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# Field Analysis and Electromagnetics

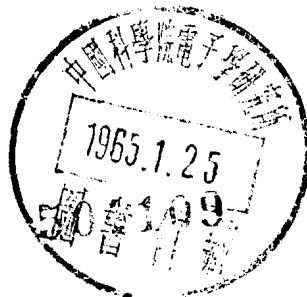
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## FIELD ANALYSIS AND ELECTROMAGNETICS

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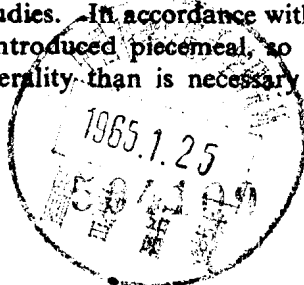
# Preface

This text contains sufficient material for a three-term, three-hour-per-week course. It is, however, primarily intended for a two-term undergraduate course in which the individual instructor may choose from among a variety of optional topics for detailed treatment. If the student has had prior training in advanced calculus (or if the text is used for graduate studies), it may be possible to treat the first four chapters as review material, with emphasis placed on the physical interpretation of mathematical relations. Such a review will also serve the purpose of familiarizing the reader with the notation introduced in these chapters and used throughout the text.

Depending on the requirement of the undergraduate curriculum, many sections and some of the proofs may be omitted to provide shorter courses. These sections and proofs are marked, and their omission does not break the continuity of the text. In most cases we have first stated what is to be proved before proceeding to prove it. This makes it possible to use the text with varying degrees of mathematical involvement. The authors have found that the availability of detailed derivation in the text makes it possible to use the classroom hours for a discussion of the physical significance of the results and for problem solving, rather than for a reproduction of the derivations.

The problems given at the end of the text are designed to complement and extend the text material. For this reason they are numbered by chapter, section, and problem. For example, Prob. 1-4.3 deals with material discussed in Sec. 1-4 and is the third such problem. This numbering will assist the reader in locating the pertinent discussion. Throughout the text the rationalized mks-coulomb system of units is used and, for brevity, units of various quantities are not always explicitly stated.

The principal motivation for writing this text is best understood in terms of our objections to some of the currently available treatments of the subject. Although many undergraduate texts in electromagnetics have been published during the past decade, most of these are written with the idea that field theory is really graduate material and that there is no need to deal with it in depth at the undergraduate level. The courses based on such texts include only that mathematical preparation which is essential to solve the problems at hand; they do not provide the student with reasonable preparation for graduate studies. In accordance with this philosophy, the laws of electromagnetic theory are introduced piecemeal, so that the student does not learn a law in any greater generality than is necessary to solve the next set of problems.



Because of the lack of depth in such courses, most graduate schools have to start their field analysis and electromagnetic theory from “scratch,” ignoring the undergraduate training of students. In fact, it is not an unusual experience to find such a training a hindrance rather than a help to graduate studies, inasmuch as some of the oversimplified concepts learned in undergraduate studies must be unlearned before more exact concepts can replace them. Furthermore, the low level of analysis currently prevalent in undergraduate courses in electromagnetic theory is inconsistent with the fact that in many schools advanced calculus is now taught to engineering students.

Notwithstanding this background in advanced calculus, it has been our experience that the formal approach of mathematics courses does not adequately prepare the student for the application of this material to physical problems. For this reason we have found it necessary to devote the first five chapters of the text to field analysis, in which we introduce the concepts of divergence, curl, and laplacian, not as mere differential operators, but as volume densities of the sources of a field. Similarly, a uniqueness theorem is treated not only as a mathematical structure but also as an expression of what constitutes physical determinism. We have found this approach most effective with students whether or not they have taken a course in advanced calculus.

In addition to the preparation for the study of electromagnetics, the first five chapters provide a self-contained and sound basis for the mathematical analysis of all kinds of fields and should prove valuable to physicists and mechanical, chemical, and civil engineers as well as electrical engineers.

With the introduction of the general concepts of fields and their sources, it is possible to state the laws of electromagnetic theory in an integrated manner. This is done in Chapter 6 where, in addition to Maxwell's equations, the concepts of energy conservation (Poynting's theorem) and electromagnetic momentum, as well as electromagnetic waves and potentials, are introduced. This chapter is a complete statement of the classical laws of electromagnetic theory, and the rest of the text is concerned with developing the ramifications of the theory and with its application to practical problems. Chapter 7 is devoted to introducing the technique of multipole expansion and the use of electric and magnetic multipole approximations. Chapter 8 deals, in detail, with the consequences of idealizations made in practice, where distributed charges and currents are assumed to be singular in the form of surface or line densities or point sources. This and the assumption of abrupt boundaries between two media lead to (nonphysical) discontinuities in the electric and magnetic fields at the idealized boundaries. The chapter shows how these idealizations are used to solve practical problems. The use of the Green's function and the concepts of coefficients of inductance and capacitance are also introduced in this chapter. Chapter 9 contains a detailed discussion of the method of separation of variables as applied to the solution of boundary-value problems. Also included in this chapter are numerical and graphical methods for solving problems whose boundaries do not permit direct analysis. Some microscopic properties of matter are considered in Chapter 10. In Chapter 11, radiating fields are introduced by means of a discussion of the elementary dipole antenna. Radiating fields are then contrasted with quasi-static fields—leading to a discussion of the field basis of circuit theory. Chapter 12 contains a comprehensive analysis of plane waves and applies this analysis to the study of transmission lines and waveguides. The general relationships between the

transverse and longitudinal components of a plane wave derived in this chapter provide the basis for the study of guides of arbitrary cross section, although only rectangular guides are treated in detail.

Chapter 13 is an introduction to propagation in lossy media; it ends with a discussion of dispersion due to lossiness of the medium as well as geometric and parametric dispersion. Chapter 14 deals with the reflection of plane waves and the exchange of momentum between an electromagnetic field and a material medium. Chapter 15 uses the formulas derived in Chapter 11 as a basis for analyzing radiation from linear and loop antennas. This final chapter concludes with a discussion of antenna arrays and receiving antennas.

The material of this text has been taught by the authors and some of their colleagues from notes for the last three years at The City College of New York.

The authors wish to thank Professor John Truxal, Vice President in charge of Education at the Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn, for his encouragement and help throughout the preparation of the manuscript. Thanks are also due to our Department Chairman, Professor Herbert Taub, for his cooperation. The authors have benefited from long discussions with many of our colleagues—most particularly, with Professor Egon Brenner of The City College and Professor Leonard Bergstein of the Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn. Words cannot express the depth of our gratitude to Miss Sadie Silverstein, without whose cooperation in preparing the manuscript this text could not have been published. We are also grateful to our former student, Miss Rosalind Soodak, for drawing most of the original figures. Finally, we wish to thank our students who have suffered through early drafts and have provided us with innumerable corrections.

*Mansour Javid*

*Philip Marshall Brown*

# Contents

Preface

vii

## Chapter 1 Vector Algebra 1

1-1	Vector and Scalar Algebra . . . . .	1
1-2	Addition of Vectors . . . . .	2
1-3	The Product of a Vector and a Scalar; Unit Vectors . . . . .	2
1-4	Vector Representation of Plane and Elemental Surfaces . . . . .	2
1-5	The Scalar Product of Two Vectors . . . . .	3
1-6	The Vector Product of Two Vectors . . . . .	3
1-7	Triple Scalar Product . . . . .	4
1-8	Components of a Vector . . . . .	5
1-9	Triple Vector Product . . . . .	5
1-10	Orthogonal Components and Orthogonal Coordinate Systems . . . . .	6
1-11	The Unit Vectors $\mathbf{a}_x, \mathbf{a}_y, \mathbf{a}_z$ ; the Position Vector $\mathbf{r}$ . . . . .	7
1-12	Direction Cosines of a Vector . . . . .	8
1-13	The Sum and Products of Vectors in Terms of Their Orthogonal Components . . . . .	9
1-14	The Triple Scalar Product in Terms of Orthogonal Components . . . . .	11
1-15	True Vectors and Axial Vectors . . . . .	11

## Chapter 2 Field Concepts 13

2-1	The Field Approach . . . . .	13
2-2	Definition of a Field . . . . .	15
2-3	The Position Vector and Its Functions . . . . .	15
2-4	Source Coordinates and Observer's Coordinates . . . . .	16
2-5	Point and Lumped Quantities . . . . .	16
2-6	Differentiation with Respect to Source Coordinates and Observer's Coordinates . . . . .	18
2-7	Examples of Fields . . . . .	19
2-8	The Electromagnetic Field . . . . .	19

## Chapter 3 General Coordinates, Directional Derivatives, and Line Integrals 21

3-1	Equations of Surfaces and Lines. . . . .	21
3-2	Family of Surfaces . . . . .	22

xi

3-3	Constant-value Surfaces in a Scalar Field	22
3-4	Normal Direction of a Surface at a Point; Vector Area	22
3-5	Gradient of a Scalar Field; Scalar Potential	24
3-6	Partial Derivatives and Total Differentials	24
3-7	Derivatives of a Vector Field	25
3-8	Relation between Directional Derivative and Gradient	26
3-9	Rectangular Components of the Gradient	26
3-10	A Generalized System of Coordinates	28
3-11	Orthogonal Systems of Coordinates	29
3-12	The Coordinate Line, or the $u$ Line	29
3-13	Circular Cylindrical Coordinates	29
3-14	Spherical Coordinates	31
3-15	Metric Coefficients of General Coordinates	32
3-16	Infinitesimal Curvilinear Volumes and Surfaces	32
3-17	Transformation of Unit Vectors in Different Systems	33
3-18	Components of Gradient in Orthogonal Curvilinear Coordinates	35
3-19	Scalar Line Integral in a Vector Field; Vectormotive	37
3-20	Line Integral in a Conservative Field	38
3-21	Evaluation of a Scalar Field $u$ from $\text{grad } u$	38
3-22	Vector Line Integrals; Vector Moment of a Line	39
3-23	Scalar Surface Integral in a Vector Field; Flux	42
3-24	Flux Lines; Field Mapping	44

## Chapter 4 Volume Densities of Scalar and Vector Sources of a Vector Field: Divergence and Curl 47

4-1	The Scalar Source of a Vector Field	47
4-2	The Scalar Source Density, or Divergence, of a Vector Field	49
4-3	Evaluation of Divergence in a System of Rectangular Coordinates	50
4-4	Evaluation of Divergence in Orthogonal Curvilinear Coordinates	52
4-5	Gauss' Divergence Theorem	53
4-6	Point Sources; Spatial Delta Functions	55
4-7	Conservation of Charge; the Continuity Equation	56
4-8	Solenoidal Fields	57
4-9	Twist of a Vector Field over a Surface	57
4-10	The Vector Source Density, or Curl, of a Vector Field	59
4-11	Curl and Rotation	62
4-12	An Alternative Definition of Curl	63
4-13	Stokes' Theorem	64
4-14	Components of Curl in General Orthogonal Coordinates	66
4-15	A Gradient Lemma to Stokes' Theorem	68
4-16	Irrotational Fields	68
4-17	Divergence of the Curl of a Vector Field	69
4-18	Push of a Scalar Field over a Surface	70
4-19	An Alternative Definition of Gradient	71
4-20	A Gradient Theorem	72
4-21	The Vector Differential Operator and Its Components	73
4-22	Summary of Vector Identities	75



## Chapter 5 The Evaluation of Fields from Their Sources; Poisson's Equation and the Wave Equation 77

5-1	The Concentration of a Scalar Field; the Laplacian . . . . .	77
5-2	The Gradient and Laplacian of $1/ r - r' $ . . . . .	78
5-3	Evaluation of a Scalar Field from Its Concentration; Solution of Poisson's Equation in an Unbounded Medium . . . . .	81
5-4	Green's Identities; Solution of Poisson's Equation in a Bounded Medium . . . . .	82
5-5	Uniqueness Theorem for the Solution of Poisson's Equation . . . . .	84
5-6	Green's Function . . . . .	86
5-7	Techniques for the Solution of Potential Problems . . . . .	88
5-8	The Laplacian of a Vector Field . . . . .	91
5-9	Evaluation of a Vector Field from Its Sources . . . . .	91
5-10	The Helmholtz Theorem; Scalar and Vector Potentials . . . . .	93
5-11	Common Partial Differential Equations of Physics . . . . .	95
5-12	The Fourier Heat-flow Equation . . . . .	96
5-13	The Wave Equation for the Acoustic Field . . . . .	98
5-14	Solution of the Inhomogeneous Wave Equation . . . . .	99

## Chapter 6 The Laws of Electromagnetic Theory 101

6-1	Microscopic and Macroscopic Fields . . . . .	102
6-2	Classification and Motion of Charges . . . . .	103
6-3	Conservation of Charge; Current Density . . . . .	105
6-4	Polarization Charge and Current . . . . .	106
6-5	Amperian Current Density; Magnetization . . . . .	110
6-6	Maxwell's Equations . . . . .	112
6-7	The $\mathbf{D}$ and $\mathbf{H}$ Fields; Permittivity, Permeability, and Conductivity . . . . .	115
6-8	Conditions in the Interior of a Conducting Medium . . . . .	118
6-9	Conditions in the Interior of a Homogeneous Medium . . . . .	119
6-10	Discussion of the Form of Maxwell's Equations . . . . .	121
6-11	The Relativistic Nature of the Electromagnetic Field . . . . .	121
6-12	Energy in the Electromagnetic Field . . . . .	123
6-13	Conservation of Energy; Poynting's Theorem . . . . .	124
6-14	The Momentum Theorem; Electromagnetic Momentum . . . . .	129
6-15	The Electromagnetic Wave Equation . . . . .	133
6-16	Potential Functions of the Electromagnetic Field . . . . .	135

## Chapter 7 Fields of Static Charge and Current Distributions 139

7-1	Potentials for Static Fields . . . . .	140
7-2	Potentials of Point Charges at Rest . . . . .	141
7-3	The Electric Dipole Moment of a Charge Distribution . . . . .	142
7-4	The Dipole Moment and Field of an Electric Point Dipole . . . . .	143
7-5	Multipole Expansion of the Potential of an Arbitrary Charge Distribution . . . . .	146
7-6	The Magnetic Dipole Moment of a Current Distribution . . . . .	151
7-7	The Dipole Moment and Field of a Magnetic Point Dipole . . . . .	151
7-8	Static Magnetic Field of Filamentary Currents; Ampère's Law . . . . .	154
7-9	The Scalar Potential of the Magnetic Field . . . . .	158

## Chapter 8 Singular Source Densities and Discontinuous Fields; Capacitance and Inductance 163

8-1	Charge and Current Singularities . . . . .	163
8-2	Infinites and Discontinuities in Fields Due to Source Singularities . . . . .	167
8-3	Conducting Medium in an Electrostatic Field . . . . .	176
8-4	Idealized Media . . . . .	177
8-5	Some Boundary-value Problems of Static Fields . . . . .	178
8-6	Coefficients of Potential and Capacitance . . . . .	181
8-7	The Electric Energy Stored in a System of Charged Conductors . . . . .	185
8-8	Coefficients of Inductance . . . . .	187
8-9	Energy Stored in the Field of Current-carrying Conductors; Inductance Formulas . . . . .	189
8-10	Application of Green's Method to Electrostatics . . . . .	191
8-11	Calculation of Capacitance Coefficients from the Green's Function . . . . .	192
8-12	The Method of Images for Obtaining the Green's Function . . . . .	194

## Chapter 9 Fields in Source-free Regions; Separation of Variables 199

9-1	The Wave Equation in Rectangular Coordinates; Separation of Variables . . . . .	202
9-2	Solution of the Two-dimensional Laplace Equation in Rectangular Coordinates . . . . .	206
9-3	Examples of Boundary-value Problems for a Rectangular Enclosure; Field Mapping of Flow Lines . . . . .	209
9-4	The Solution of Laplace's Equation in a Three-dimensional Rectangular Enclosure . . . . .	220
9-5	The Uniform Plane Wave . . . . .	224
9-6	Wavefront, Wavelength, and Wave Number of a Plane Wave . . . . .	225
9-7	Solution of the Three-dimensional Wave Equation in Rectangular Coordinates . . . . .	226
9-8	Separation of Variables in Cylindrical Coordinates . . . . .	228
9-9	Two-dimensional Cylindrical Zonal Harmonics . . . . .	230
9-10	Separation of Variables in Spherical Coordinates . . . . .	234
9-11	Two-dimensional Spherical Zonal Harmonics . . . . .	235
9-12	Numerical Solution of Laplace's Equation . . . . .	241
9-13	Difference Equations . . . . .	245
9-14	Trial Method for Sketching Equipotentials and Flow Lines; Graphical Estimation of Capacitance and Inductance . . . . .	245

## Chapter 10 Some Properties of Matter 251

10-1	Electric Polarization . . . . .	251
10-2	Ferroelectricity; Permanent Electrets . . . . .	253
10-3	Hysteresis in Electrets; Ferroelectric Memories . . . . .	256
10-4	Magnetization . . . . .	258
10-5	Magnetic Effects in Matter; Permanent Magnets . . . . .	260
10-6	Diamagnetism . . . . .	262
10-7	Energy Dissipation Due to Hysteresis . . . . .	265
10-8	Use of Magnetic Cores for Memory . . . . .	267

10-9	Free Electric Currents in Matter; Ohm's Law . . . . .	267
10-10	Frequency Dependence of Dielectric and Conductive Properties . . . . .	270
10-11	Isotropy in Linear Media . . . . .	274
10-12	Linear Anisotropic Media . . . . .	276

## Chapter 11 Radiating and Quasi-static Fields 279

11-1	Phasor Notation for Fields with Sinusoidal Time Variations; Definition of Impedance . . . . .	279
11-2	Current Distribution in Thin Linear Antennas . . . . .	282
11-3	Vector Potential of a Straight Thin-wire Antenna . . . . .	284
11-4	The Field of an Electric Dipole Antenna . . . . .	286
11-5	The Near Fields of an Electric Dipole Antenna . . . . .	288
11-6	Radiation and the Poynting Flux of an Electric Dipole Antenna . . . . .	289
11-7	Driving-point Impedance of an Electric Dipole Antenna; Radiation Resistance . . . . .	290
11-8	The Far or Radiation Field . . . . .	291
11-9	Radiation Patterns; Antenna Gain . . . . .	291
11-10	Transverse Electromagnetic (TEM) Waves . . . . .	293
11-11	Polarization of Vector Fields . . . . .	293
11-12	Series Expansion of Retarded Potentials; Approximation for Near Fields . . . . .	296
11-13	Quasi-static Fields; Series Solution for Dynamic Fields . . . . .	301
11-14	The Field Basis of Circuit Theory . . . . .	307

## Chapter 12 Propagation of Guided Plane Waves; Transmission Lines and Rectangular Waveguides 317

12-1	Wave Equation in Simple Media . . . . .	318
12-2	An Example of Propagation in a Lossy Medium . . . . .	319
12-3	An Example of Space-Time Harmonics in a Lossless Medium . . . . .	320
12-4	Interdependence of the Orthogonal Components of Dynamic Fields and Their Values at a Boundary . . . . .	322
12-5	Formulas Relating the Tangential and Normal Components of the E and H Fields at a Boundary . . . . .	324
12-6	General Cylindrical Coordinates and Cylindrical Components . . . . .	328
12-7	Relationships between Transverse and Longitudinal Components of Sinusoidal Plane Waves . . . . .	329
12-8	Boundary Conditions on the Transverse Components of the Fields . . . . .	332
12-9	Some Properties of TEM Waves . . . . .	333
12-10	The Scalar Potential of a Plane TEM Wave . . . . .	335
12-11	Plane TEM Waves on Lossless Straight Transmission Lines of Arbitrary but Uniform Cross Section . . . . .	337
12-12	Transmission of TEM Waves in a Straight Coaxial Line . . . . .	340
12-13	Power Transmission on a Coaxial Line . . . . .	341
12-14	Advantages and Disadvantages of Coaxial Lines . . . . .	341
12-15	The Open-wire Transmission Line . . . . .	342
12-16	Voltage-Current Relationships on a Transmission Line . . . . .	343
12-17	Transmission-line Equations . . . . .	345
12-18	Modification of the Transmission-line Equations for a Lossy Dielectric . . . . .	346

12-19	Application of Scale-change Technique to the Problem of Transmission Lines; Approximate Circuit Representation of Transmission Lines . . . . .	348
12-20	Some Properties of TM and TE Waves . . . . .	353
12-21	TEM and TM Waves between Parallel Conducting Plates . . . . .	356
12-22	TE Waves between Parallel Plates . . . . .	359
12-23	TM Waves in Rectangular Waveguides . . . . .	359
12-24	TE Waves in Rectangular Waveguides . . . . .	363
12-25	Transmitted Power and Energy Density Associated with Guided Plane Waves . . . . .	365
12-26	Lossless Rectangular Cavity Resonators . . . . .	369
12-27	The Energy Stored in a Cavity Resonator . . . . .	372

## Chapter 13 Plane Waves in Lossy Media; Signal Propagation and Dispersion 374

13-1	Propagation of Plane Sinusoidal Waves in a Conducting Medium . . . . .	374
13-2	Good Dielectrics and Good Conductors . . . . .	377
13-3	The Skin Effect . . . . .	379
13-4	Power Loss in Good Conductors . . . . .	381
13-5	Attenuation in Waveguides . . . . .	382
13-6	$Q$ of Rectangular Cavity Resonators . . . . .	384
13-7	Dispersion; Velocities Significant in the Description of Wave Propagation . . . . .	385
13-8	The Group Velocity of a Signal . . . . .	387
13-9	Geometric Dispersion of Plane Waves . . . . .	389
13-10	Conductive Dispersion of Plane TEM Waves . . . . .	391
13-11	Parametric Dispersion . . . . .	394

## Chapter 14 Reflection of Plane Waves at Plane Boundaries; Stress and Momentum 399

14-1	Reflection of Plane TEM Waves at a Plane Boundary; Normal Incidence . . . . .	399
14-2	Reflection at Normal Incidence from a Perfect Conductor . . . . .	404
14-3	TEM Waves on Terminated Transmission Lines . . . . .	406
14-4	Resolution of TEM Fields into Orthogonal Components . . . . .	409
14-5	Reflection at Oblique Incidence; The Incident Field . . . . .	410
14-6	The Laws of Reflection and Refraction . . . . .	413
14-7	Electric Field Normal to the Plane of Incidence . . . . .	416
14-8	Electric Field in the Plane of Incidence . . . . .	418
14-9	Total Reflection at a Boundary between Two Perfect Dielectrics . . . . .	419
14-10	Total Transmission; The Polarizing Angle . . . . .	424
14-11	Oblique Incidence on a Perfect Conductor from a Perfect Dielectric . . . . .	425
14-12	Reflection and Transmission at Oblique Incidence with a Lossy Second Medium . . . . .	427
14-13	Resolution of TM and TE Waves into TEM Waves; Interpretation of Guided Waves in Terms of Reflections . . . . .	429
14-14	The Dielectric Waveguide . . . . .	433
14-15	The Force Applied to a Volume; Electromagnetic Stress . . . . .	435
14-16	Forces Exerted on Material Bodies by Electromagnetic Waves . . . . .	438

# Chapter 15 Antennas 447

15-1	The Fields of a Long Straight-wire Antenna . . . . .	447
15-2	The Effect of Ground on the Radiation Pattern of a Vertical Antenna .	451
15-3	Schelkunoff's Radiation Formula . . . . .	453
15-4	Radiation from a Circular-loop Antenna . . . . .	455
15-5	The Horizontal Pattern of Two Vertical Antennas . . . . .	456
15-6	Linear Antenna Arrays . . . . .	461
15-7	Receiving Antennas; Reciprocity . . . . .	466
<i>Appendix I</i>	Rotation of Orthogonal Base Vectors . . . . .	473
<i>Appendix II</i>	An Expression for the $\nabla$ Operator in Curvilinear Coordinates .	477
<i>Appendix III</i>	Green's Function: The Superposition Principle and Green's Reciprocity Theorem . . . . .	480
<i>Appendix IV</i>	The Gradient and Laplacian of a Vector Field . . . . .	483
<i>Appendix V</i>	The Wave Equation for the Acoustic Field . . . . .	485
<i>Appendix VI</i>	Solution of the Inhomogeneous Wave Equation in an Unbounded Region . . . . .	487
<i>Appendix VII</i>	The Polarization and Magnetization Theorems . . . . .	489
<i>Appendix VIII</i>	Transmission-line Techniques . . . . .	492
	Problems . . . . .	497
	Index . . . . .	519

# Vector Algebra

In the process of learning and through a comparison of objects, the positive real integers become familiar concepts. Other types of numbers are subsequently introduced as abstractions to facilitate the analysis of observed phenomena. Fractional, negative, and irrational numbers are familiar examples. In the study of physical phenomena one encounters a variety of quantities. A quantity whose only measurable attribute is its magnitude is called a scalar quantity. The price of a given commodity and the temperature at a given location are examples of scalar quantities. A quantity with the two measurable attributes magnitude and direction is referred to as a vector quantity. The velocity of a moving object and the force applied to a body are examples of vector quantities. Thus a vector quantity can have the dimension of force or velocity or other dimensions.

In specifying a vector quantity it is customary to indicate it by a directed line (arrow) in the direction of the vector quantity. The length of the line is often made proportional to the magnitude of the quantity. Such a line is referred to as a vector. In this text we designate a vector by a boldface letter,  $\mathbf{u}$  or  $\mathbf{A}$ . A dimensionless vector whose magnitude is unity is called a unit vector.

Two vectors having the same magnitude and direction are called equal vectors. Two equal vectors may be associated with the same point or different points in space.

**1-1. Vector and Scalar Algebra.** The above description of a vector is based on the concept of quantities with magnitude and direction. Mathematics deals with numbers which are abstractions, not with quantities. The numbers 2 and 5 are abstractions based on consideration of, for example, two hands and five fingers. Similarly, vector numbers are abstractions based on quantities with two measurable attributes, magnitude and direction.

In making abstractions the intuitive ground of comparison between objects, which introduced us to integers, is lost. Instead, numbers are defined through their rules of operation. For example, the rules of addition and multiplication in common algebra define the algebraic numbers.

A sufficient set of rules for common algebra is:

1.  $a + b = b + a$ , commutation in addition.
2.  $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$ , association in addition.
3. There is an  $x$  such that  $a + x = b$ , unique definition of subtraction.
4.  $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ , commutation in multiplication.
5.  $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$ , association in multiplication.

<sup>†</sup> This chapter may be omitted by the reader acquainted with vector algebra.

<sup>‡</sup> The magnitude of the vector  $\mathbf{A}$  will be designated by the italic letter  $A$ .

6. If  $a \neq 0$ , there is an  $x$  such that  $a \cdot x = b$ , unique definition of division.
7. If  $a \cdot b = 0$ , then  $a = 0$  and/or  $b = 0$ .
8.  $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ , distributive property of addition and multiplication.

These rules are postulated to define the common algebra of scalars. However, they are chosen to make the algebra of scalars useful in describing phenomena. In order to provide an algebra that is useful in describing a broader field of phenomena, it will be found necessary to weaken the restrictions placed on the operations defining common algebra. This process is called "weakening the postulates." In the formulation of a useful algebra of vectors, postulates 4, 5, 6, and 7 mentioned above must be abridged or completely eliminated.

**1-2. Addition of Vectors.** Two vectors **A** and **B** which are not in the same or opposite directions determine a plane. The sum of two vectors **A** and **B** is a third

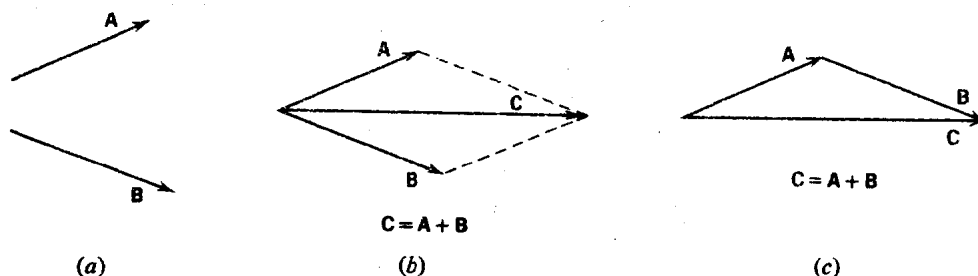


FIG. 1-1 Vector addition. (a) Two vectors; (b) parallelogram rule; (c) head-to-tail rule.

vector **C** in the plane of **A** and **B** and is obtained by the "parallelogram" rule. This rule states that to obtain the vector  $C = A + B$  two vectors must be drawn from a point, one equal to **A** and the other equal to **B**, as in Fig. 1-1b. Then a parallelogram with these two vectors as its sides should be drawn. The diagonal of this parallelogram, directed as shown in Fig. 1-1b, is the vector sum of **A** and **B**. This process is, of course, equivalent to the "head-to-tail" process of addition of vectors shown in Fig. 1-1c. The above definition of addition is based on the observation of effects caused by vector quantities such as forces and velocities.

The parallelogram rule is an operational definition of vector addition and implies the following rules:

$$A + B = B + A \quad \text{commutation in addition}$$

$$A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C \quad \text{association in addition}$$

Furthermore, it implies that for two given vectors **A** and **B** there is always a third vector **X** such that  $A + X = B$ . This vector is called the vector difference between **B** and **A**. Thus all the addition rules of common algebra are carried over into vector algebra.

**1-3. The Product of a Vector and a Scalar; Unit Vectors.** The product of a scalar  $m$  with a vector **u** is  $p = mu$ , a vector in the direction of **u** with magnitude  $mu$ . Any vector **B** may be expressed as the product of its magnitude  $B$  and a unit vector  $a_B = B/B$ ; thus  $B = a_B B$ .

**1-4. Vector Representation of Plane and Elemental Surfaces.** With any plane surface we associate a vector **S** of magnitude equal to the area of the surface and in a direction normal to the surface. We refer to the direction of the normal as the direction of the vector area **S**. If the plane surface forms part of a closed surface

(one which completely encloses a volume), we define the outward normal as its positive direction. Otherwise, the positive sense of  $S$  (the positive direction of the vector's arrowhead) is arbitrarily chosen.

Any infinitesimal portion  $da$  of a curved surface may be considered planar. An infinitesimal vector  $d\mathbf{a}$  is associated with this infinitesimal plane so that  $d\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{n} da$ , where  $\mathbf{n}$  is the unit vector normal to the infinitesimal (and therefore planar) surface at the point under consideration.

**1-5. The Scalar Product of Two Vectors.** The scalar product of two vectors  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ , designated by the symbol  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}$ , is defined as

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \triangleq AB \cos \theta_{AB} \quad (1-1)$$

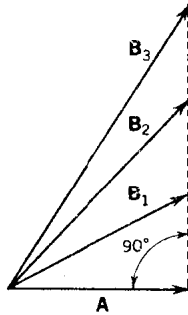


FIG. 1-2 Illustration of  $\mathbf{B}_1 \cdot \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}_2 \cdot \mathbf{A}$  when  $\mathbf{B}_1 \neq \mathbf{B}_2$ .

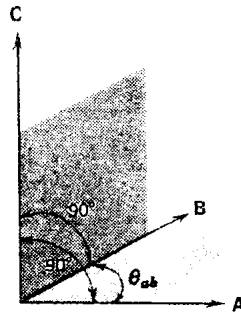


FIG. 1-3 Illustration of  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$ .

where  $\theta_{AB}$  is the angle between the vectors  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ .† The definition given in Eq. (1-1) implies the following laws:

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A}$$

commutative law for scalar product

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C}$$

distributive law for scalar product

Note that the specification of  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}$  does not uniquely define  $\mathbf{B}$ . For example, assume that in Fig. 1-2 the vector  $\mathbf{A}$  is of unit magnitude and that it is required to determine  $\mathbf{B}$  so that  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = 1$ . It is apparent that the vectors  $\mathbf{B}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{B}_2$ , and  $\mathbf{B}_3$  are only three of an infinite number of vectors satisfying this requirement. If we consider the operation defined by Eq. (1-1) as multiplication, then the indeterminacy of  $\mathbf{B}$  in the above example indicates that "division" by a vector is not defined. It is also noted that  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$  does not necessarily imply  $\mathbf{A} = 0$  or  $\mathbf{B} = 0$  but might rather imply that  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are at right angles. The scalar product  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}$  is commonly referred to as the dot product.

**1-6. The Vector Product of Two Vectors.** The vector product of the two vectors  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  is designated as  $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$ . It is defined to be the vector  $\mathbf{C}$  of magnitude  $AB \sin \theta_{AB}$  and in a direction normal to both  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  (see Fig. 1-3). The sense of  $\mathbf{C}$  is determined by the "right-hand rule." This rule states that if a right-handed screw is turned from  $\mathbf{A}$  toward  $\mathbf{B}$  (in the direction of the smaller angle between  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ ), then the sense of the arrow representing  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$  is in the direction of advance of the screw. The above definition of the vector product implies the following:

† The symbol  $\triangleq$  is read "is by definition equal to."



The anticommutative law holds for vector products:

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = -\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A}$$

Thus

$$\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}$$

The distributive law holds for vector products:

$$\mathbf{A} \times (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{C}$$

The associative law does not hold for vector products:

$$\mathbf{A} \times (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C}) \neq (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) \times \mathbf{C}$$

This is apparent when we observe that the left-hand member must be normal to  $\mathbf{A}$ , while the right-hand member is normal to  $\mathbf{C}$ . From the definition of  $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$  it is also seen that  $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$  implies  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}$  or  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$  or  $\sin \theta_{AB} = 0$ . Also, as with the dot product, the specification of  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$  does not uniquely determine  $\mathbf{B}$ . The vector product  $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$  is commonly referred to as the cross product.

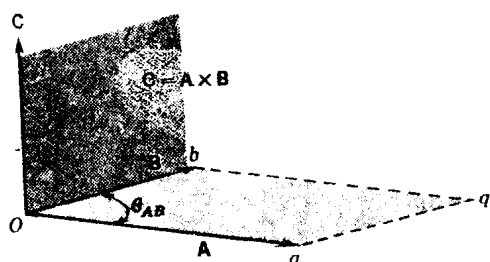


FIG. 1-4 The sense of vector  $\mathbf{C}$  corresponds to the sense of the periphery  $oaqb$ .

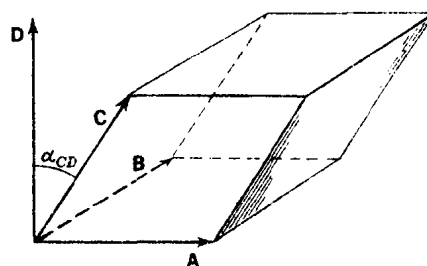


FIG. 1-5 Triple scalar product interpreted as a volume.

In the expression  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$  the vectors  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  form the adjacent sides of a parallelogram in the plane of  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ , as shown in Fig. 1-4. The area of this parallelogram is  $AB \sin \theta_{AB}$ . Thus  $\mathbf{C}$  is the vector area of this parallelogram. This is one (rather restricted) way of defining the sense of a vector area which does not form part of a closed surface. A more general way is to relate the sense of the vector area to the description of its periphery by the right-hand rule. Thus the sense of the vector  $\mathbf{C}$  corresponds to a description of the periphery as being directed from  $o$  to  $a$  to  $q$  to  $b$  and back to  $o$  (see Fig. 1-4).

**1-7. Triple Scalar Product.** The product  $\mathbf{C} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B})$  is a scalar. Its value is the volume of the parallelepiped formed by the vectors  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}$ , and  $\mathbf{C}$  (see Fig. 1-5). The proof of this statement is seen by considering  $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{D}$ . From Fig. 1-5

$$\mathbf{C} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{D} = DC \cos \alpha_{CD}$$

From this figure it is seen that  $\mathbf{D}$  is the area of the base of the parallelepiped and  $C \cos \alpha_{CD}$  is the height of the volume. The triple product  $\mathbf{C} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B})$  is usually written as  $\mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$ . Because of the nature of the operations no ambiguity will appear if the parentheses are removed. For example,  $\mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$  cannot mean  $(\mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{A}) \times \mathbf{B}$  since  $\mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{A}$  is a scalar and the vector product is defined only for two vectors.

We note that the volume of the parallelepiped defined by three (noncoplanar) vectors  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}$ , and  $\mathbf{C}$  can be equally expressed as  $\mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$  or  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{C}$  or any of four other possible combinations of the vectors  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}$ , and  $\mathbf{C}$  and the dot and cross