

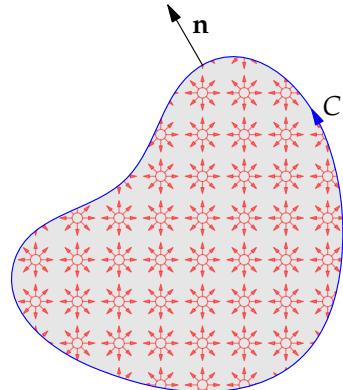
## 15.9 The Divergence Theorem

The Divergence Theorem is the second 3-dimensional analogue of Green's Theorem.

Recall: if  $\mathbf{F}$  is a vector field with continuous derivatives defined on a region  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  with boundary curve  $C$ , then

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, ds = \iint_D \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} \, dA$$

The flux of  $\mathbf{F}$  across  $C$  is equal to the integral of the divergence over its interior.



The Divergence Theorem is nothing more than the same result for surfaces bounding volumes.

**Notation/Orientation** The Theorem applies to specific types of volumes  $E$  which can be imagined as distorted spheres.<sup>1</sup> Specifically:

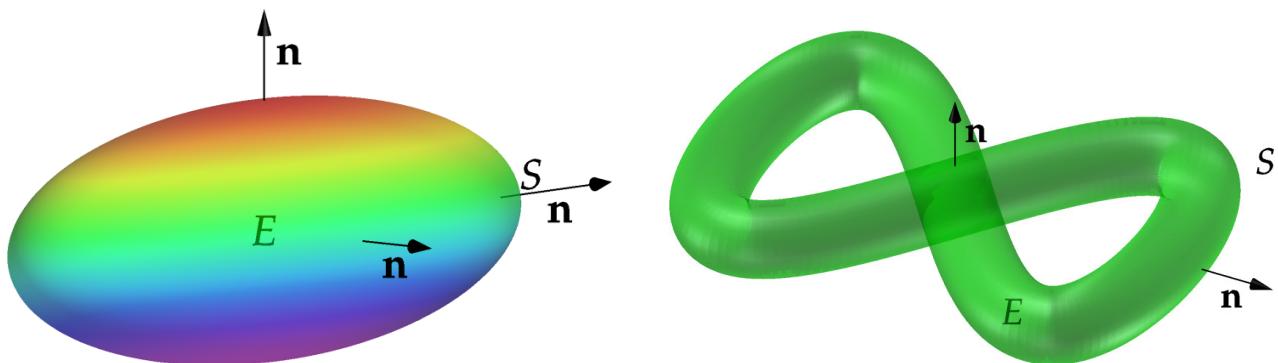
1.  $E$  must be bounded:  $E$  fits inside a box  $\{\mathbf{r} : |\mathbf{r}| < k\}$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{R}^+$ .
2.  $E$  has a complete, closed boundary surface  $S = \partial E$ : one cannot get into or out of  $E$  without crossing the boundary  $S$ .
3. The boundary  $S$  is oriented *outwards* from  $E$ .

Spheres, Ellipsoids, Cuboids, Tetrahedra, etc. are all suitable candidates.

Unsuitable regions include:

The positive octant:  $E = \{(x, y, z) : x, y, z \geq 0\}$  is unbounded.

Rational points in a cube:  $E = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Q}^3 : 0 \leq x, y, z \leq 1\}$  has no sensible boundary.




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<sup>1</sup>Or unions of disconnected such.

**Theorem** (Divergence/Gauss'/Ostrogradsky's Theorem). Suppose that  $E$  is a bounded volume with complete, closed boundary surface  $S$  oriented outwards. If  $\mathbf{F}$  is a vector field with continuous partial derivatives then

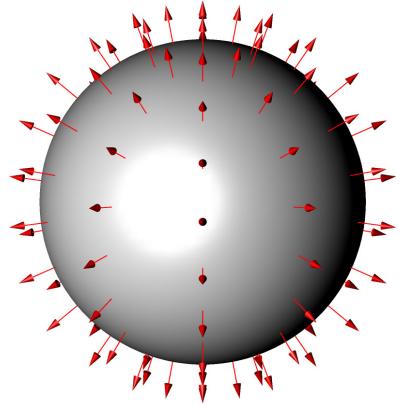
$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iiint_E \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} dV$$

**Example** Let  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$  and  $E$  the ball of radius  $a$  centered at the origin

$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = 3$ , whence

$$\iiint_E \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} dV = \iiint_E 3 dV = 4\pi a^3$$

Alternatively,  $S$  is the sphere with normal field  $\mathbf{n} = \frac{1}{a} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$ , so we compare,

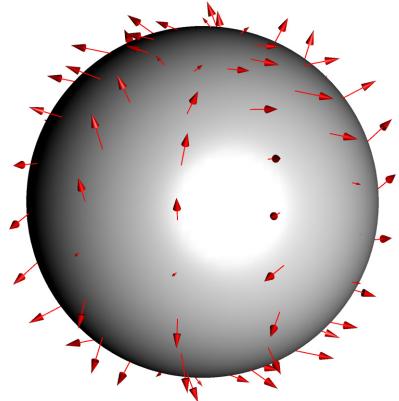


$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_S \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x/a \\ y/a \\ z/a \end{pmatrix} dS = \iint_S \frac{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}{a} dS = \iint_S a dS = 4\pi a^3$$

**Example** Let  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xz^2\mathbf{i} + yx^2\mathbf{j} + zy^2\mathbf{k}$  where  $E$  is again the ball of radius  $a$  centered at the origin.

Here  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = z^2 + x^2 + y^2 = r^2$ , and so

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} &= \iiint_E \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} dV = \iiint_E r^2 dV \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \int_0^a r^2 \cdot r^2 \sin \phi dr d\phi d\theta = \frac{4}{5}\pi a^5 \end{aligned}$$



The alternative is to compute directly:

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_S \begin{pmatrix} xz^2 \\ yx^2 \\ zy^2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x/a \\ y/a \\ z/a \end{pmatrix} dS = \iint_S \frac{x^2 z^2 + y^2 x^2 + z^2 y^2}{a} dS = \dots$$

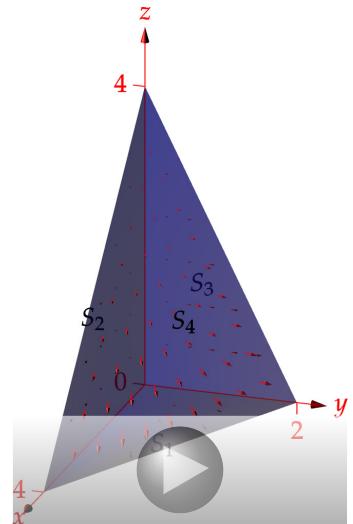
which is very time consuming.

The Divergence Theorem often makes things much easier, in particular when a boundary surface is piecewise smooth. In the following example, the flux integral requires computation and parameterization of four different surfaces. Thanks to the Divergence Theorem the flux is merely a triple integral over a very simple region.

**Example** Let  $\mathbf{F} = xi + 2yj - x^2yk$  where  $E$  is the solid tetrahedron bounded by  $x + 2y + z = 4$  and the co-ordinate planes. There are four surfaces, labeled in the picture. Parameterizing each of these would be time-consuming (*try it!*).

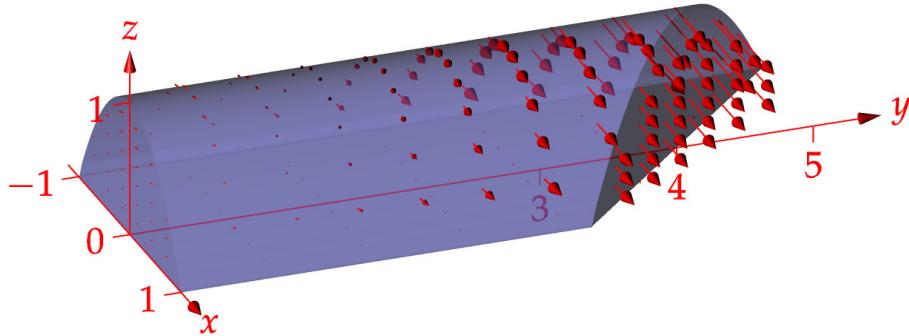
However,  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = 3$  so, by the Divergence Theorem

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} &= \iiint_E \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} dV = 3 \iiint_E dV \\ &= 3 \cdot \frac{1}{3} \text{Area(base)} \cdot \text{Height} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4 \cdot 2 \cdot 4 = 16\end{aligned}$$



**Example**  $E$  is bounded by  $z = 1 - x^2$ ,  $z = 0$ ,  $y = 0$ , and  $x + y = 4$ . Find the flux of  $\mathbf{F} = y^2i + (x^2 - z)j + z^2k$  across  $\partial E$

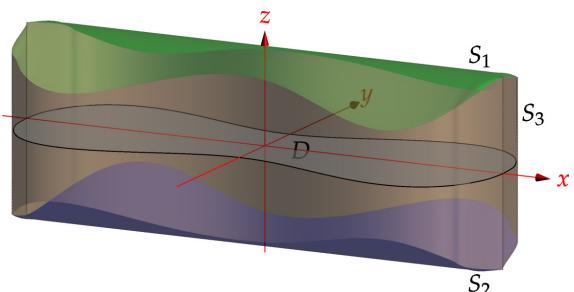
$$\begin{aligned}\iint_{\partial E} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} &= \iiint_E \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} dV = \iiint_E 2z dV = \int_{-1}^1 \int_0^{4-x} \int_0^{1-x^2} 2z dz dy dx \\ &= \int_{-1}^1 \int_0^{4-x} (1-x^2)^2 dy dx = \int_{-1}^1 (1-x^2)^2 (4-x) dx = 8 \int_0^1 (1-x^2)^2 dx \\ &= 8 \int_0^1 1-2x^2+x^4 dx = 8 \left(1 - \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{5}\right) = \frac{64}{15}\end{aligned}$$



### Proving the Divergence Theorem

The proof is almost identical to that of Green's Theorem. We prove for different types of regions then perform a cut-and-paste argument.

The first type of region shown in the graphic.  $E$  lies between two graphs:  $(x, y) \in D$  and  $g(x, y) \leq z \leq f(x, y)$ . Its boundary surface consists of three pieces: the graphs  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ , and the cylindrical piece  $S_3$ .



*Proof of Divergence Theorem.* Suppose that  $\mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j} + R\mathbf{k}$  and that  $E$  can be described as lying between two graphs:  $g(x, y) \leq z \leq f(x, y)$  for  $(x, y) \in D$ . Let  $S_1$  be the upper graph,  $S_2$  the lower, and  $S_3$  the sides.

We compare the  $R$ -parts of the two integrals in the Theorem. Firstly,

$$\iiint_E \frac{\partial R}{\partial z} dV = \iint_D \left[ \int_{g(x,y)}^{f(x,y)} \frac{\partial R}{\partial z} dz \right] dx dy = \iint_D R(x, y, f(x, y)) - R(x, y, g(x, y)) dx dy$$

Now compute the flux integrals. Noting that  $S_2$  is oriented *downward*, and  $S_3$  at right angles to  $R\mathbf{k}$  (hence  $R\mathbf{k} \cdot d\mathbf{S}_3 = 0$ ), we have,

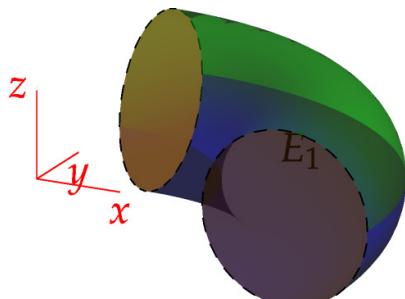
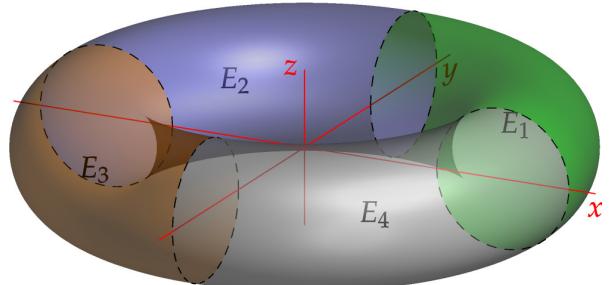
$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S \left( \begin{matrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ R \end{matrix} \right) \cdot d\mathbf{S} &= \iint_{S_1} \left( \begin{matrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ R \end{matrix} \right) \cdot d\mathbf{S}_1 + \iint_{S_2} \left( \begin{matrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ R \end{matrix} \right) \cdot d\mathbf{S}_2 + \iint_{S_3} \left( \begin{matrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ R \end{matrix} \right) \cdot d\mathbf{S}_3 \\ &= \iint_D \left( \begin{matrix} 0 \\ R(x,y,f(x,y)) \\ 1 \end{matrix} \right) \cdot \left( \begin{matrix} -f_x \\ -f_y \\ 1 \end{matrix} \right) dx dy + \iint_D \left( \begin{matrix} 0 \\ R(x,y,g(x,y)) \\ 1 \end{matrix} \right) \cdot \left( \begin{matrix} g_x \\ g_y \\ -1 \end{matrix} \right) dx dy \\ &= \iint_D R(x, y, f(x, y)) - R(x, y, g(x, y)) dx dy \end{aligned}$$

which is exactly the integral we saw before.

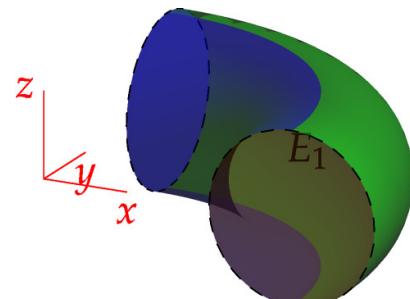
If we can also describe  $E$  as lying between graphs  $j(x, z) \leq y \leq h(x, z)$  and  $l(y, z) \leq x \leq k(y, z)$  then it quickly follows that the  $P$ - and  $Q$ -parts of the volume and surface integrals are equal, and that the Theorem is proved. This is certainly true for examples such as cubes or spheres.

If  $E$  cannot be described as lying between pairs of graphs in all three ways, we cut it into sub-volumes  $E_1, \dots, E_n$  each of which can be. Since interior faces are integrated twice and with opposite orientation, all interior surface integrals cancel and we get the Theorem. ■

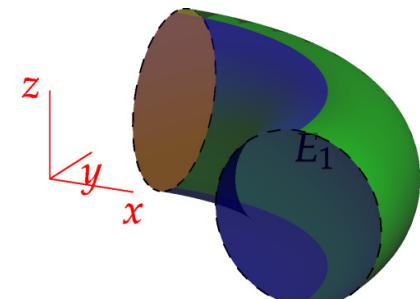
It requires some thinking to convince yourself that any volume can be sub-divided in the required way. As an example, consider a torus, which we've cut into four regions  $E_1, E_2, E_3, E_4$ . First we convince ourselves that  $E_1$  is of the required type. The other regions are similar.



Upper graph:  $z = f(x, y)$   
Lower graph:  $z = g(x, y)$   
Two Sides



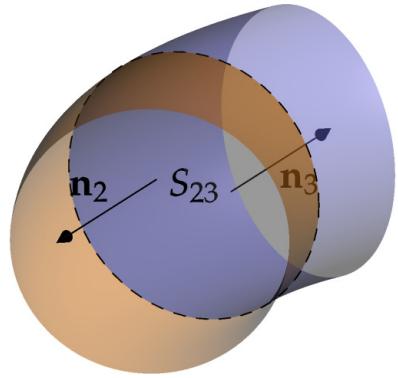
Right graph:  $x = k(y, z)$   
Left graph:  $x = l(y, z)$   
One Side



Front graph:  $y = h(x, z)$   
Rear graph:  $y = j(x, z)$   
One Side

Now label the boundary surface of each region  $E_n$  by  $S_n$ , and the boundary surface between  $E_m, E_n$  by  $S_{mn}$ . The graphic shows  $S_{23}$  for the torus. Note that  $S_{23} = S_2 \cup S_3$  is oriented in the direction  $\mathbf{n}_2$  when considered as part of  $S_2$  and in the opposite direction  $\mathbf{n}_3 = -\mathbf{n}_2$  when part of  $S_3$ . The divergence theorem certainly applies to each solid  $E_n$ , whence

$$\begin{aligned}\iiint_E \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} dV &= \left( \iiint_{E_1} + \cdots + \iiint_{E_4} \right) \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} dV \\ &= \iint_{S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}_1 + \cdots + \iint_{S_4} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}_4\end{aligned}$$



The flux integrals  $\iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}_2$  and  $\iint_{S_3} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}_3$  have the surface  $S_{23}$  in common, but each computes the flux in the opposite direction. The net contribution of  $S_{23}$  is therefore zero. The same reasoning applies to the other internal surface. It follows that the sum of the flux integrals is indeed the total flux out of  $E$ :  $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$ , as required.

### Incompressible Fields

For incompressible fields ( $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = 0$ ) we have

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iiint_E \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} dV = 0$$

over every complete bounded surface  $S = \partial E$ . I.e. incompressible fields have zero net flux out of all regions.

Suppose that  $S = S_1 \cup S_2$  is the boundary of  $E$ , and that  $\mathbf{F}$  is incompressible. Then

$$\left( \iint_{S_1} + \iint_{S_2} \right) \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 0 \implies \iint_{S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = - \iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

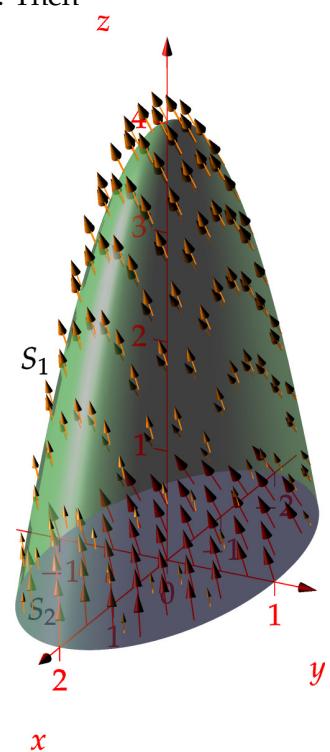
Thus the flux *out* across  $S_1$  equals the flux *in* across  $S_2$ .

For example, recall the example on net flux in Section 16.7

Suppose we want to compute the flux of  $\mathbf{F} = (z - x)\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + (z + 3)\mathbf{k}$  across the **paraboloid**  $S_1$  with equation  $z = 4 - x^2 - 4y^2$  for  $z \geq 0$

The vector field  $\mathbf{F}$  is incompressible,  $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = -1 + 1 = 0$ . If we choose  $S_2$  to be the **elliptical disk**  $x^2 + 4y^2 \leq 4$ , then we immediately have

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_{S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}_1 &= - \iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}_2 \\ &= - \iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot (-\mathbf{k}) dS_2 && \text{(orient } S_2 \text{ downward)} \\ &= \iint_{S_2} z + 3 dS_2 = 3 \iint_{S_2} dS_2 \\ &= 6\pi && \text{(area of ellipse)}\end{aligned}$$



## Interpreting Divergence

Let  $B_a$  be the solid ball with radius  $a$ , center  $P$ , and surface  $S_a$ . Let the vector field  $\mathbf{v}$  satisfy the Divergence Theorem. Then

$$\iint_{S_a} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iiint_{B_a} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} dV = V_a (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v})_{av}$$

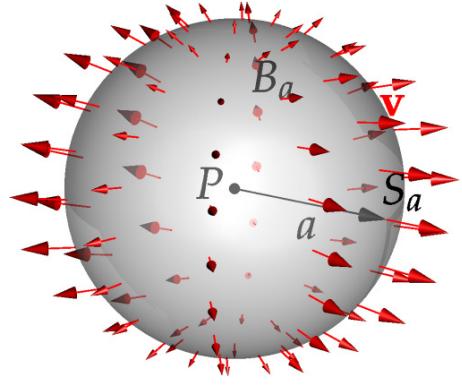
where  $(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v})_{av}$  is the average divergence of  $\mathbf{v}$  over  $B_a$  and  $V_a = \frac{4}{3}\pi a^3$  is the volume of  $B_a$ . Therefore

$$(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v})_{av} = \frac{1}{V_a} \iint_{S_a} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

Since  $\mathbf{v}$  has continuous partial derivatives, we may take the limit as  $a \rightarrow 0$  to obtain

$$(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v})(P) = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{V_a} \iint_{S_a} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{V_a} \iint_{S_a} \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS$$

The divergence at  $P$  can therefore be thought of as the outward flux per unit volume.



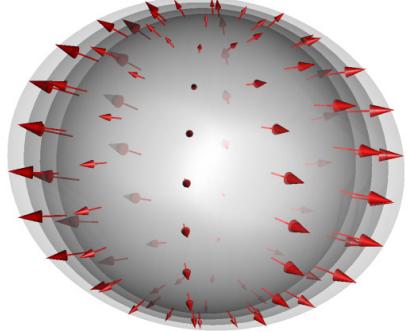
Now let the surface  $S_a$  of the ball drift with the flow  $\mathbf{v}$ .

Over time  $t$ ,  $B_a$  approximately deforms to an ellipsoid with average radius  $r_{av}(t)$ . Clearly  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n}_{av}$  is the average rate of change of the radius of  $B_a$ . The rate of change of volume is therefore

$$\frac{dV_a}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} \approx \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} \frac{4}{3}\pi r_{av}^3(t) = 4\pi r_{av}^2(0)r'_{av}(0) = 4\pi a^2(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n})_{av}$$

with improving approximation as  $a \rightarrow 0$ . It follows that

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}(P) = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{V_a} \iint_{S_a} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{V_a} 4\pi a^2 (\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n})_{av} = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{V_a} \cdot \frac{dV_a}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} = \frac{1}{V} \frac{dV}{dt}$$



Divergence is therefore the (unitless) rate of change of volume.

**Definition.** A point  $P$  at which  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}(P) > 0$  is called a source and a point at which  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}(P) < 0$  is called a sink.

We can even interpret vector fields that are undefined this way, for example:

An inverse square field has the form  $\mathbf{F} = r^{-3}\mathbf{r}$  for  $r > 0$ , where  $r = |\mathbf{r}| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ . Its divergence is easily seen to be zero<sup>2</sup> away from the origin:

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \nabla(r^{-3}) \cdot \mathbf{r} + r^{-3} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{r} = \frac{\frac{d}{dr} r^{-3}}{r} \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{r} + r^{-3} \cdot 3 = -3r^{-5}r^2 + 3r^{-3} = 0$$

However, we could *define* the divergence of  $\mathbf{F}$  at the origin using our above analysis:

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{0}) := \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{V_a} \iint_{S_a} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{V_a} \iint_{r=a} r^{-2} dS = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{3}{4\pi a^3} \cdot 4\pi a^2 a^{-2} = +\infty$$

We could therefore interpret  $\mathbf{F}$  as having an infinite source at the origin.

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<sup>2</sup>The product rule for divergence and how to calculate in spherical co-ordinates are in the homework.