ to $\mathbf{b} = (2, 1, 0)$ for two separate paths.

For path (1), we can split it up into two parts. For part (i), we have $y = 0$, $d\mathbf{l} = dx\hat{\mathbf{x}}$, $\nabla \cdot d\mathbf{l} = y^2 dx = 0$ so

$$\int_{(i)} \nabla T \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0$$

For part (ii), we have $x = 2$, $d\mathbf{l} = dy\hat{\mathbf{y}}$, $\nabla \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 2xydy = 4ydy$ so

$$\int_{(ii)} \nabla T \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \int_0^1 4ydy = 2$$

Adding these two parts together gives us

$$\int_{(1)} \nabla T \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 2$$

For path 2, we have $y = \frac{1}{2}x$, $dy = \frac{1}{2}dx$, $\nabla T \cdot d\mathbf{l} = y^2 dx + 2xydy = \frac{3}{4}x^2 dx$ so

$$\int_{(2)} \nabla T \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \int_0^2 \frac{3}{4}x^2 dx = 2$$

The Fundamental Theorem for Divergences

$$\int_V (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) d\tau = \oint_S \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a}$$

This can also be called Gauss's Theorem, Green's theorem, or the divergence theorem.

Divergence Theorem Calculation

We will check the divergence theorem using $\mathbf{v} = y^2\hat{\mathbf{x}} + (2xy + z^2)\hat{\mathbf{y}} + (2yz)\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ on a unit cube. We can start off with the divergence integral. The divergence of our vector function is

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = 2(x + y)$$

Evaluating our integral gives us

$$\int_{\mathcal{V}} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} d\tau = \int_{\mathcal{V}} 2(x + y) d\tau = 2 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y) dx dy dz = 2$$

We now need to look at the surface integral. For side (i) we have

$$\int \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 y^2 dy dz = \frac{1}{3}$$

Side (ii):

$$\int \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = - \int_0^1 \int_0^1 y^2 dy dz = -\frac{1}{3}$$

Side (iii):

$$\int \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (2x + z^2) dx dz = \frac{4}{3}$$

Side (iv):

$$\int \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = - \int_0^1 \int_0^1 z^2 dx dz = -\frac{1}{3}$$

Side (v):

$$\int \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 2y dx dy = 1$$

Side (vi):

$$\int \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = - \int_0^1 \int_0^1 0 dx dy = 0$$

So

$$\oint_S \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = 2$$

The Fundamental Theorem for Curls

The fundamental theorem for curls is often called Stokes' Theorem.

$$\int_S (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \oint_{\mathcal{P}} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

Example: Stokes' Theorem Calculation

We are going to check Stokes' Theorem with the vector function $\mathbf{v} = (2xz + 3y^2)\hat{\mathbf{y}} + (4yz^2)\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ on a unit square. We have

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{v} = (4z^2 - 2x)\hat{\mathbf{x}} + 2z\hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

and

$$d\mathbf{a} = dydz\hat{\mathbf{x}}$$

The curl integral will then be

$$\int (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 4z^2 dydz = \frac{4}{3}$$

We can break the line integral into four segments and will find for side (i):

$$x, z = (0, 0), \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 3y^2 dy$$

$$\int \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \int_0^1 3y^2 dy = 1$$

side (ii):

$$x, y = (0, 1), \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 4z^2 dz$$

$$\int \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \int_0^1 4z^2 dz = \frac{4}{3}$$

side (iii):

$$x, z = (0, 1), \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 3y^2 dy$$

$$\int \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \int_1^0 3y^2 dy = -1$$

side (iv):

$$x, y = (0, 0), \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0$$

$$\int \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0$$

The sum of all of these integrals will then be

$$\oint \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \frac{4}{3}$$

Integration by Parts

This is one of the most powerful tools in a physicist's arsenal. It is basically the product rule but backwards. The product rule is

$$\frac{d}{dx}(fg) = f\left(\frac{dg}{dx}\right) + g\left(\frac{df}{dx}\right)$$

We can integrate both sides, and use the fundamental theorem to get

$$\int_a^b \frac{d}{dx}(fg)dx = fg|_a^b = \int_a^b f\left(\frac{dg}{dx}\right)dx + \int_a^b g\left(\frac{df}{dx}\right)dx$$

$$\int_a^b f\left(\frac{dg}{dx}\right)dx = - \int_a^b g\left(\frac{df}{dx}\right)dx + fg|_a^b$$

We can also exploit the product rule in more than one dimension with the vector calculus product rules. One of those rules is

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

We can integrate this over a volume and use divergence theorem to get

$$\int_{\mathcal{V}} f(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A})d\tau = - \int_{\mathcal{V}} \mathbf{A} \cdot (\nabla f)d\tau + \oint_S d\mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{a}$$

Example: Integration by Parts

We are going to evaluate

$$\int_0^{\infty} xe^{-x}dx$$

We can express the exponent as a derivative

$$e^{-x} = \frac{d}{dx}(-e^{-x})$$

which gives us

$$\int_0^{\infty} xe^{-x}dx = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x}dx - xe^{-x}|_0^{\infty} = 1$$

Spherical Coordinates

$$x = \sin(\theta) \cos(\phi)$$

$$y = \sin(\theta) \sin(\phi)$$

$$z = \cos(\theta)$$

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

$$\theta = \arctan\left(\frac{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}{z}\right)$$

$$\phi = \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \sin(\theta) \cos(\phi) \hat{\mathbf{r}} + \cos(\theta) \cos(\phi) \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \sin(\phi) \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \sin(\theta) \sin(\phi) \hat{\mathbf{r}} + \cos(\theta) \sin(\phi) \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} + \cos(\phi) \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{z}} = \cos(\theta) \hat{\mathbf{r}} - \sin(\theta) \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{r}} = \sin(\theta) \cos(\phi) \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \sin(\theta) \sin(\phi) \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \cos(\theta) \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \cos(\theta) \cos(\phi) \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \cos(\theta) \sin(\phi) \hat{\mathbf{y}} - \sin(\theta) \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}} = -\sin(\phi) \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \cos(\phi) \hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

$$d\mathbf{l} = dr \hat{\mathbf{r}} + r d\theta \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} + r \sin(\theta) d\phi \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}$$

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

Example: Spherical Volume

Let's find the volume of a generic sphere with radius R .

$$V = \int d\tau = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \int_0^R r^2 \sin(\theta) dr d\theta d\phi = \frac{4}{3} \pi R^3$$

Cylindrical Coordinates

$$x = s \cos(\phi)$$

$$y = s \sin(\phi)$$

$$z = z$$

$$s = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$\phi = \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$

$$z = z$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \cos(\phi)\hat{\mathbf{s}} - \sin(\phi)\hat{\phi}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \sin(\phi)\hat{\mathbf{s}} + \cos(\phi)\hat{\phi}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{z}} = \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{s}} = \cos(\phi)\hat{\mathbf{x}} + \sin(\phi)\hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

$$\hat{\phi} = -\sin(\phi)\hat{\mathbf{x}} + \cos(\phi)\hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{z}} = \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$

The Dirac Delta Function

The dirac delta function is a distribution with the following properties.

$$\delta(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ \infty, & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) dx = 1$$

If $f(x)$ is some ordinary function, if it is paired with a dirac delta function, the integral becomes easy to evaluate.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)\delta(x-a)dx = f(a)$$

Another property of the dirac delta function is

$$\delta(kx) = \frac{1}{|k|}\delta(x)$$

A similar function, the Heaviside step function $\theta(x)$ can be defined as

$$\theta(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

The dirac delta function is the derivative of the heaviside step function.

$$\frac{d\theta(x)}{dx} = \delta(x)$$

The dirac delta function can be naturally generalized to more than one dimension.

$$\delta^3(\mathbf{r}) = \delta(x)\delta(y)\delta(z)$$

$$\int_{all\ space} \delta^3(\mathbf{r}) d\tau = 1$$

Using this, we can find the result of a particularly tricky divergence problem.

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

or even better

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

Since

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

it follows that

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

The Theory of Vector Potentials

According to Helmholtz theorem, if the divergence $D(\mathbf{r})$ and the curl $\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{r})$ of a vector function $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r})$ are specified, and if they both go to zero faster than $1/r^2$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$, and if $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r})$ goes to zero as $r \rightarrow \infty$, then \mathbf{F} is given uniquely by

$$\mathbf{F} = -\nabla U + \nabla \times \mathbf{W}$$

with

$$U(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int \frac{D(\mathbf{r}')}{\mathcal{R}} d\tau'$$

and

$$\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int \frac{\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{r}')}{\mathcal{R}} d\tau'$$

If the curl of a vector field vanishes everywhere, then it can be written as the gradient of a scalar potential.

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{F} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{F} = -\nabla\Phi$$

If the divergence of a field vanishes everywhere, then it can be written as the curl of a vector potential.

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = 0 \leftrightarrow \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$$

We can, therefore, describe any field by a sum of a gradient of a scalar potential and the curl of a vector potential.

$$\mathbf{F} = -\nabla\Phi + \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$$

Irrotational Fields

An irrotational field will have the following properties:

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

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{l} \text{ is path independent}$$

$$\oint \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0$$

$$\mathbf{F} = -\nabla\Phi$$

Solenoidal Fields

A solenoidal field will have the following properties:

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

$$\int \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{a} \text{ is surface independent}$$

$$\oint \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = 0$$

$$\mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$$