

# Physics II: Electromagnetism

PH 102

## Lecture 3

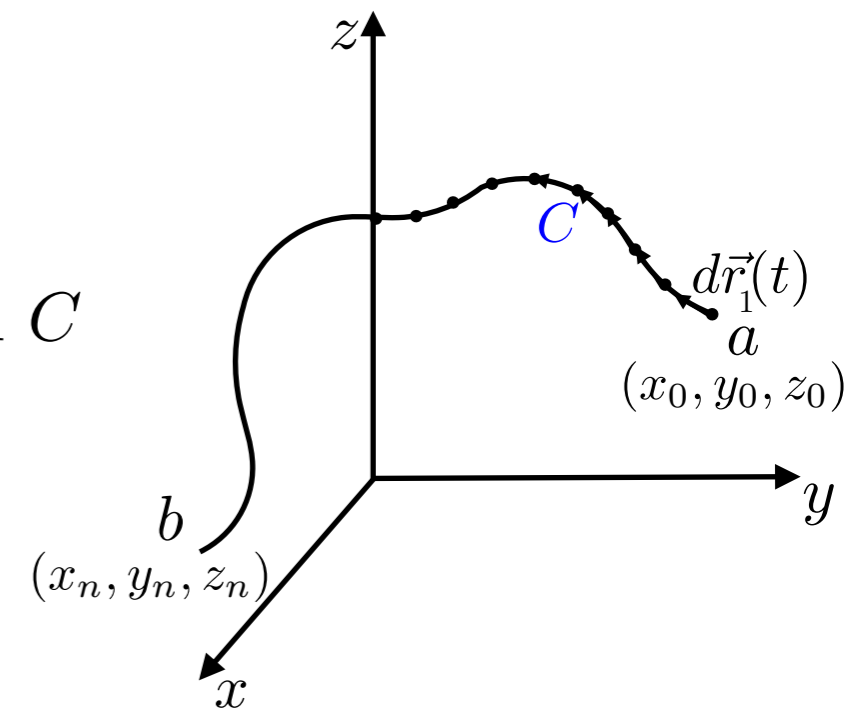
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# Fundamental theorem for gradients

- Scalar field  $\phi(x, y, z)$ .
- Start at  $a$  and move infinitesimal distance  $d\vec{r}_1$  along path  $C$  to reach  $\vec{r}_a + d\vec{r}_1$ ,  $\vec{r}_a$  is position vector at  $a$



Recall from first lecture that the scalar function  $\phi$  will change by  $d\phi = (\vec{\nabla}\phi) \cdot d\vec{r}_1$

- Now, move a little further, by small displacement  $d\vec{r}_2$ .
- The change in  $\phi$  will be  $\vec{\nabla}\phi \cdot d\vec{r}_2$ .
- In this manner, proceeding by infinitesimal steps we reach point  $b$ . At each step computing gradient of  $\phi$  (at that point) and dot it into the displacement.
- This gives the total change in  $\phi$  as

$$\int_a^b (\vec{\nabla}\phi) \cdot d\vec{r} = \phi(b) - \phi(a)$$

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

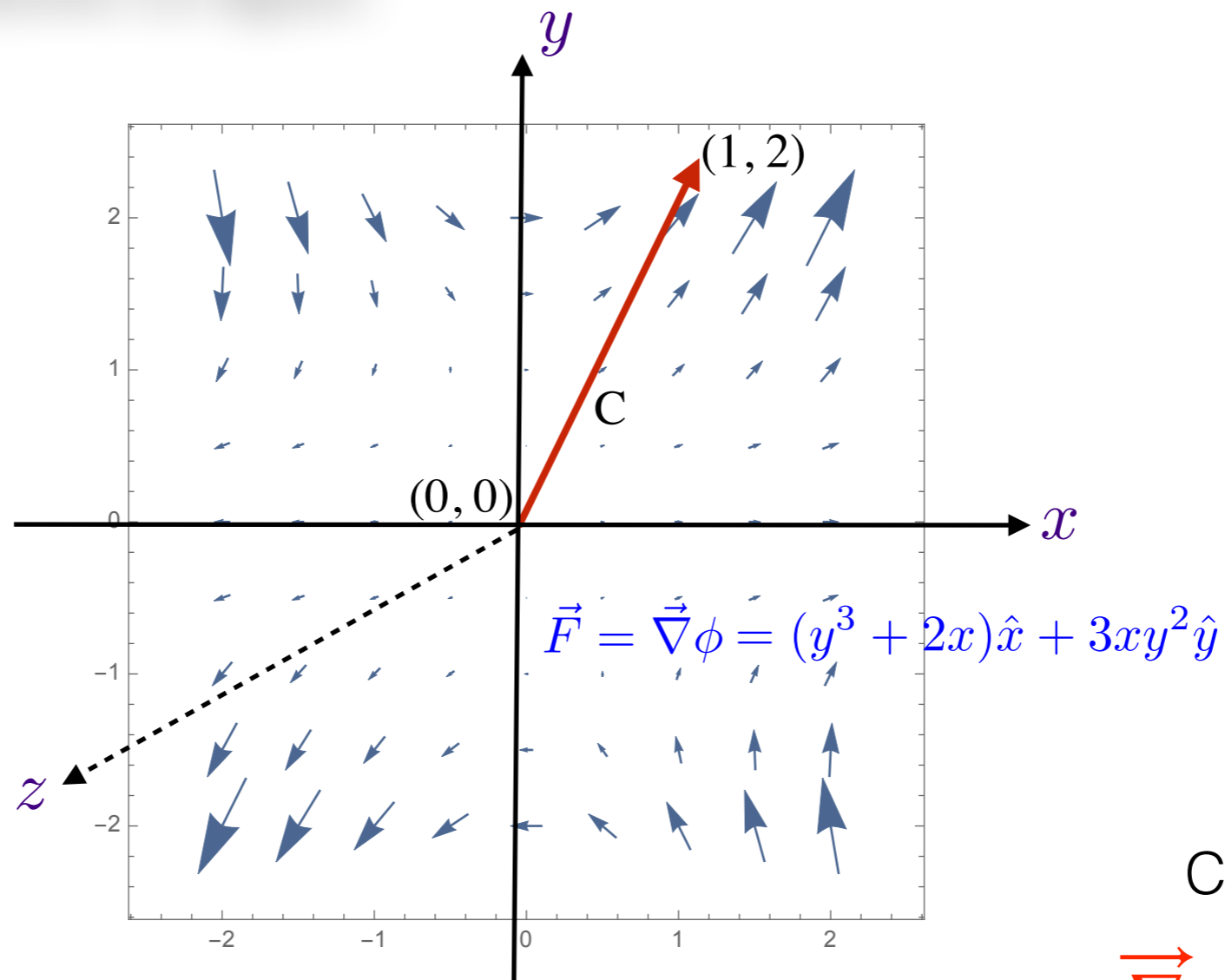
**Fundamental theorem for gradients**

Like the ordinary fundamental theorem of calculus, it says that the integral (here line integral) of a derivative (here the gradient) is given by the value of the function at the boundaries (a and b)

# Example

Note that the  $\vec{\nabla}\phi$  is a vector field and sometimes called the **gradient field**. The function  $\phi$  will be called a **potential function** for the field.

If  $\vec{F} = \vec{\nabla}\phi$  is a gradient field where  $\phi(x, y) = xy^3 + x^2$ , then compute  $I = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$  along the curve  $C$  shown in figure.



Check:

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

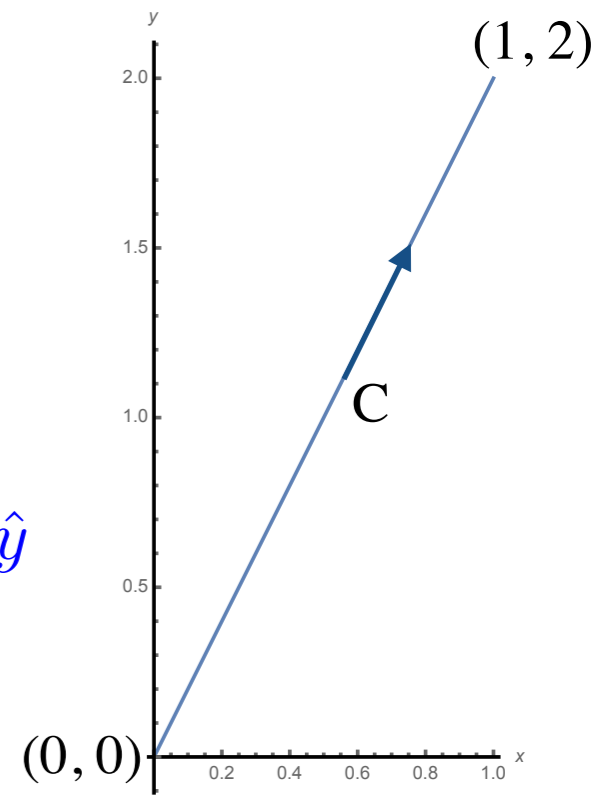
## Example (contd.)

$$\phi(x, y) = xy^3 + x^2$$

- Method 1: Direct integration: (Line integral)

$$\vec{F} = \vec{\nabla}\phi = \left( \hat{x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{y} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{z} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) (xy^3 + x^2) = (y^3 + 2x)\hat{x} + 3xy^2\hat{y}$$

Looking at the curve, we see that its equation is  $y = 2x$ ,  
therefore, we parametrise as  $x = t, y = 2t; 0 \leq t \leq 1$ .



$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{2}{1}$$

$$I = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_C (y^3 + 2x)dx + 3xy^2dy = \int_0^1 (8t^3 + 2t)dt + 12t^3 \cdot 2dt = \int_0^1 (32t^3 + 2t)dt = 9$$

- Method 2: Applying Gradient theorem

$$\int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_C \vec{\nabla}\phi \cdot d\vec{r} = \phi(1, 2) - \phi(0, 0) = 9.$$

## Example (contd.)

$$\vec{F} = \vec{\nabla}\phi = (y^3 + 2x)\hat{x} + 3xy^2\hat{y}$$

Same problem with a different choice of path

I could have taken a different path (in red):  $(0, 0) \rightarrow (1, 0) \rightarrow (1, 2)$ .

- Path (i)  $(0, 0) \rightarrow (1, 0)$ :  $y = 0$ ,  $x : 0 \rightarrow 1$

$$I = \int_{(i)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_{(i)} \vec{\nabla}\phi \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_0^1 2x dx = 2 \cdot \frac{x^2}{2} \Big|_0^1 = 1$$

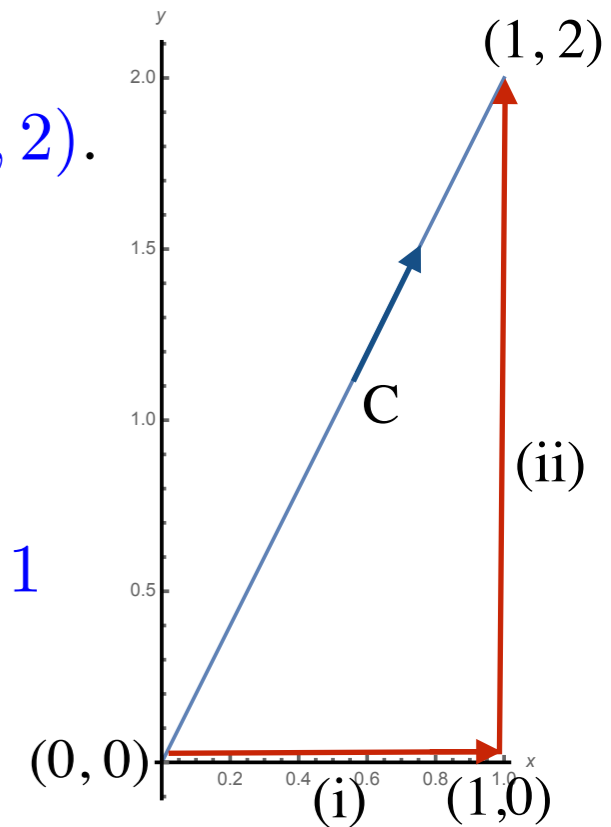
- Path (ii)  $(1, 0) \rightarrow (1, 2)$ :  $x = 1$ ,  $y : 0 \rightarrow 2$ , i.e.  $dx = 0$ .

$$I = \int_{(ii)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_{(ii)} \vec{\nabla}\phi \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_0^2 3xy^2 dy = 3 \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{y^3}{3} \Big|_0^2 = 8$$

- $\therefore$  to reach  $(1, 2)$  from  $(0, 0)$  via paths (i) & (ii):  $(\int_{(i)} + \int_{(ii)}) \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = 1 + 8 = 9$

Same as the one along curve  $C$ !

$\int_a^b \vec{\nabla}\phi \cdot d\vec{r}$  is independent of the path taken



# Some important corollaries

★ Line integrals in general depend on the path taken from  $a$  to  $b$ .

## Example:

Calculate the line integral of  $\vec{A} = y^2\hat{x} + 2x(y+1)\hat{y}$  from  $(1, 1, 0)$  to  $(2, 2, 0)$  along paths (1) and (2) in figure.

We need to calculate  $\int \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{r}$ , where  $d\vec{r} = dx\hat{x} + dy\hat{y} + dz\hat{z}$ .

**Red path (path 1):**

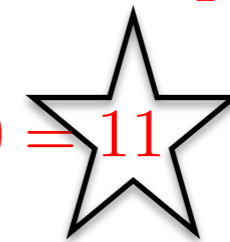
Horizontal segment:  $dy = dz = 0$ , so  $d\vec{r} = dx\hat{x}$ ,  $y = 1$ ,

$$\vec{A} \cdot d\vec{r} = y^2 dx = dx, \text{ Hence } \int_1^2 \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_1^2 dx = 1.$$

Vertical segment:  $dx = dz = 0$ , so  $d\vec{r} = dy\hat{y}$ ,  $x = 2$ ,

$$\vec{A} \cdot d\vec{r} = 2x(y+1)dy = 4(y+1)dy, \text{ so } \int \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{r} = 4 \int_1^2 (y+1)dy = 10$$

$$\text{Hence, by path (1), } \int_{(1,1,0)}^{(2,2,0)} \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{r} = 1 + 10 = 11$$



**Green path (path 2):**

Here,  $x = y$ , i.e.  $dx = dy$  and  $dz = 0$ .  $d\vec{r} = dx\hat{x} + dy\hat{y}$

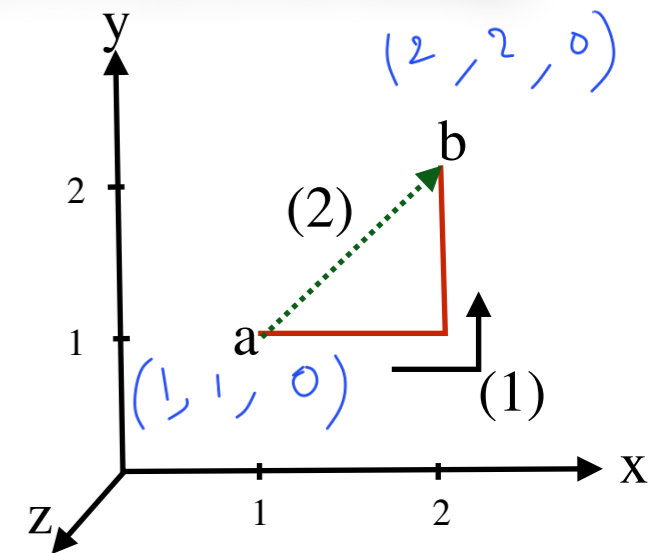
$$\therefore \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{r} = x^2 dx + 2x(x+1)dx = (3x^2 + 2x)dx,$$

$$\int_{(1,1,0)}^{(2,2,0)} \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_1^2 (3x^2 + 2x)dx = 10$$



Check:

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} \neq \vec{0}$$



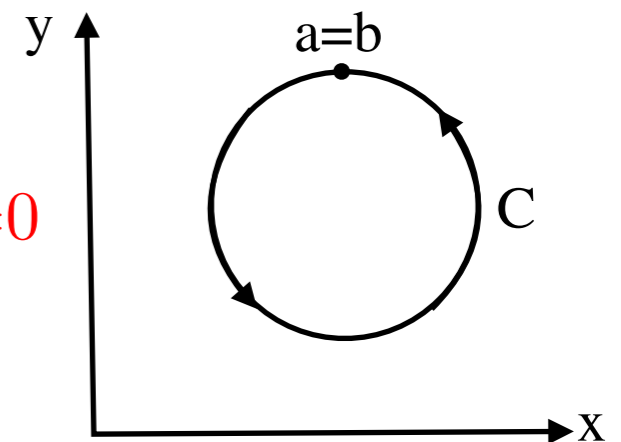
# Some important corollaries

★ Gradients have the special property that their line integrals are path independent:  $\int_a^b \vec{\nabla} \phi \cdot d\vec{r}$  is independent of the path from  $a$  to  $b$ .

★  $\oint \vec{\nabla} \phi \cdot d\vec{r} = 0$ , since the beginning and end points are identical and hence  $\phi(b) - \phi(a) = 0$ .

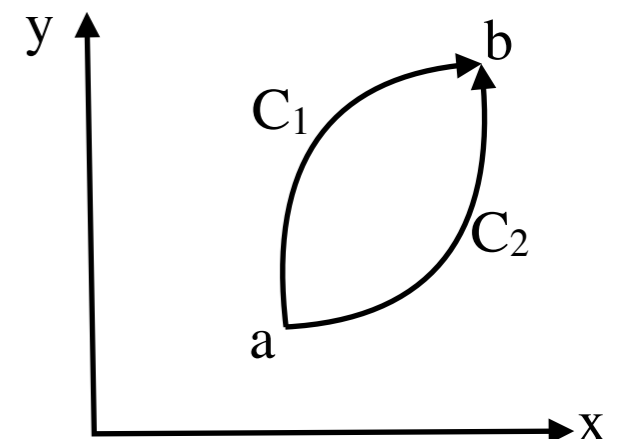
Assume path independence and consider the closed path  $C$  in Figure 1. Since the starting point  $a$  and end point  $b$  are same, we get  $\oint \vec{\nabla} \phi \cdot d\vec{r} = \phi(b) - \phi(a) = 0$ .

path independence  $\implies$  line integral around closed path=0



Assume  $\oint \vec{\nabla} \phi \cdot d\vec{r} = 0$  for any closed curve. If  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are both paths between  $a$  and  $b$ , then  $C_1 - C_2$  is a closed path. So by hypothesis

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{C_1 - C_2} \vec{\nabla} \phi \cdot d\vec{r} &= \int_{C_1} \vec{\nabla} \phi \cdot d\vec{r} - \int_{C_2} \vec{\nabla} \phi \cdot d\vec{r} = 0 \\ \implies \int_{C_1} \vec{\nabla} \phi \cdot d\vec{r} &= \int_{C_2} \vec{\nabla} \phi \cdot d\vec{r} \end{aligned}$$



line integral around closed path=0  $\implies$  path independence

# Fundamental theorem for Divergence (Gauss's Theorem)

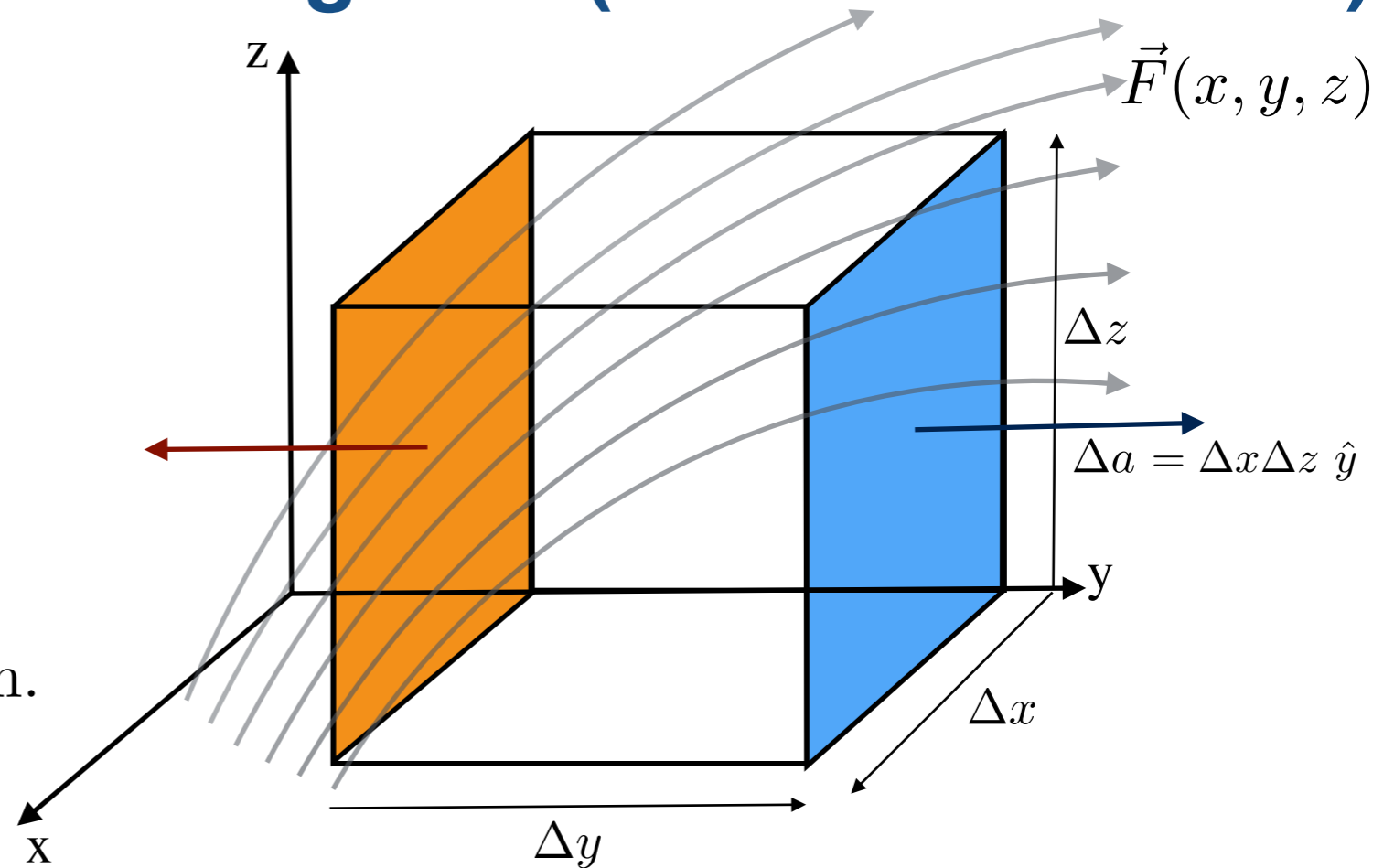
Consider a vector field  $\vec{F}(x, y, z)$ .

Say, flow of water...

We want to find out the flux of  $\vec{F}(x, y, z)$ .

To do that, take an infinitesimal volume element like a cube as shown.

..and look at the opposite faces (coloured in figure) first.



The left most face (orange) is at a fixed value of  $y$  and the incoming flux into this surface is  $\vec{F}(x, y, z) \cdot \Delta \vec{a} = \vec{F}(x, y, z) \cdot \hat{n} \Delta a = (F_x \hat{x} + F_y \hat{y} + F_z \hat{z}) \cdot (-\Delta x \Delta z \hat{y}) = -F_y(x, y, z) \Delta x \Delta z$ .

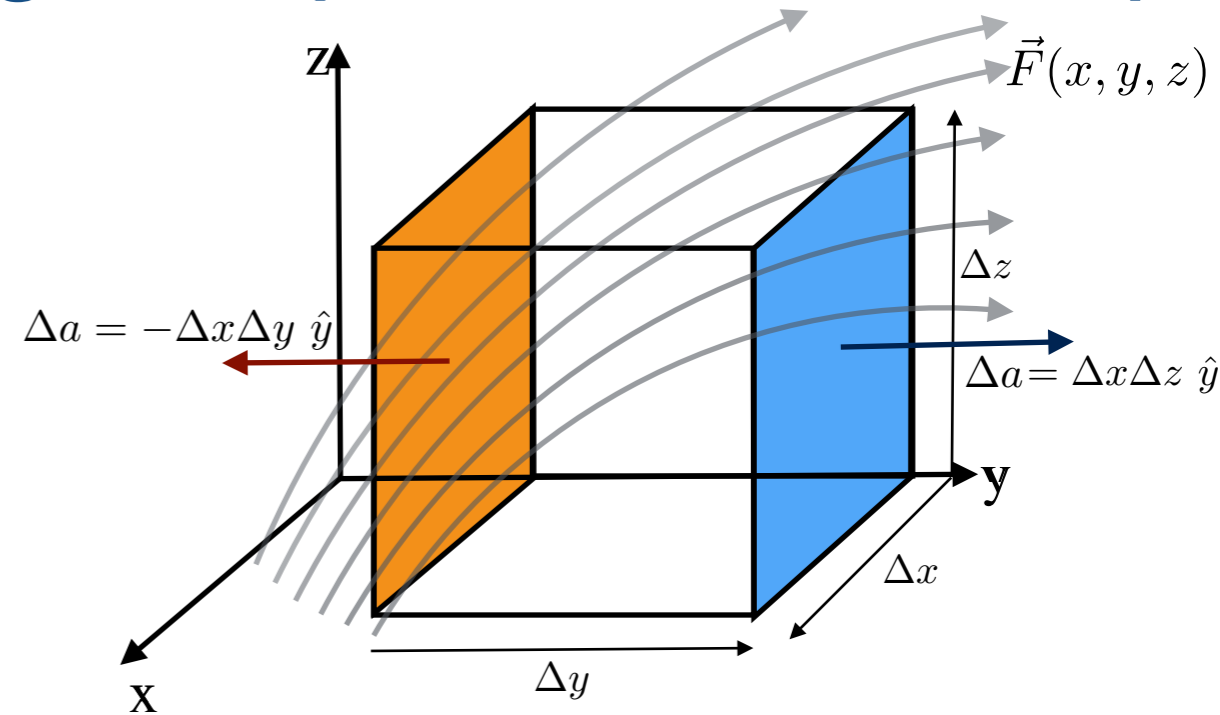
The right most face (blue) is at a fixed value of  $y + \Delta y$  and the flux going out of this surface is  $\vec{F}(x, y + \Delta y, z) \cdot \Delta \vec{a} = \vec{F}(x, y + \Delta y, z) \cdot \hat{n} \Delta a = (F_x \hat{x} + F_y \hat{y} + F_z \hat{z}) \cdot (\Delta x \Delta z \hat{y}) = F_y(x, y + \Delta y, z) \Delta x \Delta z$ .



# Fundamental theorem for Divergence (Gauss's Theorem)

So, the outward flux from the blue face is

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{F}(x, y + \Delta y, z) \cdot \Delta \vec{a} &= F_y(x, y + \Delta y, z) \Delta x \Delta z \\ &= \left( F_y + \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial y} \Delta y \right) \Delta x \Delta z\end{aligned}$$



Net flux out of the box through these two opposite (orange and blue) faces

$$-F_y \Delta x \Delta z + \left( F_y + \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial y} \Delta y \right) \Delta x \Delta z = \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial y} \Delta y \Delta x \Delta z = \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial y} \Delta \tau$$

Net flux going out through the sides parallel to  $yz$  plane:  $\left( \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial x} \right) \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$

Net flux going out through the sides parallel to  $xy$  plane:  $\left( \frac{\partial F_z}{\partial z} \right) \Delta z \Delta y \Delta x$

Summing over all the faces:  $\vec{F} \cdot \hat{n} \Delta a \Big|_{\text{all surfaces}} = \left( \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial F_z}{\partial z} \right) \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F} \Delta \tau$

Flux over a closed surface can be written as a sum over the surfaces of elemental volumes that make the volume:  $\sum \vec{F} \cdot \hat{n} \Delta a = \sum (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F}) \Delta \tau$

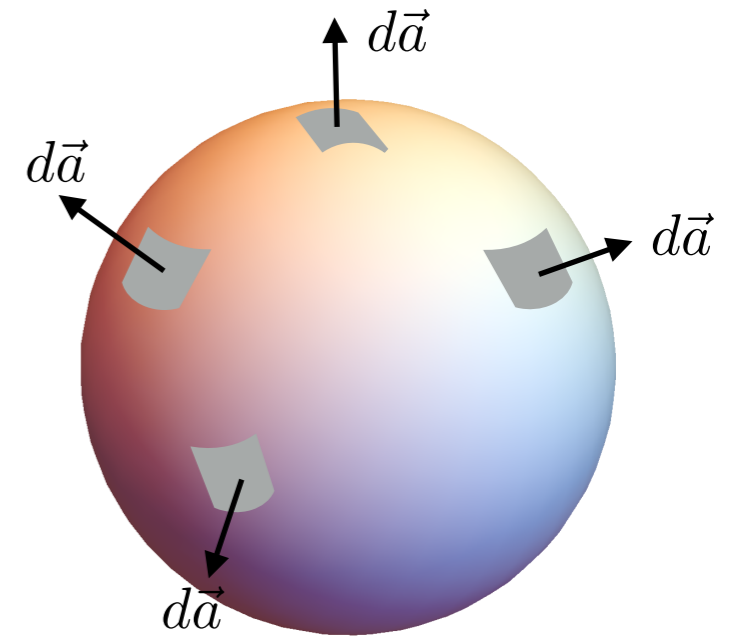
In the limit  $\Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z \rightarrow 0$   $\int_V (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F}) d\tau = \oint_S \vec{F} \cdot \hat{n} da$  **Gauss's Divergence Theorem**

# Fundamental theorem for Divergence (Gauss's Theorem)

## What does it mean?

We want to find the total outward flux of the vector field  $\vec{F}(\vec{r})$  across a surface  $\mathcal{S}$  that bounds a volume  $\mathcal{V}$ :  $\oint_{\mathcal{S}} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{a}$

- $d\vec{a}$  is
- normal to the local surface element
  - points everywhere out of the volume



Gauss's theorem tells us that we can calculate the flux of vector field across a surface  $\mathcal{S}$ , by considering the total flux generated inside the volume  $\mathcal{V}$ .

Gauss's Theorem:

$$\int_{\mathcal{V}} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F}) d\tau = \oint_{\mathcal{S}} \vec{F} \cdot \hat{n} da$$

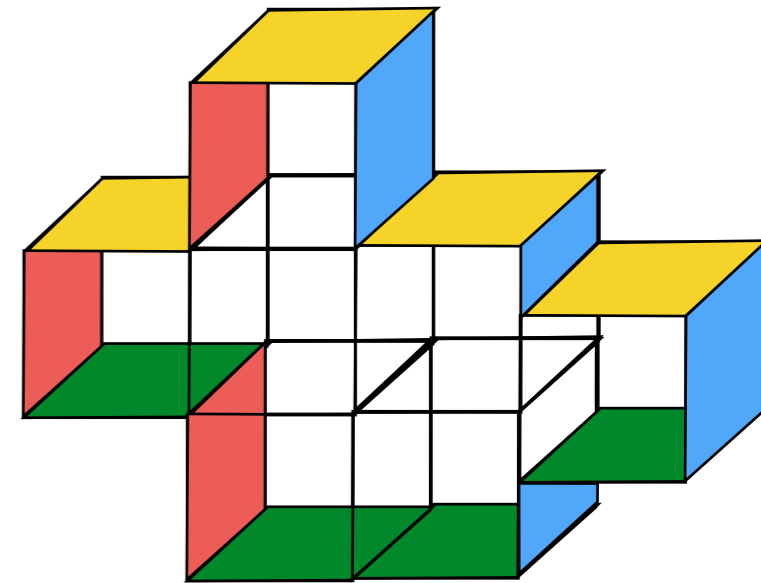
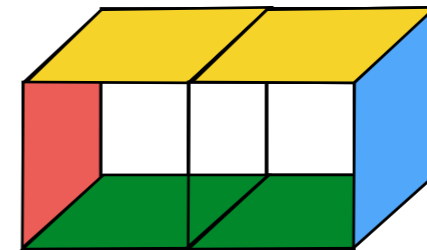
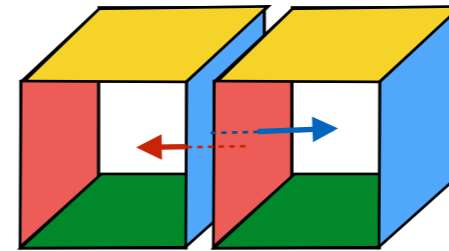
Volume integrals are easier than the surface integrals: computational efficiency!

# How to “see” this?

If we sum over the volume elements, this results in a sum over the surface elements!

**Note:** if two elementary surfaces touch, their  $d\vec{a}$  vectors are in opposite directions!

Therefore the  $d\vec{a}$  vectors cancel whenever there are two surfaces in touch



Thus the sum over surface elements gives the overall bounding surface!

$$\int_{\mathcal{V}} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F} \, d\tau = \oint_{\text{Surface of } \mathcal{V}} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{a}$$

Seems reasonable! Because, the “boundary” of a line are its endpoints, and boundary of a volume is a closed surface!

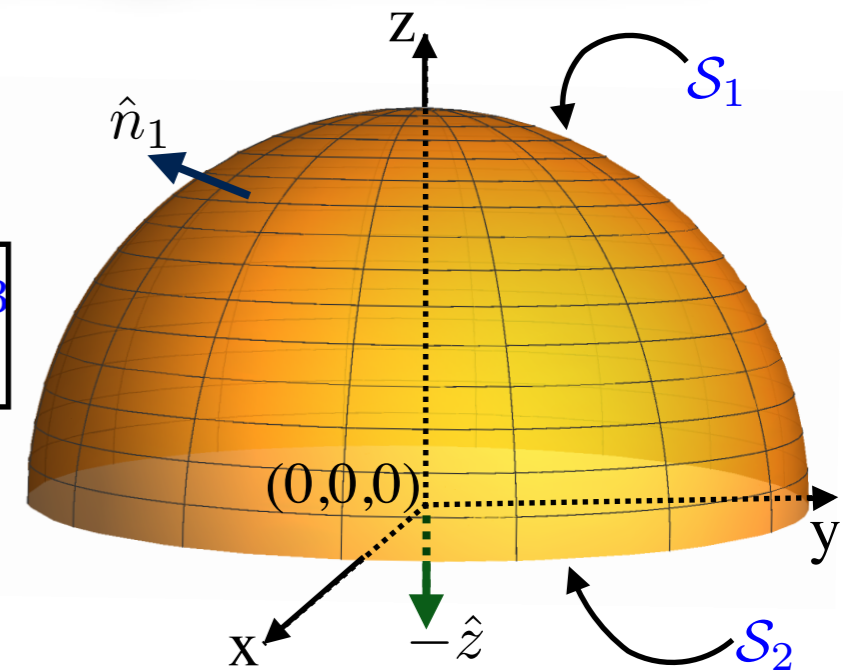
# Example

Verify the divergence theorem when  $\vec{F} = x\hat{x} + y\hat{y} + z\hat{z}$  and  $\mathcal{S}$  is the surface composed of the upper half of the sphere of radius  $a$  and centred at the origin, together with the circular disc in  $xy$ -plane centred at the origin and of radius  $a$ .

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F} = \left( \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial F_z}{\partial z} \right) = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3$$

$$\therefore \int_{\mathcal{V}} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F} \, d\tau = 3 \cdot (\text{vol. of hemisphere}) = 3 \cdot \frac{2}{3} \pi a^3 = 2\pi a^3$$

To check the result, we need to calculate the surface integral of  $\vec{F}$  over the closed surfaces  $\mathcal{S}_1$  and  $\mathcal{S}_2$ .



$$\text{Normal vector on } \mathcal{S}_1 \text{ (hemisphere)} : \hat{n}_1 = \frac{x\hat{x} + y\hat{y} + z\hat{z}}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}} = \frac{x\hat{x} + y\hat{y} + z\hat{z}}{a}$$

$$\text{Normal vector on } \mathcal{S}_2 \text{ (disc at the base)} : \hat{n}_2 = -\hat{z}.$$

Surface integral for the flux through  $\mathcal{S}_1 + \mathcal{S}_2$ :

$$\oint_{\mathcal{S}_1 + \mathcal{S}_2} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{a} = \int_{\mathcal{S}_1} \frac{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}{a} da + \int_{\mathcal{S}_2} (-z) da = \int_{\mathcal{S}_1} a da$$

= 0 because  $z = 0$  on  $\mathcal{S}_2$

So, the value of the surface integral is  $a(\text{area of } \mathcal{S}_1) = a(2\pi a^2) = 2\pi a^3$ .

Surface of  $S_1$  :  $\phi(x, y, z) \equiv x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$  (const.)

$$\therefore \hat{n}_1 = \frac{\vec{\nabla} \phi}{|\vec{\nabla} \phi|} = \frac{2x \hat{x} + 2y \hat{y} + 2z \hat{z}}{2 \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$$

$$= \frac{x \hat{x} + y \hat{y} + z \hat{z}}{a}$$

## Example

Evaluate  $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$ , where  $\mathbf{F} = 4xz \mathbf{i} - y^2 \mathbf{j} + yz \mathbf{k}$  and  $S$  is the surface of the cube bounded by  $x=0$ ,  $x=1$ ,  $y=0$ ,  $y=1$ ,  $z=0$ ,  $z=1$ .

By the divergence theorem, the required integral is equal to

$$\begin{aligned} \iiint_V \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} \, dV &= \iiint_V \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (4xz) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (-y^2) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (yz) \right] dV \\ &= \iiint_V (4z - y) \, dV = \int_{x=0}^1 \int_{y=0}^1 \int_{z=0}^1 (4z - y) \, dz \, dy \, dx \\ &= \int_{x=0}^1 \int_{y=0}^1 \left. 2z^2 - yz \right|_{z=0}^1 dy \, dx = \int_{x=0}^1 \int_{y=0}^1 (2 - y) \, dy \, dx = \frac{3}{2} \end{aligned}$$

## Example

Evaluate  $\iint_S \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$ , where  $S$  is a closed surface.

By the divergence theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS &= \iiint_V \nabla \cdot \mathbf{r} \, dV \\ &= \iiint_V \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \mathbf{k} \right) \cdot (x \mathbf{i} + y \mathbf{j} + z \mathbf{k}) \, dV \\ &= \iiint_V \left( \frac{\partial x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial z} \right) \, dV = 3 \iiint_V dV = 3V \end{aligned}$$

where  $V$  is the volume enclosed by  $S$ .

# Fundamental theorem for Curl (Stokes' Theorem)

Let us find the circulation of a vector field  $\vec{F}(x, y, z)$  around a closed curve  $C$ .

$$\oint_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

The fields in the  $x$ - direction at bottom and top are

$$F_x(x, y, z) \text{ and } F_x(x, y + \Delta y, z) = F_x + \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial y} \Delta y.$$

The fields in the  $y$ - direction at left and right are

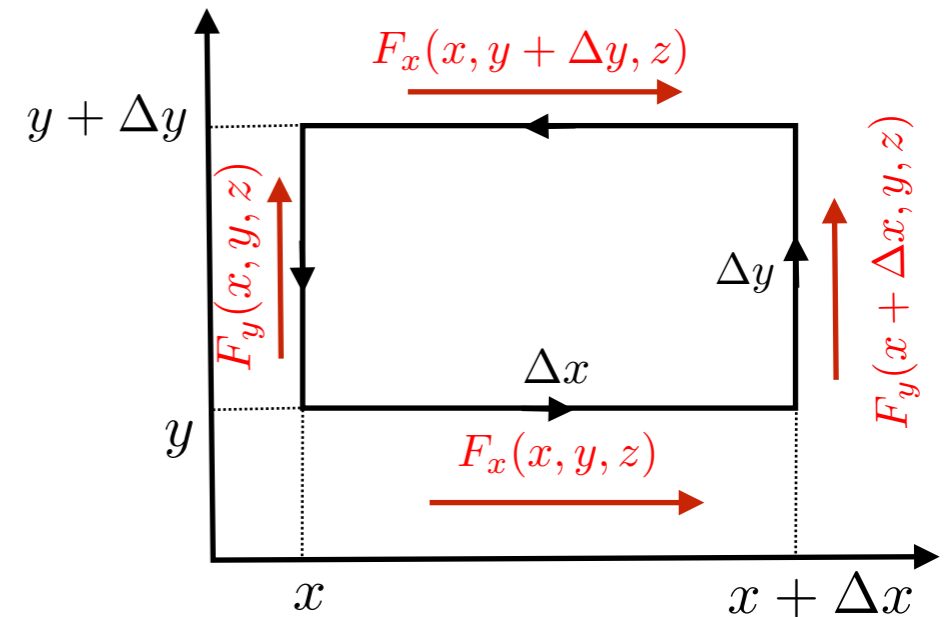
$$F_y(x, y, z) \text{ and } F_y(x + \Delta x, y, z) = F_y + \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial x} \Delta x.$$

Summing around from bottom in anti-clockwise manner

$$\Delta C = \sum \vec{F} \cdot \Delta \vec{r} = F_x(x, y, z) \Delta x + F_y(x + \Delta x, y, z) \Delta y - F_x(x, y + \Delta y, z) \Delta x - F_y(x, y, z) \Delta y$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum \vec{F} \cdot \Delta \vec{r} &= \left( \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial y} \right) \Delta x \Delta y = (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F}) \cdot \Delta x \Delta y \hat{z} \\ &= (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F}) \cdot \Delta \vec{a} \end{aligned}$$

This implies that curl can be defined as circulation per unit area...





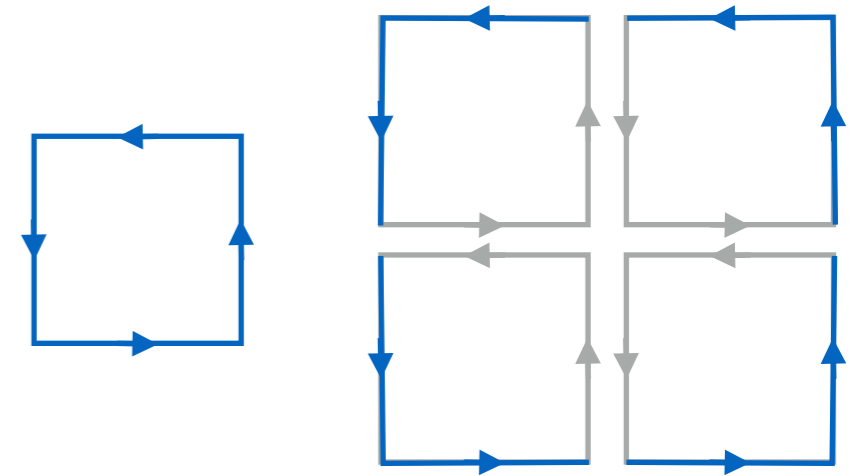
# Fundamental theorem for Curl (Stokes' Theorem)

Now, if we add these little elementary loops together, the internal line sections cancel out because the  $d\vec{r}$ 's are in opposite directions, except on the bounding line.

This gives the larger bounding contour.

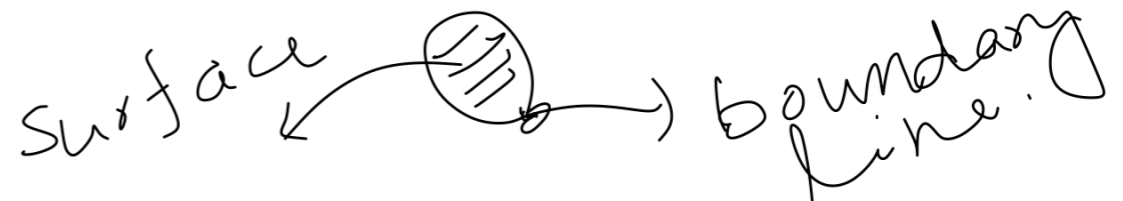
Stokes' Theorem:

$$\oint_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_S (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{a}$$



Corollaries:

- $\int (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{a}$  depends only on the boundary line, not on the particular surface used.
- $\oint (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{a} = 0$  for any closed surface, since the boundary line, like the mouth of a balloon, shrinks down to a point and hence the L.H.S of above equation vanishes.



# Example

Verify Stokes' theorem when  $\mathcal{S}$  is the rectangle with vertices at  $(0, 0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1, 0)$ ,  $(0, 0, 1)$ , and  $(1, 1, 1)$ , and  $\vec{F} = yz\hat{x} + xz\hat{y} + xy\hat{z}$ .

Direct Method:

Line integral  $\oint_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \oint_C yz dx + xz dy + xy dz$   
over path  $(i) + (ii) + (iii) + (iv)$ :

$$\int_{(i)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = 0, \text{ since } z = dz = 0 \text{ on } (i).$$

$$\int_{(ii)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_0^1 1 \cdot 1 dz = 1, \text{ since } x = 1, y = 1, dx = 0 = dy.$$

$$\int_{(iii)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_{(iii)} y dx + x dy = \int_1^0 x dx + x dx = -1, \text{ since } y = x, z = 1, dz = 0.$$

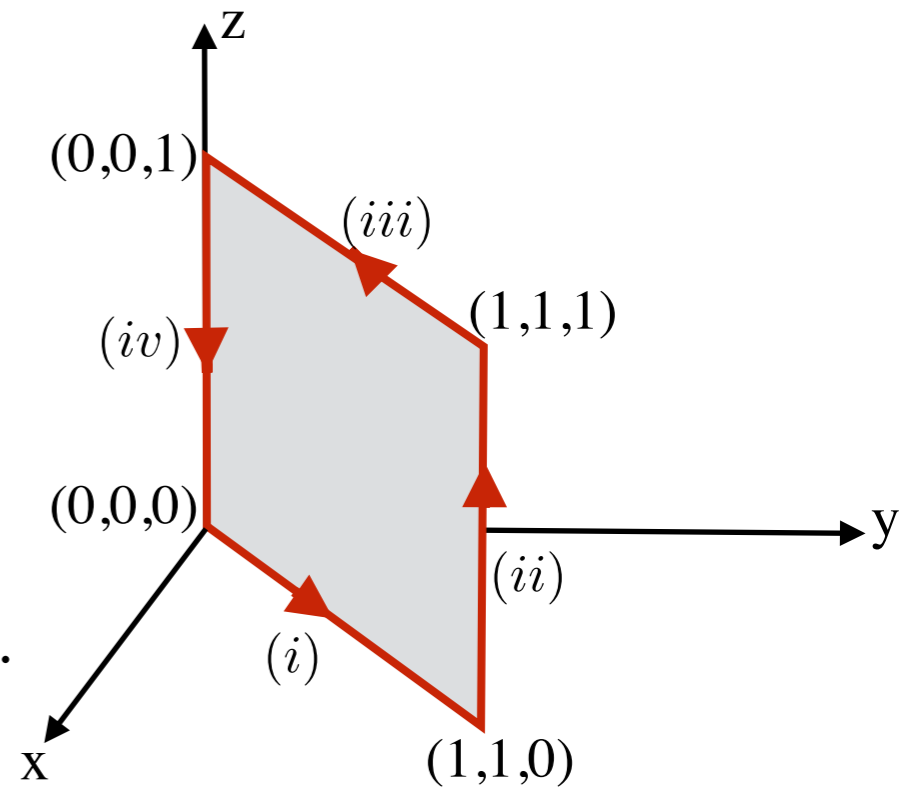
$$\int_{(iv)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = 0, \text{ since } x = 0, y = 0, \text{ on } (iv).$$

$$\oint_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \left( \int_{(i)} + \int_{(ii)} + \int_{(iii)} + \int_{(iv)} \right) \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = 0$$

By Stokes' Theorem:

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{x} & \hat{y} & \hat{z} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ yz & xz & xy \end{vmatrix} = \hat{x}(x - x) + \hat{y}(y - y) + \hat{z}(z - z) = 0$$

$$\therefore \int_S (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{a} = 0$$



## Example

Verify Stokes' theorem for  $\mathbf{A} = (2x - y)\mathbf{i} - yz^2\mathbf{j} - y^2z\mathbf{k}$ , where  $S$  is the upper half surface of the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$  and  $C$  is its boundary.

The boundary  $C$  of  $S$  is a circle in the  $xy$  plane of radius one and center at the origin. Let  $x = \cos t$ ,  $y = \sin t$ ,  $z = 0$ ,  $0 \leq t < 2\pi$  be parametric equations of  $C$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\oint_C \mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{r} &= \oint_C (2x - y) dx - yz^2 dy - y^2z dz \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} (2 \cos t - \sin t) (-\sin t) dt = \pi\end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{A} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ 2x - y & -yz^2 & -y^2z \end{vmatrix} = \mathbf{k}$$

Then

$$\iint_S (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = \iint_S \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = \iint_R dx dy$$

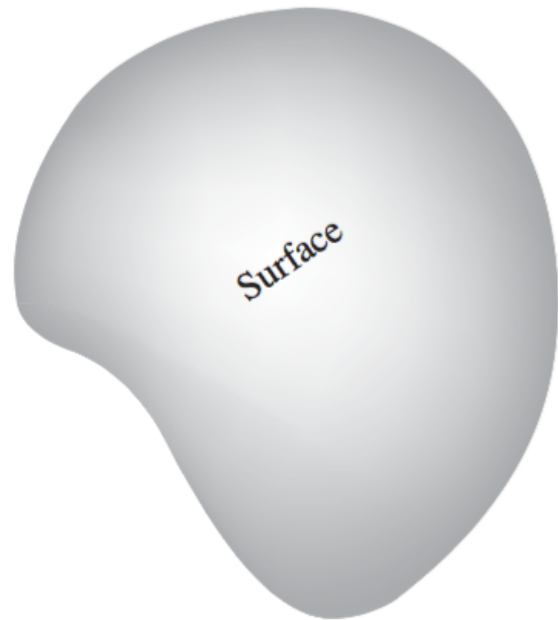
since  $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{k} dS = dx dy$  and  $R$  is the projection of  $S$  on the  $xy$  plane. This last integral equals

$$\int_{x=-1}^1 \int_{y=-\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dy dx = 4 \int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dy dx = 4 \int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx = \pi$$

and Stokes' theorem is verified.

# What did we learn today

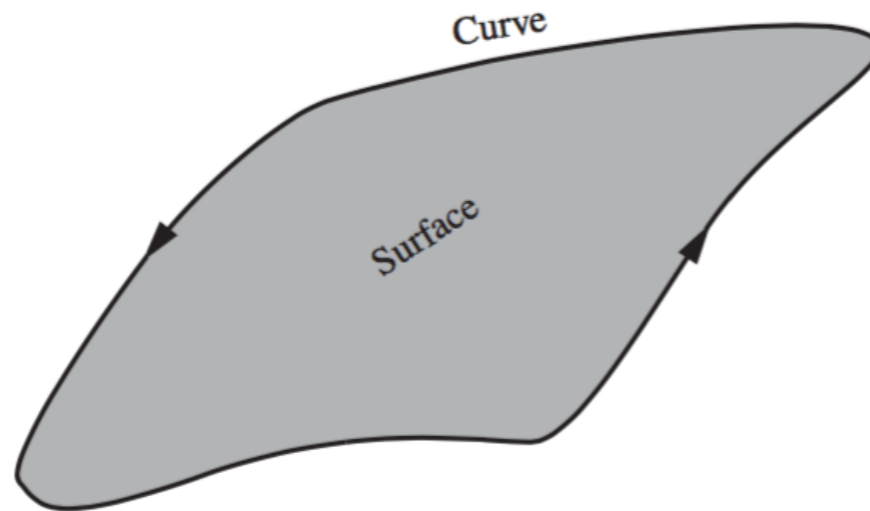
GAUSS



Surface encloses volume

$$\int_S \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{a} = \int_V \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F} d\tau$$

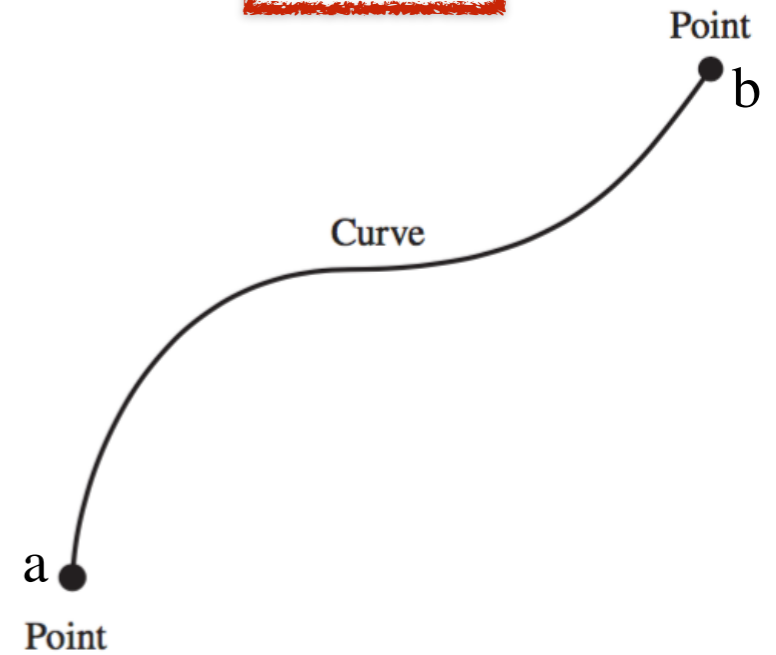
STOKES



Curve encloses surface

$$\oint_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_S (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{a}$$

GRAD



Points enclose curve

$$\int_C \vec{\nabla} \phi \cdot d\vec{r} = \phi(b) - \phi(a)$$

Remember:

In Cartesian Coordinates, with  $\vec{\nabla} = \left( \hat{x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \hat{y} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \hat{z} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right)$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F} = \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial F_z}{\partial z}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{x} & \hat{y} & \hat{z} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ F_x & F_y & F_z \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \phi = \hat{x} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \hat{y} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + \hat{z} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}$$