

We note that if $\vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} = -dV$ then

$$\int_{P_1}^{P_2} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} = - \int_{P_1}^{P_2} dV = V(P_1) - V(P_2) \leftarrow \text{independent of the path} \quad (14)$$

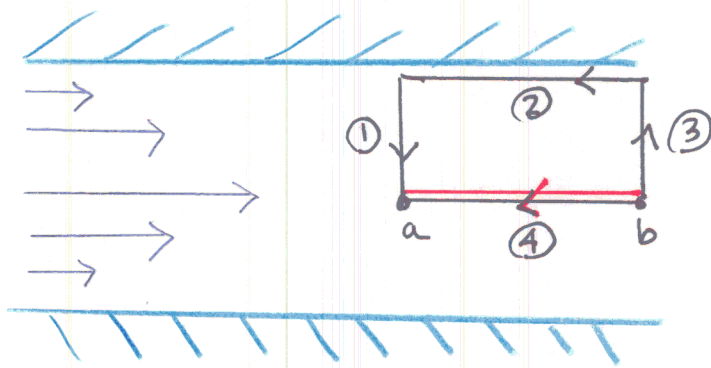
We have shown on p.18.1 that $dV = \vec{\nabla}V \cdot d\vec{l}$, and hence having shown that $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F} = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} = dV$ we have also

shown that $\vec{F} \cdot d\vec{l} = -dV = -\vec{\nabla}V \cdot d\vec{l} \Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{F} = -\vec{\nabla}V} \quad (15)$

Hence altogether: $\boxed{\vec{F} = -\vec{\nabla}V \Leftrightarrow \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F} = 0} \quad (16)$

Physical Picture: Using the river example from p.18 we can

see physically why a velocity field for which $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{v} \neq 0$ is not conservative:



clearly the work done in going from b to a along ④ is greater than along the path ③②①

The Laplacian: $\nabla^2 \equiv \Delta$ [also \square , \diamond , ...]

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This is an important operator which arises in many interesting physics equations. The Laplacian of a scalar field is defined by

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla^2 u(\vec{r}) &= \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} u(\vec{r})) = \left(\hat{x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{y} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{z} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \cdot \left(\hat{x} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \hat{y} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \hat{z} \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2}\end{aligned}\quad (1)$$

Notes: a) We will later define the Laplacian of a vector field, $\nabla^2 \vec{V}$.

b) In the upcoming discussion of tensor analysis we will show how to express ∇^2 in an arbitrary coordinate system.

Physical Interpretation of the Laplacian:

Let $u(\vec{r})$ have the value u_0 at the origin of a Cartesian coordinate system. Construct a cube of side a around the origin. The average value \bar{u} of u inside this cube is then given by

$$\bar{u} = \int_{-a/2}^{a/2} dx \int_{-a/2}^{a/2} dy \int_{-a/2}^{a/2} dz u(x, y, z) \quad (2)$$

Assuming that a is small, so that $u(x, y, z)$ varies slowly over the cube, expand $u(x, y, z)$ in a Taylor series about the origin:

$$\begin{aligned}u(x, y, z) &= u_0 + x \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)_0 + y \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)_0 + z \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \right)_0 \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} x^2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right)_0 + \frac{1}{2} y^2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \right)_0 + \frac{1}{2} z^2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} \right)_0 + xy \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} \right)_0 + xz \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial z} \right)_0 + yz \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y \partial z} \right)_0 + \dots\end{aligned}\quad (3)$$

Inserting the expansion (3) into (2) we see that the terms linear in x or y or z vanish. Since

$$\int_{-a/2}^{a/2} dx \cdot x \dots = \frac{1}{2} x^2 \Big|_{-a/2}^{a/2} = 0 \quad \text{etc.} \tag{4}$$

The same holds for the terms proportional to xy , xz , and yz . Thus the only surviving contributions are of the form:

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right)_0 \int_{-a/2}^{a/2} dx \left(\frac{1}{2} x^2 \right) \int_{-a/2}^{a/2} dy \int_{-a/2}^{a/2} dz = \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right)_0 \left[\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} x^3 \right]_{-a/2}^{a/2} \left[y \right]_{-a/2}^{a/2} \left[z \right]_{-a/2}^{a/2} = \frac{a^5}{24} \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right)_0 \tag{5}$$

Combining Eqs. (2) & (5) we have

$$\bar{u} = u_0 + \frac{1}{a^3} \cdot \frac{a^5}{24} \left[\left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right)_0 + \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \right)_0 + \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} \right)_0 \right] = u_0 + \frac{a^2}{24} (\nabla^2 u)_0 \tag{6}$$

Hence finally:

$$\nabla^2 u(x=y=z=0) = \frac{24}{a^2} [\bar{u} - u_0] \tag{7}$$

Thus the Laplacian measures the difference between the value of a function at a given point, u_0 , and the average of the function in an infinitesimal neighborhood around the point. This gives a physical interpretation of the heat/diffusion equations:

$$\nabla^2 u(\vec{r}, t) = K \frac{\partial u(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} \left. \begin{array}{l} u = \text{temperature}; K^{-1} = \text{heat conductivity} \\ u = \text{density}; K^{-1} = \text{diffusion constant} \end{array} \right\}$$

In 4-dimensions:

$$\square u(\vec{x}, t) = \left(\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right) u(\vec{x}, t) = 0$$

One of the most important relations involving ∇^2 is:

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

This has important experimental and theoretical consequences which we discuss below. To establish this result we first show that $\nabla^2(1/r) = 0$ when $r \neq 0$: Using $r = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{1/2}$

$$\nabla^2(1/r) = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla}(1/r) = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \left[\hat{x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (1/r) + \hat{y} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (1/r) + \hat{z} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (1/r) \right] \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (1/r) = -x(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-3/2} = -\frac{x}{r^3} \quad (3)$$

$$\text{Hence } \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = -\frac{1}{r^3} + \frac{3x^2}{r^5} \quad (4)$$

$$\text{Hence } \nabla^2 \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) \quad (5)$$

$$= \left(-\frac{1}{r^3} + \frac{3x^2}{r^5} \right) + \left(-\frac{1}{r^3} + \frac{3y^2}{r^5} \right) + \left(-\frac{1}{r^3} + \frac{3z^2}{r^5} \right) \quad (6)$$

$$\therefore \nabla^2 \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = -\frac{3}{r^3} + \frac{3}{r^5} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \equiv 0 \quad (r \neq 0) \quad (7)$$

When $r=0$ the various differentiations leading to (7) would no longer be valid, so we must be more careful: Consider

$$\int \nabla^2 \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) d^3r \equiv \int \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) dV = \int \vec{\nabla} \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) \cdot d\vec{S} \quad \text{Gauss' Theorem} \quad (8)$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = \left(\hat{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = -(\hat{i}x + \hat{j}y + \hat{k}z) \frac{1}{r^3} = -\frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} \quad (9)$$

$$\therefore \int \nabla^2 \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) dV = - \int \frac{\vec{r} \cdot d\vec{S}}{r^3} \equiv - \int d\Omega = -4\pi \quad (10)$$

(We note from (10) that since $\vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s}$ has the same sign at all points on the surface of a sphere that $\int \vec{r} \cdot d\vec{s} / r^3$ cannot be zero when integrated over the surface.) 20.2

It follows from (10) that $\nabla^2(1/r)$ cannot be zero everywhere, or else Eq. (10) could not hold. In fact we see that (7) & (10) can be made compatible if (1) holds since then

$$\begin{aligned} \int \nabla^2\left(\frac{1}{r}\right) dV &= \int \nabla^2\left(\frac{1}{r}\right) dx dy dz = -4\pi \int \delta(x)\delta(y)\delta(z) dx dy dz \\ &= -4\pi \int \delta(x) dx \int \delta(y) dy \int \delta(z) dz = -4\pi V \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

Experimental Consequences:

For Newtonian gravity the potential energy is

$$V_{12}^{(N)}(r) = -\frac{G m_1 m_2}{r} \quad (12)$$

and for the Coulomb interaction $V_{12}^{(C)}(r) = \frac{q_1 q_2}{r}$ (13)

In both cases $\nabla^2 V_{12}^{(N,C)} = 0$ ($r \neq 0$). (14)

However, suppose that in the gravitational case there was an additional contribution such that

$$V_{12}(r) = -\frac{G m_1 m_2}{r} (1 + \alpha e^{-r/\lambda}) \quad ; \quad \alpha, \lambda = \text{constants} \quad (15)$$

Then by an elementary calculation we find

$$\nabla^2 V_{12}(r) = \frac{\alpha G m_1 m_2}{\lambda^2 r} e^{-r/\lambda} \neq 0 \quad (16)$$

Measuring $\nabla^2 V_{12}(r) \neq 0$ is thus a means of testing for deviations from Newton's law of gravity, or from Coulomb's law.

CARTESIAN TENSOR NOTATION FOR VECTOR IDENTITIES

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Definitions:

$$1) \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \sum_i u_i v_i \equiv u_i v_i$$

$$2) (\vec{u} \times \vec{v})_i = \sum_{j,k} \epsilon_{ijk} u_j v_k \equiv \epsilon_{ijk} u_j v_k$$

$$3) (\vec{\nabla} \phi)_i = \partial_i \phi$$

$$4) \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{v} = \partial_i v_i$$

$$5) (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{v})_i = \epsilon_{ijk} \partial_j v_k$$

$$6) \nabla^2 \phi = \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \phi) = \partial_i (\partial_i \phi) = \partial_i \partial_i \phi$$

$$7) (\nabla^2 \vec{v})_i = \underbrace{\partial_j \partial_j}_{\text{dummy indices}} \underbrace{v_i}_{\text{free index}}$$

Some Simple Theorems:

$$a) \vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \phi) = 0 \quad (8)$$

$$\hookrightarrow [(\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \phi))]_i = \epsilon_{ijk} \partial_j (\partial_k \phi) = \epsilon_{ijk} \partial_j \partial_k \phi = 0 \quad (9)$$

$$b) \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{v}) = 0 \quad ; \quad \text{see p. 17} \quad (10)$$

$$\begin{aligned} c) \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{u} \times \vec{v}) &= \partial_i (\epsilon_{ijk} u_j v_k) = \epsilon_{ijk} (u_j \partial_i v_k + v_k \partial_i u_j) \\ &= -\epsilon_{jik} u_j \partial_i v_k + \epsilon_{kij} v_k \partial_i u_j = -\vec{u} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{v}) + \vec{v} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{u}) \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{u} \times \vec{v}) = \vec{v} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{u}) - \vec{u} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{v})} \quad (12)$$

d) Laplacian of a Vector Field

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Consider $\vec{\nabla}_x (\vec{\nabla}_x \vec{v})$:

$$[\vec{\nabla}_x (\vec{\nabla}_x \vec{v})]_i = \epsilon_{ijk} \partial_j (\epsilon_{k\ell m} \partial_\ell v_m) = \epsilon_{ijk} \epsilon_{k\ell m} \partial_j \partial_\ell v_m \quad (13)$$

$$= (\delta_{ie} \delta_{jm} - \delta_{je} \delta_{im}) \partial_j \partial_e v_m = \partial_i \partial_j v_j - \partial_j \partial_j v_i = \partial_i (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{v}) - \nabla^2 v_i \quad (14)$$

$$\therefore [\vec{\nabla}_x (\vec{\nabla}_x \vec{v})]_i = -\nabla^2 v_i + \partial_i (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{v}) \quad (15)$$

In more familiar notation:

$$\vec{\nabla}_x (\vec{\nabla}_x \vec{v}) = -\nabla^2 \vec{v} + \vec{\nabla} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{v}) \quad (16)$$

Hence finally: $\nabla^2 \vec{v} = \vec{\nabla} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{v}) - \vec{\nabla}_x (\vec{\nabla}_x \vec{v}) \quad (17)$

Since all the quantities on the r.h.s. are well-defined
this defines what we mean by $\nabla^2 \vec{v}$.

$$\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} \Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$$

(2)

SOME THEOREMS IN POTENTIAL THEORY

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We have already established some elementary results, such as

$$\vec{F} = -\vec{\nabla}V \Leftrightarrow \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F} = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} \Leftrightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \quad (2)$$

To establish some other results we require a discussion of the Dirac δ -function.

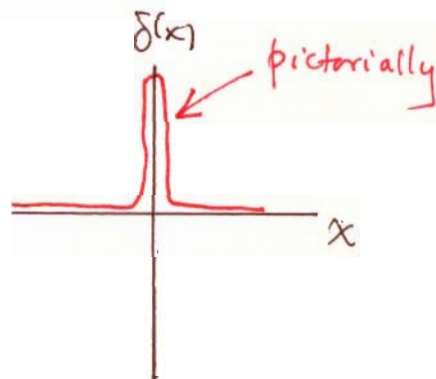
REVIEW OF THE DIRAC δ -FUNCTION

In 1-dimension $\delta(x)$ is defined by

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \delta(x) f(x) = f(0) \quad (3)$$

Equivalently, define $\delta(x)$ by

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \delta(x) &= 0 \quad x \neq 0 \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \delta(x) &= 1 \end{aligned} \right\} (4)$$



IMPORTANT!! $\delta(x)$ is not an ordinary mathematical function such as e^{-x} . A relation such as (3) must be understood as holding when $\delta(x)$ is integrated along with a smooth convergent test function such as e^{-x^2} , which vanishes as $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$. With this understanding the following relations hold when appearing under an integral with $f(x)$:

Useful Relations Involving $\delta(x)$:

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$$(a) \quad \delta(x) = \delta(-x)$$

$$(b) \quad \delta'(x) = -\delta'(-x)$$

$$(c) \quad x\delta(x) = 0$$

$$(d) \quad x\delta'(x) = -\delta(x)$$

$$(e) \quad \delta(ax) = \frac{1}{|a|} \delta(x) \quad ; \quad a = \text{constant}$$

$$(f) \quad \delta(x^2 - a^2) = \frac{1}{|2a|} [\delta(x-a) + \delta(x+a)]$$

$$(g) \quad \int dx \delta(x-a)\delta(x-b) = \delta(a-b)$$

$$(h) \quad f(x)\delta(x-a) = f(a)\delta(x-a)$$

$$(i) \quad \delta[g(x)] = \sum_i \frac{1}{|g'(x_i)|} \delta(x-x_i) ;$$

$g(x_i) = 0$, so x_i are the roots of $g(x)$

You will be asked to establish these for homework; here we illustrate with 2 examples:

$$\begin{aligned} (5d): \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx [x\delta'(x)]f(x) &\equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx x \left[\frac{d}{dx} \delta(x) \right] f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \underbrace{x f(x)}_u \cdot \underbrace{\frac{d}{dx} \delta(x)}_{dv} \\ &= \cancel{x f(x) \delta(x)} \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \cdot \delta(x) \cdot \underbrace{\frac{d}{dx} [x f(x)]}_{f(x) + x f'(x)} = - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \delta(x) f(x) - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \cdot \underbrace{x \delta(x)}_0 f'(x) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

$$\text{Hence: } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx [x\delta'(x)]f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx [-\delta(x)]f(x) \Rightarrow \underbrace{x\delta'(x)} \sim -\delta(x) \quad (7)$$

under an integral!!