## 5. The Gradient Operator

A brief review is provided here for the gradient operator $\vec{\nabla}$ in both Cartesian and orthogonal non-Cartesian coordinate systems.

## Sections in this Chapter:

5.01 Gradient, Divergence, Curl and Laplacian (Cartesian)
5.02 Differentiation in Orthogonal Curvilinear Coordinate Systems
5.03 Summary Table for the Gradient Operator
5.04 Derivatives of Basis Vectors

### 5.01 Gradient, Divergence, Curl and Laplacian (Cartesian)

Let $z$ be a function of two independent variables $(x, y)$, so that $z=f(x, y)$.
The function $z=f(x, y)$ defines a surface in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$.
At any point $(x, y)$ in the $x-y$ plane, the direction in which one must travel in order to experience the greatest possible rate of increase in $z$ at that point is the direction of the gradient vector,

$$
\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\nabla} f=\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \hat{\mathbf{i}}+\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \hat{\mathbf{j}}
$$

The magnitude of the gradient vector is that greatest possible rate of increase in $z$ at that point. The gradient vector is not constant everywhere, unless the surface is a plane. (The symbol $\vec{\nabla}$ is usually pronounced "del").

The concept of the gradient vector can be extended to functions of any number of variables. If $u=f(x, y, z, t)$, then $\vec{\nabla} f=\left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}\right]^{\mathrm{T}}$.

If $\mathbf{v}$ is a function of position $\mathbf{r}$ and time $t$, while position is in turn a function of time, then by the chain rule of differentiation,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{d \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{v}}}{d t}=\frac{\partial \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{v}}}{\partial x} \frac{d x}{d t}+ & \frac{\partial \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{v}}}{\partial y} \frac{d y}{d t}+\frac{\partial \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{v}}}{\partial z} \frac{d z}{d t}+\frac{\partial \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{v}}}{\partial t}=\left(\frac{d \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{r}}}{d t} \cdot \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\nabla}\right) \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{v}}+\frac{\partial \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{v}}}{\partial t} \\
& \Rightarrow \frac{d \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{v}}}{d t}=(\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{v}} \cdot \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\nabla}) \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{v}}+\frac{\partial \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{v}}}{\partial t}
\end{aligned}
$$


which is of use in the study of fluid dynamics.

The gradient operator can also be applied to vectors via the scalar (dot) and vector (cross) products:

The divergence of a vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ is

$$
\operatorname{div} \overrightarrow{\mathbf{F}}=\vec{\nabla} \cdot \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{F}}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
\frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z}
\end{array}\right]^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot\left[\begin{array}{lll}
F_{1} & F_{2} & F_{3}
\end{array}\right]^{\mathrm{T}}=\frac{\partial F_{1}}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial F_{2}}{\partial y}+\frac{\partial F_{3}}{\partial z}
$$

A region free of sources and sinks will have zero divergence: the total flux into any region is balanced by the total flux out from that region.

The curl of a vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ is

$$
\operatorname{curl} \overrightarrow{\mathbf{F}}=\vec{\nabla} \times \overrightarrow{\mathbf{F}}=\left|\begin{array}{ccc}
\hat{\mathbf{i}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & F_{1} \\
\hat{\mathbf{j}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & F_{2} \\
\hat{\mathbf{k}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} & F_{3}
\end{array}\right|=\left[\begin{array}{l}
\frac{\partial F_{3}}{\partial y}-\frac{\partial F_{2}}{\partial z} \\
\frac{\partial F_{1}}{\partial z}-\frac{\partial F_{3}}{\partial x} \\
\frac{\partial F_{2}}{\partial x}-\frac{\partial F_{1}}{\partial y}
\end{array}\right]
$$

In an irrotational field, curl $\overrightarrow{\mathbf{F}}=\overrightarrow{\mathbf{0}}$.
Whenever $\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{F}}=\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\nabla} \phi$ for some twice differentiable potential function $\phi$, curl $\overrightarrow{\mathbf{F}}=\overrightarrow{\mathbf{0}}$ or

$$
\operatorname{curl}(\operatorname{grad} \phi) \equiv \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla} \phi \equiv \overrightarrow{\mathbf{0}}
$$

Proof:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \overrightarrow{\mathbf{F}}=\vec{\nabla} \phi=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
F_{1} & F_{2} & F_{3}
\end{array}\right]^{\mathrm{T}}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}
\end{array}\right]^{\mathrm{T}} \\
& \Rightarrow \operatorname{curl} \vec{\nabla} \phi=\left|\begin{array}{lll}
\hat{\mathbf{i}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \\
\hat{\mathbf{j}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \\
\hat{\mathbf{k}} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} & \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}
\end{array}\right|=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\partial^{2} \phi}{\partial y \partial z}-\frac{\partial^{2} \phi}{\partial z \partial y} \\
\frac{\partial^{2} \phi}{\partial z \partial x}-\frac{\partial^{2} \phi}{\partial x \partial z} \\
\frac{\partial^{2} \phi}{\partial x \partial y}-\frac{\partial^{2} \phi}{\partial y \partial x}
\end{array}\right] \equiv\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Among many identities involving the gradient operator is

$$
\operatorname{div}(\operatorname{curl} \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{F}}) \equiv \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\nabla} \cdot \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\nabla} \times \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{F}} \equiv 0
$$

for all twice-differentiable vector functions $\overrightarrow{\mathbf{F}}$
Proof:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{div} \operatorname{curl} \overrightarrow{\mathbf{F}} & =\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(\frac{\partial F_{3}}{\partial y}-\frac{\partial F_{2}}{\partial z}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\frac{\partial F_{1}}{\partial z}-\frac{\partial F_{3}}{\partial x}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(\frac{\partial F_{2}}{\partial x}-\frac{\partial F_{1}}{\partial y}\right) \\
& =\frac{\partial^{2} F^{2} / 3}{\partial x \partial y}-\frac{\partial^{2} F_{2}}{\partial x \partial z}+\frac{\partial^{2} F_{1}}{\partial y \partial z}-\frac{\partial^{2} F^{2} / 3}{\partial y \partial x}+\frac{\partial^{2} F_{2}}{\partial z \partial x}-\frac{\partial^{2} F_{1} /}{\partial z \partial x} \equiv 0
\end{aligned}
$$

The divergence of the gradient of a scalar function is the Laplacian:

$$
\operatorname{div}(\operatorname{grad} f) \equiv \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\nabla} \cdot \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\nabla} f \equiv \nabla^{2} f \equiv \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x^{2}}+\frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial y^{2}}+\frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial z^{2}}
$$

for all twice-differentiable scalar functions $f$.

In orthogonal non-Cartesian coordinate systems, the expressions for the gradient operator are not as simple.

### 5.02 Differentiation in Orthogonal Curvilinear Coordinate Systems

For any orthogonal curvilinear coordinate system $\left(u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}\right)$ in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$, the unit tangent vectors along the curvilinear axes are $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i}=\hat{\mathbf{T}}_{i}=\frac{1}{h_{i}} \frac{\partial \overrightarrow{\mathbf{r}}}{\partial u_{i}}$, where the scale factors $h_{i}=\left|\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u_{i}}\right|$.

The displacement vector $\overrightarrow{\mathbf{r}}$ can then be written as $\overrightarrow{\mathbf{r}}=u_{1} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{1}+u_{2} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{2}+u_{3} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{3}$, where the unit vectors $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i}$ form an orthonormal basis for $\mathbb{R}^{3}$.

$$
\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{j}=\delta_{i j}= \begin{cases}0 & (i \neq j) \\ 1 & (i=j)\end{cases}
$$

The differential displacement vector $\mathbf{d r}$ is (by the Chain Rule)

$$
\mathbf{d} \overrightarrow{\mathbf{r}}=\frac{\partial \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{r}}}{\partial u_{1}} d u_{1}+\frac{\partial \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{r}}}{\partial u_{2}} d u_{2}+\frac{\partial \stackrel{\mathbf{r}}{2}}{\partial u_{3}} d u_{3}=h_{1} d u_{1} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{1}+h_{2} d u_{2} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{2}+h_{3} d u_{3} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{3}
$$

and the differential arc length $d s$ is given by

$$
d s^{2}=\mathbf{d} \overrightarrow{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \mathbf{d} \overrightarrow{\mathbf{r}}=\left(h_{1} d u_{1}\right)^{2}+\left(h_{2} d u_{2}\right)^{2}+\left(h_{3} d u_{3}\right)^{2}
$$

The element of volume $d V$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
d V=h_{1} h_{2} h_{3} d u_{1} d u_{2} d u_{3} & =\underbrace{\left.\frac{\partial(x, y, z)}{\partial\left(u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}\right)} \right\rvert\,}_{\text {Jacobian }} d u_{1} d u_{2} d u_{3} \\
& =\left|\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{\partial x}{\partial u_{1}} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial u_{1}} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial u_{1}} \\
\frac{\partial x}{\partial u_{2}} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial u_{2}} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial u_{2}} \\
\frac{\partial x}{\partial u_{3}} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial u_{3}} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial u_{3}}
\end{array}\right| d u_{1} d u_{2} d u_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

Example 5.02.1: Find the scale factor $h_{\theta}$ for the spherical polar coordinate system $(x, y, z)=(r \sin \theta \cos \phi, r \sin \theta \sin \phi, r \cos \theta):$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\partial \overrightarrow{\mathbf{r}}}{\partial \theta}=\left[\frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} \frac{\partial z}{\partial \theta}\right]^{\mathrm{T}}=[r \cos \theta \cos \phi \quad r \cos \theta \sin \phi-r \sin \theta]^{\mathrm{T}} \\
& \Rightarrow h_{\theta}=\left|\frac{\partial \overrightarrow{\mathbf{r}}}{\partial \theta}\right|=\sqrt{r^{2} \cos ^{2} \theta \cos ^{2} \phi+r^{2} \cos ^{2} \theta \sin ^{2} \phi+r^{2} \sin ^{2} \theta} \\
& =\sqrt{r^{2} \cos ^{2} \theta\left(\cos ^{2} \phi+\sin ^{2} \phi\right)}+r^{2} \sin ^{2} \theta
\end{aligned}=\sqrt{r^{2}\left(\cos ^{2} \theta+\sin ^{2} \theta\right)}=r . ~ \$
$$

### 5.03 Summary Table for the Gradient Operator

Gradient operator

$$
\vec{\nabla}=\frac{\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{1}}{h_{1}} \frac{\partial}{\partial u_{1}}+\frac{\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{2}}{h_{2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial u_{2}}+\frac{\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{3}}{h_{3}} \frac{\partial}{\partial u_{3}}
$$

Gradient

$$
\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\nabla} V=\frac{\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{1}}{h_{1}} \frac{\partial V}{\partial u_{1}}+\frac{\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{2}}{h_{2}} \frac{\partial V}{\partial u_{2}}+\frac{\hat{\mathbf{e}}_{3}}{h_{3}} \frac{\partial V}{\partial u_{3}}
$$

Divergence

$$
\vec{\nabla} \bullet \overrightarrow{\mathbf{F}}=\frac{1}{h_{1} h_{2} h_{3}}\left(\frac{\partial\left(h_{2} h_{3} F_{1}\right)}{\partial u_{1}}+\frac{\partial\left(h_{3} h_{1} F_{2}\right)}{\partial u_{2}}+\frac{\partial\left(h_{1} h_{2} F_{3}\right)}{\partial u_{3}}\right)
$$

Curl

$$
\vec{\nabla} \times \overrightarrow{\mathbf{F}}=\frac{1}{h_{1} h_{2} h_{3}}\left|\begin{array}{ccc}
h_{1} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{1} & \frac{\partial}{\partial u_{1}} & h_{1} F_{1} \\
h_{2} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{2} & \frac{\partial}{\partial u_{2}} & h_{2} F_{2} \\
h_{3} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{3} & \frac{\partial}{\partial u_{3}} & h_{3} F_{3}
\end{array}\right|
$$

Laplacian $\quad \nabla^{2} V=\frac{1}{h_{1} h_{2} h_{3}}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial u_{1}}\left(\frac{h_{2} h_{3}}{h_{1}} \frac{\partial V}{\partial u_{1}}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial u_{2}}\left(\frac{h_{3} h_{1}}{h_{2}} \frac{\partial V}{\partial u_{2}}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial u_{3}}\left(\frac{h_{1} h_{2}}{h_{3}} \frac{\partial V}{\partial u_{3}}\right)\right)$

Scale factors:
Cartesian: $\quad h_{x}=h_{y}=h_{z}=1$.
Cylindrical polar: $\quad h_{\rho}=h_{z}=1, h_{\phi}=\rho$.
Spherical polar: $\quad h_{r}=1, \quad h_{\theta}=r, \quad h_{\phi}=r \sin \theta$.

Example 5.03.1: $\quad$ The Laplacian of $V$ in spherical polars is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \nabla^{2} V=\frac{1}{r^{2} \sin \theta}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r^{2} \sin \theta \frac{\partial V}{\partial r}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}\left(\sin \theta \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}\left(\frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \phi}\right)\right) \\
& \text { or } \nabla^{2} V=\frac{\partial^{2} V}{\partial r^{2}}+\frac{2}{r} \frac{\partial V}{\partial r}+\frac{1}{r^{2}}\left(\frac{\partial^{2} V}{\partial \theta^{2}}+\cot \theta \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta}\right)+\frac{1}{r^{2} \sin ^{2} \theta} \frac{\partial^{2} V}{\partial \phi^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example 5.03.2

A potential function $V(\overrightarrow{\mathbf{r}})$ is spherically symmetric, (that is, its value depends only on the distance $r$ from the origin), due solely to a point source at the origin. There are no other sources or sinks anywhere in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$. Deduce the functional form of $V(\overrightarrow{\mathbf{r}})$.
$V(\overrightarrow{\mathbf{r}})$ is spherically symmetric $\Rightarrow V(r, \theta, \phi)=f(r)$
In any regions not containing any sources of the vector field, the divergence of the vector field $\overrightarrow{\mathbf{F}}=\vec{\nabla} V$ (and therefore the Laplacian of the associated potential function $V$ ) must be zero. Therefore, for all $r \neq 0, \operatorname{div} \overrightarrow{\mathbf{F}}=\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} V=\nabla^{2} V=0$
But

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \nabla^{2} V=\frac{1}{r^{2} \sin \theta}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r^{2} \sin \theta \frac{\partial V}{\partial r}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}\left(\sin \theta \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}\left(\frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \phi}\right)\right) \\
& \Rightarrow \nabla^{2} V=\frac{1}{r^{2} \sin \theta}\left(\frac{d}{d r}\left(r^{2} \sin \theta \frac{d V}{d r}\right)+0+0\right)=0 \\
& \Rightarrow \frac{d}{d r}\left(r^{2} \frac{d V}{d r}\right)=0 \Rightarrow r^{2} \frac{d V}{d r}=B \quad \Rightarrow \frac{d V}{d r}=B r^{-2} \\
& \Rightarrow V=\frac{B r^{-1}}{-1}+A, \text { where } A, B \text { are arbitrary constants of integration. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore the potential function must be of the form

$$
V(r, \theta, \phi)=A-\frac{B}{r}
$$

This is the standard form of the potential function associated with a force that obeys the inverse square law $F \propto \frac{1}{r^{2}}$.

### 5.04 Derivatives of Basis Vectors

Cartesian: $\quad \frac{d}{d t} \hat{\mathbf{i}}=\frac{d}{d t} \hat{\mathbf{j}}=\frac{d}{d t} \hat{\mathbf{k}}=\overrightarrow{\mathbf{0}}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\overrightarrow{\mathbf{r}} & =x \hat{\mathbf{i}}+y \hat{\mathbf{j}}+z \hat{\mathbf{k}} \\
\Rightarrow \quad \overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}} & =\dot{x} \hat{\mathbf{i}}+\dot{y} \hat{\mathbf{j}}+\dot{z} \hat{\mathbf{k}}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Cylindrical Polar Coordinates:

$x=\rho \cos \phi, \quad y=\rho \sin \phi, \quad z=z$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d}{d t} \hat{\boldsymbol{\rho}}=\frac{d \phi}{d t} \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}} \\
& \frac{d}{d t} \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}=-\frac{d \phi}{d t} \hat{\boldsymbol{\rho}} \\
& \frac{d}{d t} \hat{\mathbf{k}}=\overrightarrow{\mathbf{0}}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{r}=\rho \hat{\rho}+z \hat{\mathbf{k}} \\
& \Rightarrow \quad \overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}}=\dot{\rho} \hat{\rho}+\rho \dot{\phi} \hat{\phi}+\dot{z} \hat{\mathbf{k}}
\end{aligned}
$$

[radial and transverse components of $\overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}}$ ]

## Spherical Polar Coordinates.

The "declination" angle $\theta$ is the angle between the positive $z$ axis and the radius vector $\overrightarrow{\mathbf{r}} . \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$.

The "azimuth" angle $\phi$ is the angle on the $x-y$ plane, measured anticlockwise from the positive $x$ axis, of the shadow of the radius vector. $0 \leq \phi<2 \pi$.

$$
z=r \cos \theta
$$

The shadow of the radius vector on the $x-y$ plane has length $r \sin \theta$.

It then follows that


$$
\begin{aligned}
& x=r \sin \theta \cos \phi \quad \text { and } \quad y=r \sin \theta \sin \phi \\
& \begin{array}{l}
\frac{d}{d t} \hat{\mathbf{r}}=\frac{d \theta}{d t} \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}+\frac{d \phi}{d t} \sin \theta \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}} \\
\frac{d}{d t} \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}=-\frac{d \theta}{d t} \hat{\mathbf{r}}+\frac{d \phi}{d t} \cos \theta \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}} \\
\frac{d}{d t} \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}=-\frac{d \phi}{d t}(\sin \theta \hat{\mathbf{r}}+\cos \theta \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})
\end{array} \quad \Rightarrow \mathrm{l}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example 5.04.1

Find the velocity and acceleration in cylindrical polar coordinates for a particle travelling along the helix $x=3 \cos 2 t, y=3 \sin 2 t, z=t$.

Cylindrical polar coordinates: $x=\rho \cos \phi, \quad y=\rho \sin \phi, \quad z=z$

$$
\Rightarrow \quad \rho^{2}=x^{2}+y^{2}, \quad \tan \phi=\frac{y}{x}
$$

$$
\rho^{2}=9 \cos ^{2} 2 t+9 \sin ^{2} 2 t=9 \quad \Rightarrow \rho=3 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \dot{\rho}=0
$$

$$
\tan \phi=\frac{3 \sin 2 t}{3 \cos 2 t}=\tan 2 t \quad \Rightarrow \quad \phi=2 t \quad \Rightarrow \quad \dot{\phi}=2
$$

$$
z=t \quad \Rightarrow \quad \dot{z}=1
$$

$\Rightarrow \quad \overrightarrow{\mathbf{r}}=3 \hat{\boldsymbol{\rho}}+z \hat{\mathbf{k}}$
$\Rightarrow \quad \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{v}}=\frac{d \overrightarrow{\mathbf{r}}}{d t}=\dot{\rho} \hat{\boldsymbol{\rho}}+\rho \dot{\phi} \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}+\dot{z} \hat{\mathbf{k}}=0 \hat{\boldsymbol{\rho}}+3 \times 2 \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}+1 \hat{\mathbf{k}}=\underline{\underline{6 \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}+\hat{\mathbf{k}}}}$
[The velocity has no radial component - the helix remains the same distance from the $z$ axis at all times.]
$\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{a}}=\frac{d \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{v}}}{d t}=6 \dot{\hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}}+\dot{\hat{\mathbf{k}}}=-6 \dot{\phi} \hat{\boldsymbol{\rho}}+\overrightarrow{\mathbf{0}}=\underline{\underline{-12} \hat{\boldsymbol{\rho}}}$
[The acceleration vector points directly at the $z$ axis at all times.]


Other examples are in the problem sets.

## 6. Calculus of Variations

The method of calculus of variations involves finding the path between two points that provides the minimum (or maximum) value of integrals of the form

$$
\int_{a}^{b} F\left(x, y, y^{\prime}\right) d x
$$

## Sections in this Chapter:

6.01 Introduction
6.02 Theory
6.03 Examples

Sections for reference; not examinable:
6.04 Integrals with more than One Dependent Variable
6.05 Integrals with Higher Derivatives
6.06 Integrals with Several Independent Variables
6.07 Integrals subject to a Constraint

### 6.01 Introduction

## Example 6.01.1

To find the shortest path, (the geodesic), between two points, we need to find an expression for the arc length along a path between the two points.

Consider a pair of nearby points.
The element of arc length $\Delta s$ is approximately the hypotenuse of the triangle.

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\Delta s)^{2} & \approx(\Delta x)^{2}+(\Delta y)^{2} \\
\Rightarrow \frac{(\Delta s)^{2}}{(\Delta x)^{2}} & \approx \frac{(\Delta x)^{2}}{(\Delta x)^{2}}+\frac{(\Delta y)^{2}}{(\Delta x)^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$



In the limit as the two points approach each other and $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$, we obtain
$\left(\frac{d s}{d x}\right)^{2}=1+\left(\frac{d y}{d x}\right)^{2}$
$\Rightarrow\left(\frac{d s}{d x}\right)=\sqrt{1+\left(\frac{d y}{d x}\right)^{2}}$
The arc length $s$ between any two points $x=a$ and $x=b$ along any path $C$ in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ is the line integral
$s=\int_{C} d s=\int_{C} \sqrt{1+\left(\frac{d y}{d x}\right)^{2}} d x=\int_{C} \sqrt{1+\left(f^{\prime}(x)\right)^{2}} d x \quad$ where $C$ is the path $y=f(x)$

The geodesic will be the path $C$ for which the line integral for $s$ attains its minimum value. Of course, in a flat space such as $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, that geodesic is just the straight line between the two points.


### 6.02 Theory

We wish to find the curve $y(x)$ which passes through the points $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ and $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ and which minimizes the integral

$$
I=\int_{x_{0}}^{x_{1}} F\left(x, y(x), y^{\prime}(x)\right) d x
$$

Consider the one parameter family of curves $y(x)=u(x)+\alpha \eta(x)$, where $\alpha$ is a real parameter, $\eta(x)$ is an arbitrary function except for the requirement $\eta\left(x_{0}\right)=\eta\left(x_{1}\right)=0$ and $u(x)$ represents the (as yet unknown) solution.

Every member of this family of curves passes through the points $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ and $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$.
For any member of the family,

$$
I(\alpha)=\int_{x_{0}}^{x_{1}} F\left(x, u(x)+\alpha \eta(x), u^{\prime}(x)+\alpha \eta^{\prime}(x)\right) d x
$$

we know that $y(x)=u(x)$ minimizes $I$.
Therefore the minimum for $I$ occurs when $\alpha=0$, so that $\left.\frac{d I}{d \alpha}\right|_{\alpha=0}=0$.
Carrying out a Leibnitz differentiation of the integral $I(\alpha)$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d I}{d \alpha}=0-0+\int_{x_{0}}^{x_{1}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} F\left(x, u(x)+\alpha \eta(x), u^{\prime}(x)+\alpha \eta^{\prime}(x)\right) d x \\
& =\int_{x_{0}}^{x_{1}}\left[0+\frac{\partial F}{\partial y} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha}(u(x)+\alpha \eta(x))+\frac{\partial F}{\partial y^{\prime}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha}\left(u^{\prime}(x)+\alpha \eta^{\prime}(x)\right)\right] d x
\end{aligned}
$$



At the minimum $\alpha=0$, so that $y(x)=u(x)$ and $y^{\prime}(x)=u^{\prime}(x)$. Therefore
$0=\int_{x_{0}}^{x_{1}}\left[\eta(x) \frac{\partial F}{\partial u}+\eta^{\prime}(x) \frac{\partial F}{\partial u^{\prime}}\right] d x$
Also note, by the product rule of differentiation, that
$\frac{d}{d x}\left(\eta(x) \frac{\partial F}{\partial u^{\prime}}\right)=\eta^{\prime}(x) \frac{\partial F}{\partial u^{\prime}}+\eta(x) \frac{d}{d x}\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial u}\right)$
Therefore the integral can be written as
$0=\int_{x_{0}}^{x_{1}}\left[\eta(x) \frac{\partial F}{\partial u}+\frac{d}{d x}\left(\eta(x) \frac{\partial F}{\partial u^{\prime}}\right)-\eta(x) \frac{d}{d x}\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial u^{\prime}}\right)\right] d x$
$0=\int_{x_{0}}^{x_{1}} \eta(x)\left[\frac{\partial F}{\partial u}-\frac{d}{d x}\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial u^{\prime}}\right)\right] d x+\int_{x_{0}}^{x_{1}} \frac{d}{d x}\left(\eta(x) \frac{\partial F}{\partial u^{\prime}}\right) d x$
$0=\int_{x_{0}}^{x_{1}} \eta(x)\left[\frac{\partial F}{\partial u}-\frac{d}{d x}\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial u^{\prime}}\right)\right] d x+\left[\eta(x) \frac{\partial F}{\partial u^{\prime}}\right]_{x_{0}}^{x_{1}}$

But $\eta\left(x_{0}\right)=\eta\left(x_{1}\right)=0$
Therefore the minimizing curve $u(x)$ satisfies

$$
\int_{x_{0}}^{x_{1}} \eta(x)\left[\frac{\partial F}{\partial u}-\frac{d}{d x}\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial u^{\prime}}\right)\right] d x=0
$$

But $\eta(x)$ is an arbitrary function of $x$, which leads to

$$
\frac{\partial F}{\partial u}-\frac{d}{d x}\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial u^{\prime}}\right)=0
$$

Thus, if $y=f(x)$ is a path that minimizes the integral $\int_{a}^{b} F\left(x, y, y^{\prime}\right) d x$, then $y=f(x)$ and $F\left(x, y, y^{\prime}\right)$ must satisfy the Euler equation for extremals

$$
\frac{d}{d x}\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial y^{\prime}}\right)-\frac{\partial F}{\partial y}=0
$$

Euler's equation requires the assumption that $F\left(x, y, y^{\prime}\right)$ has continuous second derivatives in all three of its variables and that all members of the family $y(x)=u(x)+\alpha \eta(x)$ have continuous second derivatives.

Expansion of Euler's Equation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d}{d x}\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial y^{\prime}}\left(x, y(x), y^{\prime}(x)\right)\right)-\frac{\partial F}{\partial y}\left(x, y(x), y^{\prime}(x)\right)=0 \\
& \Rightarrow \frac{\partial^{2} F}{\partial x \partial y^{\prime}}+y^{\prime}(x) \frac{\partial^{2} F}{\partial y \partial y^{\prime}}+y^{\prime \prime}(x) \frac{\partial^{2} F}{\partial y^{\prime 2}}-\frac{\partial F}{\partial y}=0
\end{aligned}
$$


or

$$
y^{\prime \prime} F_{y^{\prime} y^{\prime}}+y^{\prime} F_{y y^{\prime}}+\left(F_{x y^{\prime}}-F_{y}\right)=0
$$

Note: Leibnitz differentiation of $I(z)=\int_{f(z)}^{g(z)} F(x, z) d x$ with respect to $z$ is:

$$
\frac{d I}{d z}=g^{\prime}(z) F(g(z), z)-f^{\prime}(z) F(f(z), z)+\int_{f(z)}^{g(z)} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} F(x, z) d x
$$

A special case of this is $\frac{d}{d x} \int_{a}^{x} f(t) d t=f(x)$.

