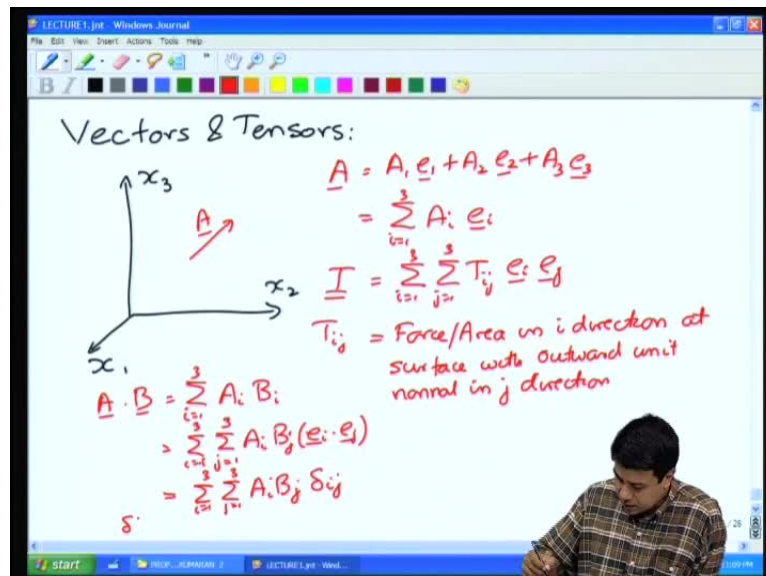


Fundamentals of Transport Processes II
Prof. Dr. Kumaran
Department of Chemical Engineering
Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore

Lecture - 4
Vector Calculus

Welcome to this lecture number 4 in our course on fundamentals of transport processes, where we were going through some fundamental back ground material on vectors and tensors in the last class and we will continue that in the present lecture. To briefly review what we have done in the last lecture, a vector is a quantity which has both magnitude and direction.

(Refer Slide Time: 00:49)



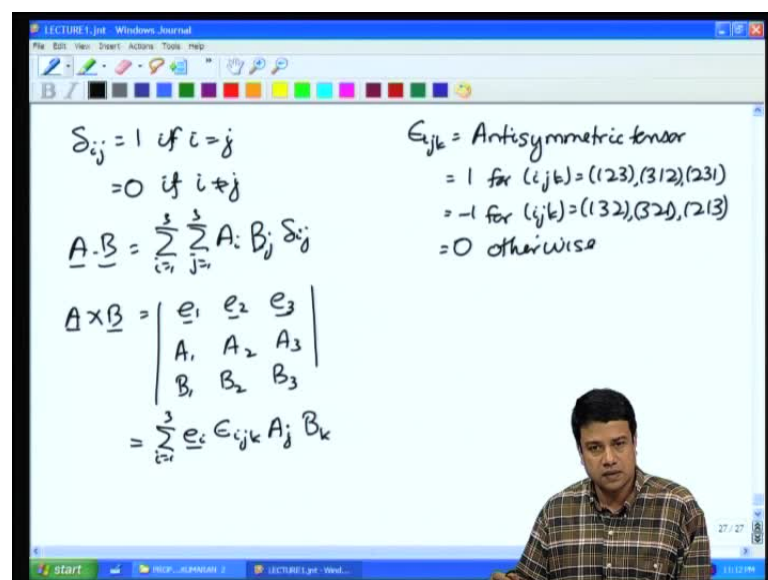
So, in a three dimensional space which I will label as $x_1 \times x_2 \times x_3$, in three dimensional space $x_1 \times x_2 \times x_3$, a vector has both magnitude and direction; it is represented by an under bar which means that it is a vector with one direction. So, this vector can be written as $A_1 e_1$ plus $A_2 e_2$ plus $A_3 e_3$, and I had written it for you in short hand notation as summation i is equal to 1 2 3 $A_i e_i$, where $e_1 e_2 e_3$ are the unit vectors in the three directions. The velocity is for example, a vector it has both magnitude and direction; force is a vector, acceleration is a vector.

We have also defined quantities which have two fundamental directions. A second order tensor an example that I had given you was the stress tensor T , which we can write it in

long hand notation as i is equal to 1 to 3 summation j is equal 1 to 3 $T_{ij} e_i e_j$. This has two directions associated with it at each point in space; one is the direction of the force, the other is the direction of the unit normal to the surface at which you are measuring the force. Of course, I cannot just write it as an arrow similar to a vector, because it has two fundamental directions and we have defined it in long hand for you in the last class. Force per area in i direction at surface with outward unit normal in j direction is T_{ij} . So, at a given location, you can measure the force with a surface which is oriented in various ways. The force in the x direction acting at a surface whose unit normal is in the y direction, there is the surface itself is in the xz plane this T_{xy} and so on.

So, this has two fundamental directions associated with it. You can also have higher order tensors which have three, four etcetera. We would not go through that in this course the dot product of two vectors was defined as $A \cdot B$ is equal to summation i is equal to 1 to 3 of $A_i B_i$, no unit vectors in this case. Because, I am taking the dot products of two vectors and so you end up with a scalar. I also told you that we can write it as summation i is equal to 1 to 3 summation j equal to 1 to 3 $A_i B_j e_i \cdot e_j$, $e_i \cdot e_j$ is the dot product of two unit vectors and of course. It is 1, if i is equal to j ; it is 0, if i is not equal to j . So, $e_1 \cdot e_1$ for example, is 1; $e_1 \cdot e_2$ is 0; $e_1 \cdot e_3$ is 0 and so on.

(Refer Slide Time: 05:25)

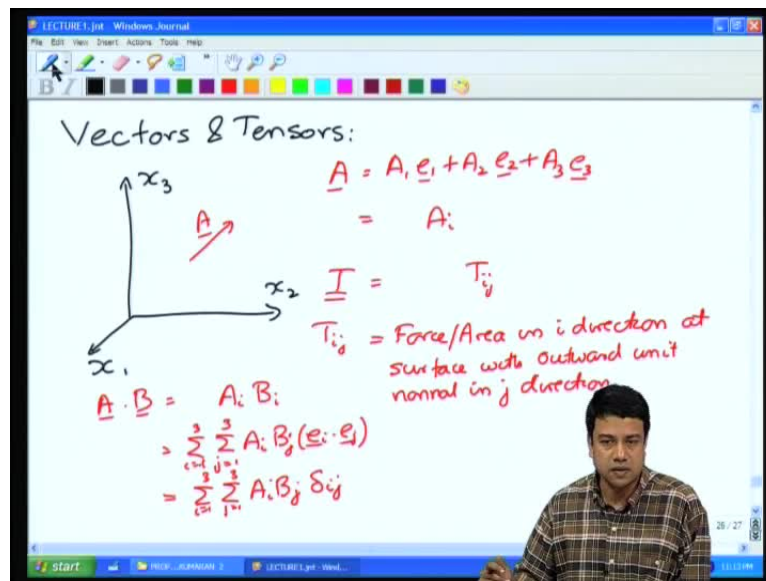


So, this can be written as summation i is equal to 1 to 3 summation j equal to 1 to 3 $A_i B_j \delta_{ij}$ where δ_{ij} , I defined it for you as the delta function, where δ_{ij} is equal to 1, if i

is equal to δ_{ij} ; is equal to 0, if i is not equal to j that is the definition of δ_{ij} . It is called the identity tensor, because you write it out in matrix form; it is an identity matrix so that was the dot product.

So, dot product two vectors $A \cdot B$ is equal to summation i is equal to 1 to 3 summation j is equal to 1 to 3 $A_i B_j$ times δ_{ij} . We are also defined the cross product in the last lecture. We defined it differently, usually the cross product is written as $A \times B$ it is written in matrix form $e_1 e_2 e_3$ $A_1 A_2 A_3$ $B_1 B_2 B_3$. The determinant of this particular matrix it is a vector, the tensor being a vector. I had showed you a different way of writing the same thing. I showed you that this can be written as summation i is equal to 1 to 3 $\epsilon_{ijk} A_j B_k$, where ϵ_{ijk} is the anti-symmetric tensor is, the anti-symmetric tensor is equal to 1 for ijk is equal to 1 2 3, 3 1 2, 2 3 1; is equal to minus 1 for ijk is equal to 1 3 2, 3 2 1, 2 1 3; is equal to 0 otherwise, called the anti-symmetric tensor, because if you interchange any two indices, it becomes the negative of itself and with this anti-symmetric tensor.

(Refer Slide Time: 08:22)



We can construct a cross product, and that was this one, we can also made a notational simplification at the end of the last lecture rather than writing this using a summation and a unit vector. We said we can just write it in terms of this alone, the factor there is unrepeated index, implies that there is already a summation and there is a unit vector. Similarly, in this case I can remove the summations and the unit vectors. T_{ij} has two

indices which are not repeated. Therefore, T_{ij} has two summations and two unit vectors.

Now, this $e_i B_j$ it has, this dot product has one index that is repeated, Therefore, if I just remove the summation, I have one index that is repeated. If it is repeated, it represents a dot product and it has become a scalar. So, there is no unit vector associated with this particular index, because it has been repeated two times that means if the unit vectors associated with this have been dotted with each other. It had become a scalar. So, there is one summation, no unit vectors.

(Refer Slide Time: 09:37)

The slide contains the following handwritten text:

$$\delta_{ij} = 1 \text{ if } i=j$$

$$= 0 \text{ if } i \neq j$$

$$\underline{A} \cdot \underline{B} = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 A_i B_j \delta_{ij}$$

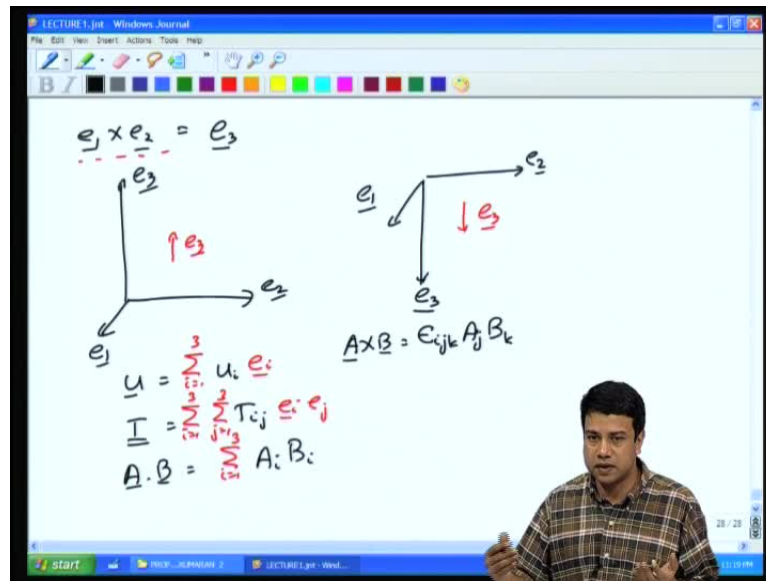
$$\underline{A} \times \underline{B} = \begin{vmatrix} \underline{e}_1 & \underline{e}_2 & \underline{e}_3 \\ A_1 & A_2 & A_3 \\ B_1 & B_2 & B_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \epsilon_{ijk} A_j B_k$$

$\epsilon_{ijk} = \text{Antisymmetric tensor}$
 $= 1 \text{ for } (ijk) = (123), (312), (231)$
 $= -1 \text{ for } (ijk) = (132), (321), (213)$
 $= 0 \text{ otherwise}$

And similarly, for this cross product I could once again remove the summation and the unit vector. So, in this expression there are three indices one of them is not repeated that means; there is a summation and a unit vector associated with that two of them are repeated. So, they represent dot products therefore, the resultant is a vector itself, the other thing that we had discussed in the last lecture was the concept of real and pseudo vectors.

(Refer Slide Time: 10:16)



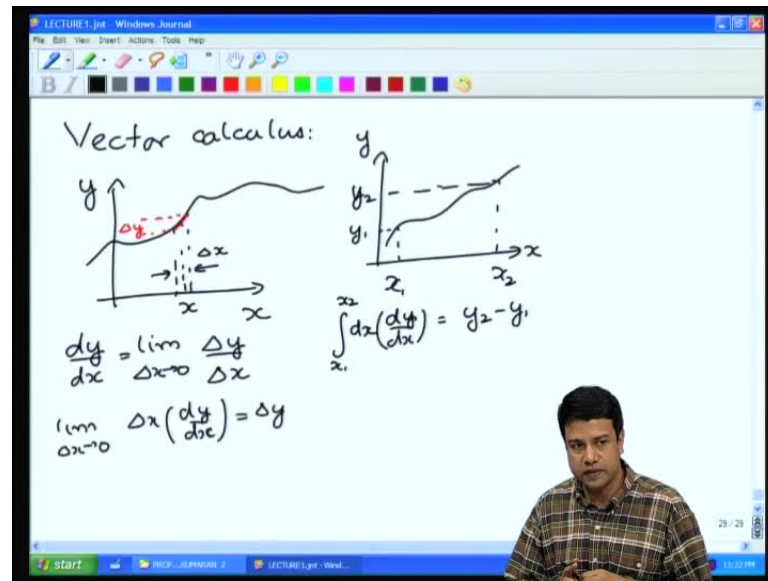
So, cross product between two vectors \underline{e}_1 cross \underline{e}_2 for example, you know that this is equal to \underline{e}_3 , the unit vector in the three direction. So, if I have using a right handed coordinate system, \underline{e}_1 \underline{e}_2 \underline{e}_3 . This cross product would be a vector in this direction, if I were using a left handed coordinate system. We are using a left handed coordinate system in that case this unit vector \underline{e}_3 would be in this direction. So, the result of a cross product depends up on the right or left handed coordinate system that you are using. If it depends up on the coordinate system that you are using it cannot be a real quantity.

For example, if I have some kind of a pipe with flow going through and look at the velocity at one particular point, that velocity cannot depend up on the coordinate system that you are using to analyze the problem. It is a real quantity whereas, you finding that the cross product depends up on the coordinate system that you are used. So, it cannot be a a real quantity, it is what is called a pseudo vector. So, the cross products of two real quantities, in the last class we taken the example of distance and force or displacement and force to give you the torque. Displacement is real; you can actually measure the displacement. It does not depend up on the coordinate system that you are using. Similarly, force also is real, so it depends it is an actual quantity; you can measure velocity, you can measure acceleration and you can measure the force. The cross product of the other hand the torque does depend up on the coordinate systems that you are using so it is not a real vector ok.

So, to briefly summarize the notational simplifications at the few things that we learnt in the last lecture, you will be representing vectors and tensors mostly in what is called indicial notation; that is for each fundamental direction. I do not mean the $e_1 e_2 e_3$ directions but, rather directions associated with physical quantities. The fundamental direction for velocity is associated with the direction of motion. For stress, there are two fundamental directions; one with the force, the other with the direction of the unit normal of the surface at which you are measuring the force. So, if each of these two fundamental directions, you have one unrepeated index. So, it will have the velocity vector. I will just write it as u_i . It is understood when there is an unrepeated index that there is a summation sign i is equal to 1 to 3, and there is a unit vector the stress for example, I will write it as T_{ij} . There are two unrepeated indices therefore, it is understood that there is i is equal to 1 to 3 $e_i e_j$; one repeated index represents a dot product. So, $A \cdot B$, we can just write it as $A_i B_i$.

There is one unrepeated index, I am sorry, there is one repeated index. Therefore, there is one summation, there is no unit vector, the index repeat is repeated two times. The cross product was also written in terms of dot products; so $A \times B$. it is know is it is nothing special, it can be just written as $\epsilon_{ijk} A_j B_k$ that is I have a third order tensor which I am dotting with two vectors. Each dot product reduces the order by one, because one repeat repeated index means, there is no unit vector for that index. There is second repeated index; there is no unit vector for that. Therefore, there is one unrepeated index and you get a vector, and think to be kept in mind is that is whenever you take cross products one has to be careful. Because you get a pseudo vector when you write an equation, the order of the vectors or tensors as well as the unrepeated indices in all terms in that equation have to be the same. You cannot equate a scalar to a vector for example, so these fundamental rules we can proceed with our discussion of vectors.

(Refer Slide Time: 15:29)

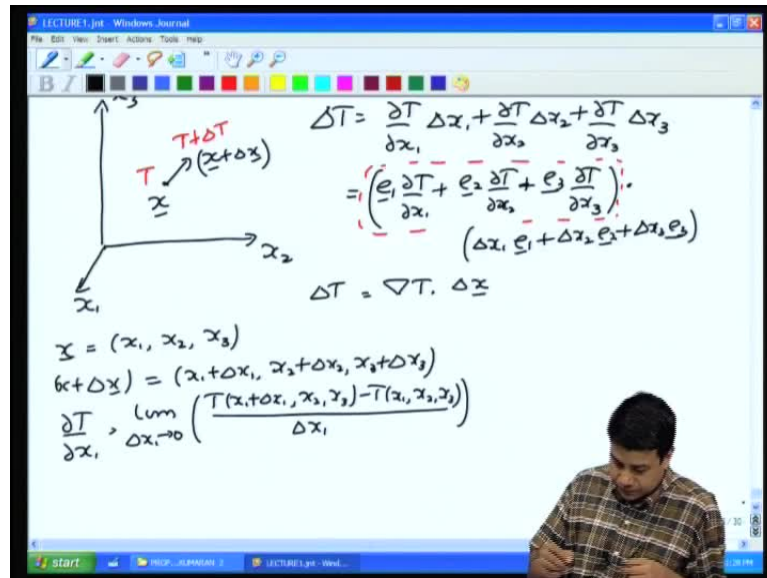


The next step is to go to look at vector calculus in vector calculus; there are quantities which are defined derivatives and integrals which are defined similarly, to what they are in scalar calculus. So, let us briefly review the kinds of how you define the derivative in just a scalar function. If I have some function y as a function of x . It is a single valued function that means that each value of x , there is only one value of y ; have some function and if I want to find out what is the derivative at one particular point in it. I take a small interval, so I want to find out what is the derivative at this particular location x . I take a small interval, Δx around this point x .

For this small interval Δx , find out what is the difference in y when I have notice travel a small distance Δx . I wrote the difference in the y coordinate, and if I take the ratio Δy by Δx around this point. I keep making the interval smaller and smaller, and in the limit as the interval goes to 0 as Δx goes to 0; Δy will also go to 0. But, the ratio itself will have a finite value. So, if I take the limit as Δx goes to 0; Δy will also go to 0 but, the ratio will have a finite value that is the let derivative dy by dx , so that is how the derivative is defined. Now, the equivalent integral relation in, in simple calculus just to reverse it that if I have two, two locations x_1 x_2 y_2 and y_1 . I know that the integral the area under the curve $\int dx$ times the derivative between x_1 and x_2 is equal to y_2 minus y_1 . So, that is the integral equivalent of this derivative. In the case of vectors and tensors, we would like to derive similar relationships for derivatives and integrals except that; you know have vectors which are varying in three

spatial coordinates. The relationships themselves will be similar. So, what this is saying is in the limit of delta going, limit of delta x going to 0 of delta x times d y by d x that is the derivative times the distance traveled, it is equal to the change in the function y. the derivative times the distance traveled is equal to the change in the distance y.

(Refer Slide Time: 19:08)



So, let us look at our first vector derivative. Let us say that I have a 3 dimensional space in which there is a temperature, which is varying in somewhere with position in this three dimensional space. The temperature in a room for example, it is it is varying at; it has different values at different locations. Let us say I am sitting at the point x , x vector and from this point I go a small distance in away; keep to a new location x plus delta x , where x is equal to x_1, x_2, x_3 that is three components x_1, x_2 and x_3 , and x plus delta x also has three components that is x_1 plus delta x_1, x_2 plus delta x_2, x_3 plus delta x_3 .

Now, at this particular location, the temperature has some value T and at this new location, it has some other value T plus delta T . There is a temperature at T at the location x is T , and the temperature of the location x plus delta x is T plus delta T . Similar to what we had in the previous example, the value of the function y has one value at x and it has some other value at x plus delta x in one dimension. So, what is the difference in temperature as you go a small distance delta x . It is an easy thing to do. Delta T is equal to partial T by partial x_1 delta x_1 plus partial T by partial x_2 delta x_2

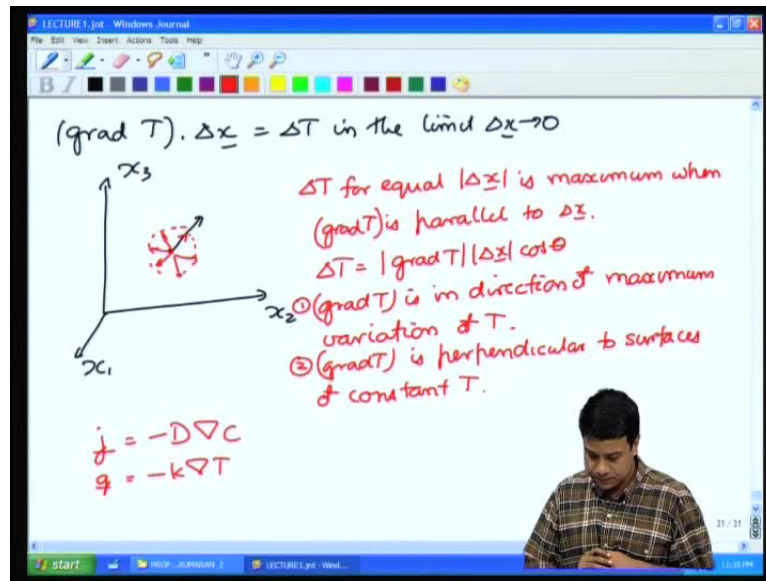
plus partial T by partial x 3 delta x 3. There is a difference in temperature when you gone a small distance delta x in one particular direction. Note partial derivatives may take the derivative with respect to x 1. Let me just write it down out for you here partial T by partial x 1 is equal to limit as delta x 1 goes to 0 of T of x 1 plus delta x 1 x 2 x 3 minus T of x 1 x 2 x 3 the whole thing divided by delta x 1. So, when you take the partial derivative, you keep the other two coordinates exactly the same.

So, that is meaning of the partial derivative. So, this is delta T, I can write it in vector form in this particular manner e 1 partial T by partial x 1 plus e 2 partial T by partial x 2 plus e 3 times dotted with, dotted with delta x 1 e 1 plus delta x 2 e 2 plus delta x 3 e 3. It is a dot product of this displacement vector, delta x vector dotted with this quantity here, and this is what is called the gradient of the temperature; gradient of the temperature dotted with delta x.

So, this is delta T, note that it is very similar to what we had in one dimensional calculus, delta x times d y by d x is equal to delta y; delta T is equal to grad T dotted with delta x. So, this basically tells you, if am looking, if I am sitting at some particular position in space and I move a small distance in some direction. What is going to be the change in temperature when I move that small distance? Note that this grad T itself is a vector which is defined that each and every point in space, grad T itself is a vector which is defined at each and every point in space in this particular case, because I was using this coordinate system, I had defined it in terms of the derivatives in this coordinate system however this vector grad T so.

So if I if I sit at one particular location and move a small distance to some other location delta x; the delta T that I get should be independent of coordinate system that I am using to analyze the problem. Therefore, grad T itself the vector should be independent of the coordinate system that I am using to analyze the problem. In some other coordinate system, partial T by partial x 1 partial T by partial x 2 and partial T by partial x 3 will change. But the vector grad T will remain the same. It will have magnitude and direction. The magnitude is independent of coordinative system; the direction is independent of coordinative system. Therefore, this is a vector property of this temperature field, the gradient of the temperature field so for our definition of gradient.

(Refer Slide Time: 25:03)



The gradient is defined as $\text{grad } T$. This is a vector dotted with Δx is equal to ΔT . In all directions for any Δx , so why did I take the limit as Δx goes to 0; in the limit as the Δx vector, the magnitude of the vector goes to 0; $\text{grad } T \cdot \Delta x$ is always equal to ΔT . ΔT the change in temperature when I go a small distance is equal to the gradient of T . The vector which is defined at each point in space dotted with the displacement that I have under gone. So, there is a first of all vector derivatives, the gradient, the gradient is the first of all vector derivatives. It has certain implications; so as I said the $\text{grad } T$ is a vector.

So, it is a vector at each location pointing in some direction; it has dimensions of temperature divided by displacement, temperature divided by distance. It is $\text{grad } T$ times of distance is equal to change in temperature. It has some direction, and let us say exact at this particular point and I fix the distance that I am going to travel; I fix the distance that I have going to travel; I fix the distance time that I am going to traveled but, not the direction. So, I fix the distance that I have going to travel and I travel in various directions; equal distance in various directions. I travel in equal distance in various directions, and I measure what is ΔT when I travel that distance that T at the final position; minus T at the initial position. What is the different ΔT ?

Now, this difference ΔT , this difference ΔT for equal magnitudes of the distance traveled; ΔT for equal magnitudes with the distance traveled is maximum when grad

T is parallel to Δx . You know that that the ΔT is equal to $\text{grad } T$ dotted with Δx . Let me write this as the gradient here system to avoid confusion; $\text{grad } T$ is a vector when it is parallel to Δx . You get the maximum change in temperature; because obviously, ΔT is going to be equal to magnitude of $\text{grad } T$, magnitude of Δx times $\cos \theta$, where the two are parallel; θ is equal to 0, and therefore, ΔT is a maximum. That means that $\text{grad } T$ is in direction of maximum variation of T that means that $\text{grad } T$ is in the direction; it points out the direction in which the temperature variation is a maximum so that is a physical significance of $\text{grad } T$.

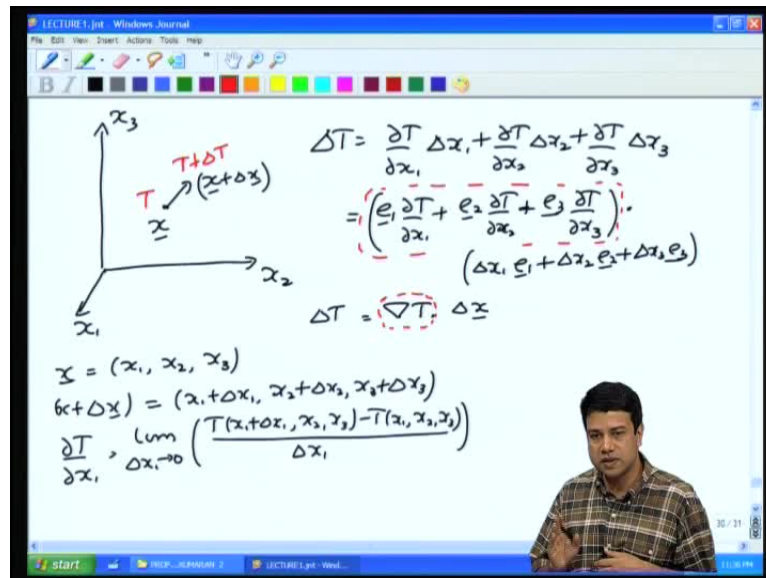
As I go in various directions at a point, I go in equal distance in all these various directions. In the direction, where the displacement vector and $\text{grad } T$ are in the same direction, you will get the maximum variation in temperature. Of course, in one direction, you get the maximum positive variation when θ is equal to 0; other direction, you will get the maximum negative variation when θ is equal to π . So, that $\cos \theta$ is minus 1. But, anyway gives you the direction in which temperature is varying by a maximum amount. So, that is the physical significance, the first one physical significance $\text{grad } T$. The second is that if I go along directions which are perpendicular to $\text{grad } T$; if I go along the direction which is perpendicular to $\text{grad } T$, I will get 0 variation; that means that the temperature is a variation is 0 in the plane perpendicular to $\text{grad } T$. Because, $\text{grad } T$ dotted with Δx is equal to 0; that means the temperature is a constant in the plane perpendicular to $\text{grad } T$.

If in a other way, $\text{grad } T$ is perpendicular this I am sorry is perpendicular to surfaces of constant T . So, $\text{grad } T$ is perpendicular to surfaces of constant T . If you are travel in the direction perpendicular to $\text{grad } T$. At a given location, the direction perpendicular is this a plane but, $\text{grad } T$ itself can vary with location, and so there therein the direction that the the surface perpendicular to $\text{grad } T$ is the surface on which temperature is a constant. So, these are the physical significances is of the gradient of a function. It need not be temperature; it can be any function, pressure, concentration, any function.

The gradient of that function is along the direction of maximum variation of that function and it is perpendicular to the direction is along which that function is a constant, particularly useful for constitutive relations that we had seen in part one for the mass and heat transfer. If you recall we had that the flux mass flux j is equal to minus $D \text{ grad } c$. The vector direction $\text{grad } c$ is the direction along which there is maximum variation of

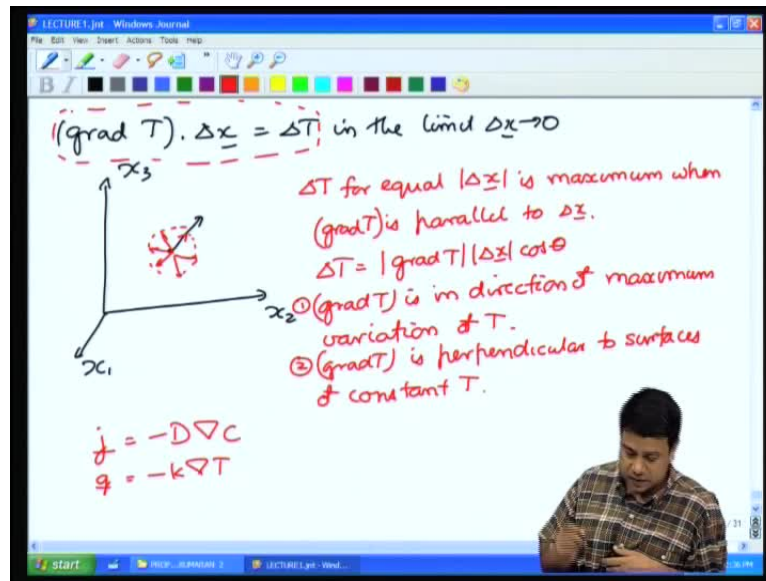
concentration and it is perpendicular to to surfaces of concentration; that means if the mass flux is taking place along direction of maximum variation of the concentration field. Similarly, the heat flux q is equal to minus k grad T . Each flux is a vector, it was parallel to the gradient of temperature; the vector which is the gradient of temperature so that is the gradient of a function.

(Refer Slide Time: 32:02)



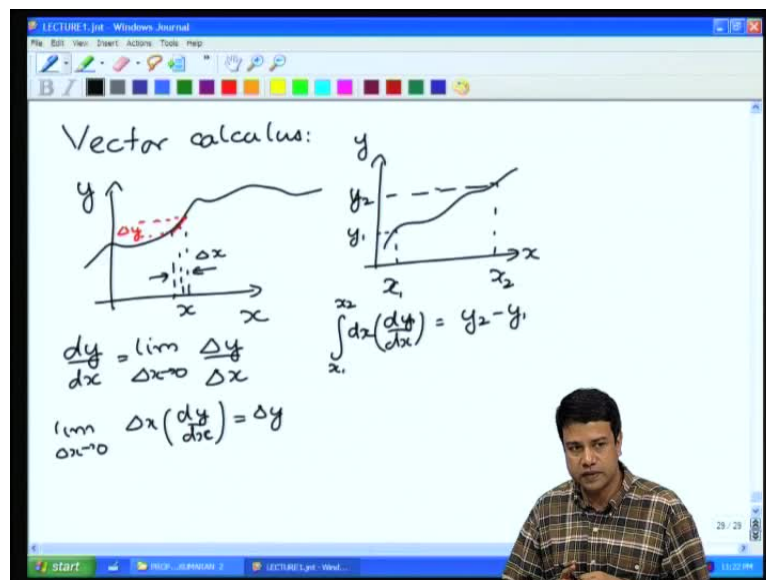
If I write it in long hand notation here is just equal to e_1 partial T by partial x_1 plus e_2 partial T by partial x_2 plus e_3 partial T by partial x_3 . In this orthogonal coordinate system but, this quantity itself has a identity independent of coordinative systems here. So, vector which always points in the, it is a single valued vector which always points in the direction of maximum variation of that function, and it is perpendicular to a surface of constant value of that function.

(Refer Slide Time: 32:30)



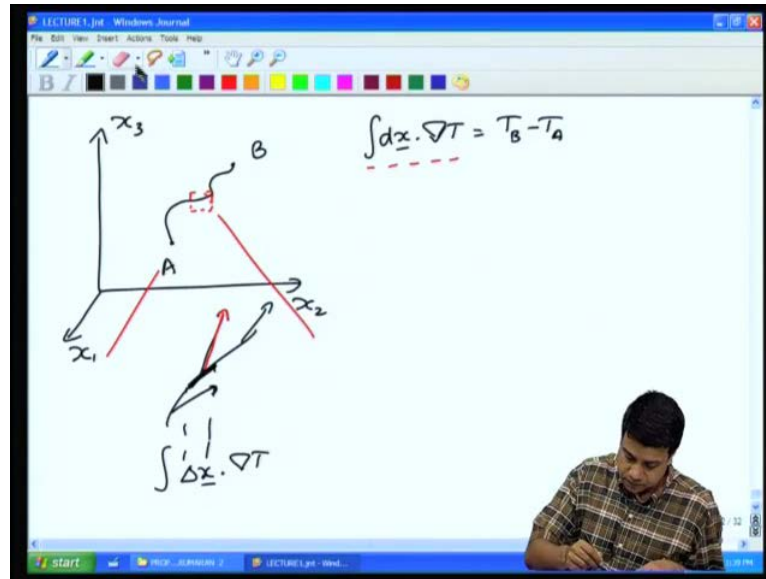
So, this is the derivative, the definition of the derivative, the definition of the integral is the inverse of this one.

(Refer Slide Time: 15:29)



So, if you recall when I made the analogy for the derivative for a single valued function I said that $d y$ by $d x$ is equal to limit as Δx goes to 0 of Δy by Δx . The inverse of that is the integral the difference in the value between two end points, difference in the value between two end points is equal to the integral of this derivative.

(Refer Slide Time: 33:13)



Similar, thing can be done for gradients and the integral equivalent of this is as follows. So, if I have two points A and B, and if I along these two points by some path, go by some point path from A to B. What the integral relations says is? That integral along this path of $d\mathbf{x} \cdot \text{grad } T$ is equal to the difference, the temperatures between these two end points; that is if I take so, what is what is this left hand side mean just look at that; so I am taking some path, and along at some location along this path. I have this line element this. If I just increase this, I have this line element along this path; I will make in black; I have this line element and everywhere along this path.

I also have the gradient of the temperature field that is defined. So, gradient of the temperature field, here maybe in this direction, here may be in this direction and so on. So, at this particular point, I take a unit vector displacement, this is the vector displacement $\Delta \mathbf{x}$ vector along this point. I take the unit the vector displacement $\Delta \mathbf{x}$ vector dotted with $\text{grad } T$. So, this is a displacement vector; this is the $\text{grad } T$ vector. So, this is the $\text{grad } T$ vector and this is the displacement vector, and I take $\Delta \mathbf{x} \cdot \text{grad } T$ then sum that up, all the way from the initial to the final location and I get $T_B - T_A$. So, that is the integral relationship for $\text{grad } T$.

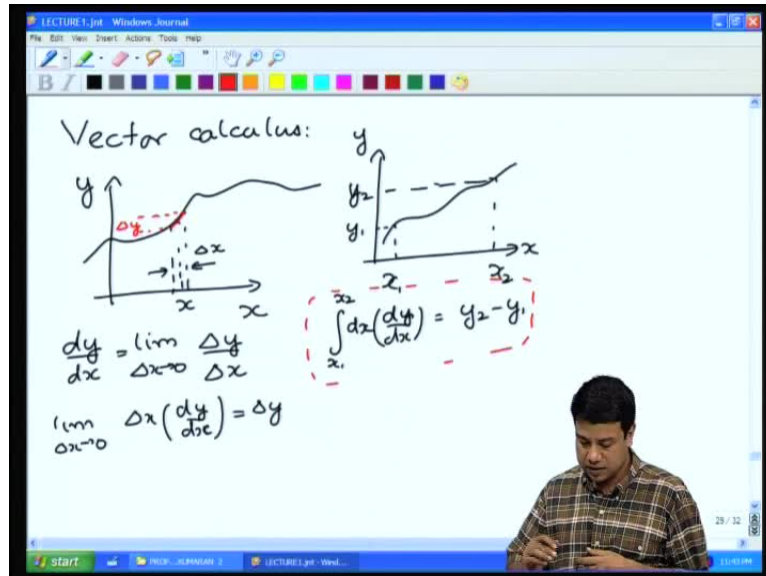
(Refer Slide Time: 35:13)

Let us justify how that works? Why do you get this integral relationship for grad T? So, I have this path between the two locations and I can divide into small little bits. So, this path I divide into small little bits. So, this is x_A , this is x_1 , x_2 etcetera x_N in the next bit, I divide into small little bits. This integral of $d\mathbf{x} \cdot \nabla T$. I can write as a summation of $\nabla T \cdot \Delta \mathbf{x}_i$, i is equal to 1 to N , where $\Delta \mathbf{x}_i$ is the displacement vector for each of these intervals; $\Delta \mathbf{x}_1$ is between x_A and x_1 , $\Delta \mathbf{x}_2$ is between x_1 and x_2 and so on. So, this equal to $\Delta \mathbf{x}_1 \cdot \nabla T|_{x_1} + \Delta \mathbf{x}_2 \cdot \nabla T|_{x_2} + \dots + \Delta \mathbf{x}_N \cdot \nabla T|_{x_N}$. Now, each of these individual quantities, each of these individual quantities is related to the difference in temperature between the end points. By this relationship $\nabla T \cdot \Delta \mathbf{x}_i$ at any point is equal to the difference in temperature between the final and the initial location ok, $\nabla T \cdot \Delta \mathbf{x}_i$ if I moved to some displacement, so difference in temperature between the final and the initial location.

So, this can be written as $T(x_1) - T(x_A)$ that is for the first interval; for the second interval I get $T(x_2) - T(x_1)$ plus etcetera plus plus $T(x_N) - T(x_{N-1})$ plus $T(x_B) - T(x_N)$. So, I have just expanded out and you can see that in this first term I have $T(x_1)$; second term I have minus $T(x_1)$. So, these two will cancel out, then the second term I will have $T(x_2)$ that will cancel out $T(x_2)$ with $T(x_2)$ minus $T(x_2)$ for the third interval, $T(x_1)$ will cancel out to $T(x_N) - T(x_N)$ for this final interval, and finally, I will just be left with $T(x_B) - T(x_A)$ that is the

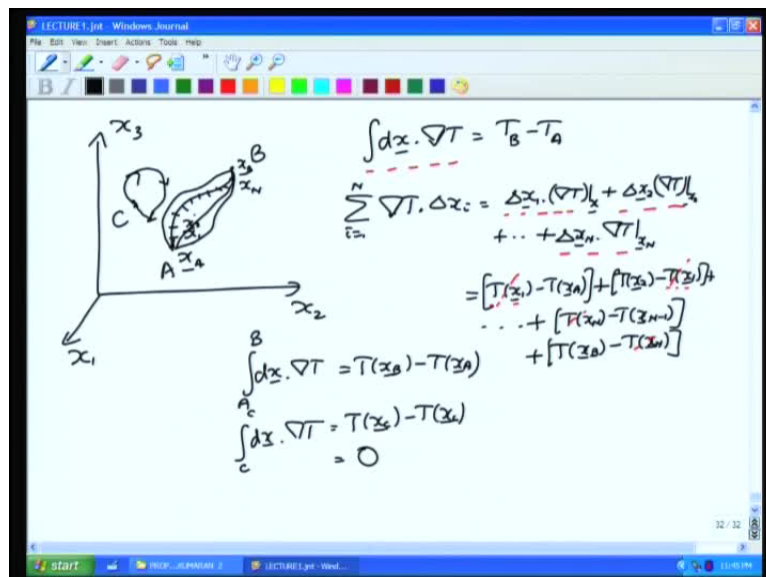
difference in the temperature at the two end points. Let me just write it clear and clear for you that is the difference in temperature between the two end points, very similar to the integral expression that I had previously ok.

(Refer Slide Time: 39:08)



Very similar to this one, I am sorry; very similar to this integral expression except that what we have derived now is in three dimensions, for three dimensional displacements what we have derived is delta x dotted with grad T between two end points and that has certain consequences.

(Refer Slide Time: 39:32)

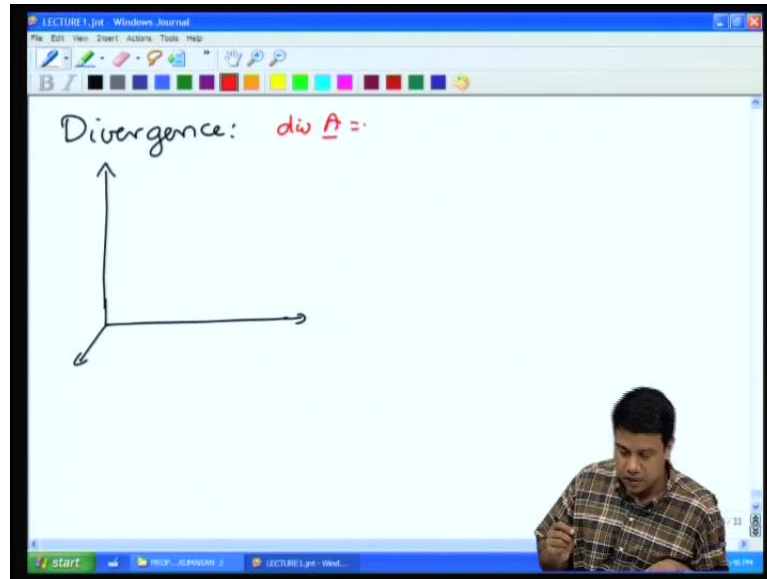


One of the consequences is, So, the relation that I have desired for you was that integral $\int dx \cdot \text{grad } T$ is equal to this between A and B. One of the consequences is that T of x B minus T of x A depends only up on the end points, and that means that this integral $\int dx \cdot \text{grad } T$ has to be the same, if the end points are the same regardless of the path that you take, that means that I have to get the same result, whether I go this way or I go this way or I go that way or I go by some other path. So, I have to get the same result regardless of what path that I take for this integral so that is one consequence.

The second consequence is that if I start somewhere and go around and come back to the same location. If I started some point C, go around and come back to the same location, integral between the same end points is T at x C minus T at x C. This has to be 0, by this is second consequence. If you go in a path that ends at the same location that you started integral $\int dx \cdot \text{grad } T$ has to be equal to 0. So, that is a second consequence of this, so the this is in general more powerful than just the one dimensional gradient vector, I am sorry one dimensional derivative.

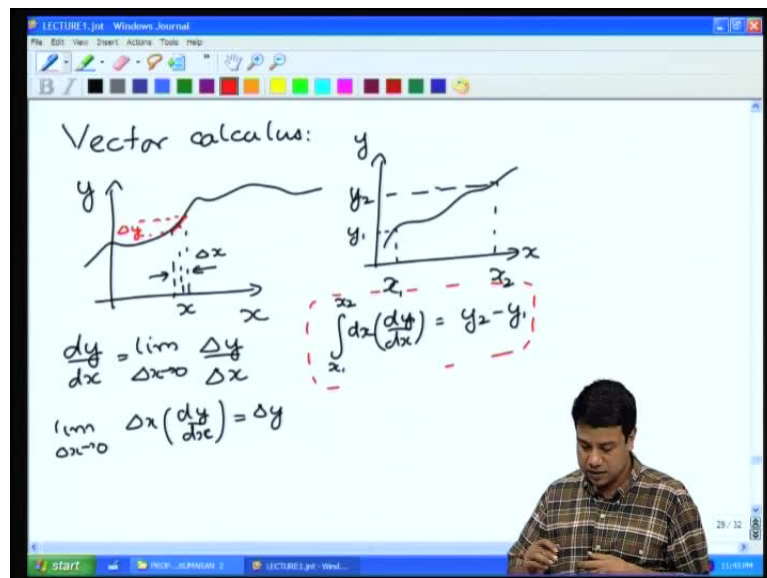
So, to briefly summarize the gradient of a vector, I am sorry the gradient of a, of a scalar quantity is a vector; directed in the direction of maximum variation of that quantity perpendicular to surfaces on which that quantity is a constant to a temperature field, concentration field and so on; and the integral relation for that is that if you go around, if you go from location A to location B along any path and take the integral of $\int dx \cdot \text{grad } T$ along that path. It is always equal to the difference T_B minus T_A . So, the difference in temperature is equal to the integral along that path is the same on any path that you take, and if you start from one location and come back to the same location; integral of $\int dx \cdot \text{grad } T$ has to be equal to 0.

(Refer Slide Time: 42:16)



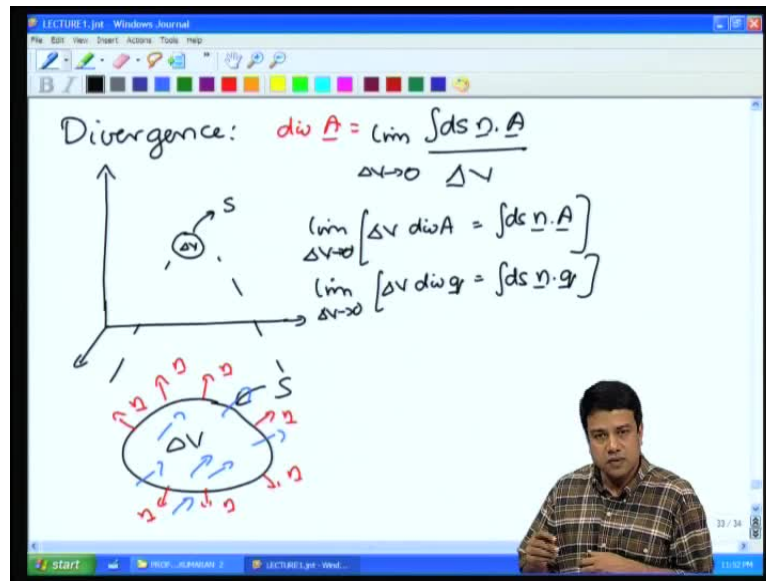
So, the next quantity that we will do is the divergence. The divergences as you know action of scalar, I am sorry action of vector, divergence of A and it gets your scalar and how do you define the divergence.

(Refer Slide Time: 39:08)



In one dimensional calculus, we defined the derivative by taking the smaller interval moving the small distance; taking the difference in the dependent variable as a function of the distance of the of the interval in the independent variable.

(Refer Slide Time: 43:13)



The divergence is formally defined as, what I need to do is? I need to construct a small differential volume ΔV with a surface of this volume is S . So, let me just expand it out little, by the scalar what I mean expand it out, I have this differential volume V . The surface of this volume is S . At each point along the surface, I have some unit normal vector perpendicular to the surface. This unit normal is defined as the outward unit normal. It is directed outward to the surface, and this divergence is defined for this vector as integral over the surface of $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{A}$ divided by ΔV ; in the limit as ΔV equals to 0. So, this is a quantity which is defined at each point within the field.

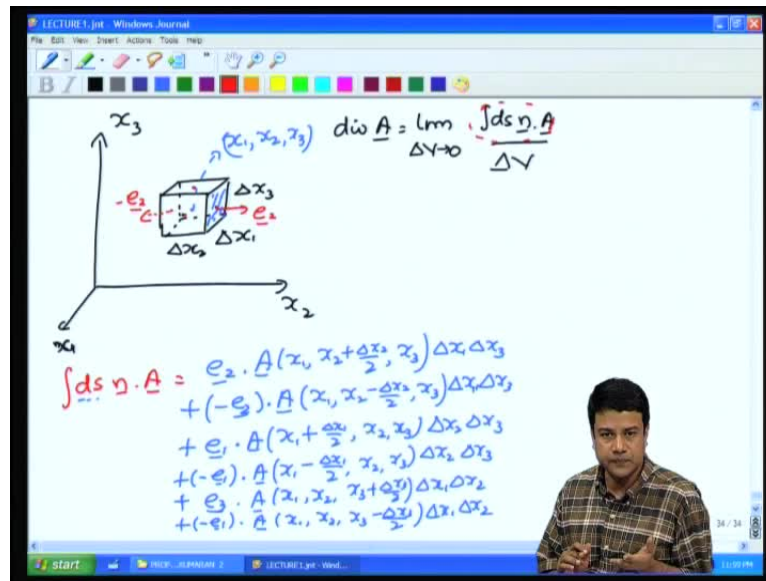
So, for example, if I have a flux vector or a velocity vector, the divergence of that flux vector is defined at each point within the field. Divergence construct a small volume at that point; the volume has a surface S ; on that surface at every point on the surface is defined the unit normal outward, unit normal \mathbf{n} . You take that outward unit normal multiplied dotted with this vector \mathbf{A} . This vector \mathbf{A} is once again defined at each point during the field. It dotted with this vector \mathbf{A} integrate over the surface and divide by the volume. In the limit as a volume become smaller and smaller this quantity will converge to finite value. The volume itself will go to 0; surface area will also go to 0 but, the ratio of these will converge to a finite value and that is what is called the divergence of \mathbf{A} . Note that I have taken $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{A}$, therefore, what I end of is with is a scalar divergence of \mathbf{A} is a scalar.

The other thing to notice on the numerator, I have $\int dS \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{A}$ that means that the numerator has dimensions of surface area times \mathbf{A} , the denominator has dimensions of volume. Therefore, the ratio has dimensions of \mathbf{A} divide by length. Physically this is of course, this divergence so, if I write this in another way to make the physical interpretation clear. In the limit as ΔV goes to 0, I have ΔV times divergence of \mathbf{A} is equal to $\int dS \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{A}$, $\int dS \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{A}$ is equal to ΔV times the divergence of \mathbf{A} . So, for this particular differential volume, if \mathbf{A} were for example, the heat flux, if \mathbf{A} were for example, the heat flux $\int dS \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{A}$, $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{A}$ is the flux outward along the outward unit normal at the surface; that is the amount of material coming out of the surface per unit area, that I am integrating over the entire surface.

So, let me just write this to give a better physical understanding, ΔV divergence of \mathbf{q} is equal to $\int dS \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{q}$, \mathbf{q} is the heat flux; heat coming out per unit area per unit time; $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{q}$ is the total heat coming out of the surface. It is the component of \mathbf{q} that is parallel to the surface does not come out. Only the component that is perpendicular to the surface is leaving the surface. Therefore, $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{q}$ is the amount of heat coming out of the surface per unit area per unit time. I have integrated this over the surface area. So, $\int dS \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{q}$ is the total amount of heat coming out of the surface per unit area per unit time. Total amount of heat coming out per unit area per unit time is equal to the divergence of \mathbf{q} times the volume itself.

So, that is a physical interpretation, the divergence of \mathbf{q} is equal to the amount of heat coming out multiplied, so divergence of \mathbf{q} multiplied by the small differential volume. It is equal to the total amount of heat that is coming out of this surface. You will see an integral relation of this a little later which will make the physical interpretation. So, how do we relate this to the partial derivatives that we had in the definition of the gradient value. So, in order to find out the formula for the divergence in specific coordinate system what we need to do is to construct the differential volume in that coordinate system. Calculate the divergence for that differential volume.

(Refer Slide Time: 49:01)



So, let us do that first for the Cartesian coordinate system, I construct the small differential volume with surfaces along directions of constant coordinate. So, it has delta x_1 in the x_1 direction; delta x_2 in the x_2 direction; delta x_3 in the x_3 direction. Divergence of A is equal to limit as delta V goes to 0, integral $ds \, n \cdot A$ divided by delta V . For this particular case, delta V is equal to delta x_1 times delta x_2 times delta x_3 , and this cubic volume has six surfaces; one two of which are perpendicular to the x_1 direction; two are perpendicular to the x_2 direction, and two are perpendicular to the x_3 direction, and I have to calculate $n \cdot A$ over each of these.

So, further surface that is perpendicular to the x_2 direction. There are two surfaces that occur to in each direction for the surface that is perpendicular to the x_2 direction, the outward unit normal is in the plus x_2 direction. So, we have to normalize e_2 . So, if I calculate this integral $ds \, n \cdot A$ for this surface in the plus x_2 direction. So, I am constructing my volume around the center point here. Let us call this center point as $x_1 \times x_2 \times x_3$. So, because the center point is at $x_1 \times x_2$ and x_3 ; the surface on the right is at $x_1 \times x_2$ plus delta x_2 by 2 and x_3 .

So, this surface here is at $x_1 \times x_2$ plus delta x_2 by 2 and x_3 . So, that from the right hand side, I have e_2 dotted with A vector at $x_1 \times x_2$ plus delta x_2 by 2 $\times x_3$ that is for the surface on the right times the area itself. The area of the surfaces delta x_1 delta x_3 , the area of the surface delta x_1 delta x_3 , because it is perpendicular to the x_2 direction. For

the surface on the left, the unit normal is in the minus e_2 direction, because the unit normal for that surface. The outward unit normal is pointing in the minus e_2 directions. For the surface on the left, the outward unit normal is pointing in the minus e_2 directions. So, I will have minus e_2 dotted with A at $x_1 \times x_2 \text{ minus } \Delta x_2 \text{ by } 2 \times x_3$ times $\Delta x_1 \Delta x_3$.

So, the six surfaces that this volume has, this is for the first two surfaces perpendicular to the x_2 coordinate; they have unit normals in the plus e_2 and minus e_2 direction. And then you have two surfaces which are perpendicular to the x_1 direction that is the front and the back; along the front surface, the front surface is located at $x_1 \text{ plus } \Delta x_1 \text{ by } 2 \times x_2 \times x_3$; the back surface is at $x_1 \text{ minus } \Delta x_1 \text{ by } 2 \times x_2 \text{ and } x_3$. For the front surface, the unit normal is along the e_1 direction dotted with A at $x_1 \text{ plus } \Delta x_1 \text{ by } 2 \times x_2 \times x_3$ times the area perpendicular to the x_1 direction. So, the area is $\Delta x_2 \Delta x_3$ and then I have the back surface at which, the unit normal is in the minus e_1 direction at the surface of the back.

So, I will take plus minus e_1 dotted with A at $x_1 \text{ minus } \Delta x_1 \text{ by } 2 \times x_2 \times x_3$ and then I have top and bottom surfaces, they are perpendicular to the x_3 plane. So, the unit normal of the top surface is plus e_3 ; surface is located at $x_1 \times x_2 \times x_3 \text{ plus } \Delta x_3 \text{ by } 2$. Similarly, the bottom surface, the unit normal is in minus e_3 direction, surface is located as $x_1 \times x_2 \text{ and } x_3 \text{ minus } \Delta x_3 \text{ by } 2$. It is the straight forward extension of what I have just direct field. So that is only this path alone. Now, I have to divide by ΔV . I can simplify this as you can see this $e_2 \cdot A$ is just e_2 ; the component in the x_2 direction of the vector A . Similarly, minus $e_2 \cdot A$ is minus e_2 . So, I can simplify that.

(Refer Slide Time: 55:34)

$$\begin{aligned} \int ds \cdot \underline{n} \cdot \underline{A} &= \Delta x_1 \Delta x_3 \left[A_2(x_1, x_2 + \frac{\Delta x_2}{2}, x_3) - A_2(x_1, x_2 - \frac{\Delta x_2}{2}, x_3) \right] \\ &\quad + \Delta x_2 \Delta x_3 \left[A_1(x_1 + \frac{\Delta x_1}{2}, x_2, x_3) - A_1(x_1 - \frac{\Delta x_1}{2}, x_2, x_3) \right] \\ &\quad + \Delta x_1 \Delta x_2 \left[A_3(x_1, x_2, x_3 + \frac{\Delta x_3}{2}) - A_3(x_1, x_2, x_3 - \frac{\Delta x_3}{2}) \right] \\ \frac{\int ds \cdot \underline{n} \cdot \underline{A}}{\Delta V} &= \frac{A_2(x_1, x_2 + \frac{\Delta x_2}{2}, x_3) - A_2(x_1, x_2 - \frac{\Delta x_2}{2}, x_3)}{\Delta x_2} \\ &\quad + \frac{A_1(x_1 + \frac{\Delta x_1}{2}, x_2, x_3) - A_1(x_1 - \frac{\Delta x_1}{2}, x_2, x_3)}{\Delta x_1} \\ &\quad + \frac{A_3(x_1, x_2, x_3 + \frac{\Delta x_3}{2}) - A_3(x_1, x_2, x_3 - \frac{\Delta x_3}{2})}{\Delta x_3} \\ &= \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial A_3}{\partial x_3} \end{aligned}$$

So, this becomes is equal to delta x 1 delta x 3 into A 2 at x 1 x 2 plus delta x 2 by 2 x 3 plus delta x 2 delta x 3 into A 1 at x 1 plus delta x 1 by 2 plus delta x 1 delta x 2 A 3. Now, I have to divide by a volume. Volume is delta x 1 delta x 2 delta x 3. So, divide the whole thing by delta x 1 delta x 2 delta x 3. So, I get integral d s n dot A divided by delta V is equal to and I divide throughout by delta x 1 delta x 2 delta x 3; the delta x 1 and delta x 3 over here will cancel out. We get this whole thing by delta x 2 plus. So, when I take the limit delta x 1 delta x 2 delta x 3 going to 0. This just becomes partial A 2 by partial x 2 plus partial A 1 by partial x 1 plus partial A 3 by partial x 3 so that is the divergence in a Cartesian coordinate system.

Now, I have to derive for you integral relation for this the divergence that we will continue in the next lecture. In the mean time please go through out, we have done in this class before coming for the next class; I will briefly revise what has been done here. So, that there is some continuity and then we will proceed from here to defined divergence, its integral relation curl and its integral relation as well we will derive these formulas in a Cartesian coordinate system for the present. But as we proceed, I will also show you have to derive it in other coordinates systems, we had done it previously when we did mass and energy conservation equations, we did these things, we did balances and we got out certain quantities and said these. Those were the divergences is gradients, and so on this is a more systematic way to end it and we will go throw this in detail before we proceed to to the fluid mechanics. So, we will see in the next lecture.