10. Gauss' Divergence Theorem

Let S be a piecewise-smooth closed surface enclosing a volume V in \mathbb{R}^3 and let $\mathbf{\bar{F}}$ be a vector field. Then

the net flux of
$$\vec{\mathbf{F}}$$
 out of V is $\Phi = \bigoplus_{S} \vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{S}} = \bigoplus_{S} F_{N} dS$,

where F_N is the component of $\vec{\mathbf{F}}$ normal to the surface *S*.

But the divergence of $\vec{\mathbf{F}}$ is a flux density, or an "outflow per unit volume" at a point. Integrating div $\vec{\mathbf{F}}$ over the entire enclosed volume must match the net flux out through the boundary *S* of the volume *V*. **Gauss' divergence theorem** then follows:

$$\bigoplus_{S} \vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{S}} = \iiint_{V} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{F}} \, dV$$

Example 10.01 (Example 9.08 repeated)

Find the total flux Φ of the vector field $\vec{\mathbf{F}} = z \hat{\mathbf{k}}$ through the simple closed surface S

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$$

Use Gauss' Divergence Theorem: $\oint_{S} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{S} = \iiint_{V} \operatorname{div} \vec{F} \, dV$

 $\vec{\mathbf{F}}$ is differentiable everywhere in \mathbb{R}^3 , so Gauss' divergence theorem is valid.

Example 10.02

Archimedes' Principle

Gauss' divergence theorem may be used to derive Archimedes' principle for the buoyant force on a body totally immersed in a fluid of constant density ρ (independent of depth). Examine an elementary section of the surface S of the immersed body, at a depth z < 0 below the surface of the fluid:



The pressure at any depth z is the weight of fluid per unit area from the column of fluid above that area.

pressure = p =

The normal vector $\mathbf{\bar{N}}$ to *S* is directed outward, but the hydrostatic force on the surface (due to the pressure *p*) acts inward. The element of hydrostatic force on ΔS is

The element of buoyant force on ΔS is the component of the hydrostatic force in the direction of $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$ (vertically upwards):

Define $\vec{\mathbf{F}} = \rho g z \hat{\mathbf{k}}$ and $d\vec{\mathbf{S}} = \hat{\mathbf{N}} dS$. Summing over all such elements ΔS , the total buoyant force on the immersed object is Example 10.02 Archimedes' Principle (continued)

Therefore the total buoyant force on an object fully immersed in a fluid equals the weight of the fluid displaced by the immersed object (Archimedes' principle).

Gauss' Law

A point charge q at the origin O generates an electric field

$$\vec{\mathbf{E}} = \frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon r^3} \,\vec{\mathbf{r}} = \frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon r^2} \,\hat{\mathbf{r}}$$

If S is a smooth simple closed surface **not** enclosing the charge, then the total flux through S is

If S does enclose the charge, then one cannot use Gauss' divergence theorem, because

Remedy:

Construct a surface S_1 identical to S except for a small hole cut where a narrow tube T connects it to another surface S_2 , a sphere of radius a centre O and entirely inside S. Let $S^* = S_1 \cup T \cup S_2$ (which is a simple closed surface), then



Gauss' Law (continued)

Gauss' Law (continued)

Gauss' law for the net flux through any smooth simple closed surface S, in the presence of a point charge q at the origin, then follows:

Example 10.03 Poisson's Equation

The exact location of the enclosed charge is immaterial, provided it is somewhere inside the volume V enclosed by the surface S. The charge therefore does not need to be a concentrated point charge, but can be spread out within the enclosed volume V. Let the charge density be $\rho(x, y, z)$, then the total charge enclosed by S is

Stokes' Theorem

Let $\vec{\mathbf{F}}$ be a vector field acting parallel to the *xy*-plane. Represent its Cartesian components by $\vec{\mathbf{F}} = f_1 \hat{\mathbf{i}} + f_2 \hat{\mathbf{j}} = \begin{bmatrix} f_1 & f_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$. Then

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\mathbf{F}} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{i}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & f_1 \\ \hat{\mathbf{j}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & f_2 \\ \hat{\mathbf{k}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} & 0 \end{vmatrix} \implies (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\mathbf{F}}) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{k}} = \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y}$$

Green's theorem can then be expressed in the form

$$\oint_C \vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{r}} = \iint_D \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{k}} \, dA$$

Now let us twist the simple closed curve *C* and its enclosed surface out of the *xy*-plane, so that the unit normal vector $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$ is replaced by a more general normal vector $\bar{\mathbf{N}}$.

If the surface S (that is bounded in \mathbb{R}^3 by the simple closed curve C) can be represented by z = f(x, y), then a normal vector at any point on S is

C is oriented coherently with respect to *S* if, as one travels along *C* with \overline{N} pointing from one's feet to one's head, *S* is always on one's left side. The resulting generalization of Green's theorem is **Stokes' theorem**:

$$\oint_C \vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{r}} = \iint_S \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot \mathbf{N} \, dS = \iint_S (\operatorname{curl} \vec{\mathbf{F}}) \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{S}}$$

This can be extended further, to a non-flat surface S with a non-constant normal vector \vec{N} .

Example 10.04

Find the circulation of $\vec{\mathbf{F}} = \begin{bmatrix} xyz & xz & e^{xy} \end{bmatrix}^{\mathsf{T}}$ around *C*: the unit square in the *xz*-plane.



Example 10.04 (continued)

Domain

A region Ω of \mathbb{R}^3 is a **domain** if and only if

- 1) For all points P_0 in Ω , there exists a sphere, centre P_0 , all of whose interior points are inside Ω ; and
- 2) For all points P_0 and P_1 in Ω , there exists a piecewise smooth curve *C*, entirely in Ω , from P_0 to P_1 .

A domain is simply connected if it "has no holes".

Are these regions simply-connected domains? Example 10.05

The interior of a sphere.

The interior of a torus.

The first octant.

On a simply-connected domain the following statements are either all true or all false:

- $\mathbf{\bar{F}}$ is conservative.
- $\vec{\mathbf{F}} \equiv \vec{\nabla} \phi$
- $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F} \equiv \vec{0}$
- $\int_{C} \vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{r}} = \phi(P_{\text{end}}) \phi(P_{\text{start}}) \text{ independent of the path between the two points.}$
- $\oint \vec{\mathbf{F}} \cdot \mathbf{d}\vec{\mathbf{r}} = 0 \quad \forall C \subset \Omega$

Example 10.06

Find a potential function $\phi(x, y, z)$ for the vector field $\vec{\mathbf{F}} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x & 2y & 2z \end{bmatrix}^{\mathrm{T}}$.

First, check that a potential function exists at all:

$$\operatorname{curl} \vec{\mathbf{F}} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\mathbf{F}} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{i}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & 2x \\ \hat{\mathbf{j}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & 2y \\ \hat{\mathbf{k}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} & 2z \end{vmatrix} =$$

Example 10.06 (continued)

Example 10.07

Find a potential function for $\vec{\mathbf{F}} = e^{y}\hat{\mathbf{i}} + (xe^{y} + z^{2})\hat{\mathbf{j}} + 2yz\hat{\mathbf{k}}$ that has the value 1 at the origin.

Maxwell's Equations (not examinable in this course)

We have seen how Gauss' and Stokes' theorems have led to Poisson's equation, relating the electric intensity vector $\vec{\mathbf{E}}$ to the electric charge density ρ :

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{E}} = \frac{\rho}{\varepsilon}$$

Where the permittivity is constant, the corresponding equation for the electric flux density $\bar{\mathbf{D}}$ is one of Maxwell's equations: $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{D}} = \rho$

Another of Maxwell's equations follows from the absence of isolated magnetic charges (no magnetic monopoles): $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{H} = 0 \implies \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$, where \vec{H} is the magnetic intensity and $\mathbf{\bar{B}}$ is the magnetic flux density.

Faraday's law, connecting electric intensity with the rate of change of magnetic flux density, is $\oint_{C} \vec{\mathbf{E}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{r}} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \iint_{S} \vec{\mathbf{B}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{S}}$. Applying Stokes' theorem to the left side produces $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\mathbf{E}} = -\frac{\partial \vec{\mathbf{B}}}{\partial t}$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\mathbf{E}} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

Ampère's circuital law, $I = \oint_{\Sigma} \vec{\mathbf{H}} \cdot d\vec{\mathbf{l}}$, leads to $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\mathbf{H}} = \vec{\mathbf{J}} + \vec{\mathbf{J}}_d$, where the current density is $\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{E} = \rho_V \vec{v}$, σ is the conductivity, ρ_V is the volume charge density; and the displacement charge density is $\vec{\mathbf{J}}_d = \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t}$

The fourth Maxwell equation is

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\mathbf{H}} = \vec{\mathbf{J}} + \frac{\partial \vec{\mathbf{D}}}{\partial t}$$

The four Maxwell's equations together allow the derivation of the equations of propagating electromagnetic waves.

[End of Chapter 10]