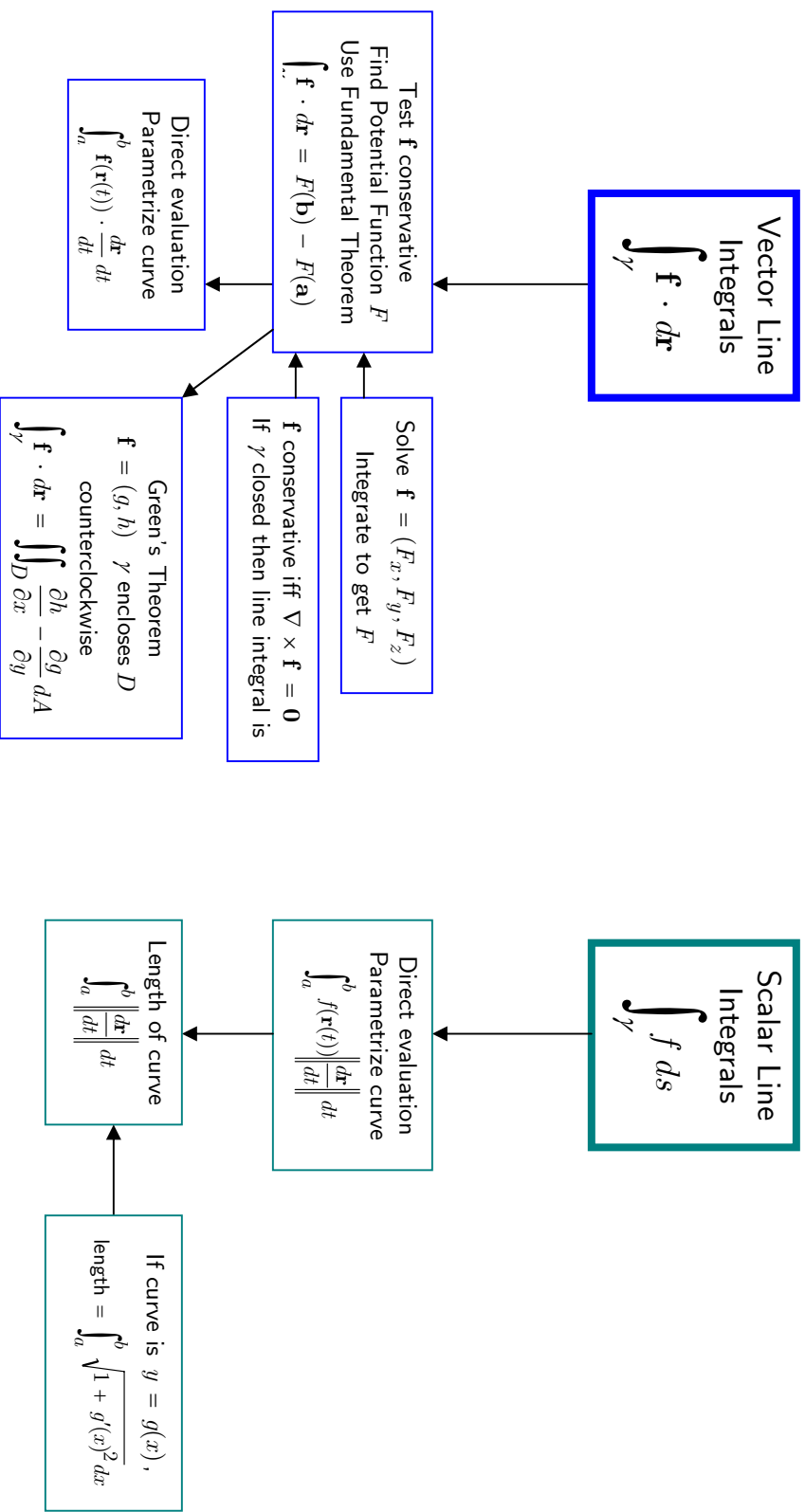
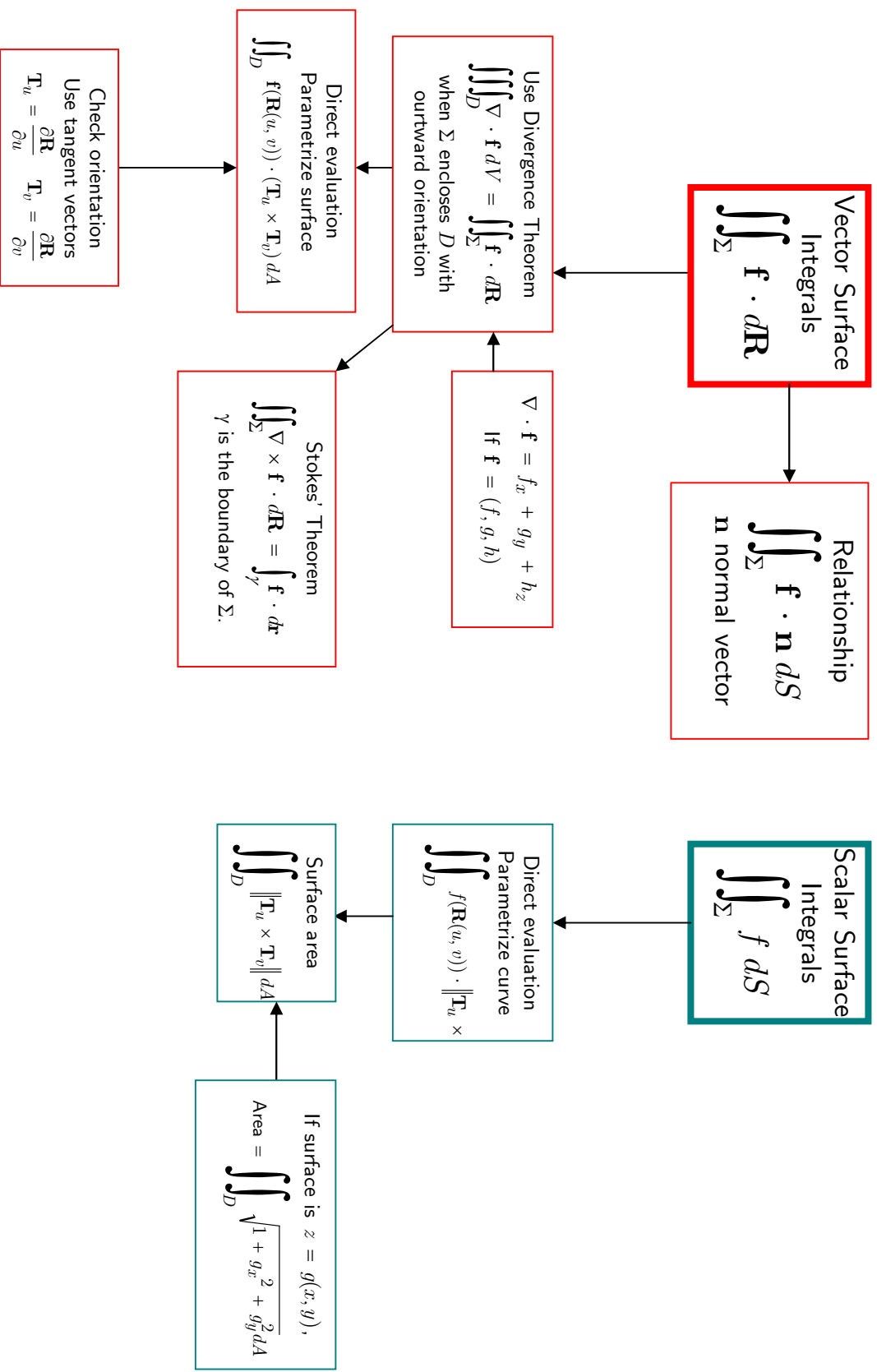


Summary



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Line and surface integrals

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The purpose of these brief notes is to give an overview of line and surface integrals. The emphasis is on preparation for exam so there is a list of exercises for additional practice at the end. However, it is recommendation that you look at the Assignment 4 and 5 additional questions as well as the online lecture notes.

1. Line integrals

- A curve $\gamma \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ can be **parametrized** by representing it as $\mathbf{r}(t) = (x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_n(t))$ for $a \leq t \leq b$. The curve starts at $\mathbf{r}(a)$ and end at $\mathbf{r}(b)$.
- A curve $\gamma \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is often presented as $y = f(x)$ for $a \leq x \leq b$. In that case a natural parametrization is $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t, f(t))$ for $a \leq t \leq b$. In polar co-ordinates, a curve may often be given as $r = f(\theta)$ for $a \leq \theta \leq b$, in which case a good parametrization is $\mathbf{r}(t) = (f(t) \cos t, f(t) \sin t)$ for $a \leq t \leq b$.
- A curve which is piecewise smooth often should be parametrized in parts. The boundary of the unit square oriented counterclockwise could, for instance, be parametrized as $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t, 0)$ then $\mathbf{r}(t) = (1, t)$ then $\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 - t, 1)$ then $\mathbf{r}(t) = (0, 1 - t)$ for $0 \leq t \leq 1$.
- The **line integral of a vector field** $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ over curve γ parametrized by $\mathbf{r}(t)$ for $a \leq t \leq b$ is

$$\int_{\gamma} \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_a^b \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} dt.$$

The physical interpretation is the **work** done by force field f on a particle moving along γ . The work done is zero if f is perpendicular to γ at all points, for example, $f(x, y) = (x, y)$ and γ a circle.

- A vector field $f = (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n)$ with $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is **conservative** if $f = \nabla F$ for some function $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Here F is called a **potential function**. Fundamental theorem for line integrals is that if $f = \nabla F$ then for any curve γ from a to b ,

$$\int_{\gamma} \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = F(b) - F(a).$$

In particular if γ is a closed curve then this integral is zero, and also the line integral is **independent of the curve** γ from a to b .

- We can find a potential function by solving the equations

$$F_{x_i} = f_i \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

We integrate each equation with respect to x_i and remember that the constant of integration depends on all the other variables. However in most cases we encounter a potential function will be easy to find. For example, if $f(x, y, z) = (x, y, z)$ then a potential function is

$$F(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{2}y^2 + \frac{1}{2}z^2.$$

Now if γ is any curve say from $(0, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 1, 1)$, then

$$\int_{\gamma} f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = F(1, 1, 1) - F(0, 0, 0) = \frac{3}{2}.$$

This avoids the necessity to parametrize the curve γ .

- A **test for conservativity** is that $\nabla \times \mathbf{f}$ is zero when $\mathbf{f}: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$. This is the **curl** of \mathbf{f} , sometimes denoted $\text{curl}(f)$ and is exactly $(h_y - g_z, h_x - f_z, g_x - f_y)$. The notation $\nabla \times f$ suggests the **formal determinant** to remember the definition of the curl

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{f} = (h_y - g_z, h_x - f_z, g_x - f_y) = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ f & g & h \end{vmatrix}.$$

Physically, the curl measures the angular velocity of a ball if the vector field is placed at a point in the vector field.

- The **line integral of a scalar field** $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ along an oriented curve γ is defined by

$$\int_{\gamma} f ds = \int_{t_a}^{t_b} f(\mathbf{r}(t)) \|r'(t)\| dt$$

where $\mathbf{r}(t) = (x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_n(t))$ parametrizes γ from a to b , and

$$\|r'(t)\| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx_1}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dx_2}{dt}\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{dx_n}{dt}\right)^2}.$$

- When $f = 1$, we get the **arclength** of the curve γ . In the special case that γ is $y = g(x)$ for $a \leq x \leq b$, we get the length of $y = g(x)$ from $x = a$ to $x = b$ is

$$\int_a^b \sqrt{1 + g'(x)^2} dx$$

since $\mathbf{r}(x) = (x, g(x))$ is the parametrization. We can relate line integrals over scalar and vector fields by

$$\int_{\gamma} \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{\gamma} \mathbf{f} \cdot t ds$$

where $t = r'(t)/\|r'(t)\|$ is a unit tangent vector to γ .

- A few exercises on line integrals:

- Write the following curves in parametric form: (i) the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ in the plane $z = 1$ (ii) the straight line from $(0, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 2, 3)$ (iii) the spiral $r = 1/\theta$ and $z = 1$ in cylindrical co-ordinates (iv) the parabola $y = z = x^2$ from $(0, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 1, 1)$.
- Find the line integrals of $\mathbf{f}(x, y, z) = (yz, xz, xy)$ over each of the curves in (a) where possible.
- Which of the vector fields are conservative (i) $\mathbf{f}(x, y) = (x, y)$ (ii) $\mathbf{f}(x, y, z) = (y, z, x)$ (iii) $\mathbf{f}(x, y, z) = (z \ln y, zx/y, x \ln y)$.
- Find the line integral of (c)(iii) over each curve in (a).
- Find the length of the curve $y = x^{4/3}$ for $0 \leq x \leq 1$.

2. Surface integrals

- Surfaces have two **orientations** since there are two normal vectors at each point. For instance a sphere can be oriented inwards or outwards. Given a **unit normal vector** at a point on a smooth surface, we know the orientation: for instance if we are told that $(1, 0, 0)$ is the unit normal to the unit sphere at $(1, 0, 0)$, then the sphere has outward orientation, otherwise the unit normal at that point is $(-1, 0, 0)$.

- An oriented surface $\Sigma \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ can be **parametrized** by representing it as

$$\mathbf{R}(u, v) = (x_1(u, v), x_2(u, v), \dots, x_n(u, v)) \quad \text{for } (u, v) \in D.$$

In the special case of a surface $z = f(x, y)$ for $(x, y) \in D$, it makes sense to use the parametrization $\mathbf{R}(u, v) = (u, v, f(u, v))$ for $(u, v) \in D$. In spherical co-ordinates, we might parametrize the unit sphere as $\mathbf{R}(u, v) = (\cos u \sin v, \sin u \sin v, \cos v)$ for $0 \leq u < 2\pi$ and $0 \leq v < \pi$.

- The only problem might be that the orientation is not correct when we parametrize a surface by $\mathbf{R}(u, v)$ for $(u, v) \in D$. The unit normal arising from $\mathbf{R}(u, v)$ is $(\mathbf{T}_u \times \mathbf{T}_v) / \|\mathbf{T}_u \times \mathbf{T}_v\|$ where

$$\mathbf{T}_u = \frac{d\mathbf{R}}{du} \quad \mathbf{T}_v = \frac{d\mathbf{R}}{dv}$$

are the **tangent vectors** in the u and v directions. If the orientation is not correct, then we use $\mathbf{R}(v, u)$ as a parametrization instead of $\mathbf{R}(u, v)$. For example parametrization of the unit sphere above gives the unit sphere the **inward orientation**, since in that case at say at $(1, 0, 0)$ which corresponds to $(u, v) = (0, \pi/2)$, we get $\mathbf{T}_u \times \mathbf{T}_v = (-1, 0, 0)$.

- The **surface integral of a vector field** $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ over an oriented surface Σ parametrized by $\mathbf{R}(u, v) : (u, v) \in D$ is defined by

$$\iint_{\Sigma} \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{R} = \iint_D f(\mathbf{R}(u, v)) \cdot (\mathbf{T}_u \times \mathbf{T}_v) dW$$

It represents the **flux** of a fluid through Σ flowing according to the velocity field f .

- The **surface integral of a scalar field** $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ over an oriented surface Σ is

$$\iint_{\Sigma} f dS = \iint_D f(\mathbf{R}(u, v)) \|\mathbf{T}_u \times \mathbf{T}_v\| dW$$

and in the case $f = 1$ we get the **surface area** of Σ . If the surface is $z = \phi(x, y)$ then by using parametrization $\mathbf{R}(u, v) = (u, v, \phi(u, v))$ we get the **surface area formula**

$$\iint_D \sqrt{1 + \phi_u^2 + \phi_v^2} dA$$

- We can relate the two surface integrals in a useful way by

$$\iint_{\Sigma} \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{R} = \iint_{\Sigma} \mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS$$

where $\mathbf{n} = (\mathbf{T}_u \times \mathbf{T}_v) / \|\mathbf{T}_u \times \mathbf{T}_v\|$ is normal to Σ at each point. A particularly natural consequence is that f is tangent to Σ at each point of Σ , then the flux is zero, since $\mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{n} \equiv 0$.

- A few exercises on surface integrals:

- Parametrize the surfaces (i) $z = x^2 + y^2$, $x^2 + y^2 \leq 1$ (ii) $xy + (x + z)^2 = 1$, $0 \leq x \leq 1$, $0 \leq y \leq 1$ if the surfaces are oriented in the direction of $(0, 1, 0)$ at the point $(0, 1, 1)$.
- Determine the surface integrals of $\mathbf{f}(x, y, z) = (x, y, z)$ over each surface in (a).
- Prove that the surface area of a unit sphere is $4\pi^2$ using surface integrals.
- If Σ is the surface $z = \phi(x, y)$ and $\mathbf{f}(x, y, z) = (1, 1, \phi_x + \phi_y)$, determine the flux of f across Σ .

3. Integral theorems

- The **divergence** of a vector field $\mathbf{f} = (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n)$ is $\text{div}(\mathbf{f}) = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{f}$ and is defined by

$$f_{1x_1} + f_{2x_2} + \dots + f_{nx_n}$$

so if $\mathbf{f}(x, y, z) = (f(x, y, z), g(x, y, z), h(x, y, z))$ then it is $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{f} = f_x + g_y + h_z$. Physically, divergence is a measure of how much the fluid expands per unit of volume. So the vector field $f(x, y) = (x, y)$ has divergence 2, whereas $f(x, y) = (y, x)$ has zero divergence.

- Some properties of divergence and curl are

$$\nabla \times \nabla f = 0 \quad \nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{f}) = 0 \quad \nabla \cdot \nabla f = f_{x_1x_1} + f_{x_2x_2} + \dots + f_{x_nx_n}$$

which can all be proved from the definitions.

- The **divergence theorem** (also known as **Gauss' Theorem**) says

$$\iiint_D \nabla \cdot f dV = \iint_{\Sigma} \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{R}$$

where D is a closed and bounded set in \mathbb{R}^n with a smooth boundary Σ oriented outwards, and f is continuously differentiable on an open ball containing D . Physically, it makes sense: the flux of f across Σ equals the total divergence inside Σ .

- Consequences: we again see that if f is tangent to a closed surface Σ at every point, then we get

$$\iiint_D \nabla \cdot f dV = \iint_{\Sigma} \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{R} = \iint_{\Sigma} (\mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{n}) dS = 0$$

so the total divergence inside Σ is zero. Another consequence is that if there is no divergence inside Σ i.e. $\nabla \cdot f = 0$ then the flux of f through Σ is zero. Also, the flux of the curl of any vector field is zero since

$$\iint_{\Sigma} \nabla \times \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{R} = \iiint_D \nabla \cdot (\nabla \times f) dW = 0.$$

- An important special case of the divergence theorem is **Green's Theorem**. Green's Theorem says that if $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ is a vector field then for any closed curve γ with counterclockwise orientation enclosing a region D ,

$$\int_{\gamma} \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_D (h_x - g_y) dA$$

where $\mathbf{f} = (g, h)$. For example, if we want to find

$$\int_{\gamma} \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

when $f(x, y) = (xy, x + y)$ and γ is the counterclockwise boundary of the square $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$, we get

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (1 - x) dx dy = \frac{1}{2}$$

much easier than working out the line integral.

• If $\Sigma \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ is an oriented surface, then the boundary γ of Σ inherits an orientation from Σ : walking along γ , the normal to Σ must be to the right. [Stokes' Theorem](#) states that if Σ is an oriented surface with smooth boundary γ , then

$$\iint_{\Sigma} (\nabla \times \mathbf{f}) \cdot d\mathbf{R} = \int_{\gamma} \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{r}.$$

Physically this says that the flux of the curl of a vector field through a surface Σ depends only on the boundary of Σ . Take, for instance, the surface Σ defined by $e^z(x^2 + z + y^2) = 1$ for $z \geq 0$ with outward orientation. This complicated surface has a simple boundary which is the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. If $\mathbf{f}(x, y, z) = (x, y + z, z^3)$ then we conclude

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_{\Sigma} (\nabla \times \mathbf{f}) \cdot d\mathbf{R} &= \int_{\gamma} \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{r} \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} f(\cos t, \sin t, 0) \cdot (-\sin t, \cos t, 0) dt \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} (\cos t, \sin t, 0) \cdot (-\sin t, \cos t, 0) dt = 0. \end{aligned}$$

• Some exercises on integral theorems.

- (a) Determine the surface integral $\iint_{\Sigma} \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{R}$ when Σ (with outward orientation) and \mathbf{f} are (i) the surface of $[0, 1] \times [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ and $\mathbf{f}(x, y, z) = (x + z^y, y + x/z, z + 1/x)$ (ii) the unit sphere and $\mathbf{f}(x, y, z) = (xy, xz, z^2)$
- (b) Determine $\int_{\gamma} \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ when (i) γ is the unit circle and $f = (1 - x^2 - y^2, 1 - x^2 - y^2)$ (ii) γ consists of the unit circle oriented clockwise and the circle of radius $\frac{1}{2}$ oriented clockwise and $\mathbf{f} = (x^2 + y^3, y^2 - x^3)$.
- (iii) Let h be any function which is 1 on a closed curve γ . Find $\iint_D (h_x - h_y) dA$ when D is the region enclosed by γ and D is (i) the unit square $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ (ii) the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ (iii) the region between $y = 1 - x^2$ and $y = x^2 - 1$.
- (c) Determine $\iint_{\Sigma} (\nabla \times \mathbf{f}) \cdot d\mathbf{R}$ where Σ is the paraboloid $z = 5 - x^2 - y^2$ for $z \geq 0$ with upward orientation and $\mathbf{f} = (z^2, -3xy, x^3y^3)$.
- (d) Determine $\int_{\gamma} \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ where $\mathbf{f} = (z^2, y^2, x)$ and γ is the counterclockwise boundary of the surface $x + y + z = 1$ for $x \geq 0$ and $y \geq 0$ and $z \geq 0$.