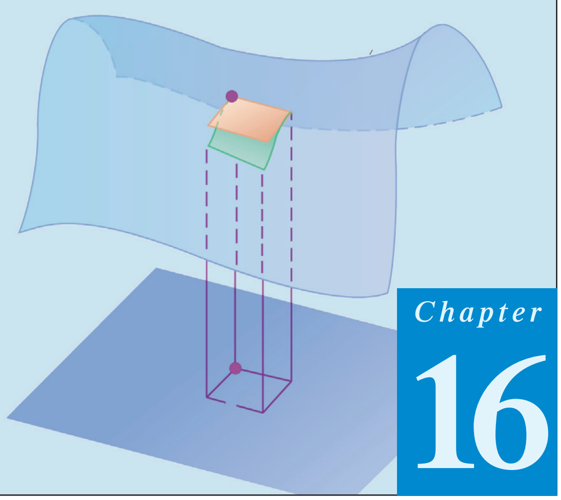


Chapter 16 Integration in Vector Fields

OVERVIEW This chapter treats integration in vector fields. It is the mathematics that engineers and physicists use to describe fluid flow, design underwater transmission cables, explain the flow of heat in stars, and put satellites in orbit. In particular, we define line integrals, which are used to find the work done by a force field in moving an object along a path through the field. We also define surface integrals so we can find the rate that a fluid flows across a surface. Along the way we develop key concepts and results, such as *conservative* force fields and Green's Theorem, to simplify our calculations of these new integrals by connecting them to the single, double, and triple integrals we have already studied.

16.1 Line Integrals

In Chapter 5 we defined the definite integral of a function over a finite closed interval $[a, b]$ on the x-axis. We used definite integrals to find the mass of a thin straight rod, or the work done by a variable force directed along the x-axis. Now we would like to calculate the masses of thin rods or wires lying along a *curve* in the plane or space, or to find the work done by a variable force acting along such a curve. For these calculations we need a more general notion of a "line" integral than integrating over a line segment on the x-axis. Instead we need to integrate over a curve C in the plane or in space. These more general integrals are called *line integrals*, although "curve" integrals might be more descriptive. We make our definitions for space curves, remembering that curves in the xy-plane are just a special case with z-coordinate identically zero.

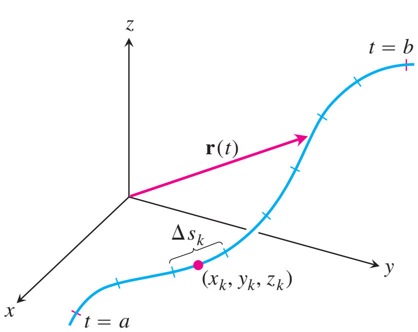


FIGURE 16.1 The curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$ partitioned into small arcs from $t = a$ to $t = b$. The length of a typical subarc is Δs_k.

Suppose that $f(x, y, z)$ is a real-valued function we wish to integrate over the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = g(t)\mathbf{i} + h(t)\mathbf{j} + k(t)\mathbf{k}$, $a \le t \le b$, lying within the domain of f. The values of f along the curve are given by the composite function $f(g(t), h(t), k(t))$. We are going to integrate this composite with respect to arc length from $t = a$ to $t = b$. To begin, we first partition the curve into a finite number n of subarcs (Figure 16.1). The typical subarc has length Δs_k. In each subarc we choose a point (x_k, y_k, z_k) and form the sum

$$S_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(x_k, y_k, z_k)\, \Delta s_k.$$

If f is continuous and the functions g, h, and k have continuous first derivatives, then these sums approach a limit as n increases and the lengths Δs_k approach zero. We call this limit the **line integral of f over the curve from a to b**. If the curve is denoted by a single letter, C for example, the notation for the integral is

$$\int_C f(x, y, z)\, ds \qquad \text{"The integral of } f \text{ over } C\text{"} \tag{1}$$

If $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is smooth for $a \le t \le b$ ($\mathbf{v} = d\mathbf{r}/dt$ is continuous and never $\mathbf{0}$), we can use the equation

$$s(t) = \int_a^b |\mathbf{v}(\tau)|\, d\tau \qquad \text{Equation (3) of Section 13.3 with } t_0 = a$$

to express ds in Equation (1) as $ds = |\mathbf{v}(t)|\, dt$. A theorem from advanced calculus says that we can then evaluate the integral of f over C as

$$\int_C f(x, y, z)\, ds = \int_a^b f(g(t), h(t), k(t))\,|\mathbf{v}(t)|\, dt.$$

Notice that the integral on the right side of this last equation is just an ordinary (single) definite integral, as defined in Chapter 5, where we are integrating with respect to the parameter t. The formula evaluates the line integral on the left side correctly no matter what parametrization is used, as long as the parametrization is smooth.

How to Evaluate a Line Integral

To integrate a continuous function $f(x, y, z)$ over a curve C:

1. Find a smooth parametrization of C,

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = g(t)\mathbf{i} + h(t)\mathbf{j} + k(t)\mathbf{k}, \qquad a \le t \le b$$

2. Evaluate the integral as

$$\int_C f(x, y, z)\, ds = \int_a^b f(g(t), h(t), k(t))\,|\mathbf{v}(t)|\, dt. \qquad (2)$$

If f has the constant value 1, then the integral of f over C gives the length of C.

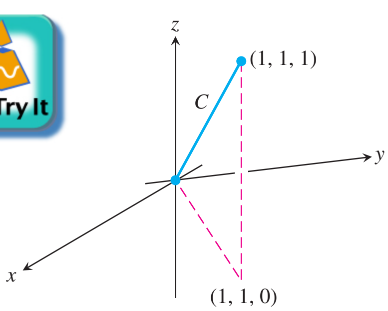


FIGURE 16.2 The integration path in Example 1.

You Try It

Video

EXAMPLE 1 Evaluating a Line Integral

Integrate $f(x, y, z) = x - 3y^2 + z$ over the line segment C joining the origin to the point (1, 1, 1) (Figure 16.2).

Solution We choose the simplest parametrization we can think of:

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}, \qquad 0 \le t \le 1.$$

The components have continuous first derivatives and $|\mathbf{v}(t)| = |\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}| = \sqrt{1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{3}$ is never 0, so the parametrization is smooth. The integral of f over C is

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_C f(x, y, z)\, ds &= \int_0^1 f(t, t, t)\left(\sqrt{3}\right) dt \qquad \text{Equation (2)} \\
&= \int_0^1 (t - 3t^2 + t)\sqrt{3}\, dt \\
&= \sqrt{3}\int_0^1 (2t - 3t^2)\, dt = \sqrt{3}\left[t^2 - t^3\right]_0^1 = 0.
\end{aligned}$$

Additivity

Line integrals have the useful property that if a curve C is made by joining a finite number of curves $C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_n$ end to end, then the integral of a function over C is the sum of the integrals over the curves that make it up:

$$\int_C f\, ds = \int_{C_1} f\, ds + \int_{C_2} f\, ds + \cdots + \int_{C_n} f\, ds. \tag{3}$$

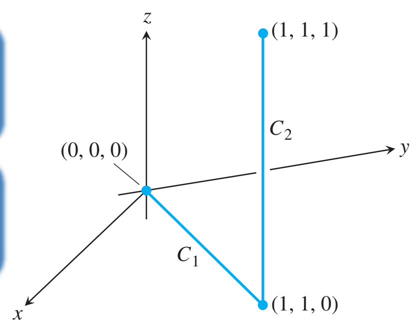


FIGURE 16.3 The path of integration in Example 2.

EXAMPLE 2 Line Integral for Two Joined Paths

Figure 16.3 shows another path from the origin to (1, 1, 1), the union of line segments C_1 and C_2. Integrate $f(x, y, z) = x - 3y^2 + z$ over $C_1 \cup C_2$.

Solution We choose the simplest parametrizations for C_1 and C_2 we can think of, checking the lengths of the velocity vectors as we go along:

$$C_1: \quad \mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 \le t \le 1; \quad |\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{1^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{2}$$

$$C_2: \quad \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 1; \quad |\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{0^2 + 0^2 + 1^2} = 1.$$

With these parametrizations we find that

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{C_1 \cup C_2} f(x, y, z)\, ds &= \int_{C_1} f(x, y, z)\, ds + \int_{C_2} f(x, y, z)\, ds && \text{Equation (3)} \\
&= \int_0^1 f(t, t, 0)\sqrt{2}\, dt + \int_0^1 f(1, 1, t)(1)\, dt && \text{Equation (2)} \\
&= \int_0^1 (t - 3t^2 + 0)\sqrt{2}\, dt + \int_0^1 (1 - 3 + t)(1)\, dt \\
&= \sqrt{2}\left[\frac{t^2}{2} - t^3\right]_0^1 + \left[\frac{t^2}{2} - 2t\right]_0^1 = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} - \frac{3}{2}.
\end{aligned}$$

■

Notice three things about the integrations in Examples 1 and 2. First, as soon as the components of the appropriate curve were substituted into the formula for f, the integration became a standard integration with respect to t. Second, the integral of f over $C_1 \cup C_2$ was obtained by integrating f over each section of the path and adding the results. Third, the integrals of f over C and $C_1 \cup C_2$ had different values. For most functions, the value of the integral along a path joining two points changes if you change the path between them. For some functions, however, the value remains the same, as we will see in Section 16.3.

Mass and Moment Calculations

We treat coil springs and wires like masses distributed along smooth curves in space. The distribution is described by a continuous density function $\delta(x, y, z)$ (mass per unit length). The spring's or wire's mass, center of mass, and moments are then calculated with the formulas in Table 16.1. The formulas also apply to thin rods.

TABLE 16.1 Mass and moment formulas for coil springs, thin rods, and wires lying along a smooth curve C in space

Mass: $M = \int_C \delta(x, y, z)\, ds \qquad (\delta = \delta(x, y, z) = \text{density})$

First moments about the coordinate planes:

$$M_{yz} = \int_C x\,\delta\, ds, \qquad M_{xz} = \int_C y\,\delta\, ds, \qquad M_{xy} = \int_C z\,\delta\, ds$$

Coordinates of the center of mass:

$$\bar{x} = M_{yz}/M, \qquad \bar{y} = M_{xz}/M, \qquad \bar{z} = M_{xy}/M$$

Moments of inertia about axes and other lines:

$$I_x = \int_C (y^2 + z^2)\,\delta\, ds, \qquad I_y = \int_C (x^2 + z^2)\,\delta\, ds$$

$$I_z = \int_C (x^2 + y^2)\,\delta\, ds, \qquad I_L = \int_C r^2\,\delta\, ds$$

$$r(x, y, z) = \text{distance from the point } (x, y, z) \text{ to line } L$$

Radius of gyration about a line L: $R_L = \sqrt{I_L/M}$

EXAMPLE 3 Finding Mass, Center of Mass, Moment of Inertia, Radius of Gyration

A coil spring lies along the helix

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos 4t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin 4t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}, \qquad 0 \le t \le 2\pi.$$

The spring's density is a constant, $\delta = 1$. Find the spring's mass and center of mass, and its moment of inertia and radius of gyration about the z-axis.

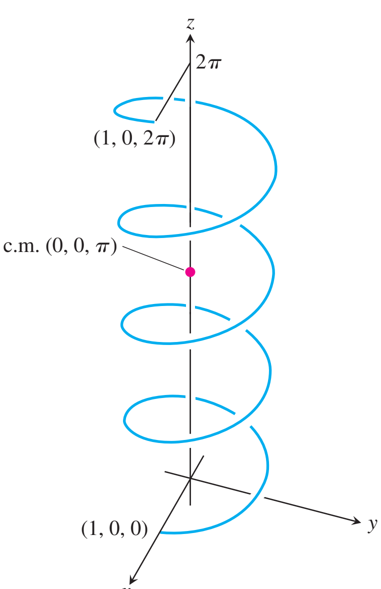


FIGURE 16.4 The helical spring in Example 3.

Solution We sketch the spring (Figure 16.4). Because of the symmetries involved, the center of mass lies at the point $(0, 0, \pi)$ on the z-axis.

For the remaining calculations, we first find $|\mathbf{v}(t)|$:

$$|\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt}\right)^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{(-4\sin 4t)^2 + (4\cos 4t)^2 + 1} = \sqrt{17}.$$

We then evaluate the formulas from Table 16.1 using Equation (2):

$$M = \int_{\text{Helix}} \delta\, ds = \int_0^{2\pi} (1)\sqrt{17}\, dt = 2\pi\sqrt{17}$$

$$I_z = \int_{\text{Helix}} (x^2 + y^2)\delta\, ds = \int_0^{2\pi} (\cos^2 4t + \sin^2 4t)(1)\sqrt{17}\, dt$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{17}\, dt = 2\pi\sqrt{17}$$

$$R_z = \sqrt{I_z/M} = \sqrt{2\pi\sqrt{17}/(2\pi\sqrt{17})} = 1.$$

Notice that the radius of gyration about the z-axis is the radius of the cylinder around which the helix winds. ■

EXAMPLE 4 Finding an Arch's Center of Mass

A slender metal arch, denser at the bottom than top, lies along the semicircle $y^2 + z^2 = 1, z \geq 0$, in the yz-plane (Figure 16.5). Find the center of the arch's mass if the density at the point (x, y, z) on the arch is $\delta(x, y, z) = 2 - z$.

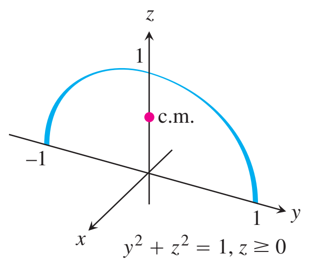


FIGURE 16.5 Example 4 shows how to find the center of mass of a circular arch of variable density.

Solution We know that $\bar{x} = 0$ and $\bar{y} = 0$ because the arch lies in the yz-plane with its mass distributed symmetrically about the z-axis. To find $\bar{z}$, we parametrize the circle as

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{j} + (\sin t)\mathbf{k}, \qquad 0 \leq t \leq \pi.$$

For this parametrization,

$$|\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt}\right)^2} = \sqrt{(0)^2 + (-\sin t)^2 + (\cos t)^2} = 1.$$

The formulas in Table 16.1 then give

$$M = \int_C \delta\, ds = \int_C (2 - z)\, ds = \int_0^{\pi} (2 - \sin t)(1)\, dt = 2\pi - 2$$

$$M_{xy} = \int_C z\delta\, ds = \int_C z(2 - z)\, ds = \int_0^{\pi} (\sin t)(2 - \sin t)\, dt$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi} (2 \sin t - \sin^2 t)\, dt = \frac{8 - \pi}{2}$$

$$\bar{z} = \frac{M_{xy}}{M} = \frac{8 - \pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2\pi - 2} = \frac{8 - \pi}{4\pi - 4} \approx 0.57.$$

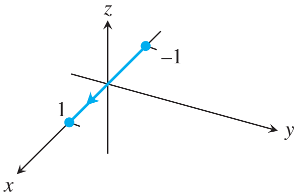
With $\bar{z}$ to the nearest hundredth, the center of mass is $(0, 0, 0.57)$. ■

EXERCISES 16.1

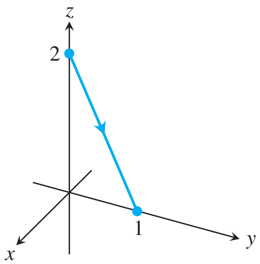
Graphs of Vector Equations

Match the vector equations in Exercises 1–8 with the graphs (a)–(h) given here.

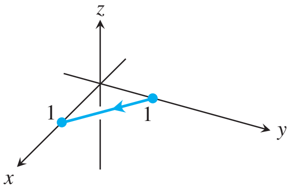
a.



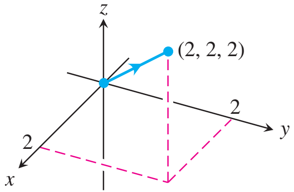
b.

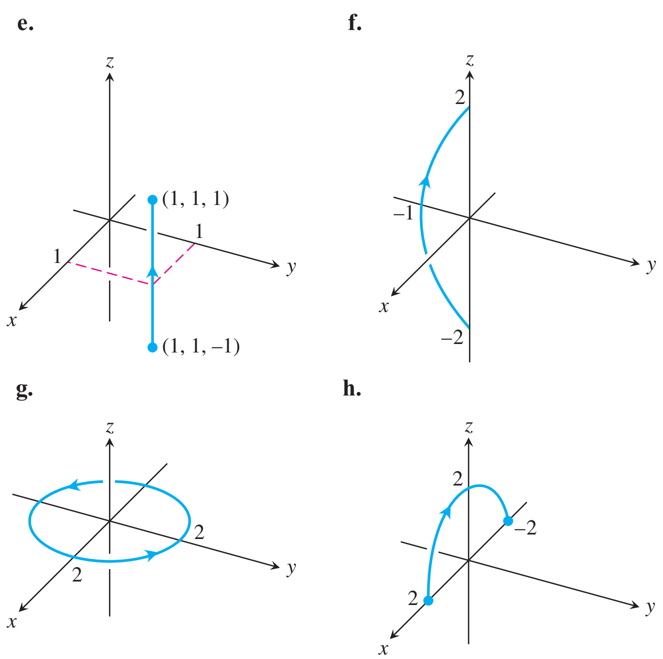


c.



d.





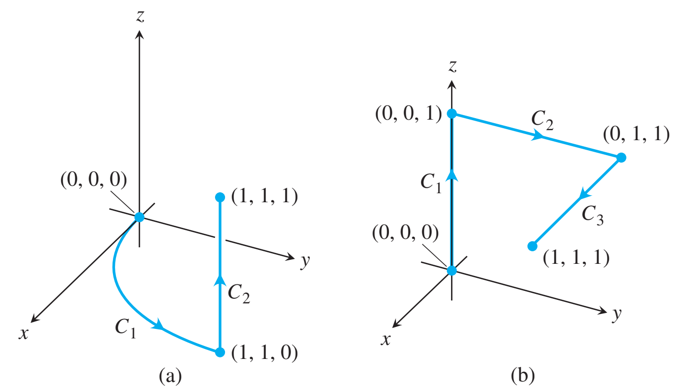


FIGURE 16.6 The paths of integration for Exercises 15 and 16.

1. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + (1 - t)\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 \le t \le 1$
2. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}, \quad -1 \le t \le 1$
3. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (2\sin t)\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 \le t \le 2\pi$
4. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i}, \quad -1 \le t \le 1$
5. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 2$
6. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{j} + (2 - 2t)\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 1$
7. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t^2 - 1)\mathbf{j} + 2t\mathbf{k}, \quad -1 \le t \le 1$
8. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (2\sin t)\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le \pi$

Evaluating Line Integrals over Space Curves

9. Evaluate $\int_C (x + y)\,ds$ where C is the straight-line segment $x = t, y = (1 - t), z = 0$, from $(0, 1, 0)$ to $(1, 0, 0)$.
10. Evaluate $\int_C (x - y + z - 2)\,ds$ where C is the straight-line segment $x = t, y = (1 - t), z = 1$, from $(0, 1, 1)$ to $(1, 0, 1)$.
11. Evaluate $\int_C (xy + y + z)\,ds$ along the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = 2t\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j} + (2 - 2t)\mathbf{k}, 0 \le t \le 1$.
12. Evaluate $\int_C \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\,ds$ along the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = (4\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (4\sin t)\mathbf{j} + 3t\mathbf{k}, -2\pi \le t \le 2\pi$.
13. Find the line integral of $f(x, y, z) = x + y + z$ over the straight-line segment from $(1, 2, 3)$ to $(0, -1, 1)$.
14. Find the line integral of $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{3}/(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$ over the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}, 1 \le t \le \infty$.
15. Integrate $f(x, y, z) = x + \sqrt{y} - z^2$ over the path from $(0, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 1, 1)$ (Figure 16.6a) given by

$$C_1: \quad \mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 \le t \le 1$$
$$C_2: \quad \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 1$$

16. Integrate $f(x, y, z) = x + \sqrt{y} - z^2$ over the path from $(0, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 1, 1)$ (Figure 16.6b) given by

$$C_1: \quad \mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 1$$
$$C_2: \quad \mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 1$$
$$C_3: \quad \mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 1$$

17. Integrate $f(x, y, z) = (x + y + z)/(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$ over the path $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}, 0 < a \le t \le b$.
18. Integrate $f(x, y, z) = -\sqrt{x^2 + z^2}$ over the circle

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (a\cos t)\mathbf{j} + (a\sin t)\mathbf{k}, \qquad 0 \le t \le 2\pi.$$

Line Integrals over Plane Curves

In Exercises 19–22, integrate f over the given curve.

19. $f(x, y) = x^3/y, \quad C: \quad y = x^2/2, \quad 0 \le x \le 2$
20. $f(x, y) = (x + y^2)/\sqrt{1 + x^2}, \quad C: \quad y = x^2/2$ from $(1, 1/2)$ to $(0, 0)$
21. $f(x, y) = x + y, \quad C: \quad x^2 + y^2 = 4$ in the first quadrant from $(2, 0)$ to $(0, 2)$
22. $f(x, y) = x^2 - y, \quad C: \quad x^2 + y^2 = 4$ in the first quadrant from $(0, 2)$ to $(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2})$

Mass and Moments

23. **Mass of a wire** Find the mass of a wire that lies along the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t^2 - 1)\mathbf{j} + 2t\mathbf{k}, 0 \le t \le 1$, if the density is $\delta = (3/2)t$.
24. **Center of mass of a curved wire** A wire of density $\delta(x, y, z) = 15\sqrt{y + 2}$ lies along the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t^2 - 1)\mathbf{j} + 2t\mathbf{k}, -1 \le t \le 1$. Find its center of mass. Then sketch the curve and center of mass together.
25. **Mass of wire with variable density** Find the mass of a thin wire lying along the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sqrt{2}t\mathbf{i} + \sqrt{2}t\mathbf{j} + (4 - t^2)\mathbf{k}, 0 \le t \le 1$, if the density is **(a)** $\delta = 3t$ and **(b)** $\delta = 1$.

26. Center of mass of wire with variable density Find the center of mass of a thin wire lying along the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + 2t\mathbf{j} + (2/3)t^{3/2}\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 2$, if the density is $\delta = 3\sqrt{5 + t}$.

27. Moment of inertia and radius of gyration of wire hoop A circular wire hoop of constant density δ lies along the circle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ in the xy-plane. Find the hoop's moment of inertia and radius of gyration about the z-axis.

28. Inertia and radii of gyration of slender rod A slender rod of constant density lies along the line segment $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{j} + (2 - 2t)\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 1$, in the yz-plane. Find the moments of inertia and radii of gyration of the rod about the three coordinate axes.

29. Two springs of constant density A spring of constant density δ lies along the helix

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}, \qquad 0 \le t \le 2\pi.$$

a. Find I_z and R_z.

b. Suppose that you have another spring of constant density δ that is twice as long as the spring in part (a) and lies along the helix for $0 \le t \le 4\pi$. Do you expect I_z and R_z for the longer spring to be the same as those for the shorter one, or should they be different? Check your predictions by calculating I_z and R_z for the longer spring.

30. Wire of constant density A wire of constant density $\delta = 1$ lies along the curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (t\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (t\sin t)\mathbf{j} + \left(2\sqrt{2}/3\right)t^{3/2}\mathbf{k}, \qquad 0 \le t \le 1.$$

Find $\bar{z}$, I_z, and R_z.

31. The arch in Example 4 Find I_x and R_x for the arch in Example 4.

32. Center of mass, moments of inertia, and radii of gyration for wire with variable density Find the center of mass, and the moments of inertia and radii of gyration about the coordinate axes of a thin wire lying along the curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3}t^{3/2}\mathbf{j} + \frac{t^2}{2}\mathbf{k}, \qquad 0 \le t \le 2,$$

if the density is $\delta = 1/(t + 1)$

COMPUTER EXPLORATIONS

Evaluating Line Integrals Numerically

In Exercises 33–36, use a CAS to perform the following steps to evaluate the line integrals.

a. Find $ds = |\mathbf{v}(t)|\,dt$ for the path $\mathbf{r}(t) = g(t)\mathbf{i} + h(t)\mathbf{j} + k(t)\mathbf{k}$.

b. Express the integrand $f(g(t), h(t), k(t))\,|\mathbf{v}(t)|$ as a function of the parameter t.

c. Evaluate $\int_C f\,ds$ using Equation (2) in the text.

33. $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{1 + 30x^2 + 10y}$; $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + 3t^2\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 2$

34. $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{1 + x^3 + 5y^3}$; $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{3}t^2\mathbf{j} + \sqrt{t}\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 2$

35. $f(x, y, z) = x\sqrt{y} - 3z^2$; $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos 2t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin 2t)\mathbf{j} + 5t\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

36. $f(x, y, z) = \left(1 + \frac{9}{4}z^{1/3}\right)^{1/4}$; $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos 2t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin 2t)\mathbf{j} + t^{5/2}\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

16.2 Vector Fields, Work, Circulation, and Flux

When we study physical phenomena that are represented by vectors, we replace integrals over closed intervals by integrals over paths through vector fields. We use such integrals to find the work done in moving an object along a path against a variable force (such as a vehicle sent into space against Earth's gravitational field) or to find the work done by a vector field in moving an object along a path through the field (such as the work done by an accelerator in raising the energy of a particle). We also use line integrals to find the rates at which fluids flow along and across curves.

Vector Fields

Suppose a region in the plane or in space is occupied by a moving fluid such as air or water. Imagine that the fluid is made up of a very large number of particles, and that at any instant of time a particle has a velocity **v**. If we take a picture of the velocities of some particles at

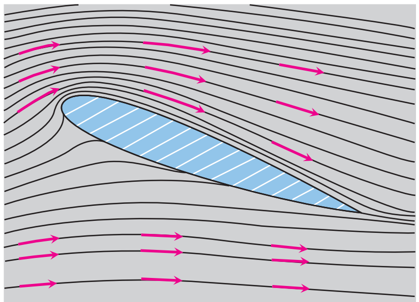


FIGURE 16.7 Velocity vectors of a flow around an airfoil in a wind tunnel. The streamlines were made visible by kerosene smoke.

different position points at the same instant, we would expect to find that these velocities vary from position to position. We can think of a velocity vector as being attached to each point of the fluid. Such a fluid flow exemplifies a *vector field*. For example, Figure 16.7 shows a velocity vector field obtained by attaching a velocity vector to each point of air flowing around an airfoil in a wind tunnel. Figure 16.8 shows another vector field of velocity vectors along the streamlines of water moving through a contracting channel. In addition to vector fields associated with fluid flows, there are vector force fields that are associated with gravitational attraction (Figure 16.9), magnetic force fields, electric fields, and even purely mathematical fields.

Generally, a **vector field** on a domain in the plane or in space is a function that assigns a vector to each point in the domain. A field of three-dimensional vectors might have a formula like

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = M(x, y, z)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y, z)\mathbf{j} + P(x, y, z)\mathbf{k}.$$

The field is **continuous** if the **component functions** M, N, and P are continuous, **differentiable** if M, N, and P are differentiable, and so on. A field of two-dimensional vectors might have a formula like

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j}.$$

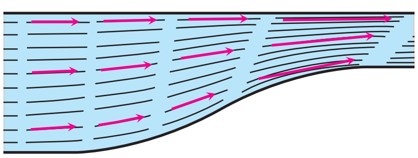


FIGURE 16.8 Streamlines in a contracting channel. The water speeds up as the channel narrows and the velocity vectors increase in length.

If we attach a projectile's velocity vector to each point of the projectile's trajectory in the plane of motion, we have a two-dimensional field defined along the trajectory. If we attach the gradient vector of a scalar function to each point of a level surface of the function, we have a three-dimensional field on the surface. If we attach the velocity vector to each point of a flowing fluid, we have a three-dimensional field defined on a region in space. These and other fields are illustrated in Figures 16.10–16.15. Some of the illustrations give formulas for the fields as well.

To sketch the fields that had formulas, we picked a representative selection of domain points and sketched the vectors attached to them. The arrows representing the vectors are drawn with their tails, not their heads, at the points where the vector functions are

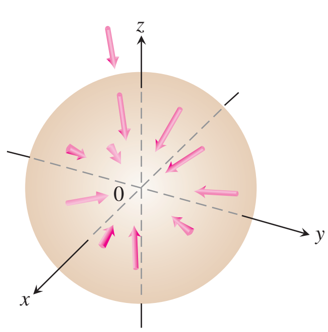


FIGURE 16.9 Vectors in a gravitational field point toward the center of mass that gives the source of the field.

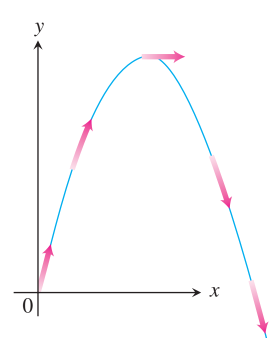


FIGURE 16.10 The velocity vectors $\mathbf{v}(t)$ of a projectile's motion make a vector field along the trajectory.

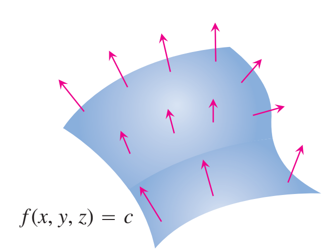


FIGURE 16.11 The field of gradient vectors ∇f on a surface $f(x, y, z) = c$.

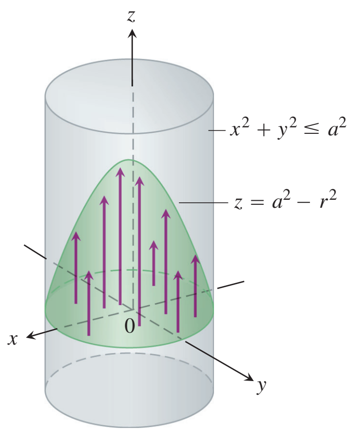


FIGURE 16.12 The flow of fluid in a long cylindrical pipe. The vectors $\mathbf{v} = (a^2 - r^2)\mathbf{k}$ inside the cylinder that have their bases in the xy-plane have their tips on the paraboloid $z = a^2 - r^2$.

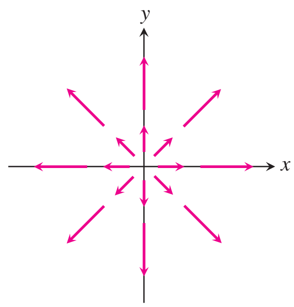


FIGURE 16.13 The radial field $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$ of position vectors of points in the plane. Notice the convention that an arrow is drawn with its tail, not its head, at the point where $\mathbf{F}$ is evaluated.

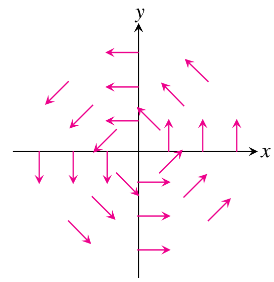


FIGURE 16.14 The circumferential or "spin" field of unit vectors

$$\mathbf{F} = (-y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j})/(x^2 + y^2)^{1/2}$$

in the plane. The field is not defined at the origin.

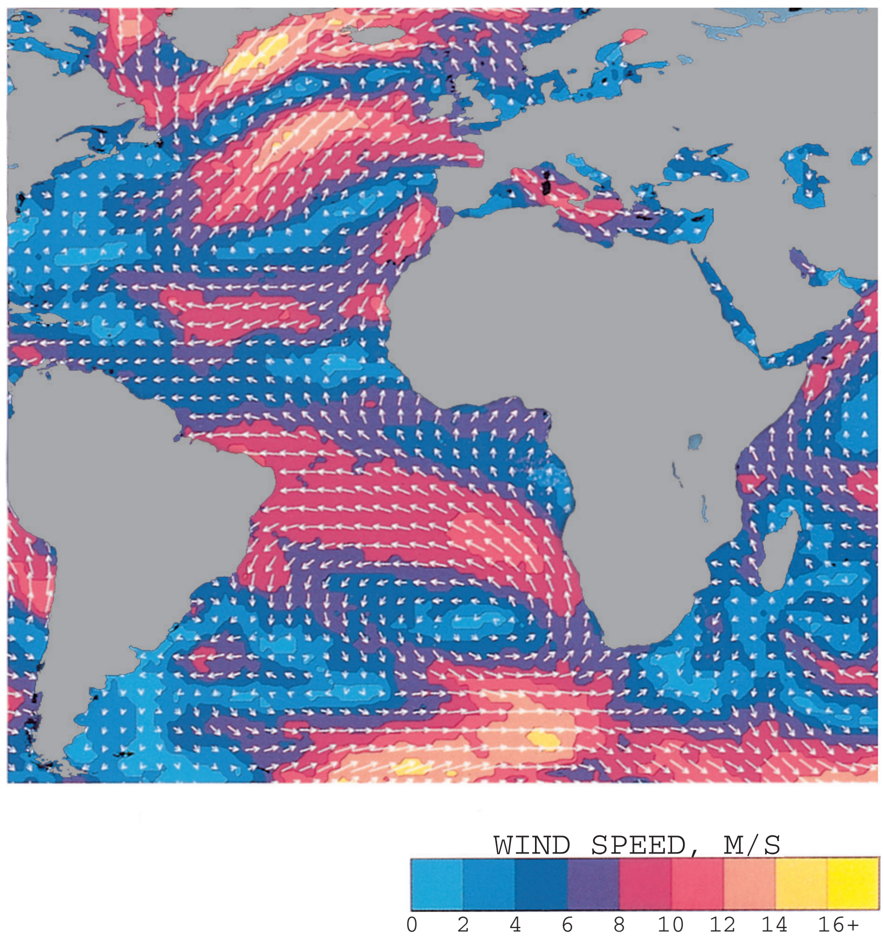


FIGURE 16.15 NASA's *Seasat* used radar to take 350,000 wind measurements over the world's oceans. The arrows show wind direction; their length and the color contouring indicate speed. Notice the heavy storm south of Greenland.

evaluated. This is different from the way we draw position vectors of planets and projectiles, with their tails at the origin and their heads at the planet's and projectile's locations.

Gradient Fields

DEFINITION Gradient Field
The **gradient field** of a differentiable function $f(x, y, z)$ is the field of gradient vectors

$$\nabla f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\mathbf{k}.$$

EXAMPLE 1 Finding a Gradient Field

Find the gradient field of $f(x, y, z) = xyz$.

Solution The gradient field of f is the field $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f = yz\mathbf{i} + xz\mathbf{j} + xy\mathbf{k}$. ■

As we will see in Section 16.3, gradient fields are of special importance in engineering, mathematics, and physics.

Work Done by a Force over a Curve in Space

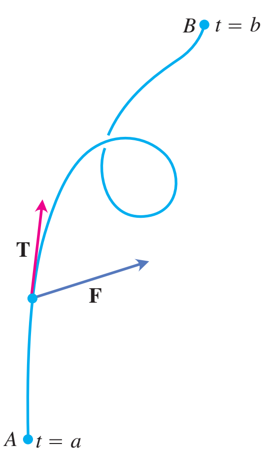


FIGURE 16.16 The work done by a force **F** is the line integral of the scalar component $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}$ over the smooth curve from A to B.

Suppose that the vector field $\mathbf{F} = M(x, y, z)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y, z)\mathbf{j} + P(x, y, z)\mathbf{k}$ represents a force throughout a region in space (it might be the force of gravity or an electromagnetic force of some kind) and that

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = g(t)\mathbf{i} + h(t)\mathbf{j} + k(t)\mathbf{k}, \qquad a \le t \le b,$$

is a smooth curve in the region. Then the integral of $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}$, the scalar component of $\mathbf{F}$ in the direction of the curve's unit tangent vector, over the curve is called the work done by $\mathbf{F}$ over the curve from a to b (Figure 16.16).

DEFINITION Work over a Smooth Curve
The **work** done by a force $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$ over a smooth curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$ from $t = a$ to $t = b$ is

$$W = \int_{t=a}^{t=b} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}\, ds. \qquad (1)$$

We motivate Equation (1) with the same kind of reasoning we used in Chapter 6 to derive the formula $W = \int_a^b F(x)\,dx$ for the work done by a continuous force of magnitude $F(x)$ directed along an interval of the x-axis. We divide the curve into short segments, apply the (constant-force) $\times$ (distance) formula for work to approximate the work over each curved segment, add the results to approximate the work over the entire curve, and calculate the work as the limit of the approximating sums as the segments become shorter and more numerous. To find exactly what the limiting integral should be, we partition the parameter interval $[a, b]$ in the usual way and choose a point c_k in each subinterval $[t_k, t_{k+1}]$. The partition of $[a, b]$ determines ("induces," we say) a partition of the curve, with the point P_k being the tip of the position vector $\mathbf{r}(t_k)$ and Δs_k being the length of the curve segment P_kP_{k+1} (Figure 16.17).

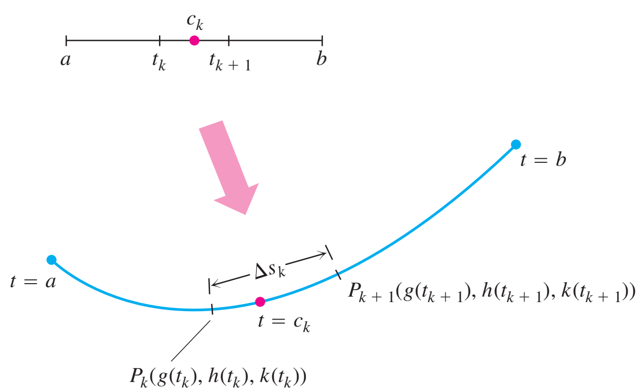


FIGURE 16.17 Each partition of $[a, b]$ induces a partition of the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = g(t)\mathbf{i} + h(t)\mathbf{j} + k(t)\mathbf{k}$.

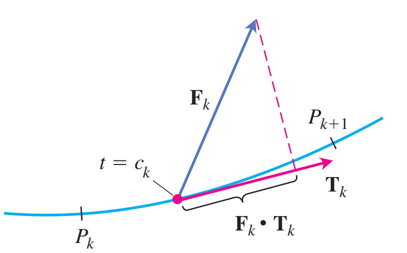


FIGURE 16.18 An enlarged view of the curve segment P_kP_{k+1} in Figure 16.17, showing the force and unit tangent vectors at the point on the curve where $t = c_k$.

If $\mathbf{F}_k$ denotes the value of $\mathbf{F}$ at the point on the curve corresponding to $t = c_k$ and $\mathbf{T}_k$ denotes the curve's unit tangent vector at this point, then $\mathbf{F}_k \cdot \mathbf{T}_k$ is the scalar component of $\mathbf{F}$ in the direction of $\mathbf{T}$ at $t = c_k$ (Figure 16.18). The work done by $\mathbf{F}$ along the curve segment P_kP_{k+1} is approximately

$$\begin{pmatrix}\text{Force component in}\\ \text{direction of motion}\end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix}\text{distance}\\ \text{applied}\end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{F}_k \cdot \mathbf{T}_k \, \Delta s_k.$$

The work done by $\mathbf{F}$ along the curve from $t = a$ to $t = b$ is approximately

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \mathbf{F}_k \cdot \mathbf{T}_k \, \Delta s_k.$$

As the norm of the partition of $[a, b]$ approaches zero, the norm of the induced partition of the curve approaches zero and these sums approach the line integral

$$\int_{t=a}^{t=b} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds.$$

The sign of the number we calculate with this integral depends on the direction in which the curve is traversed as t increases. If we reverse the direction of motion, we reverse the direction of $\mathbf{T}$ and change the sign of $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}$ and its integral.

Table 16.2 shows six ways to write the work integral in Equation (1). Despite their variety, the formulas in Table 16.2 are all evaluated the same way. In the table, $\mathbf{r}(t) = g(t)\mathbf{i} + h(t)\mathbf{j} + k(t)\mathbf{k} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ is a smooth curve, and

$$d\mathbf{r} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}\, dt = dg\mathbf{i} + dh\mathbf{j} + dk\mathbf{k}$$

is its differential.

TABLE 16.2 Six different ways to write the work integral

$\mathbf{W} = \int_{t=a}^{t=b} \mathbf{F}\cdot\mathbf{T}\,ds$	The definition
$= \int_{t=a}^{t=b} \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r}$	Compact differential form
$= \int_a^b \mathbf{F}\cdot\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}\,dt$	Expanded to include dt; emphasizes the parameter t and velocity vector $d\mathbf{r}/dt$
$= \int_a^b \left(M\frac{dg}{dt} + N\frac{dh}{dt} + P\frac{dk}{dt}\right)dt$	Emphasizes the component functions
$= \int_a^b \left(M\frac{dx}{dt} + N\frac{dy}{dt} + P\frac{dz}{dt}\right)dt$	Abbreviates the components of $\mathbf{r}$
$= \int_a^b M\,dx + N\,dy + P\,dz$	dt's canceled; the most common form

Evaluating a Work Integral

To evaluate the work integral along a smooth curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$, take these steps:

1. Evaluate $\mathbf{F}$ on the curve as a function of the parameter t.
2. Find $d\mathbf{r}/dt$.
3. Integrate $\mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r}/dt$ from $t = a$ to $t = b$.

EXAMPLE 2 Finding Work Done by a Variable Force over a Space Curve

You Try It

Find the work done by $\mathbf{F} = (y - x^2)\mathbf{i} + (z - y^2)\mathbf{j} + (x - z^2)\mathbf{k}$ over the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t^3\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 1$, from (0, 0, 0) to (1, 1, 1) (Figure 16.19).

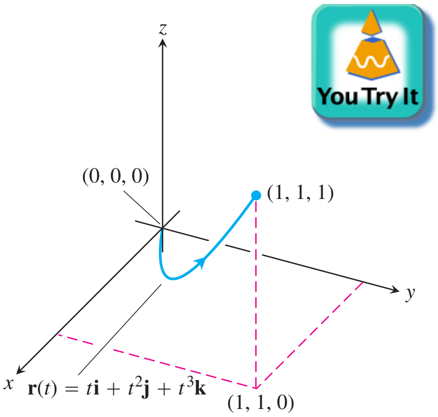


FIGURE 16.19 The curve in Example 2.

Solution First we evaluate $\mathbf{F}$ on the curve:

$$\mathbf{F} = (y - x^2)\mathbf{i} + (z - y^2)\mathbf{j} + (x - z^2)\mathbf{k}$$
$$= \underbrace{(t^2 - t^2)}_{0}\mathbf{i} + (t^3 - t^4)\mathbf{j} + (t - t^6)\mathbf{k}$$

Then we find $d\mathbf{r}/dt$,

$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}(t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t^3\mathbf{k}) = \mathbf{i} + 2t\mathbf{j} + 3t^2\mathbf{k}$$

Finally, we find $\mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r}/dt$ and integrate from $t = 0$ to $t = 1$:

$$\mathbf{F}\cdot\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = [(t^3 - t^4)\mathbf{j} + (t - t^6)\mathbf{k}]\cdot(\mathbf{i} + 2t\mathbf{j} + 3t^2\mathbf{k})$$
$$= (t^3 - t^4)(2t) + (t - t^6)(3t^2) = 2t^4 - 2t^5 + 3t^3 - 3t^8,$$

so

$$\text{Work} = \int_0^1 (2t^4 - 2t^5 + 3t^3 - 3t^8)\,dt$$

$$= \left[\frac{2}{5}t^5 - \frac{2}{6}t^6 + \frac{3}{4}t^4 - \frac{3}{9}t^9\right]_0^1 = \frac{29}{60}.$$

Flow Integrals and Circulation for Velocity Fields

Instead of being a force field, suppose that **F** represents the velocity field of a fluid flowing through a region in space (a tidal basin or the turbine chamber of a hydroelectric generator, for example). Under these circumstances, the integral of $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}$ along a curve in the region gives the fluid's flow along the curve.

DEFINITIONS Flow Integral, Circulation

If $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is a smooth curve in the domain of a continuous velocity field **F**, the **flow** along the curve from $t = a$ to $t = b$ is

$$\text{Flow} = \int_a^b \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}\, ds. \tag{2}$$

The integral in this case is called a **flow integral**. If the curve is a closed loop, the flow is called the **circulation** around the curve.

We evaluate flow integrals the same way we evaluate work integrals.

EXAMPLE 3 Finding Flow Along a Helix

A fluid's velocity field is $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + z\mathbf{j} + y\mathbf{k}$. Find the flow along the helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le \pi/2$.

Solution We evaluate **F** on the curve,

$$\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + z\mathbf{j} + y\mathbf{k} = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j} + (\sin t)\mathbf{k}$$

and then find $d\mathbf{r}/dt$:

$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = (-\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\cos t)\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}.$$

Then we integrate $\mathbf{F} \cdot (d\mathbf{r}/dt)$ from $t = 0$ to $t = \frac{\pi}{2}$:

$$\mathbf{F} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = (\cos t)(-\sin t) + (t)(\cos t) + (\sin t)(1)$$

$$= -\sin t \cos t + t \cos t + \sin t$$

so,

$$\text{Flow} = \int_{t=a}^{t=b} \mathbf{F} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}\, dt = \int_0^{\pi/2} (-\sin t \cos t + t \cos t + \sin t)\, dt$$

$$= \left[\frac{\cos^2 t}{2} + t \sin t \right]_0^{\pi/2} = \left(0 + \frac{\pi}{2} \right) - \left(\frac{1}{2} + 0 \right) = \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{1}{2}.$$

EXAMPLE 4 Finding Circulation Around a Circle

Find the circulation of the field $\mathbf{F} = (x - y)\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$ around the circle $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$.

Solution On the circle, $\mathbf{F} = (x - y)\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j} = (\cos t - \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\cos t)\mathbf{j}$, and

$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = (-\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\cos t)\mathbf{j}.$$

Then

$$\mathbf{F} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = -\sin t \cos t + \underbrace{\sin^2 t + \cos^2 t}_{1}$$

gives

$$\text{Circulation} = \int_0^{2\pi} \mathbf{F} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}\, dt = \int_0^{2\pi} (1 - \sin t \cos t)\, dt$$

$$= \left[t - \frac{\sin^2 t}{2} \right]_0^{2\pi} = 2\pi.$$

Flux Across a Plane Curve

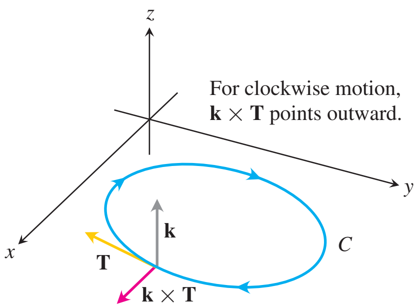
To find the rate at which a fluid is entering or leaving a region enclosed by a smooth curve C in the xy-plane, we calculate the line integral over C of $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}$, the scalar component of the fluid's velocity field in the direction of the curve's outward-pointing normal vector. The value of this integral is the *flux* of $\mathbf{F}$ across C. *Flux* is Latin for *flow*, but many flux calculations involve no motion at all. If $\mathbf{F}$ were an electric field or a magnetic field, for instance, the integral of $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}$ would still be called the flux of the field across C.

DEFINITION Flux Across a Closed Curve in the Plane

If C is a smooth closed curve in the domain of a continuous vector field $\mathbf{F} = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j}$ in the plane and if $\mathbf{n}$ is the outward-pointing unit normal vector on C, the **flux** of $\mathbf{F}$ across C is

$$\text{Flux of } \mathbf{F} \text{ across } C = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, ds. \quad (3)$$

Notice the difference between flux and circulation. The flux of $\mathbf{F}$ across C is the line integral with respect to arc length of $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}$, the scalar component of $\mathbf{F}$ in the direction of the



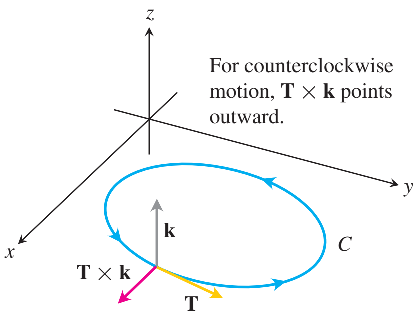


FIGURE 16.20 To find an outward unit normal vector for a smooth curve C in the xy-plane that is traversed counterclockwise as t increases, we take $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{k}$. For clockwise motion, we take $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{T}$.

outward normal. The circulation of $\mathbf{F}$ around C is the line integral with respect to arc length of $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}$, the scalar component of $\mathbf{F}$ in the direction of the unit tangent vector. Flux is the integral of the normal component of $\mathbf{F}$; circulation is the integral of the tangential component of $\mathbf{F}$.

To evaluate the integral in Equation (3), we begin with a smooth parametrization

$$x = g(t), \qquad y = h(t), \qquad a \le t \le b,$$

that traces the curve C exactly once as t increases from a to b. We can find the outward unit normal vector $\mathbf{n}$ by crossing the curve's unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}$ with the vector $\mathbf{k}$. But which order do we choose, $\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{k}$ or $\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{T}$? Which one points outward? It depends on which way C is traversed as t increases. If the motion is clockwise, $\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{T}$ points outward; if the motion is counterclockwise, $\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{k}$ points outward (Figure 16.20). The usual choice is $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{k}$, the choice that assumes counterclockwise motion. Thus, although the value of the arc length integral in the definition of flux in Equation (3) does not depend on which way C is traversed, the formulas we are about to derive for evaluating the integral in Equation (3) will assume counterclockwise motion.

In terms of components,

$$\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{k} = \left(\frac{dx}{ds}\mathbf{i} + \frac{dy}{ds}\mathbf{j}\right) \times \mathbf{k} = \frac{dy}{ds}\mathbf{i} - \frac{dx}{ds}\mathbf{j}.$$

If $\mathbf{F} = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j}$, then

$$\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} = M(x, y)\frac{dy}{ds} - N(x, y)\frac{dx}{ds}.$$

Hence,

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, ds = \int_C \left(M\frac{dy}{ds} - N\frac{dx}{ds}\right) ds = \oint_C M\,dy - N\,dx.$$

We put a directed circle $\circlearrowleft$ on the last integral as a reminder that the integration around the closed curve C is to be in the counterclockwise direction. To evaluate this integral, we express M, dy, N, and dx in terms of t and integrate from $t = a$ to $t = b$. We do not need to know either $\mathbf{n}$ or ds to find the flux.

Calculating Flux Across a Smooth Closed Plane Curve

$$(\text{Flux of } \mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} \text{ across } C) = \oint_C M\,dy - N\,dx \tag{4}$$

The integral can be evaluated from any smooth parametrization $x = g(t), y = h(t)$, $a \le t \le b$, that traces C counterclockwise exactly once.

EXAMPLE 5 Finding Flux Across a Circle

Find the flux of $\mathbf{F} = (x - y)\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$ across the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ in the xy-plane.

Solution The parametrization $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j},\ 0 \le t \le 2\pi$, traces the circle counterclockwise exactly once. We can therefore use this parametrization in Equation (4). With

$$M = x - y = \cos t - \sin t, \qquad dy = d(\sin t) = \cos t\, dt$$
$$N = x = \cos t, \qquad dx = d(\cos t) = -\sin t\, dt,$$

We find

$$\text{Flux} = \int_C M\,dy - N\,dx = \int_0^{2\pi} (\cos^2 t - \sin t \cos t + \cos t \sin t)\,dt \qquad \text{Equation (4)}$$
$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 t\,dt = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1 + \cos 2t}{2}\,dt = \left[\frac{t}{2} + \frac{\sin 2t}{4}\right]_0^{2\pi} = \pi.$$

The flux of $\mathbf{F}$ across the circle is π. Since the answer is positive, the net flow across the curve is outward. A net inward flow would have given a negative flux. ■

EXERCISES 16.2

Vector and Gradient Fields

Find the gradient fields of the functions in Exercises 1–4.

1. $f(x, y, z) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-1/2}$

2. $f(x, y, z) = \ln\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$

3. $g(x, y, z) = e^z - \ln(x^2 + y^2)$

4. $g(x, y, z) = xy + yz + xz$

5. Give a formula $\mathbf{F} = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j}$ for the vector field in the plane that has the property that $\mathbf{F}$ points toward the origin with magnitude inversely proportional to the square of the distance from (x, y) to the origin. (The field is not defined at $(0, 0)$.)

6. Give a formula $\mathbf{F} = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j}$ for the vector field in the plane that has the properties that $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$ at $(0, 0)$ and that at any other point (a, b), $\mathbf{F}$ is tangent to the circle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2 + b^2$ and points in the clockwise direction with magnitude $|\mathbf{F}| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$.

Work

In Exercises 7–12, find the work done by force $\mathbf{F}$ from $(0, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 1, 1)$ over each of the following paths (Figure 16.21):

a. The straight-line path C_1: $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 1$

b. The curved path C_2: $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t^4\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 1$

c. The path $C_3 \cup C_4$ consisting of the line segment from $(0, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 1, 0)$ followed by the segment from $(1, 1, 0)$ to $(1, 1, 1)$

7. $\mathbf{F} = 3y\mathbf{i} + 2x\mathbf{j} + 4z\mathbf{k}$

8. $\mathbf{F} = [1/(x^2 + 1)]\mathbf{j}$

9. $\mathbf{F} = \sqrt{z}\mathbf{i} - 2x\mathbf{j} + \sqrt{y}\mathbf{k}$

10. $\mathbf{F} = xy\mathbf{i} + yz\mathbf{j} + xz\mathbf{k}$

11. $\mathbf{F} = (3x^2 - 3x)\mathbf{i} + 3z\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$

12. $\mathbf{F} = (y + z)\mathbf{i} + (z + x)\mathbf{j} + (x + y)\mathbf{k}$

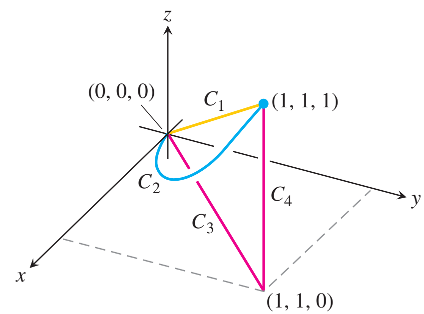


FIGURE 16.21 The paths from $(0, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 1, 1)$.

In Exercises 13–16, find the work done by $\mathbf{F}$ over the curve in the direction of increasing t.

13. $\mathbf{F} = xy\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} - yz\mathbf{k}$
$\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 1$

14. $\mathbf{F} = 2y\mathbf{i} + 3x\mathbf{j} + (x + y)\mathbf{k}$
$\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + (t/6)\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

15. $\mathbf{F} = z\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j} + y\mathbf{k}$
$\mathbf{r}(t) = (\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\cos t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

16. $\mathbf{F} = 6z\mathbf{i} + y^2\mathbf{j} + 12x\mathbf{k}$
$\mathbf{r}(t) = (\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\cos t)\mathbf{j} + (t/6)\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

Line Integrals and Vector Fields in the Plane

17. Evaluate $\int_C xy\,dx + (x + y)\,dy$ along the curve $y = x^2$ from $(-1, 1)$ to $(2, 4)$.

18. Evaluate $\int_C (x - y)\,dx + (x + y)\,dy$ counterclockwise around the triangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(1, 0)$, and $(0, 1)$.

19. Evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F}\cdot\mathbf{T}\,ds$ for the vector field $\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{i} - y\mathbf{j}$ along the curve $x = y^2$ from (4, 2) to (1, −1).

20. Evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r}$ for the vector field $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i} - x\mathbf{j}$ counterclockwise along the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ from (1, 0) to (0, 1).

21. Work Find the work done by the force $\mathbf{F} = xy\mathbf{i} + (y - x)\mathbf{j}$ over the straight line from (1, 1) to (2, 3).

22. Work Find the work done by the gradient of $f(x, y) = (x + y)^2$ counterclockwise around the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ from (2, 0) to itself.

23. Circulation and flux Find the circulation and flux of the fields

$$\mathbf{F}_1 = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{F}_2 = -y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$$

around and across each of the following curves.

a. The circle $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

b. The ellipse $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (4\sin t)\mathbf{j}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

24. Flux across a circle Find the flux of the fields

$$\mathbf{F}_1 = 2x\mathbf{i} - 3y\mathbf{j} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{F}_2 = 2x\mathbf{i} + (x - y)\mathbf{j}$$

across the circle

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (a\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (a\sin t)\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 \le t \le 2\pi.$$

Circulation and Flux

In Exercises 25–28, find the circulation and flux of the field **F** around and across the closed semicircular path that consists of the semicircular arch $\mathbf{r}_1(t) = (a\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (a\sin t)\mathbf{j}$, $0 \le t \le \pi$, followed by the line segment $\mathbf{r}_2(t) = t\mathbf{i}$, $-a \le t \le a$.

25. $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$

26. $\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{i} + y^2\mathbf{j}$

27. $\mathbf{F} = -y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$

28. $\mathbf{F} = -y^2\mathbf{i} + x^2\mathbf{j}$

29. Flow integrals Find the flow of the velocity field $\mathbf{F} = (x + y)\mathbf{i} - (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{j}$ along each of the following paths from (1, 0) to (−1, 0) in the xy-plane.

a. The upper half of the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

b. The line segment from (1, 0) to (−1, 0)

c. The line segment from (1, 0) to (0, −1) followed by the line segment from (0, −1) to (−1, 0).

30. Flux across a triangle Find the flux of the field **F** in Exercise 29 outward across the triangle with vertices (1, 0), (0, 1), (−1, 0).

Sketching and Finding Fields in the Plane

31. Spin field Draw the spin field

$$\mathbf{F} = -\frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}\mathbf{i} + \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}\mathbf{j}$$

(see Figure 16.14) along with its horizontal and vertical components at a representative assortment of points on the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 4$.

32. Radial field Draw the radial field

$$\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$$

(see Figure 16.13) along with its horizontal and vertical components at a representative assortment of points on the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

33. A field of tangent vectors

a. Find a field $\mathbf{G} = P(x, y)\mathbf{i} + Q(x, y)\mathbf{j}$ in the xy-plane with the property that at any point $(a, b) \ne (0, 0)$, **G** is a vector of magnitude $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ tangent to the circle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2 + b^2$ and pointing in the counterclockwise direction. (The field is undefined at (0, 0).)

b. How is **G** related to the spin field **F** in Figure 16.14?

34. A field of tangent vectors

a. Find a field $\mathbf{G} = P(x, y)\mathbf{i} + Q(x, y)\mathbf{j}$ in the xy-plane with the property that at any point $(a, b) \ne (0, 0)$, **G** is a unit vector tangent to the circle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2 + b^2$ and pointing in the clockwise direction.

b. How is **G** related to the spin field **F** in Figure 16.14?

35. Unit vectors pointing toward the origin Find a field $\mathbf{F} = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j}$ in the xy-plane with the property that at each point $(x, y) \ne (0, 0)$, **F** is a unit vector pointing toward the origin. (The field is undefined at (0, 0).)

36. Two "central" fields Find a field $\mathbf{F} = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j}$ in the xy-plane with the property that at each point $(x, y) \ne (0, 0)$, **F** points toward the origin and $|\mathbf{F}|$ is **(a)** the distance from (x, y) to the origin, **(b)** inversely proportional to the distance from (x, y) to the origin. (The field is undefined at (0, 0).)

Flow Integrals in Space

In Exercises 37–40, **F** is the velocity field of a fluid flowing through a region in space. Find the flow along the given curve in the direction of increasing t.

37. $\mathbf{F} = -4xy\mathbf{i} + 8y\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$

$\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 2$

38. $\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{i} + yz\mathbf{j} + y^2\mathbf{k}$

$r(t) = 3t\mathbf{j} + 4t\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 1$

39. $\mathbf{F} = (x - z)\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{k}$

$\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le \pi$

40. $\mathbf{F} = -y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$

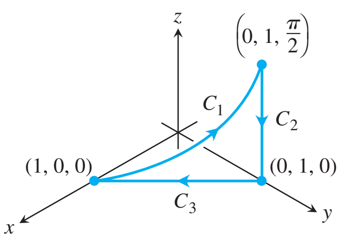
$\mathbf{r}(t) = (-2\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (2\sin t)\mathbf{j} + 2t\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 2\pi$

41. Circulation Find the circulation of $\mathbf{F} = 2x\mathbf{i} + 2z\mathbf{j} + 2y\mathbf{k}$ around the closed path consisting of the following three curves traversed in the direction of increasing t:

C_1: $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le \pi/2$

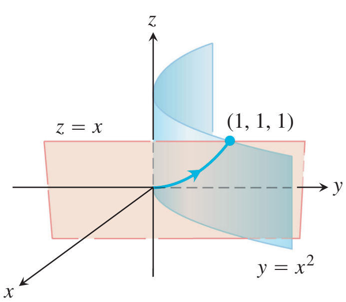
C_2: $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{j} + (\pi/2)(1 - t)\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 1$

C_3: $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + (1 - t)\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 \le t \le 1$



42. Zero circulation Let C be the ellipse in which the plane $2x + 3y - z = 0$ meets the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 12$. Show, without evaluating either line integral directly, that the circulation of the field $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ around C in either direction is zero.

43. Flow along a curve The field $\mathbf{F} = xy\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} - yz\mathbf{k}$ is the velocity field of a flow in space. Find the flow from $(0, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 1, 1)$ along the curve of intersection of the cylinder $y = x^2$ and the plane $z = x$. (*Hint:* Use $t = x$ as the parameter.)



44. Flow of a gradient field Find the flow of the field $\mathbf{F} = \nabla(xy^2z^3)$:

a. Once around the curve C in Exercise 42, clockwise as viewed from above

b. Along the line segment from $(1, 1, 1)$ to $(2, 1, -1)$,

Theory and Examples

45. Work and area Suppose that $f(t)$ is differentiable and positive for $a \le t \le b$. Let C be the path $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + f(t)\mathbf{j}$, $a \le t \le b$, and $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i}$. Is there any relation between the value of the work integral

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

and the area of the region bounded by the t-axis, the graph of f, and the lines $t = a$ and $t = b$? Give reasons for your answer.

46. Work done by a radial force with constant magnitude A particle moves along the smooth curve $y = f(x)$ from $(a, f(a))$ to $(b, f(b))$. The force moving the particle has constant magnitude k and always points away from the origin. Show that the work done by the force is

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}\, ds = k\left[(b^2 + (f(b))^2)^{1/2} - (a^2 + (f(a))^2)^{1/2}\right].$$

COMPUTER EXPLORATIONS

Finding Work Numerically

In Exercises 47–52, use a CAS to perform the following steps for finding the work done by force $\mathbf{F}$ over the given path:

a. Find $d\mathbf{r}$ for the path $\mathbf{r}(t) = g(t)\mathbf{i} + h(t)\mathbf{j} + k(t)\mathbf{k}$.

b. Evaluate the force $\mathbf{F}$ along the path.

c. Evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$.

47. $\mathbf{F} = xy^6\mathbf{i} + 3x(xy^5 + 2)\mathbf{j}$; $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

48. $\mathbf{F} = \dfrac{3}{1 + x^2}\mathbf{i} + \dfrac{2}{1 + y^2}\mathbf{j}$; $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j}$, $0 \le t \le \pi$

49. $\mathbf{F} = (y + yz\cos xyz)\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + xz\cos xyz)\mathbf{j} + (z + xy\cos xyz)\mathbf{k}$; $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (3\sin t)\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

50. $\mathbf{F} = 2xy\mathbf{i} - y^2\mathbf{j} + ze^x\mathbf{k}$; $\mathbf{r}(t) = -t\mathbf{i} + \sqrt{t}\mathbf{j} + 3t\mathbf{k}$, $1 \le t \le 4$

51. $\mathbf{F} = (2y + \sin x)\mathbf{i} + (z^2 + (1/3)\cos y)\mathbf{j} + x^4\mathbf{k}$; $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\cos t)\mathbf{j} + (\sin 2t)\mathbf{k}$, $-\pi/2 \le t \le \pi/2$

52. $\mathbf{F} = (x^2y)\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{3}x^3\mathbf{j} + xy\mathbf{k}$; $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + (2\sin^2 t - 1)\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

16.3 Path Independence, Potential Functions, and Conservative Fields

Project Project

In gravitational and electric fields, the amount of work it takes to move a mass or a charge from one point to another depends only on the object's initial and final positions and not on the path taken in between. This section discusses the notion of path independence of work integrals and describes the properties of fields in which work integrals are path independent. Work integrals are often easier to evaluate if they are path independent.

Path Independence

If A and B are two points in an open region D in space, the work $\int \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ done in moving a particle from A to B by a field $\mathbf{F}$ defined on D usually depends on the path taken. For some special fields, however, the integral's value is the same for all paths from A to B.

DEFINITIONS Path Independence, Conservative Field

Let $\mathbf{F}$ be a field defined on an open region D in space, and suppose that for any two points A and B in D the work $\int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ done in moving from A to B is the same over all paths from A to B. Then the integral $\int \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is **path independent in *D*** and the field $\mathbf{F}$ is **conservative on *D***.

The word *conservative* comes from physics, where it refers to fields in which the principle of conservation of energy holds (it does, in conservative fields).

Under differentiability conditions normally met in practice, a field $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative if and only if it is the gradient field of a scalar function f; that is, if and only if $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$ for some f. The function f then has a special name.

DEFINITION Potential Function

If $\mathbf{F}$ is a field defined on D and $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$ for some scalar function f on D, then f is called a **potential function for F**.

An electric potential is a scalar function whose gradient field is an electric field. A gravitational potential is a scalar function whose gradient field is a gravitational field, and so on. As we will see, once we have found a potential function f for a field $\mathbf{F}$, we can evaluate all the work integrals in the domain of $\mathbf{F}$ over any path between A and B by

$$\int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_A^B \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(B) - f(A). \tag{1}$$

If you think of ∇f for functions of several variables as being something like the derivative f' for functions of a single variable, then you see that Equation (1) is the vector calculus analogue of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus formula

$$\int_a^b f'(x)\, dx = f(b) - f(a).$$

Conservative fields have other remarkable properties we will study as we go along. For example, saying that $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative on D is equivalent to saying that the integral of $\mathbf{F}$ around every closed path in D is zero. Naturally, certain conditions on the curves, fields, and domains must be satisfied for Equation (1) to be valid. We discuss these conditions below.

Assumptions in Effect from Now On: Connectivity and Simple Connectivity

We assume that all curves are **piecewise smooth**, that is, made up of finitely many smooth pieces connected end to end, as discussed in Section 13.1. We also assume that the components of $\mathbf{F}$ have continuous first partial derivatives. When $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$, this continuity requirement guarantees that the mixed second derivatives of the potential function f are equal, a result we will find revealing in studying conservative fields $\mathbf{F}$.

We assume D to be an *open* region in space. This means that every point in D is the center of an open ball that lies entirely in D. We assume D to be **connected**, which in an open region means that every point can be connected to every other point by a smooth curve that lies in the region. Finally, we assume D is **simply connected**, which means every loop in D can be contracted to a point in D without ever leaving D. (If D consisted of space with a line segment removed, for example, D would not be simply connected. There would be no way to contract a loop around the line segment to a point without leaving D.)

Connectivity and simple connectivity are not the same, and neither implies the other. Think of connected regions as being in "one piece" and simply connected regions as not having any "holes that catch loops." All of space itself is both connected and simply connected. Some of the results in this chapter can fail to hold if applied to domains where these conditions do not hold. For example, the component test for conservative fields, given later in this section, is not valid on domains that are not simply connected.

Line Integrals in Conservative Fields

The following result provides a convenient way to evaluate a line integral in a conservative field. The result establishes that the value of the integral depends only on the endpoints and not on the specific path joining them.

THEOREM 1 The Fundamental Theorem of Line Integrals

1. Let $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$ be a vector field whose components are continuous throughout an open connected region D in space. Then there exists a differentiable function f such that

$$\mathbf{F} = \nabla f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\mathbf{k}$$

if and only if for all points A and B in D the value of $\int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is independent of the path joining A to B in D.

2. If the integral is independent of the path from A to B, its value is

$$\int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(B) - f(A).$$

Proof that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$ Implies Path Independence of the Integral Suppose that A and B are two points in D and that C: $\mathbf{r}(t) = g(t)\mathbf{i} + h(t)\mathbf{j} + k(t)\mathbf{k}$, $a \le t \le b$, is a smooth curve in D joining A and B. Along the curve, f is a differentiable function of t and

$$\frac{df}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\frac{dz}{dt}$$ Chain Rule with $x = g(t)$, $y = h(t)$, $z = k(t)$

$$= \nabla f \cdot \left(\frac{dx}{dt}\mathbf{i} + \frac{dy}{dt}\mathbf{j} + \frac{dz}{dt}\mathbf{k}\right) = \nabla f \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \mathbf{F} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}.$$ Because $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$

Therefore,

$$\int_C \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{t=a}^{t=b} \mathbf{F}\cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}\,dt = \int_a^b \frac{df}{dt}\,dt$$

$$= f(g(t), h(t), k(t))\Big]_a^b = f(B) - f(A).$$

Thus, the value of the work integral depends only on the values of f at A and B and not on the path in between. This proves Part 2 as well as the forward implication in Part 1. We omit the more technical proof of the reverse implication. ■

EXAMPLE 1 Finding Work Done by a Conservative Field

Find the work done by the conservative field

$$\mathbf{F} = yz\mathbf{i} + xz\mathbf{j} + xy\mathbf{k} = \nabla(xyz)$$

along any smooth curve C joining the point $A(-1, 3, 9)$ to $B(1, 6, -4)$.

Solution With $f(x, y, z) = xyz$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\int_A^B \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r} &= \int_A^B \nabla f\cdot d\mathbf{r} && \mathbf{F} = \nabla f\\ &= f(B) - f(A) && \text{Fundamental Theorem, Part 2}\\ &= xyz|_{(1,6,-4)} - xyz|_{(-1,3,9)}\\ &= (1)(6)(-4) - (-1)(3)(9)\\ &= -24 + 27 = 3.\end{aligned}$$

■

THEOREM 2 Closed-Loop Property of Conservative Fields

The following statements are equivalent.

1. $\oint \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$ around every closed loop in D.
2. The field $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative on D.

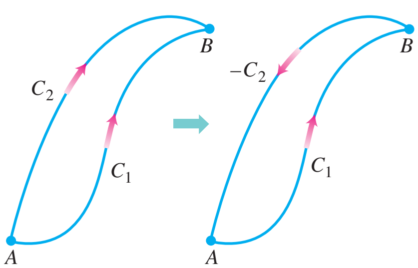


FIGURE 16.22 If we have two paths from A to B, one of them can be reversed to make a loop.

Proof that Part 1 $\Rightarrow$ Part 2 We want to show that for any two points A and B in D, the integral of $\mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r}$ has the same value over any two paths C_1 and C_2 from A to B. We reverse the direction on C_2 to make a path $-C_2$ from B to A (Figure 16.22). Together, C_1 and $-C_2$ make a closed loop C, and

$$\int_{C_1} \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r} - \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r} + \int_{-C_2} \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C} \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0.$$

Thus, the integrals over C_1 and C_2 give the same value. Note that the definition of line integral shows that changing the direction along a curve reverses the sign of the line integral.

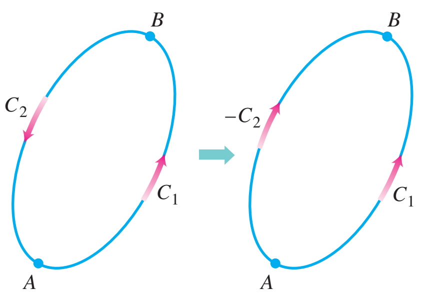


FIGURE 16.23 If A and B lie on a loop, we can reverse part of the loop to make two paths from A to B.

Proof that Part 2 $\Rightarrow$ Part 1 We want to show that the integral of $\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is zero over any closed loop C. We pick two points A and B on C and use them to break C into two pieces: C_1 from A to B followed by C_2 from B back to A (Figure 16.23). Then

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} + \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} - \int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0. \quad \blacksquare$$

The following diagram summarizes the results of Theorems 1 and 2.

	Theorem 1		Theorem 2	
$\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$ on D	$\Leftrightarrow$	$\mathbf{F}$ conservative on D	$\Leftrightarrow$	$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$ over any closed path in D

Now that we see how convenient it is to evaluate line integrals in conservative fields, two questions remain.

1. How do we know when a given field $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative?
2. If $\mathbf{F}$ is in fact conservative, how do we find a potential function f (so that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$)?

Finding Potentials for Conservative Fields

The test for being conservative is the following. Keep in mind our assumption that the domain of $\mathbf{F}$ is connected and simply connected.

> **Component Test for Conservative Fields**
> Let $\mathbf{F} = M(x, y, z)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y, z)\mathbf{j} + P(x, y, z)\mathbf{k}$ be a field whose component functions have continuous first partial derivatives. Then, $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative if and only if
>
> $$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial z}, \quad \frac{\partial M}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial x}, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}. \tag{2}$$

Proof that Equations (2) hold if F is conservative There is a potential function f such that

$$\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\mathbf{k}.$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y\, \partial z} \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z\, \partial y} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right) = \frac{\partial N}{\partial z}.\end{aligned}$$

Continuity implies that the mixed partial derivatives are equal.

The others in Equations (2) are proved similarly. $\blacksquare$

The second half of the proof, that Equations (2) imply that $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative, is a consequence of Stokes' Theorem, taken up in Section 16.7, and requires our assumption that the domain of $\mathbf{F}$ be simply connected.

Once we know that $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative, we usually want to find a potential function for $\mathbf{F}$. This requires solving the equation $\nabla f = \mathbf{F}$ or

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\mathbf{k} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$$

for f. We accomplish this by integrating the three equations

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = M, \qquad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = N, \qquad \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = P,$$

as illustrated in the next example.

EXAMPLE 2 Finding a Potential Function

Show that $\mathbf{F} = (e^x \cos y + yz)\mathbf{i} + (xz - e^x \sin y)\mathbf{j} + (xy + z)\mathbf{k}$ is conservative and find a potential function for it.

Solution We apply the test in Equations (2) to

$$M = e^x \cos y + yz, \qquad N = xz - e^x \sin y, \qquad P = xy + z$$

and calculate

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = x = \frac{\partial N}{\partial z}, \qquad \frac{\partial M}{\partial z} = y = \frac{\partial P}{\partial x}, \qquad \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = -e^x \sin y + z = \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}.$$

Together, these equalities tell us that there is a function f with $\nabla f = \mathbf{F}$.

We find f by integrating the equations

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = e^x \cos y + yz, \qquad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = xz - e^x \sin y, \qquad \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = xy + z. \tag{3}$$

We integrate the first equation with respect to x, holding y and z fixed, to get

$$f(x, y, z) = e^x \cos y + xyz + g(y, z).$$

We write the constant of integration as a function of y and z because its value may change if y and z change. We then calculate $\partial f/\partial y$ from this equation and match it with the expression for $\partial f/\partial y$ in Equations (3). This gives

$$-e^x \sin y + xz + \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} = xz - e^x \sin y,$$

so $\partial g/\partial y = 0$. Therefore, g is a function of z alone, and

$$f(x, y, z) = e^x \cos y + xyz + h(z).$$

We now calculate $\partial f/\partial z$ from this equation and match it to the formula for $\partial f/\partial z$ in Equations (3). This gives

$$xy + \frac{dh}{dz} = xy + z, \qquad \text{or} \qquad \frac{dh}{dz} = z,$$

so

$$h(z) = \frac{z^2}{2} + C.$$

Hence,

$$f(x, y, z) = e^x \cos y + xyz + \frac{z^2}{2} + C.$$

We have infinitely many potential functions of **F**, one for each value of C. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Showing That a Field Is Not Conservative

Show that $\mathbf{F} = (2x - 3)\mathbf{i} - z\mathbf{j} + (\cos z)\mathbf{k}$ is not conservative.

Solution We apply the component test in Equations (2) and find immediately that

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\cos z) = 0, \qquad \frac{\partial N}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(-z) = -1.$$

The two are unequal, so **F** is not conservative. No further testing is required. ■

Exact Differential Forms

As we see in the next section and again later on, it is often convenient to express work and circulation integrals in the "differential" form

$$\int_A^B M\,dx + N\,dy + P\,dz$$

mentioned in Section 16.2. Such integrals are relatively easy to evaluate if $M\,dx + N\,dy + P\,dz$ is the total differential of a function f. For then

$$\begin{aligned}\int_A^B M\,dx + N\,dy + P\,dz &= \int_A^B \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}dy + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}dz \\ &= \int_A^B \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} \\ &= f(B) - f(A). \qquad \text{Theorem 1}\end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\int_A^B df = f(B) - f(A),$$

just as with differentiable functions of a single variable.

DEFINITIONS **Exact Differential Form**

Any expression $M(x, y, z)\,dx + N(x, y, z)\,dy + P(x, y, z)\,dz$ is a **differential form**. A differential form is **exact** on a domain D in space if

$$M\,dx + N\,dy + P\,dz = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}dy + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}dz = df$$

for some scalar function f throughout D.

Notice that if $M\,dx + N\,dy + P\,dz = df$ on D, then $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$ is the gradient field of f on D. Conversely, if $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$, then the form $M\,dx + N\,dy + P\,dz$ is exact. The test for the form's being exact is therefore the same as the test for **F**'s being conservative.

Component Test for Exactness of $M\,dx + N\,dy + P\,dz$

The differential form $M\,dx + N\,dy + P\,dz$ is exact if and only if

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial z}, \qquad \frac{\partial M}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial x}, \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}.$$

This is equivalent to saying that the field $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$ is conservative.

EXAMPLE 4 Showing That a Differential Form Is Exact

Show that $y\,dx + x\,dy + 4\,dz$ is exact and evaluate the integral

$$\int_{(1,1,1)}^{(2,3,-1)} y\,dx + x\,dy + 4\,dz$$

over the line segment from $(1, 1, 1)$ to $(2, 3, -1)$.

Solution We let $M = y$, $N = x$, $P = 4$ and apply the Test for Exactness:

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = 0 = \frac{\partial N}{\partial z}, \qquad \frac{\partial M}{\partial z} = 0 = \frac{\partial P}{\partial x}, \qquad \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = 1 = \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}.$$

These equalities tell us that $y\,dx + x\,dy + 4\,dz$ is exact, so

$$y\,dx + x\,dy + 4\,dz = df$$

for some function f, and the integral's value is $f(2, 3, -1) - f(1, 1, 1)$.

We find f up to a constant by integrating the equations

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = y, \qquad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x, \qquad \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = 4. \tag{4}$$

From the first equation we get

$$f(x, y, z) = xy + g(y, z).$$

The second equation tells us that

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x + \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} = x, \qquad \text{or} \qquad \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} = 0.$$

Hence, g is a function of z alone, and

$$f(x, y, z) = xy + h(z).$$

The third of Equations (4) tells us that

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = 0 + \frac{dh}{dz} = 4, \qquad \text{or} \qquad h(z) = 4z + C.$$

Therefore,

$$f(x, y, z) = xy + 4z + C.$$

The value of the integral is

$$f(2, 3, -1) - f(1, 1, 1) = 2 + C - (5 + C) = -3. \qquad \blacksquare$$

EXERCISES 16.3

Testing for Conservative Fields

Which fields in Exercises 1–6 are conservative, and which are not?

1. $\mathbf{F} = yz\mathbf{i} + xz\mathbf{j} + xy\mathbf{k}$
2. $\mathbf{F} = (y \sin z)\mathbf{i} + (x \sin z)\mathbf{j} + (xy \cos z)\mathbf{k}$
3. $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i} + (x + z)\mathbf{j} - y\mathbf{k}$
4. $\mathbf{F} = -y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$
5. $\mathbf{F} = (z + y)\mathbf{i} + z\mathbf{j} + (y + x)\mathbf{k}$
6. $\mathbf{F} = (e^x \cos y)\mathbf{i} - (e^x \sin y)\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$

Finding Potential Functions

In Exercises 7–12, find a potential function f for the field $\mathbf{F}$.

7. $\mathbf{F} = 2x\mathbf{i} + 3y\mathbf{j} + 4z\mathbf{k}$
8. $\mathbf{F} = (y + z)\mathbf{i} + (x + z)\mathbf{j} + (x + y)\mathbf{k}$
9. $\mathbf{F} = e^{y+2z}(\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j} + 2x\mathbf{k})$
10. $\mathbf{F} = (y \sin z)\mathbf{i} + (x \sin z)\mathbf{j} + (xy \cos z)\mathbf{k}$
11. $\mathbf{F} = (\ln x + \sec^2(x + y))\mathbf{i} + \left(\sec^2(x + y) + \dfrac{y}{y^2 + z^2}\right)\mathbf{j} + \dfrac{z}{y^2 + z^2}\mathbf{k}$
12. $\mathbf{F} = \dfrac{y}{1 + x^2y^2}\mathbf{i} + \left(\dfrac{x}{1 + x^2y^2} + \dfrac{z}{\sqrt{1 - y^2z^2}}\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(\dfrac{y}{\sqrt{1 - y^2z^2}} + \dfrac{1}{z}\right)\mathbf{k}$

Evaluating Line Integrals

In Exercises 13–17, show that the differential forms in the integrals are exact. Then evaluate the integrals.

13. $\displaystyle\int_{(0,0,0)}^{(2,3,-6)} 2x\,dx + 2y\,dy + 2z\,dz$
14. $\displaystyle\int_{(1,1,2)}^{(3,5,0)} yz\,dx + xz\,dy + xy\,dz$
15. $\displaystyle\int_{(0,0,0)}^{(1,2,3)} 2xy\,dx + (x^2 - z^2)\,dy - 2yz\,dz$
16. $\displaystyle\int_{(0,0,0)}^{(3,3,1)} 2x\,dx - y^2\,dy - \frac{4}{1 + z^2}\,dz$
17. $\displaystyle\int_{(1,0,0)}^{(0,1,1)} \sin y \cos x\,dx + \cos y \sin x\,dy + dz$

Although they are not defined on all of space R^3, the fields associated with Exercises 18–22 are simply connected and the Component Test can be used to show they are conservative. Find a potential function for each field and evaluate the integrals as in Example 4.

18. $\displaystyle\int_{(0,2,1)}^{(1,\pi/2,2)} 2\cos y\,dx + \left(\frac{1}{y} - 2x \sin y\right)dy + \frac{1}{z}\,dz$
19. $\displaystyle\int_{(1,1,1)}^{(1,2,3)} 3x^2\,dx + \frac{z^2}{y}\,dy + 2z \ln y\,dz$
20. $\displaystyle\int_{(1,2,1)}^{(2,1,1)} (2x \ln y - yz)\,dx + \left(\frac{x^2}{y} - xz\right)dy - xy\,dz$
21. $\displaystyle\int_{(1,1,1)}^{(2,2,2)} \frac{1}{y}\,dx + \left(\frac{1}{z} - \frac{x}{y^2}\right)dy - \frac{y}{z^2}\,dz$
22. $\displaystyle\int_{(-1,-1,-1)}^{(2,2,2)} \frac{2x\,dx + 2y\,dy + 2z\,dz}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$
23. **Revisiting Example 4** Evaluate the integral
$$\int_{(1,1,1)}^{(2,3,-1)} y\,dx + x\,dy + 4\,dz$$
from Example 4 by finding parametric equations for the line segment from (1, 1, 1) to (2, 3, −1) and evaluating the line integral of $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j} + 4\mathbf{k}$ along the segment. Since $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative, the integral is independent of the path.
24. Evaluate
$$\int_C x^2\,dx + yz\,dy + (y^2/2)\,dz$$
along the line segment C joining (0, 0, 0) to (0, 3, 4).

Theory, Applications, and Examples

Independence of path Show that the values of the integrals in Exercises 25 and 26 do not depend on the path taken from A to B.

25. $\displaystyle\int_A^B z^2\,dx + 2y\,dy + 2xz\,dz$
26. $\displaystyle\int_A^B \frac{x\,dx + y\,dy + z\,dz}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$

In Exercises 27 and 28, find a potential function for $\mathbf{F}$.

27. $\mathbf{F} = \dfrac{2x}{y}\mathbf{i} + \left(\dfrac{1 - x^2}{y^2}\right)\mathbf{j}$
28. $\mathbf{F} = (e^x \ln y)\mathbf{i} + \left(\dfrac{e^x}{y} + \sin z\right)\mathbf{j} + (y \cos z)\mathbf{k}$
29. **Work along different paths** Find the work done by $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y)\mathbf{i} + (y^2 + x)\mathbf{j} + ze^z\mathbf{k}$ over the following paths from (1, 0, 0) to (1, 0, 1).
    a. The line segment $x = 1, y = 0, 0 \le z \le 1$
    b. The helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + (t/2\pi)\mathbf{k}, 0 \le t \le 2\pi$
    c. The x-axis from (1, 0, 0) to (0, 0, 0) followed by the parabola $z = x^2, y = 0$ from (0, 0, 0) to (1, 0, 1)
30. **Work along different paths** Find the work done by $\mathbf{F} = e^{yz}\mathbf{i} + (xze^{yz} + z \cos y)\mathbf{j} + (xye^{yz} + \sin y)\mathbf{k}$ over the following paths from (1, 0, 1) to (1, $\pi/2$, 0).

a. The line segment $x = 1, y = \pi t/2, z = 1 - t, 0 \le t \le 1$

b. The line segment from $(1, 0, 1)$ to the origin followed by the line segment from the origin to $(1, \pi/2, 0)$

c. The line segment from $(1, 0, 1)$ to $(1, 0, 0)$, followed by the x-axis from $(1, 0, 0)$ to the origin, followed by the parabola $y = \pi x^2/2, z = 0$ from there to $(1, \pi/2, 0)$

31. Evaluating a work integral two ways Let $\mathbf{F} = \nabla(x^3y^2)$ and let C be the path in the xy-plane from $(-1, 1)$ to $(1, 1)$ that consists of the line segment from $(-1, 1)$ to $(0, 0)$ followed by the line segment from $(0, 0)$ to $(1, 1)$. Evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ in two ways.

a. Find parametrizations for the segments that make up C and evaluate the integral.

b. Using $f(x, y) = x^3y^2$ as a potential function for $\mathbf{F}$.

32. Integral along different paths Evaluate $\int_C 2x \cos y\, dx - x^2 \sin y\, dy$ along the following paths C in the xy-plane.

a. The parabola $y = (x - 1)^2$ from $(1, 0)$ to $(0, 1)$

b. The line segment from $(-1, \pi)$ to $(1, 0)$

c. The x-axis from $(-1, 0)$ to $(1, 0)$

d. The astroid $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos^3 t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin^3 t)\mathbf{j}, 0 \le t \le 2\pi$, counterclockwise from $(1, 0)$ back to $(1, 0)$

33. a. Exact differential form How are the constants a, b, and c related if the following differential form is exact?

$$(ay^2 + 2czx)\, dx + y(bx + cz)\, dy + (ay^2 + cx^2)\, dz$$

b. Gradient field For what values of b and c will

$$\mathbf{F} = (y^2 + 2czx)\mathbf{i} + y(bx + cz)\mathbf{j} + (y^2 + cx^2)\mathbf{k}$$

be a gradient field?

34. Gradient of a line integral Suppose that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$ is a conservative vector field and

$$g(x, y, z) = \int_{(0,0,0)}^{(x,y,z)} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}.$$

Show that $\nabla g = \mathbf{F}$.

35. Path of least work You have been asked to find the path along which a force field $\mathbf{F}$ will perform the least work in moving a particle between two locations. A quick calculation on your part shows $\mathbf{F}$ to be conservative. How should you respond? Give reasons for your answer.

36. A revealing experiment By experiment, you find that a force field $\mathbf{F}$ performs only half as much work in moving an object along path C_1 from A to B as it does in moving the object along path C_2 from A to B. What can you conclude about $\mathbf{F}$? Give reasons for your answer.

37. Work by a constant force Show that the work done by a constant force field $\mathbf{F} = a\mathbf{i} + b\mathbf{j} + c\mathbf{k}$ in moving a particle along any path from A to B is $W = \mathbf{F} \cdot \overrightarrow{AB}$.

38. Gravitational field

a. Find a potential function for the gravitational field

$$\mathbf{F} = -GmM \frac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} \qquad (G, m, \text{ and } M \text{ are constants}).$$

b. Let P_1 and P_2 be points at distance s_1 and s_2 from the origin. Show that the work done by the gravitational field in part (a) in moving a particle from P_1 to P_2 is

$$GmM\left(\frac{1}{s_2} - \frac{1}{s_1}\right).$$

16.4 Green's Theorem in the Plane

From Table 16.2 in Section 16.2, we know that every line integral $\int_C M\,dx + N\,dy$ can be written as a flow integral $\int_a^b \mathbf{F}\cdot\mathbf{T}\,ds$. If the integral is independent of path, so the field $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative (over a domain satisfying the basic assumptions), we can evaluate the integral easily from a potential function for the field. In this section we consider how to evaluate the integral if it is *not* associated with a conservative vector field, but is a flow or flux integral across a closed curve in the xy-plane. The means for doing so is a result known as Green's Theorem, which converts the line integral into a double integral over the region enclosed by the path.

We frame our discussion in terms of velocity fields of fluid flows because they are easy to picture. However, Green's Theorem applies to any vector field satisfying certain mathematical conditions. It does not depend for its validity on the field's having a particular physical interpretation.

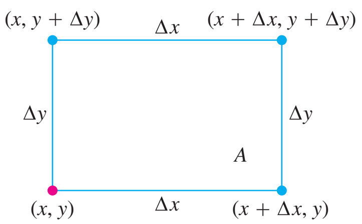


FIGURE 16.24 The rectangle for defining the divergence (flux density) of a vector field at a point (x, y).

Divergence

We need two new ideas for Green's Theorem. The first is the idea of the *divergence* of a vector field at a point, sometimes called the *flux density* of the vector field by physicists and engineers. We obtain it in the following way.

Suppose that $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j}$ is the velocity field of a fluid flow in the plane and that the first partial derivatives of M and N are continuous at each point of a region R. Let (x, y) be a point in R and let A be a small rectangle with one corner at (x, y) that, along with its interior, lies entirely in R (Figure 16.24). The sides of the rectangle, parallel to the coordinate axes, have lengths of Δx and Δy. The rate at which fluid leaves the rectangle across the bottom edge is approximately

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) \cdot (-\mathbf{j})\, \Delta x = -N(x, y)\Delta x.$$

This is the scalar component of the velocity at (x, y) in the direction of the outward normal times the length of the segment. If the velocity is in meters per second, for example, the exit rate will be in meters per second times meters or square meters per second. The rates at which the fluid crosses the other three sides in the directions of their outward normals can be estimated in a similar way. All told, we have

Exit Rates:	Top:	$\mathbf{F}(x, y + \Delta y) \cdot \mathbf{j}\, \Delta x = N(x, y + \Delta y)\Delta x$
	Bottom:	$\mathbf{F}(x, y) \cdot (-\mathbf{j})\, \Delta x = -N(x, y)\Delta x$
	Right:	$\mathbf{F}(x + \Delta x, y) \cdot \mathbf{i}\, \Delta y = M(x + \Delta x, y)\Delta y$
	Left:	$\mathbf{F}(x, y) \cdot (-\mathbf{i})\, \Delta y = -M(x, y)\Delta y.$

Combining opposite pairs gives

Top and bottom: $\quad (N(x, y + \Delta y) - N(x, y))\Delta x \approx \left(\dfrac{\partial N}{\partial y}\Delta y\right)\Delta x$

Right and left: $\quad (M(x + \Delta x, y) - M(x, y))\Delta y \approx \left(\dfrac{\partial M}{\partial x}\Delta x\right)\Delta y.$

Adding these last two equations gives

$$\text{Flux across rectangle boundary} \approx \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y}\right)\Delta x \Delta y.$$

We now divide by $\Delta x \Delta y$ to estimate the total flux per unit area or flux density for the rectangle:

$$\frac{\text{Flux across rectangle boundary}}{\text{rectangle area}} \approx \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y}\right).$$

Finally, we let Δx and Δy approach zero to define what we call the *flux density* of $\mathbf{F}$ at the point (x, y). In mathematics, we call the flux density the *divergence* of $\mathbf{F}$. The symbol for it is div $\mathbf{F}$, pronounced "divergence of $\mathbf{F}$" or "div $\mathbf{F}$."

DEFINITION Divergence (Flux Density)

The **divergence (flux density)** of a vector field $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j}$ at the point (x, y) is

$$\text{div}\,\mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y}. \qquad (1)$$

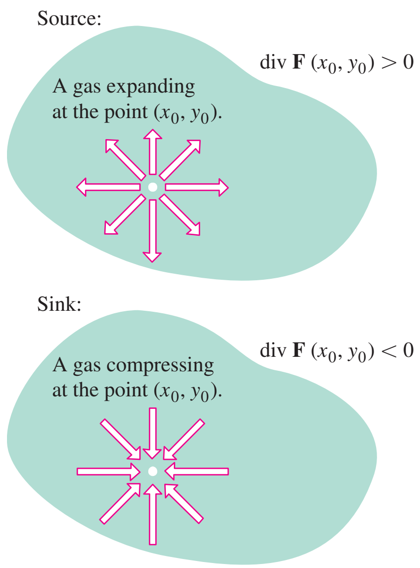


FIGURE 16.25 If a gas is expanding at a point (x_0, y_0), the lines of flow have positive divergence; if the gas is compressing, the divergence is negative.

Intuitively, if a gas is expanding at the point (x_0, y_0), the lines of flow would diverge there (hence the name) and, since the gas would be flowing out of a small rectangle about (x_0, y_0) the divergence of $\mathbf{F}$ at (x_0, y_0) would be positive. If the gas were compressing instead of expanding, the divergence would be negative (see Figure 16.25).

EXAMPLE 1 Finding Divergence

Find the divergence of $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (x^2 - y)\mathbf{i} + (xy - y^2)\mathbf{j}$.

Solution We use the formula in Equation (1):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{div } \mathbf{F} &= \frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x^2 - y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(xy - y^2) \\ &= 2x + x - 2y = 3x - 2y. \end{aligned}$$

■

Spin Around an Axis: The k-Component of Curl

The second idea we need for Green's Theorem has to do with measuring how a paddle wheel spins at a point in a fluid flowing in a plane region. This idea gives some sense of how the fluid is circulating around axes located at different points and perpendicular to the region. Physicists sometimes refer to this as the *circulation density* of a vector field $\mathbf{F}$ at a point. To obtain it, we return to the velocity field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j}$$

and the rectangle A. The rectangle is redrawn here as Figure 16.26.

The counterclockwise circulation of $\mathbf{F}$ around the boundary of A is the sum of flow rates along the sides. For the bottom edge, the flow rate is approximately

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) \cdot \mathbf{i}\, \Delta x = M(x, y)\Delta x.$$

This is the scalar component of the velocity $\mathbf{F}(x, y)$ in the direction of the tangent vector $\mathbf{i}$ times the length of the segment. The rates of flow along the other sides in the counterclockwise direction are expressed in a similar way. In all, we have

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{Top:} && \mathbf{F}(x, y + \Delta y) \cdot (-\mathbf{i})\, \Delta x = -M(x, y + \Delta y)\Delta x \\ &\text{Bottom:} && \mathbf{F}(x, y) \cdot \mathbf{i}\, \Delta x = M(x, y)\Delta x \\ &\text{Right:} && \mathbf{F}(x + \Delta x, y) \cdot \mathbf{j}\, \Delta y = N(x + \Delta x, y)\Delta y \\ &\text{Left:} && \mathbf{F}(x, y) \cdot (-\mathbf{j})\, \Delta y = -N(x, y)\Delta y. \end{aligned}$$

We add opposite pairs to get

Top and bottom:

$$-(M(x, y + \Delta y) - M(x, y))\Delta x \approx -\left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\Delta y\right)\Delta x$$

Right and left:

$$(N(x + \Delta x, y) - N(x, y))\Delta y \approx \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x}\Delta x\right)\Delta y.$$

Adding these last two equations and dividing by $\Delta x \Delta y$ gives an estimate of the circulation density for the rectangle:

$$\frac{\text{Circulation around rectangle}}{\text{rectangle area}} \approx \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}.$$

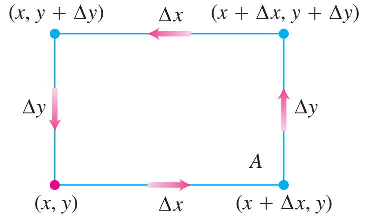


FIGURE 16.26 The rectangle for defining the curl (circulation density) of a vector field at a point (x, y).

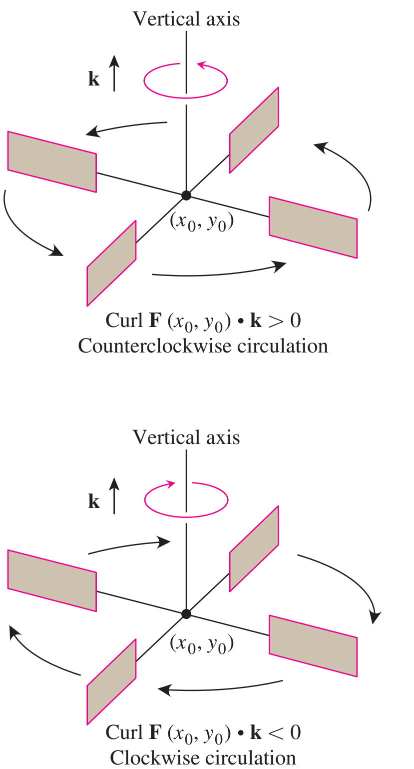


FIGURE 16.27 In the flow of an incompressible fluid over a plane region, the **k**-component of the curl measures the rate of the fluid's rotation at a point. The **k**-component of the curl is positive at points where the rotation is counterclockwise and negative where the rotation is clockwise.

We let Δx and Δy approach zero to define what we call the *circulation density* of **F** at the point (x, y).

The positive orientation of the circulation density for the plane is the *counterclockwise* rotation around the vertical axis, looking downward on the xy-plane from the tip of the (vertical) unit vector **k** (Figure 16.27). The circulation value is actually the **k**-component of a more general circulation vector we define in Section 16.7, called the *curl* of the vector field **F**. For Green's Theorem, we need only this **k**-component.

DEFINITION k-Component of Curl (Circulation Density)

The k-component of the curl (circulation density) of a vector field $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j}$ at the point (x, y) is the scalar

$$(\text{curl } \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{k} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}. \tag{2}$$

If water is moving about a region in the xy-plane in a thin layer, then the **k**-component of the circulation, or curl, at a point (x_0, y_0) gives a way to measure how fast and in what direction a small paddle wheel will spin if it is put into the water at (x_0, y_0) with its axis perpendicular to the plane, parallel to **k** (Figure 16.27).

EXAMPLE 2 Finding the k-Component of the Curl

Find the **k**-component of the curl for the vector field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (x^2 - y)\mathbf{i} + (xy - y^2)\mathbf{j}.$$

Solution We use the formula in Equation (2):

$$(\text{curl } \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{k} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(xy - y^2) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(x^2 - y) = y + 1.$$

■

Two Forms for Green's Theorem

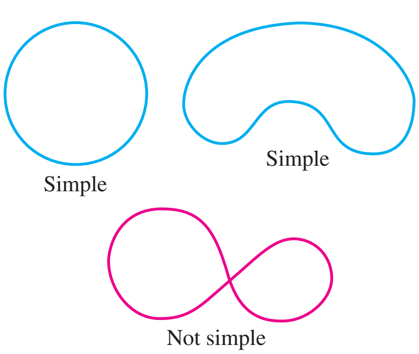


FIGURE 16.28 In proving Green's Theorem, we distinguish between two kinds of closed curves, simple and not simple. Simple curves do not cross themselves. A circle is simple but a figure 8 is not.

In one form, Green's Theorem says that under suitable conditions the outward flux of a vector field across a simple closed curve in the plane (Figure 16.28) equals the double integral of the divergence of the field over the region enclosed by the curve. Recall the formulas for flux in Equations (3) and (4) in Section 16.2.

THEOREM 3 Green's Theorem (Flux-Divergence or Normal Form)

The outward flux of a field $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j}$ across a simple closed curve C equals the double integral of div **F** over the region R enclosed by C.

$$\underbrace{\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, ds}_{\text{Outward flux}} = \oint_C M\, dy - N\, dx = \underbrace{\iint_R \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y}\right) dx\, dy}_{\text{Divergence integral}} \tag{3}$$

In another form, Green's Theorem says that the counterclockwise circulation of a vector field around a simple closed curve is the double integral of the **k**-component of the curl of the field over the region enclosed by the curve. Recall the defining Equation (2) for circulation in Section 16.2.

Animation

THEOREM 4 Green's Theorem (Circulation-Curl or Tangential Form)

The counterclockwise circulation of a field $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j}$ around a simple closed curve C in the plane equals the double integral of $(\text{curl } \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{k}$ over the region R enclosed by C.

$$\underbrace{\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}\, ds = \oint_C M\, dx + N\, dy}_{\text{Counterclockwise circulation}} = \underbrace{\iint_R \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \right) dx\, dy}_{\text{Curl integral}} \tag{4}$$

The two forms of Green's Theorem are equivalent. Applying Equation (3) to the field $\mathbf{G}_1 = N\mathbf{i} - M\mathbf{j}$ gives Equation (4), and applying Equation (4) to $\mathbf{G}_2 = -N\mathbf{i} + M\mathbf{j}$ gives Equation (3).

Mathematical Assumptions

We need two kinds of assumptions for Green's Theorem to hold. First, we need conditions on M and N to ensure the existence of the integrals. The usual assumptions are that M, N, and their first partial derivatives are continuous at every point of some open region containing C and R. Second, we need geometric conditions on the curve C. It must be simple, closed, and made up of pieces along which we can integrate M and N. The usual assumptions are that C is piecewise smooth. The proof we give for Green's Theorem, however, assumes things about the shape of R as well. You can find proofs that are less restrictive in more advanced texts. First let's look at examples.

You Try It

EXAMPLE 3 Supporting Green's Theorem

Verify both forms of Green's Theorem for the field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (x - y)\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$$

and the region R bounded by the unit circle

$$C: \quad \mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j}, \qquad 0 \le t \le 2\pi.$$

Solution We have

$$M = \cos t - \sin t, \qquad dx = d(\cos t) = -\sin t\, dt,$$

$$N = \cos t, \qquad dy = d(\sin t) = \cos t\, dt,$$

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial x} = 1, \qquad \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = -1, \qquad \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = 1, \qquad \frac{\partial N}{\partial y} = 0.$$

The two sides of Equation (3) are

$$\oint_C M\,dy - N\,dx = \int_{t=0}^{t=2\pi} (\cos t - \sin t)(\cos t\,dt) - (\cos t)(-\sin t\,dt)$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 t\,dt = \pi$$

$$\iint_R \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y}\right) dx\,dy = \iint_R (1 + 0)\,dx\,dy$$

$$= \iint_R dx\,dy = \text{area inside the unit circle} = \pi.$$

The two sides of Equation (4) are

$$\oint_C M\,dx + N\,dy = \int_{t=0}^{t=2\pi} (\cos t - \sin t)(-\sin t\,dt) + (\cos t)(\cos t\,dt)$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi} (-\sin t \cos t + 1)\,dt = 2\pi$$

$$\iint_R \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right) dx\,dy = \iint_R (1 - (-1))\,dx\,dy = 2\iint_R dx\,dy = 2\pi.$$ ■

Using Green's Theorem to Evaluate Line Integrals

If we construct a closed curve C by piecing a number of different curves end to end, the process of evaluating a line integral over C can be lengthy because there are so many different integrals to evaluate. If C bounds a region R to which Green's Theorem applies, however, we can use Green's Theorem to change the line integral around C into one double integral over R.

You Try It

EXAMPLE 4 Evaluating a Line Integral Using Green's Theorem

Evaluate the integral

$$\oint_C xy\,dy - y^2\,dx,$$

where C is the square cut from the first quadrant by the lines $x = 1$ and $y = 1$.

Solution We can use either form of Green's Theorem to change the line integral into a double integral over the square.

1. *With the Normal Form Equation* (3): Taking $M = xy$, $N = y^2$, and C and R as the square's boundary and interior gives

$$\oint_C xy\,dy - y^2\,dx = \iint_R (y + 2y)\,dx\,dy = \int_0^1\int_0^1 3y\,dx\,dy$$

$$= \int_0^1 \Big[3xy\Big]_{x=0}^{x=1} dy = \int_0^1 3y\,dy = \frac{3}{2}y^2\Big]_0^1 = \frac{3}{2}.$$

2. *With the Tangential Form Equation* (4): Taking $M = -y^2$ and $N = xy$ gives the same result:

$$\oint_C -y^2\,dx + xy\,dy = \iint_R (y - (-2y))\,dx\,dy = \frac{3}{2}. \quad \blacksquare$$

EXAMPLE 5 Finding Outward Flux

Calculate the outward flux of the field $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = x\mathbf{i} + y^2\mathbf{j}$ across the square bounded by the lines $x = \pm 1$ and $y = \pm 1$.

Solution Calculating the flux with a line integral would take four integrations, one for each side of the square. With Green's Theorem, we can change the line integral to one double integral. With $M = x$, $N = y^2$, C the square, and R the square's interior, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Flux} &= \oint_C \mathbf{F}\cdot\mathbf{n}\,ds = \oint_C M\,dy - N\,dx \\
&= \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y}\right) dx\,dy \qquad \text{Green's Theorem} \\
&= \int_{-1}^{1}\int_{-1}^{1} (1 + 2y)\,dx\,dy = \int_{-1}^{1} \Big[x + 2xy\Big]_{x=-1}^{x=1} dy \\
&= \int_{-1}^{1} (2 + 4y)\,dy = \Big[2y + 2y^2\Big]_{-1}^{1} = 4. \quad \blacksquare
\end{aligned}$$

Proof of Green's Theorem for Special Regions

Let C be a smooth simple closed curve in the xy-plane with the property that lines parallel to the axes cut it in no more than two points. Let R be the region enclosed by C and suppose that M, N, and their first partial derivatives are continuous at every point of some open region containing C and R. We want to prove the circulation-curl form of Green's Theorem,

$$\oint_C M\,dx + N\,dy = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right) dx\,dy. \tag{5}$$

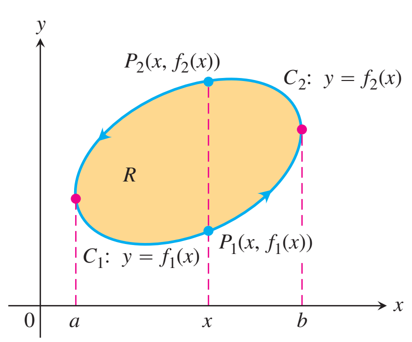


FIGURE 16.29 The boundary curve C is made up of C_1, the graph of $y = f_1(x)$, and C_2, the graph of $y = f_2(x)$.

Figure 16.29 shows C made up of two directed parts:

$$C_1: \quad y = f_1(x), \quad a \le x \le b, \qquad C_2: \quad y = f_2(x), \quad b \ge x \ge a.$$

For any x between a and b, we can integrate $\partial M/\partial y$ with respect to y from $y = f_1(x)$ to $y = f_2(x)$ and obtain

$$\int_{f_1(x)}^{f_2(x)} \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\,dy = M(x, y)\Big]_{y=f_1(x)}^{y=f_2(x)} = M(x, f_2(x)) - M(x, f_1(x)).$$

We can then integrate this with respect to x from a to b:

$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b \int_{f_1(x)}^{f_2(x)} \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\,dy\,dx &= \int_a^b [M(x, f_2(x)) - M(x, f_1(x))]\,dx \\ &= -\int_b^a M(x, f_2(x))\,dx - \int_a^b M(x, f_1(x))\,dx \\ &= -\int_{C_2} M\,dx - \int_{C_1} M\,dx \\ &= -\oint_C M\,dx.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\oint_C M\,dx = \iint_R \left(-\frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right) dx\,dy. \tag{6}$$

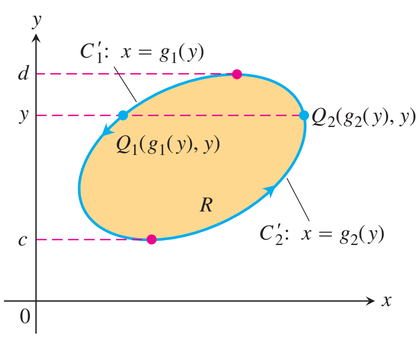


FIGURE 16.30 The boundary curve C is made up of C_1', the graph of $x = g_1(y)$, and C_2', the graph of $x = g_2(y)$.

Equation (6) is half the result we need for Equation (5). We derive the other half by integrating $\partial N/\partial x$ first with respect to x and then with respect to y, as suggested by Figure 16.30. This shows the curve C of Figure 16.29 decomposed into the two directed parts C_1': $x = g_1(y)$, $d \geq y \geq c$ and C_2': $x = g_2(y)$, $c \leq y \leq d$. The result of this double integration is

$$\oint_C N\,dy = \iint_R \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}\,dx\,dy. \tag{7}$$

Summing Equations (6) and (7) gives Equation (5). This concludes the proof. ■

Extending the Proof to Other Regions

The argument we just gave does not apply directly to the rectangular region in Figure 16.31 because the lines $x = a$, $x = b$, $y = c$, and $y = d$ meet the region's boundary in more than two points. If we divide the boundary C into four directed line segments, however,

$$\begin{aligned}&C_1:\quad y = c,\quad a \leq x \leq b, &&C_2:\quad x = b,\quad c \leq y \leq d \\ &C_3:\quad y = d,\quad b \geq x \geq a, &&C_4:\quad x = a,\quad d \geq y \geq c,\end{aligned}$$

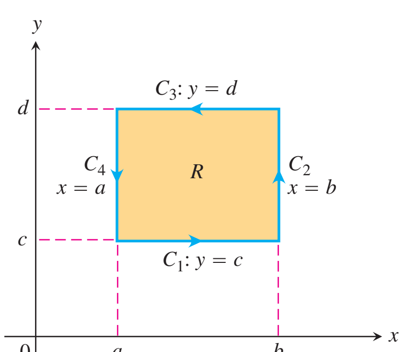


FIGURE 16.31 To prove Green's Theorem for a rectangle, we divide the boundary into four directed line segments.

we can modify the argument in the following way.

Proceeding as in the proof of Equation (7), we have

$$\begin{aligned}\int_c^d \int_a^b \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}\,dx\,dy &= \int_c^d (N(b, y) - N(a, y))\,dy \\ &= \int_c^d N(b, y)\,dy + \int_d^c N(a, y)\,dy \\ &= \int_{C_2} N\,dy + \int_{C_4} N\,dy.\end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

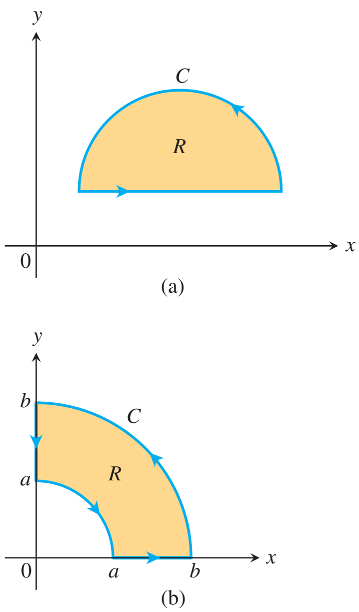


FIGURE 16.32 Other regions to which Green's Theorem applies.

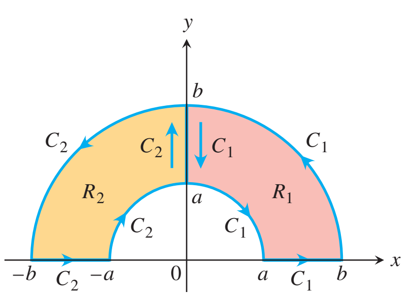


FIGURE 16.33 A region R that combines regions R_1 and R_2.

Because y is constant along C_1 and C_3, $\int_{C_1} N\,dy = \int_{C_3} N\,dy = 0$, so we can add $\int_{C_1} N\,dy = \int_{C_3} N\,dy$ to the right-hand side of Equation (8) without changing the equality. Doing so, we have

$$\int_c^d \int_a^b \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}\,dx\,dy = \oint_C N\,dy. \tag{9}$$

Similarly, we can show that

$$\int_a^b \int_c^d \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\,dy\,dx = -\oint_C M\,dx. \tag{10}$$

Subtracting Equation (10) from Equation (9), we again arrive at

$$\oint_C M\,dx + N\,dy = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right) dx\,dy.$$

Regions like those in Figure 16.32 can be handled with no greater difficulty. Equation (5) still applies. It also applies to the horseshoe-shaped region R shown in Figure 16.33, as we see by putting together the regions R_1 and R_2 and their boundaries. Green's Theorem applies to C_1, R_1 and to C_2, R_2, yielding

$$\int_{C_1} M\,dx + N\,dy = \iint_{R_1} \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right) dx\,dy$$

$$\int_{C_2} M\,dx + N\,dy = \iint_{R_2} \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right) dx\,dy.$$

When we add these two equations, the line integral along the y-axis from b to a for C_1 cancels the integral over the same segment but in the opposite direction for C_2. Hence,

$$\oint_C M\,dx + N\,dy = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right) dx\,dy,$$

where C consists of the two segments of the x-axis from $-b$ to $-a$ and from a to b and of the two semicircles, and where R is the region inside C.

The device of adding line integrals over separate boundaries to build up an integral over a single boundary can be extended to any finite number of subregions. In Figure 16.34a let C_1 be the boundary, oriented counterclockwise, of the region R_1 in the first quadrant. Similarly, for the other three quadrants, C_i is the boundary of the region R_i, $i = 2, 3, 4$. By Green's Theorem,

$$\oint_{C_i} M\,dx + N\,dy = \iint_{R_i} \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right) dx\,dy. \tag{11}$$

We sum Equation (11) over $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$, and get (Figure 16.34b):

$$\oint_{r=b} (M\,dx + N\,dy) + \oint_{r=a} (M\,dx + N\,dy) = \iint_{\cup R_i} \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right) dx\,dy. \tag{12}$$

Equation (12) says that the double integral of $(\partial N/\partial x) - (\partial M/\partial y)$ over the annular ring R equals the line integral of $M\,dx + N\,dy$ over the complete boundary of R in the direction that keeps R on our left as we progress (Figure 16.34b).

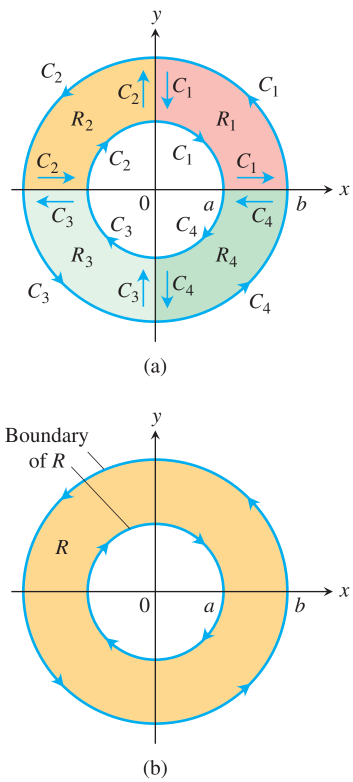


FIGURE 16.34 The annular region R combines four smaller regions. In polar coordinates, $r = a$ for the inner circle, $r = b$ for the outer circle, and $a \le r \le b$ for the region itself.

EXAMPLE 6 Verifying Green's Theorem for an Annular Ring

Verify the circulation form of Green's Theorem (Equation 4) on the annular ring $R: h^2 \le x^2 + y^2 \le 1,\ 0 < h < 1$ (Figure 16.35), if

$$M = \frac{-y}{x^2 + y^2}, \qquad N = \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2}.$$

Solution The boundary of R consists of the circle

$$C_1: \quad x = \cos t, \qquad y = \sin t, \qquad 0 \le t \le 2\pi,$$

traversed counterclockwise as t increases, and the circle

$$C_h: \quad x = h\cos\theta, \qquad y = -h\sin\theta, \qquad 0 \le \theta \le 2\pi,$$

traversed clockwise as θ increases. The functions M and N and their partial derivatives are continuous throughout R. Moreover,

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{(x^2 + y^2)(-1) + y(2y)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}$$

$$= \frac{y^2 - x^2}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x},$$

so

$$\iint_R \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right) dx\,dy = \iint_R 0\,dx\,dy = 0.$$

The integral of $M\,dx + N\,dy$ over the boundary of R is

$$\int_C M\,dx + N\,dy = \oint_{C_1} \frac{x\,dy - y\,dx}{x^2 + y^2} + \oint_{C_h} \frac{x\,dy - y\,dx}{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi} (\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t)\,dt - \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{h^2(\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta)}{h^2}\,d\theta$$

$$= 2\pi - 2\pi = 0. \qquad \blacksquare$$

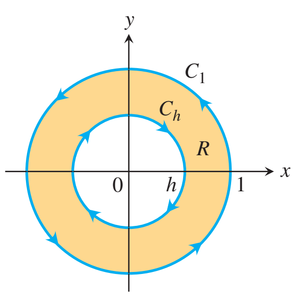


FIGURE 16.35 Green's Theorem may be applied to the annular region R by integrating along the boundaries as shown (Example 6).

The functions M and N in Example 6 are discontinuous at (0, 0), so we cannot apply Green's Theorem to the circle C_1 and the region inside it. We must exclude the origin. We do so by excluding the points interior to C_h.

We could replace the circle C_1 in Example 6 by an ellipse or any other simple closed curve K surrounding C_h (Figure 16.36). The result would still be

$$\oint_K (M\,dx + N\,dy) + \oint_{C_h} (M\,dx + N\,dy) = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right) dy\,dx = 0,$$

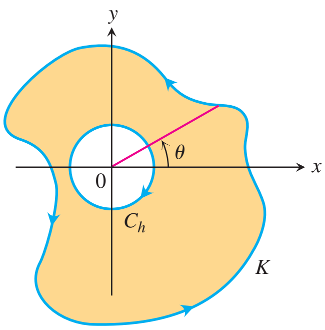


FIGURE 16.36 The region bounded by the circle C_h and the curve K.

which leads to the conclusion that

$$\oint_K (M\,dx + N\,dy) = 2\pi$$

for any such curve K. We can explain this result by changing to polar coordinates. With

$$x = r\cos\theta, \qquad y = r\sin\theta,$$
$$dx = -r\sin\theta\,d\theta + \cos\theta\,dr, \qquad dy = r\cos\theta\,d\theta + \sin\theta\,dr,$$

we have

$$\frac{x\,dy - y\,dx}{x^2 + y^2} = \frac{r^2(\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta)\,d\theta}{r^2} = d\theta,$$

and θ increases by 2π as we traverse K once counterclockwise.

EXERCISES 16.4

Verifying Green's Theorem

In Exercises 1–4, verify the conclusion of Green's Theorem by evaluating both sides of Equations (3) and (4) for the field $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j}$. Take the domains of integration in each case to be the disk $R: x^2 + y^2 \le a^2$ and its bounding circle $C: \mathbf{r} = (a\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (a\sin t)\mathbf{j},\ 0 \le t \le 2\pi$.

1. $\mathbf{F} = -y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$

2. $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i}$

3. $\mathbf{F} = 2x\mathbf{i} - 3y\mathbf{j}$

4. $\mathbf{F} = -x^2y\mathbf{i} + xy^2\mathbf{j}$

Counterclockwise Circulation and Outward Flux

In Exercises 5–10, use Green's Theorem to find the counterclockwise circulation and outward flux for the field **F** and curve C.

5. $\mathbf{F} = (x - y)\mathbf{i} + (y - x)\mathbf{j}$

C: The square bounded by $x = 0, x = 1, y = 0, y = 1$

6. $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + 4y)\mathbf{i} + (x + y^2)\mathbf{j}$

C: The square bounded by $x = 0, x = 1, y = 0, y = 1$

7. $\mathbf{F} = (y^2 - x^2)\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{j}$

C: The triangle bounded by $y = 0, x = 3$, and $y = x$

8. $\mathbf{F} = (x + y)\mathbf{i} - (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{j}$

C: The triangle bounded by $y = 0, x = 1$, and $y = x$

9. $\mathbf{F} = (x + e^x \sin y)\mathbf{i} + (x + e^x \cos y)\mathbf{j}$

C: The right-hand loop of the lemniscate $r^2 = \cos 2\theta$

10. $\mathbf{F} = \left(\tan^{-1}\dfrac{y}{x}\right)\mathbf{i} + \ln(x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{j}$

C: The boundary of the region defined by the polar coordinate inequalities $1 \le r \le 2, 0 \le \theta \le \pi$

11. Find the counterclockwise circulation and outward flux of the field $\mathbf{F} = xy\mathbf{i} + y^2\mathbf{j}$ around and over the boundary of the region enclosed by the curves $y = x^2$ and $y = x$ in the first quadrant.

12. Find the counterclockwise circulation and the outward flux of the field $\mathbf{F} = (-\sin y)\mathbf{i} + (x\cos y)\mathbf{j}$ around and over the square cut from the first quadrant by the lines $x = \pi/2$ and $y = \pi/2$.

13. Find the outward flux of the field

$$\mathbf{F} = \left(3xy - \frac{x}{1 + y^2}\right)\mathbf{i} + (e^x + \tan^{-1} y)\mathbf{j}$$

across the cardioid $r = a(1 + \cos\theta), a > 0$.

14. Find the counterclockwise circulation of $\mathbf{F} = (y + e^x \ln y)\mathbf{i} + (e^x/y)\mathbf{j}$ around the boundary of the region that is bounded above by the curve $y = 3 - x^2$ and below by the curve $y = x^4 + 1$.

Work

In Exercises 15 and 16, find the work done by **F** in moving a particle once counterclockwise around the given curve.

15. $\mathbf{F} = 2xy^3\mathbf{i} + 4x^2y^2\mathbf{j}$

C: The boundary of the "triangular" region in the first quadrant enclosed by the x-axis, the line $x = 1$, and the curve $y = x^3$

16. $\mathbf{F} = (4x - 2y)\mathbf{i} + (2x - 4y)\mathbf{j}$

C: The circle $(x - 2)^2 + (y - 2)^2 = 4$

Evaluating Line Integrals in the Plane

Apply Green's Theorem to evaluate the integrals in Exercises 17–20.

17. $\displaystyle\oint_C (y^2\,dx + x^2\,dy)$

C: The triangle bounded by $x = 0, x + y = 1, y = 0$

18. $\displaystyle\oint_C (3y\,dx + 2x\,dy)$

C: The boundary of $0 \le x \le \pi, 0 \le y \le \sin x$

19. $\oint_C (6y + x)\,dx + (y + 2x)\,dy$

C: The circle $(x - 2)^2 + (y - 3)^2 = 4$

20. $\oint_C (2x + y^2)\,dx + (2xy + 3y)\,dy$

C: Any simple closed curve in the plane for which Green's Theorem holds

Calculating Area with Green's Theorem

If a simple closed curve C in the plane and the region R it encloses satisfy the hypotheses of Green's Theorem, the area of R is given by

Green's Theorem Area Formula

$$\text{Area of } R = \frac{1}{2}\oint_C x\,dy - y\,dx \qquad (13)$$

The reason is that by Equation (3), run backward,

$$\text{Area of } R = \iint_R dy\,dx = \iint_R \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\right) dy\,dx$$

$$= \oint_C \frac{1}{2}x\,dy - \frac{1}{2}y\,dx.$$

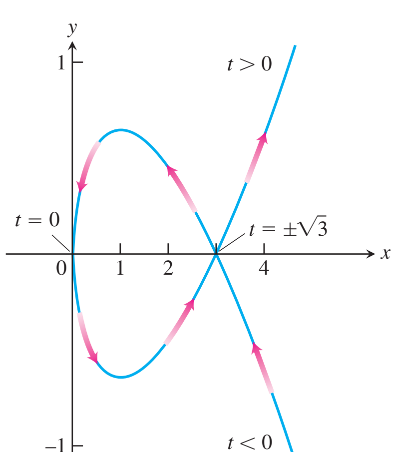
Use the Green's Theorem area formula (Equation 13) to find the areas of the regions enclosed by the curves in Exercises 21–24.

21. The circle $\mathbf{r}(t) = (a\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (a\sin t)\mathbf{j}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

22. The ellipse $\mathbf{r}(t) = (a\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (b\sin t)\mathbf{j}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

23. The astroid $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos^3 t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin^3 t)\mathbf{j}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

24. The curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} + ((t^3/3) - t)\mathbf{j}$, $-\sqrt{3} \le t \le \sqrt{3}$ (see accompanying figure).



Theory and Examples

25. Let C be the boundary of a region on which Green's Theorem holds. Use Green's Theorem to calculate

a. $\oint_C f(x)\,dx + g(y)\,dy$

b. $\oint_C ky\,dx + hx\,dy$ (k and h constants).

26. Integral dependent only on area Show that the value of

$$\oint_C xy^2\,dx + (x^2y + 2x)\,dy$$

around any square depends only on the area of the square and not on its location in the plane.

27. What is special about the integral

$$\oint_C 4x^3y\,dx + x^4\,dy?$$

Give reasons for your answer.

28. What is special about the integral

$$\oint_C -y^3\,dy + x^3\,dx?$$

Give reasons for your answer.

29. Area as a line integral Show that if R is a region in the plane bounded by a piecewise-smooth simple closed curve C, then

$$\text{Area of } R = \oint_C x\,dy = -\oint_C y\,dx.$$

30. Definite integral as a line integral Suppose that a nonnegative function $y = f(x)$ has a continuous first derivative on $[a, b]$. Let C be the boundary of the region in the xy-plane that is bounded below by the x-axis, above by the graph of f, and on the sides by the lines $x = a$ and $x = b$. Show that

$$\int_a^b f(x)\,dx = -\oint_C y\,dx.$$

31. Area and the centroid Let A be the area and $\bar{x}$ the x-coordinate of the centroid of a region R that is bounded by a piecewise-smooth simple closed curve C in the xy-plane. Show that

$$\frac{1}{2}\oint_C x^2\,dy = -\oint_C xy\,dx = \frac{1}{3}\oint_C x^2\,dy - xy\,dx = A\bar{x}.$$

32. Moment of inertia Let I_y be the moment of inertia about the y-axis of the region in Exercise 31. Show that

$$\frac{1}{3}\oint_C x^3\,dy = -\oint_C x^2y\,dx = \frac{1}{4}\oint_C x^3\,dy - x^2y\,dx = I_y.$$

33. Green's Theorem and Laplace's equation Assuming that all the necessary derivatives exist and are continuous, show that if $f(x, y)$ satisfies the Laplace equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = 0,$$

then

$$\oint_C \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\,dx - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\,dy = 0$$

for all closed curves C to which Green's Theorem applies. (The converse is also true: If the line integral is always zero, then f satisfies the Laplace equation.)

34. Maximizing work Among all smooth simple closed curves in the plane, oriented counterclockwise, find the one along which the work done by

$$\mathbf{F} = \left(\frac{1}{4}x^2y + \frac{1}{3}y^3\right)\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$$

is greatest. (*Hint:* Where is $(\text{curl }\mathbf{F})\cdot\mathbf{k}$ positive?)

35. Regions with many holes Green's Theorem holds for a region R with any finite number of holes as long as the bounding curves are smooth, simple, and closed and we integrate over each component of the boundary in the direction that keeps R on our immediate left as we go along (Figure 16.37).

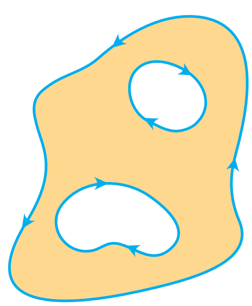


FIGURE 16.37 Green's Theorem holds for regions with more than one hole (Exercise 35).

a. Let $f(x, y) = \ln(x^2 + y^2)$ and let C be the circle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$. Evaluate the flux integral

$$\oint_C \nabla f \cdot \mathbf{n}\,ds.$$

b. Let K be an arbitrary smooth simple closed curve in the plane that does not pass through (0, 0). Use Green's Theorem to show that

$$\oint_K \nabla f \cdot \mathbf{n}\,ds$$

has two possible values, depending on whether (0, 0) lies inside K or outside K.

36. Bendixson's criterion The *streamlines* of a planar fluid flow are the smooth curves traced by the fluid's individual particles. The vectors $\mathbf{F} = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j}$ of the flow's velocity field are the tangent vectors of the streamlines. Show that if the flow takes place over a simply connected region R (no holes or missing points) and that if $M_x + N_y \neq 0$ throughout R, then none of the streamlines in R is closed. In other words, no particle of fluid ever has a closed trajectory in R. The criterion $M_x + N_y \neq 0$ is called **Bendixson's criterion** for the nonexistence of closed trajectories.

37. Establish Equation (7) to finish the proof of the special case of Green's Theorem.

38. Establish Equation (10) to complete the argument for the extension of Green's Theorem.

39. Curl component of conservative fields Can anything be said about the curl component of a conservative two-dimensional vector field? Give reasons for your answer.

40. Circulation of conservative fields Does Green's Theorem give any information about the circulation of a conservative field? Does this agree with anything else you know? Give reasons for your answer.

COMPUTER EXPLORATIONS

Finding Circulation

In Exercises 41–44, use a CAS and Green's Theorem to find the counterclockwise circulation of the field $\mathbf{F}$ around the simple closed curve C. Perform the following CAS steps.

a. Plot C in the xy-plane.

b. Determine the integrand $(\partial N/\partial x) - (\partial M/\partial y)$ for the curl form of Green's Theorem.

c. Determine the (double integral) limits of integration from your plot in part (a) and evaluate the curl integral for the circulation.

41. $\mathbf{F} = (2x - y)\mathbf{i} + (x + 3y)\mathbf{j}$, C: The ellipse $x^2 + 4y^2 = 4$

42. $\mathbf{F} = (2x^3 - y^3)\mathbf{i} + (x^3 + y^3)\mathbf{j}$, C: The ellipse $\frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{y^2}{9} = 1$

43. $\mathbf{F} = x^{-1}e^y\mathbf{i} + (e^y \ln x + 2x)\mathbf{j}$,

C: The boundary of the region defined by $y = 1 + x^4$ (below) and $y = 2$ (above)

44. $\mathbf{F} = xe^y\mathbf{i} + 4x^2 \ln y\,\mathbf{j}$,

C: The triangle with vertices (0, 0), (2, 0), and (0, 4)

16.5 Surface Area and Surface Integrals

We know how to integrate a function over a flat region in a plane, but what if the function is defined over a curved surface? To evaluate one of these so-called surface integrals, we rewrite it as a double integral over a region in a coordinate plane beneath the surface (Figure 16.38). Surface integrals are used to compute quantities such as the flow of liquid across a membrane or the upward force on a falling parachute.

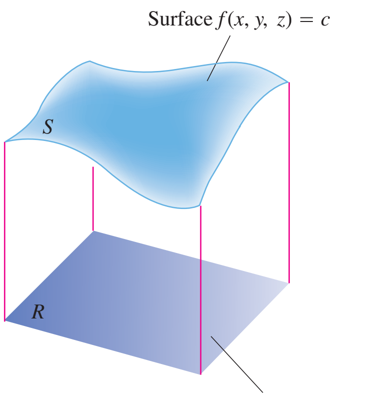


FIGURE 16.38 As we soon see, the integral of a function $g(x, y, z)$ over a surface S in space can be calculated by evaluating a related double integral over the vertical projection or "shadow" of S on a coordinate plane.

Surface Area

Figure 16.39 shows a surface S lying above its "shadow" region R in a plane beneath it. The surface is defined by the equation $f(x, y, z) = c$. If the surface is **smooth** (∇f is continuous and never vanishes on S), we can define and calculate its area as a double integral over R. We assume that this projection of the surface onto its shadow R is one-to-one. That is, each point in R corresponds to exactly one point (x, y, z) satisfying $f(x, y, z) = c$.

The first step in defining the area of S is to partition the region R into small rectangles ΔA_k of the kind we would use if we were defining an integral over R. Directly above each ΔA_k lies a patch of surface $\Delta\sigma_k$ that we may approximate by a parallelogram ΔP_k in the tangent plane to S at a point $T_k(x_k, y_k, z_k)$ in $\Delta\sigma_k$. This parallelogram in the tangent plane projects directly onto ΔA_k. To be specific, we choose the point $T_k(x_k, y_k, z_k)$ lying directly above the back corner C_k of ΔA_k, as shown in Figure 16.39. If the tangent plane is parallel to R, then ΔP_k will be congruent to ΔA_k. Otherwise, it will be a parallelogram whose area is somewhat larger than the area of ΔA_k.

Figure 16.40 gives a magnified view of $\Delta\sigma_k$ and ΔP_k, showing the gradient vector $\nabla f(x_k, y_k, z_k)$ at T_k and a unit vector $\mathbf{p}$ that is normal to R. The figure also shows the angle γ_k between ∇f and $\mathbf{p}$. The other vectors in the picture, $\mathbf{u}_k$ and $\mathbf{v}_k$, lie along the edges of the patch ΔP_k in the tangent plane. Thus, both $\mathbf{u}_k \times \mathbf{v}_k$ and ∇f are normal to the tangent plane.

We now need to know from advanced vector geometry that $|(\mathbf{u}_k \times \mathbf{v}_k) \cdot \mathbf{p}|$ is the area of the projection of the parallelogram determined by $\mathbf{u}_k$ and $\mathbf{v}_k$ onto any plane whose normal is $\mathbf{p}$. (A proof is given in Appendix 8.) In our case, this translates into the statement

$$|(\mathbf{u}_k \times \mathbf{v}_k) \cdot \mathbf{p}| = \Delta A_k.$$

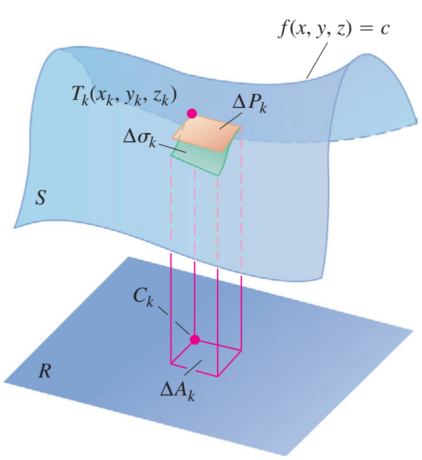


FIGURE 16.39 A surface S and its vertical projection onto a plane beneath it. You can think of R as the shadow of S on the plane. The tangent plane ΔP_k approximates the surface patch $\Delta\sigma_k$ above ΔA_k.

To simplify the notation in the derivation that follows, we are now denoting the *area* of the small rectangular region by ΔA_k as well. Likewise, ΔP_k will also denote the area of the portion of the tangent plane directly above this small region.

Now, $|\mathbf{u}_k \times \mathbf{v}_k|$ itself is the area ΔP_k (standard fact about cross products) so this last equation becomes

$$\underbrace{|\mathbf{u}_k \times \mathbf{v}_k|}_{\Delta P_k}\ \underbrace{|\mathbf{p}|}_{1}\ \underbrace{|\cos(\text{angle between } \mathbf{u}_k \times \mathbf{v}_k \text{ and } \mathbf{p})|}_{\substack{\text{Same as } |\cos\gamma_k| \text{ because } \nabla f \text{ and } \mathbf{u}_k \times \mathbf{v}_k \\ \text{are both normal to the tangent plane}}} = \Delta A_k$$

or

$$\Delta P_k |\cos\gamma_k| = \Delta A_k$$

or

$$\Delta P_k = \frac{\Delta A_k}{|\cos\gamma_k|},$$

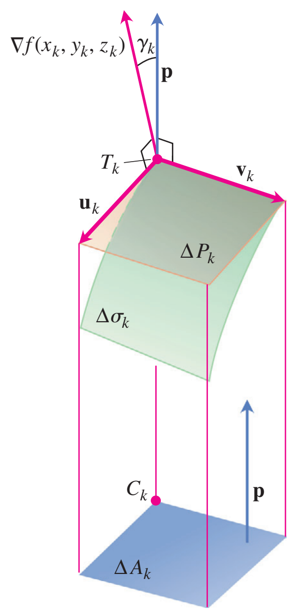


FIGURE 16.40 Magnified view from the preceding figure. The vector $\mathbf{u}_k \times \mathbf{v}_k$ (not shown) is parallel to the vector ∇f because both vectors are normal to the plane of ΔP_k.

provided $\cos\gamma_k \neq 0$. We will have $\cos\gamma_k \neq 0$ as long as ∇f is not parallel to the ground plane and $\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p} \neq 0$.

Since the patches ΔP_k approximate the surface patches $\Delta\sigma_k$ that fit together to make S, the sum

$$\sum \Delta P_k = \sum \frac{\Delta A_k}{|\cos\gamma_k|} \tag{1}$$

looks like an approximation of what we might like to call the surface area of S. It also looks as if the approximation would improve if we refined the partition of R. In fact, the sums on the right-hand side of Equation (1) are approximating sums for the double integral

$$\iint_R \frac{1}{|\cos\gamma|}\,dA. \tag{2}$$

We therefore define the **area** of S to be the value of this integral whenever it exists. For any surface $f(x, y, z) = c$, we have $|\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}| = |\nabla f||\mathbf{p}||\cos\gamma|$, so

$$\frac{1}{|\cos\gamma|} = \frac{|\nabla f|}{|\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}|}.$$

This combines with Equation (2) to give a practical formula for surface area.

Formula for Surface Area

The area of the surface $f(x, y, z) = c$ over a closed and bounded plane region R is

$$\text{Surface area} = \iint_R \frac{|\nabla f|}{|\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}|}\,dA, \tag{3}$$

where $\mathbf{p}$ is a unit vector normal to R and $\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p} \neq 0$.

Thus, the area is the double integral over R of the magnitude of ∇f divided by the magnitude of the scalar component of ∇f normal to R.

We reached Equation (3) under the assumption that $\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p} \neq 0$ throughout R and that ∇f is continuous. Whenever the integral exists, however, we define its value to be the area of the portion of the surface $f(x, y, z) = c$ that lies over R. (Recall that the projection is assumed to be one-to-one.)

In the exercises (see Equation 11), we show how Equation (3) simplifies if the surface is defined by $z = f(x, y)$.

You Try It

EXAMPLE 1 Finding Surface Area

Find the area of the surface cut from the bottom of the paraboloid $x^2 + y^2 - z = 0$ by the plane $z = 4$.

Solution We sketch the surface S and the region R below it in the xy-plane (Figure 16.41). The surface S is part of the level surface $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 - z = 0$, and R is the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leq 4$ in the xy-plane. To get a unit vector normal to the plane of R, we can take $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{k}$.

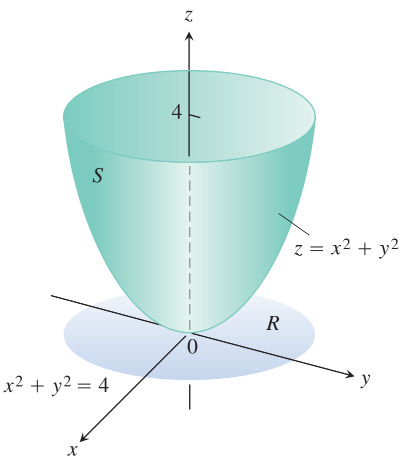


FIGURE 16.41 The area of this parabolic surface is calculated in Example 1.

At any point (x, y, z) on the surface, we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y, z) &= x^2 + y^2 - z \\ \nabla f &= 2x\mathbf{i} + 2y\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k} \\ |\nabla f| &= \sqrt{(2x)^2 + (2y)^2 + (-1)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{4x^2 + 4y^2 + 1} \\ |\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}| &= |\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{k}| = |-1| = 1. \end{aligned}$$

In the region R, $dA = dx\,dy$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Surface area} &= \iint_R \frac{|\nabla f|}{|\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}|}\, dA && \text{Equation (3)} \\ &= \iint_{x^2+y^2\le 4} \sqrt{4x^2 + 4y^2 + 1}\, dx\, dy \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^2 \sqrt{4r^2 + 1}\, r\, dr\, d\theta && \text{Polar coordinates} \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \left[\frac{1}{12}(4r^2 + 1)^{3/2}\right]_0^2 d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{12}(17^{3/2} - 1)\, d\theta = \frac{\pi}{6}\left(17\sqrt{17} - 1\right). \end{aligned}$$

■

EXAMPLE 2 Finding Surface Area

Find the area of the cap cut from the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 2$, $z \geq 0$, by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ (Figure 16.42).

You Try It

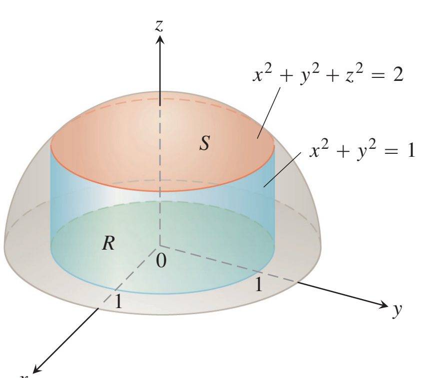


FIGURE 16.42 The cap cut from the hemisphere by the cylinder projects vertically onto the disk R: $x^2 + y^2 \leq 1$ in the xy-plane (Example 2).

Solution The cap S is part of the level surface $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 2$. It projects one-to-one onto the disk R: $x^2 + y^2 \leq 1$ in the xy-plane. The unit vector $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{k}$ is normal to the plane of R.

At any point on the surface,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y, z) &= x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \\ \nabla f &= 2x\mathbf{i} + 2y\mathbf{j} + 2z\mathbf{k} \\ |\nabla f| &= 2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} = 2\sqrt{2} && \text{Because } x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 2 \text{ at points of } S \\ |\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}| &= |\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{k}| = |2z| = 2z. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\text{Surface area} = \iint_R \frac{|\nabla f|}{|\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}|}\, dA = \iint_R \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{2z}\, dA = \sqrt{2}\iint_R \frac{dA}{z}. \tag{4}$$

What do we do about the z?

Since z is the z-coordinate of a point on the sphere, we can express it in terms of x and y as

$$z = \sqrt{2 - x^2 - y^2}.$$

We continue the work of Equation (4) with this substitution:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Surface area} &= \sqrt{2}\iint_R \frac{dA}{z} = \sqrt{2}\iint_{x^2+y^2\le 1} \frac{dA}{\sqrt{2-x^2-y^2}} \\ &= \sqrt{2}\int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^1 \frac{r\,dr\,d\theta}{\sqrt{2-r^2}} \qquad \text{Polar coordinates} \\ &= \sqrt{2}\int_0^{2\pi}\left[-(2-r^2)^{1/2}\right]_{r=0}^{r=1} d\theta \\ &= \sqrt{2}\int_0^{2\pi}\left(\sqrt{2}-1\right) d\theta = 2\pi\left(2-\sqrt{2}\right).\end{aligned}$$

Surface Integrals

We now show how to integrate a function over a surface, using the ideas just developed for calculating surface area.

Suppose, for example, that we have an electrical charge distributed over a surface $f(x, y, z) = c$ like the one shown in Figure 16.43 and that the function $g(x, y, z)$ gives the charge per unit area (charge density) at each point on S. Then we may calculate the total charge on S as an integral in the following way.

We partition the shadow region R on the ground plane beneath the surface into small rectangles of the kind we would use if we were defining the surface area of S. Then directly above each ΔA_k lies a patch of surface $\Delta\sigma_k$ that we approximate with a parallelogram-shaped portion of tangent plane, ΔP_k. (See Figure 16.43.)

Up to this point the construction proceeds as in the definition of surface area, but now we take an additional step: We evaluate g at (x_k, y_k, z_k) and approximate the total charge on the surface path $\Delta\sigma_k$ by the product $g(x_k, y_k, z_k)\,\Delta P_k$. The rationale is that when the partition of R is sufficiently fine, the value of g throughout $\Delta\sigma_k$ is nearly constant and ΔP_k is nearly the same as $\Delta\sigma_k$. The total charge over S is then approximated by the sum

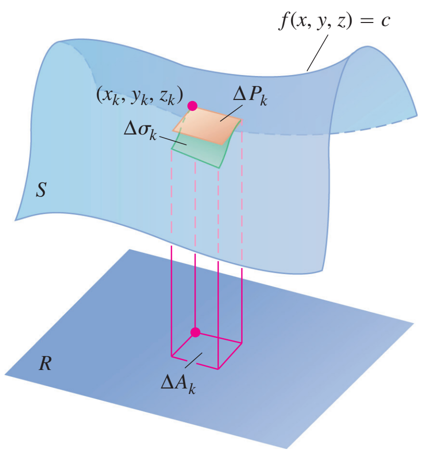


FIGURE 16.43 If we know how an electrical charge $g(x, y, z)$ is distributed over a surface, we can find the total charge with a suitably modified surface integral.

$$\text{Total charge} \approx \sum g(x_k, y_k, z_k)\,\Delta P_k = \sum g(x_k, y_k, z_k)\frac{\Delta A_k}{|\cos\gamma_k|}.$$

If f, the function defining the surface S, and its first partial derivatives are continuous, and if g is continuous over S, then the sums on the right-hand side of the last equation approach the limit

$$\iint_R g(x, y, z)\frac{dA}{|\cos\gamma|} = \iint_R g(x, y, z)\frac{|\nabla f|}{|\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}|}\,dA \qquad (5)$$

as the partition of R is refined in the usual way. This limit is called the integral of g over the surface S and is calculated as a double integral over R. The value of the integral is the total charge on the surface S.

As you might expect, the formula in Equation (5) defines the integral of *any* function g over the surface S as long as the integral exists.

DEFINITION Surface Integral

If R is the shadow region of a surface S defined by the equation $f(x, y, z) = c$, and g is a continuous function defined at the points of S, then the **integral of g over S** is the integral

$$\iint_R g(x, y, z) \frac{|\nabla f|}{|\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}|}\, dA, \tag{6}$$

where $\mathbf{p}$ is a unit vector normal to R and $\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p} \neq 0$. The integral itself is called a **surface integral**.

The integral in Equation (6) takes on different meanings in different applications. If g has the constant value 1, the integral gives the area of S. If g gives the mass density of a thin shell of material modeled by S, the integral gives the mass of the shell.

We can abbreviate the integral in Equation (6) by writing $d\sigma$ for $(|\nabla f|/|\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}|)\, dA$.

The Surface Area Differential and the Differential Form for Surface Integrals

$$d\sigma = \frac{|\nabla f|}{|\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}|}\, dA \qquad \iint_S g\, d\sigma \tag{7}$$

Surface area differential — Differential formula for surface integrals

Surface integrals behave like other double integrals, the integral of the sum of two functions being the sum of their integrals and so on. The domain Additivity Property takes the form

$$\iint_S g\, d\sigma = \iint_{S_1} g\, d\sigma + \iint_{S_2} g\, d\sigma + \cdots + \iint_{S_n} g\, d\sigma.$$

The idea is that if S is partitioned by smooth curves into a finite number of nonoverlapping smooth patches (i.e., if S is **piecewise smooth**), then the integral over S is the sum of the integrals over the patches. Thus, the integral of a function over the surface of a cube is the sum of the integrals over the faces of the cube. We integrate over a turtle shell of welded plates by integrating one plate at a time and adding the results.

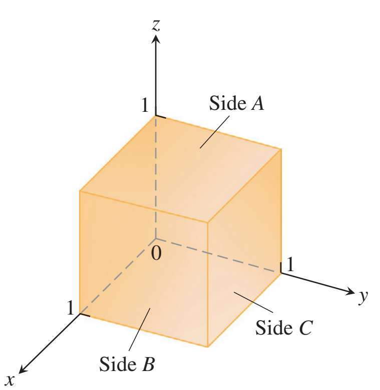


FIGURE 16.44 The cube in Example 3.

EXAMPLE 3 Integrating Over a Surface

Integrate $g(x, y, z) = xyz$ over the surface of the cube cut from the first octant by the planes $x = 1$, $y = 1$, and $z = 1$ (Figure 16.44).

Solution We integrate xyz over each of the six sides and add the results. Since $xyz = 0$ on the sides that lie in the coordinate planes, the integral over the surface of the cube reduces to

$$\iint_{\substack{\text{Cube}\\\text{surface}}} xyz\, d\sigma = \iint_{\text{Side } A} xyz\, d\sigma + \iint_{\text{Side } B} xyz\, d\sigma + \iint_{\text{Side } C} xyz\, d\sigma.$$

Side A is the surface $f(x, y, z) = z = 1$ over the square region R_{xy}: $0 \le x \le 1$, $0 \le y \le 1$, in the xy-plane. For this surface and region,

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{k}, \qquad \nabla f = \mathbf{k}, \qquad |\nabla f| = 1, \qquad |\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}| = |\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{k}| = 1$$

$$d\sigma = \frac{|\nabla f|}{|\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}|}\, dA = \frac{1}{1}\, dx\, dy = dx\, dy$$

$$xyz = xy(1) = xy$$

and

$$\iint_{\text{Side } A} xyz\, d\sigma = \iint_{R_{xy}} xy\, dx\, dy = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 xy\, dx\, dy = \int_0^1 \frac{y}{2}\, dy = \frac{1}{4}.$$

Symmetry tells us that the integrals of xyz over sides B and C are also $1/4$. Hence,

$$\iint_{\substack{\text{Cube}\\ \text{surface}}} xyz\, d\sigma = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{4}.$$

■

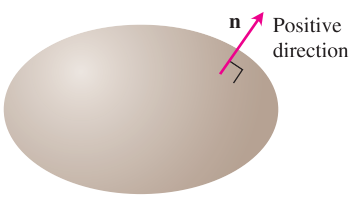


FIGURE 16.45 Smooth closed surfaces in space are orientable. The outward unit normal vector defines the positive direction at each point.

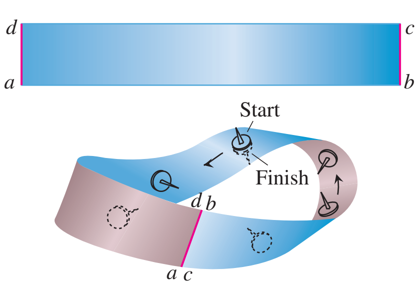


FIGURE 16.46 To make a Möbius band, take a rectangular strip of paper *abcd*, give the end *bc* a single twist, and paste the ends of the strip together to match *a* with *c* and *b* with *d*. The Möbius band is a nonorientable or one-sided surface.

Orientation

We call a smooth surface S **orientable** or **two-sided** if it is possible to define a field $\mathbf{n}$ of unit normal vectors on S that varies continuously with position. Any patch or subportion of an orientable surface is orientable. Spheres and other smooth closed surfaces in space (smooth surfaces that enclose solids) are orientable. By convention, we choose $\mathbf{n}$ on a closed surface to point outward.

Once $\mathbf{n}$ has been chosen, we say that we have **oriented** the surface, and we call the surface together with its normal field an **oriented surface**. The vector $\mathbf{n}$ at any point is called the **positive direction** at that point (Figure 16.45).

The Möbius band in Figure 16.46 is not orientable. No matter where you start to construct a continuous-unit normal field (shown as the shaft of a thumbtack in the figure), moving the vector continuously around the surface in the manner shown will return it to the starting point with a direction opposite to the one it had when it started out. The vector at that point cannot point both ways and yet it must if the field is to be continuous. We conclude that no such field exists.

Surface Integral for Flux

Suppose that $\mathbf{F}$ is a continuous vector field defined over an oriented surface S and that $\mathbf{n}$ is the chosen unit normal field on the surface. We call the integral of $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}$ over S the flux of $\mathbf{F}$ across S in the positive direction. Thus, the flux is the integral over S of the scalar component of $\mathbf{F}$ in the direction of $\mathbf{n}$.

DEFINITION Flux

The **flux** of a three-dimensional vector field $\mathbf{F}$ across an oriented surface S in the direction of $\mathbf{n}$ is

$$\text{Flux} = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma. \qquad (8)$$

The definition is analogous to the flux of a two-dimensional field **F** across a plane curve C. In the plane (Section 16.2), the flux is

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, ds,$$

the integral of the scalar component of **F** normal to the curve.

If **F** is the velocity field of a three-dimensional fluid flow, the flux of **F** across S is the net rate at which fluid is crossing S in the chosen positive direction. We discuss such flows in more detail in Section 16.7.

If **S** is part of a level surface $g(x, y, z) = c$, then **n** may be taken to be one of the two fields

$$\mathbf{n} = \pm\frac{\nabla g}{|\nabla g|}, \tag{9}$$

depending on which one gives the preferred direction. The corresponding flux is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Flux} &= \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma \\ &= \iint_R \left(\mathbf{F} \cdot \frac{\pm\nabla g}{|\nabla g|}\right)\frac{|\nabla g|}{|\nabla g \cdot \mathbf{p}|}\, dA \qquad \text{Equations (9) and (7)} \qquad (8) \\ &= \iint_R \mathbf{F} \cdot \frac{\pm\nabla g}{|\nabla g \cdot \mathbf{p}|}\, dA. \qquad (10) \end{aligned}$$

You Try It

EXAMPLE 4 Finding Flux

Find the flux of $\mathbf{F} = yz\mathbf{j} + z^2\mathbf{k}$ outward through the surface S cut from the cylinder $y^2 + z^2 = 1$, $z \geq 0$, by the planes $x = 0$ and $x = 1$.

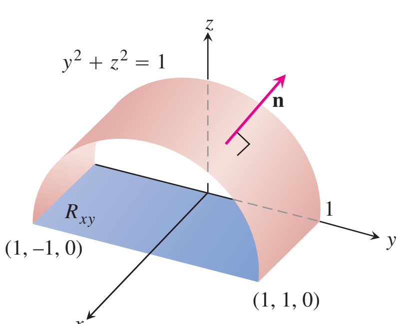


FIGURE 16.47 Calculating the flux of a vector field outward through this surface. The area of the shadow region R_{xy} is 2 (Example 4).

Solution The outward normal field on S (Figure 16.47) may be calculated from the gradient of $g(x, y, z) = y^2 + z^2$ to be

$$\mathbf{n} = +\frac{\nabla g}{|\nabla g|} = \frac{2y\mathbf{j} + 2z\mathbf{k}}{\sqrt{4y^2 + 4z^2}} = \frac{2y\mathbf{j} + 2z\mathbf{k}}{2\sqrt{1}} = y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}.$$

With $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{k}$, we also have

$$d\sigma = \frac{|\nabla g|}{|\nabla g \cdot \mathbf{k}|}\, dA = \frac{2}{|2z|}\, dA = \frac{1}{z}\, dA.$$

We can drop the absolute value bars because $z \geq 0$ on S.

The value of $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}$ on the surface is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} &= (yz\mathbf{j} + z^2\mathbf{k}) \cdot (y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}) \\ &= y^2 z + z^3 = z(y^2 + z^2) \\ &= z. \qquad y^2 + z^2 = 1 \text{ on } S \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the flux of **F** outward through S is

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = \iint_S (z)\left(\frac{1}{z}\, dA\right) = \iint_{R_{xy}} dA = \text{area}(R_{xy}) = 2.$$

Moments and Masses of Thin Shells

Thin shells of material like bowls, metal drums, and domes are modeled with surfaces. Their moments and masses are calculated with the formulas in Table 16.3.

TABLE 16.3 Mass and moment formulas for very thin shells

Mass: $M = \iint_S \delta(x, y, z)\, d\sigma \qquad (\delta(x, y, z) = \text{density at } (x, y, z), \text{ mass per unit area})$

First moments about the coordinate planes:

$$M_{yz} = \iint_S x\,\delta\, d\sigma, \qquad M_{xz} = \iint_S y\,\delta\, d\sigma, \qquad M_{xy} = \iint_S z\,\delta\, d\sigma$$

Coordinates of center of mass:

$$\bar{x} = M_{yz}/M, \qquad \bar{y} = M_{xz}/M, \qquad \bar{z} = M_{xy}/M$$

Moments of inertia about coordinate axes:

$$I_x = \iint_S (y^2 + z^2)\,\delta\, d\sigma, \qquad I_y = \iint_S (x^2 + z^2)\,\delta\, d\sigma,$$

$$I_z = \iint_S (x^2 + y^2)\,\delta\, d\sigma, \qquad I_L = \iint_S r^2\delta\, d\sigma,$$

$$r(x, y, z) = \text{distance from point } (x, y, z) \text{ to line } L$$

Radius of gyration about a line *L*: $R_L = \sqrt{I_L/M}$

EXAMPLE 5 Finding Center of Mass

Find the center of mass of a thin hemispherical shell of radius a and constant density δ.

Solution We model the shell with the hemisphere

$$f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2, \qquad z \ge 0$$

(Figure 16.48). The symmetry of the surface about the z-axis tells us that $\bar{x} = \bar{y} = 0$. It remains only to find $\bar{z}$ from the formula $\bar{z} = M_{xy}/M$.

The mass of the shell is

$$M = \iint_S \delta\, d\sigma = \delta \iint_S d\sigma = (\delta)(\text{area of } S) = 2\pi a^2 \delta.$$

To evaluate the integral for M_{xy}, we take $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{k}$ and calculate

$$|\nabla f| = |2x\mathbf{i} + 2y\mathbf{j} + 2z\mathbf{k}| = 2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} = 2a$$

$$|\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}| = |\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{k}| = |2z| = 2z$$

$$d\sigma = \frac{|\nabla f|}{|\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}|}\, dA = \frac{a}{z}\, dA.$$

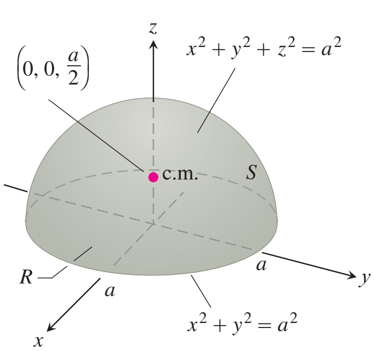


FIGURE 16.48 The center of mass of a thin hemispherical shell of constant density lies on the axis of symmetry halfway from the base to the top (Example 5).

Then

$$M_{xy} = \iint_S z\delta \, d\sigma = \delta \iint_R z \frac{a}{z} \, dA = \delta a \iint_R dA = \delta a(\pi a^2) = \delta \pi a^3$$

$$\bar{z} = \frac{M_{xy}}{M} = \frac{\pi a^3 \delta}{2\pi a^2 \delta} = \frac{a}{2}.$$

The shell's center of mass is the point $(0, 0, a/2)$. ■

EXERCISES 16.5

Surface Area

1. Find the area of the surface cut from the paraboloid $x^2 + y^2 - z = 0$ by the plane $z = 2$.
2. Find the area of the band cut from the paraboloid $x^2 + y^2 - z = 0$ by the planes $z = 2$ and $z = 6$.
3. Find the area of the region cut from the plane $x + 2y + 2z = 5$ by the cylinder whose walls are $x = y^2$ and $x = 2 - y^2$.
4. Find the area of the portion of the surface $x^2 - 2z = 0$ that lies above the triangle bounded by the lines $x = \sqrt{3}$, $y = 0$, and $y = x$ in the xy-plane.
5. Find the area of the surface $x^2 - 2y - 2z = 0$ that lies above the triangle bounded by the lines $x = 2$, $y = 0$, and $y = 3x$ in the xy-plane.
6. Find the area of the cap cut from the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 2$ by the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$.
7. Find the area of the ellipse cut from the plane $z = cx$ (c a constant) by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.
8. Find the area of the upper portion of the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 1$ that lies between the planes $x = \pm 1/2$ and $y = \pm 1/2$.
9. Find the area of the portion of the paraboloid $x = 4 - y^2 - z^2$ that lies above the ring $1 \le y^2 + z^2 \le 4$ in the yz-plane.
10. Find the area of the surface cut from the paraboloid $x^2 + y + z^2 = 2$ by the plane $y = 0$.
11. Find the area of the surface $x^2 - 2 \ln x + \sqrt{15}y - z = 0$ above the square R: $1 \le x \le 2$, $0 \le y \le 1$, in the xy-plane.
12. Find the area of the surface $2x^{3/2} + 2y^{3/2} - 3z = 0$ above the square R: $0 \le x \le 1$, $0 \le y \le 1$, in the xy-plane.

Surface Integrals

13. Integrate $g(x, y, z) = x + y + z$ over the surface of the cube cut from the first octant by the planes $x = a$, $y = a$, $z = a$.
14. Integrate $g(x, y, z) = y + z$ over the surface of the wedge in the first octant bounded by the coordinate planes and the planes $x = 2$ and $y + z = 1$.
15. Integrate $g(x, y, z) = xyz$ over the surface of the rectangular solid cut from the first octant by the planes $x = a$, $y = b$, and $z = c$.
16. Integrate $g(x, y, z) = xyz$ over the surface of the rectangular solid bounded by the planes $x = \pm a$, $y = \pm b$, and $z = \pm c$.
17. Integrate $g(x, y, z) = x + y + z$ over the portion of the plane $2x + 2y + z = 2$ that lies in the first octant.
18. Integrate $g(x, y, z) = x\sqrt{y^2 + 4}$ over the surface cut from the parabolic cylinder $y^2 + 4z = 16$ by the planes $x = 0$, $x = 1$, and $z = 0$.

Flux Across a Surface

In Exercises 19 and 20, find the flux of the field $\mathbf{F}$ across the portion of the given surface in the specified direction.

19. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = -\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$

    S: rectangular surface $z = 0$, $0 \le x \le 2$, $0 \le y \le 3$, direction $\mathbf{k}$
20. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = yx^2\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + xz\mathbf{k}$

    S: rectangular surface $y = 0$, $-1 \le x \le 2$, $2 \le z \le 7$, direction $-\mathbf{j}$

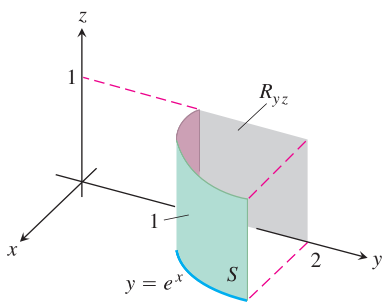
In Exercises 21–26, find the flux of the field $\mathbf{F}$ across the portion of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ in the first octant in the direction away from the origin.

21. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = z\mathbf{k}$
22. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = -y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$
23. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = y\mathbf{i} - x\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$
24. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = zx\mathbf{i} + zy\mathbf{j} + z^2\mathbf{k}$
25. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$
26. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \dfrac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$

27. Find the flux of the field $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = z^2\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j} - 3z\mathbf{k}$ outward through the surface cut from the parabolic cylinder $z = 4 - y^2$ by the planes $x = 0$, $x = 1$, and $z = 0$.

28. Find the flux of the field $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = 4x\mathbf{i} + 4y\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$ outward (away from the z-axis) through the surface cut from the bottom of the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ by the plane $z = 1$.

29. Let S be the portion of the cylinder $y = e^x$ in the first octant that projects parallel to the x-axis onto the rectangle R_{yz}: $1 \le y \le 2$, $0 \le z \le 1$ in the yz-plane (see the accompanying figure). Let $\mathbf{n}$ be the unit vector normal to S that points away from the yz-plane. Find the flux of the field $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = -2\mathbf{i} + 2y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ across S in the direction of $\mathbf{n}$.



30. Let S be the portion of the cylinder $y = \ln x$ in the first octant whose projection parallel to the y-axis onto the xz-plane is the rectangle R_{xz}: $1 \le x \le e$, $0 \le z \le 1$. Let $\mathbf{n}$ be the unit vector normal to S that points away from the xz-plane. Find the flux of $\mathbf{F} = 2y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ through S in the direction of $\mathbf{n}$.

31. Find the outward flux of the field $\mathbf{F} = 2xy\mathbf{i} + 2yz\mathbf{j} + 2xz\mathbf{k}$ across the surface of the cube cut from the first octant by the planes $x = a$, $y = a$, $z = a$.

32. Find the outward flux of the field $\mathbf{F} = xz\mathbf{i} + yz\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$ across the surface of the upper cap cut from the solid sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \le 25$ by the plane $z = 3$.

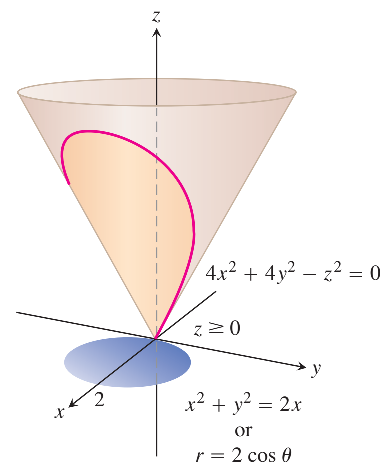
Moments and Masses

33. Centroid Find the centroid of the portion of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ that lies in the first octant.

34. Centroid Find the centroid of the surface cut from the cylinder $y^2 + z^2 = 9$, $z \ge 0$, by the planes $x = 0$ and $x = 3$ (resembles the surface in Example 4).

35. Thin shell of constant density Find the center of mass and the moment of inertia and radius of gyration about the z-axis of a thin shell of constant density δ cut from the cone $x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = 0$ by the planes $z = 1$ and $z = 2$,

36. Conical surface of constant density Find the moment of inertia about the z-axis of a thin shell of constant density δ cut from the cone $4x^2 + 4y^2 - z^2 = 0$, $z \ge 0$, by the circular cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 2x$ (see the accompanying figure).



37. Spherical shells

a. Find the moment of inertia about a diameter of a thin spherical shell of radius a and constant density δ. (Work with a hemispherical shell and double the result.)

b. Use the Parallel Axis Theorem (Exercises 15.5) and the result in part (a) to find the moment of inertia about a line tangent to the shell.

38. a. Cones with and without ice cream Find the centroid of the lateral surface of a solid cone of base radius a and height h (cone surface minus the base).

b. Use Pappus's formula (Exercises 15.5) and the result in part (a) to find the centroid of the complete surface of a solid cone (side plus base).

c. A cone of radius a and height h is joined to a hemisphere of radius a to make a surface S that resembles an ice cream cone. Use Pappus's formula and the results in part (a) and Example 5 to find the centroid of S. How high does the cone have to be to place the centroid in the plane shared by the bases of the hemisphere and cone?

Special Formulas for Surface Area

If S is the surface defined by a function $z = f(x, y)$ that has continuous first partial derivatives throughout a region R_{xy} in the xy-plane (Figure 16.49), then S is also the level surface $F(x, y, z) = 0$ of the function $F(x, y, z) = f(x, y) - z$. Taking the unit normal to R_{xy} to be $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{k}$ then gives

$$|\nabla F| = |f_x\mathbf{i} + f_y\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}| = \sqrt{f_x^2 + f_y^2 + 1}$$

$$|\nabla F \cdot \mathbf{p}| = |(f_x\mathbf{i} + f_y\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}) \cdot \mathbf{k}| = |-1| = 1$$

and

$$\iint_{R_{xy}} \frac{|\nabla F|}{|\nabla F \cdot \mathbf{p}|}\, dA = \iint_{R_{xy}} \sqrt{f_x^2 + f_y^2 + 1}\, dx\, dy, \qquad (11)$$

Similarly, the area of a smooth surface $x = f(y, z)$ over a region R_{yz} in the yz-plane is

$$A = \iint_{R_{yz}} \sqrt{f_y^2 + f_z^2 + 1}\, dy\, dz, \tag{12}$$

and the area of a smooth $y = f(x, z)$ over a region R_{xz} in the xz-plane is

$$A = \iint_{R_{xz}} \sqrt{f_x^2 + f_z^2 + 1}\, dx\, dz. \tag{13}$$

Use Equations (11)–(13) to find the area of the surfaces in Exercises 39–44.

39. The surface cut from the bottom of the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ by the plane $z = 3$

40. The surface cut from the "nose" of the paraboloid $x = 1 - y^2 - z^2$ by the yz-plane

41. The portion of the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ that lies over the region between the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and the ellipse $9x^2 + 4y^2 = 36$ in the xy-plane. (*Hint:* Use formulas from geometry to find the area of the region.)

42. The triangle cut from the plane $2x + 6y + 3z = 6$ by the bounding planes of the first octant. Calculate the area three ways, once with each area formula

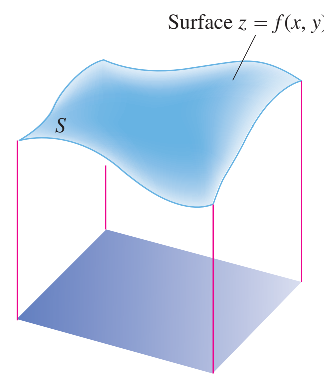


FIGURE 16.49 For a surface $z = f(x, y)$, the surface area formula in Equation (3) takes the form

$$A = \iint_{R_{xy}} \sqrt{f_x^2 + f_y^2 + 1}\, dx\, dy.$$

43. The surface in the first octant cut from the cylinder $y = (2/3)z^{3/2}$ by the planes $x = 1$ and $y = 16/3$

44. The portion of the plane $y + z = 4$ that lies above the region cut from the first quadrant of the xz-plane by the parabola $x = 4 - z^2$

16.6 Parametrized Surfaces

We have defined curves in the plane in three different ways:

Explicit form:	$y = f(x)$
Implicit form:	$F(x, y) = 0$
Parametric vector form:	$\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j}, \quad a \leq t \leq b.$

We have analogous definitions of surfaces in space:

Explicit form:	$z = f(x, y)$
Implicit form:	$F(x, y, z) = 0.$

There is also a parametric form that gives the position of a point on the surface as a vector function of two variables. The present section extends the investigation of surface area and surface integrals to surfaces described parametrically.

Parametrizations of Surfaces

Let

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = f(u, v)\mathbf{i} + g(u, v)\mathbf{j} + h(u, v)\mathbf{k} \tag{1}$$

be a continuous vector function that is defined on a region R in the uv-plane and one-to-one on the interior of R (Figure 16.50). We call the range of $\mathbf{r}$ the **surface** S defined or traced by $\mathbf{r}$. Equation (1) together with the domain R constitute a **parametrization** of the surface. The variables u and v are the **parameters**, and R is the **parameter domain**.

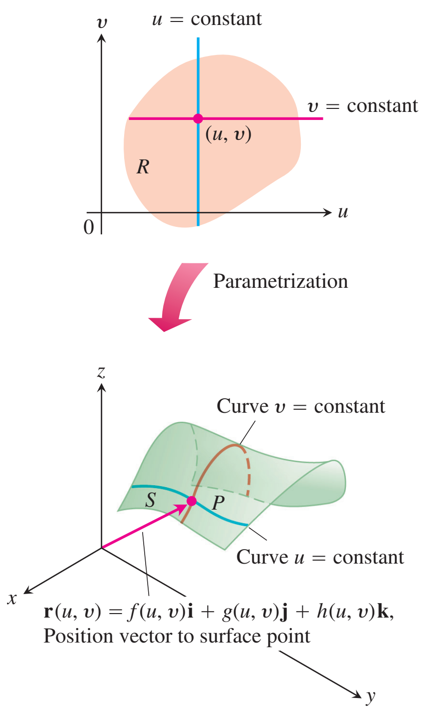


FIGURE 16.50 A parametrized surface S expressed as a vector function of two variables defined on a region R.

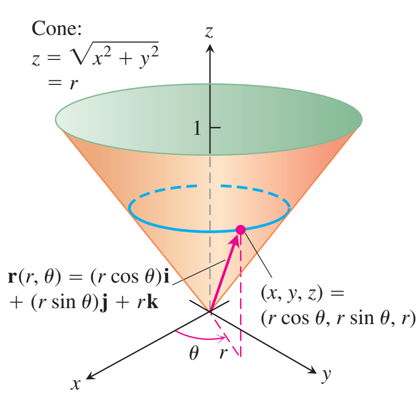


FIGURE 16.51 The cone in Example 1 can be parametrized using cylindrical coordinates.

To simplify our discussion, we take R to be a rectangle defined by inequalities of the form $a \le u \le b, c \le v \le d$. The requirement that $\mathbf{r}$ be one-to-one on the interior of R ensures that S does not cross itself. Notice that Equation (1) is the vector equivalent of *three* parametric equations:

$$x = f(u, v), \qquad y = g(u, v), \qquad z = h(u, v).$$

EXAMPLE 1 Parametrizing a Cone

Find a parametrization of the cone

$$z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, \qquad 0 \le z \le 1.$$

Solution Here, cylindrical coordinates provide everything we need. A typical point (x, y, z) on the cone (Figure 16.51) has $x = r\cos\theta$, $y = r\sin\theta$, and $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = r$, with $0 \le r \le 1$ and $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$. Taking $u = r$ and $v = \theta$ in Equation (1) gives the parametrization

$$\mathbf{r}(r, \theta) = (r\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (r\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + r\mathbf{k}, \qquad 0 \le r \le 1, \quad 0 \le \theta \le 2\pi.$$ ■

EXAMPLE 2 Parametrizing a Sphere

Find a parametrization of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$.

Solution Spherical coordinates provide what we need. A typical point (x, y, z) on the sphere (Figure 16.52) has $x = a\sin\phi\cos\theta$, $y = a\sin\phi\sin\theta$, and $z = a\cos\phi$, $0 \le \phi \le \pi$, $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$. Taking $u = \phi$ and $v = \theta$ in Equation (1) gives the parametrization

$$\mathbf{r}(\phi, \theta) = (a\sin\phi\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (a\sin\phi\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + (a\cos\phi)\mathbf{k},$$
$$0 \le \phi \le \pi, \quad 0 \le \theta \le 2\pi.$$ ■

EXAMPLE 3 Parametrizing a Cylinder

Find a parametrization of the cylinder

$$x^2 + (y - 3)^2 = 9, \qquad 0 \le z \le 5.$$

Solution In cylindrical coordinates, a point (x, y, z) has $x = r\cos\theta$, $y = r\sin\theta$, and $z = z$. For points on the cylinder $x^2 + (y - 3)^2 = 9$ (Figure 16.53), the equation is the same as the polar equation for the cylinder's base in the xy-plane:

$$x^2 + (y^2 - 6y + 9) = 9$$
$$r^2 - 6r\sin\theta = 0$$

or

$$r = 6\sin\theta, \qquad 0 \le \theta \le \pi.$$

A typical point on the cylinder therefore has

$$x = r\cos\theta = 6\sin\theta\cos\theta = 3\sin 2\theta$$
$$y = r\sin\theta = 6\sin^2\theta$$
$$z = z.$$

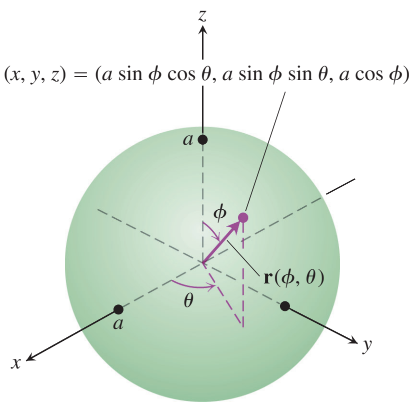


FIGURE 16.52 The sphere in Example 2 can be parametrized using spherical coordinates.

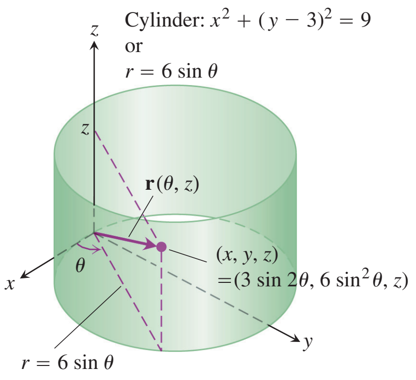


FIGURE 16.53 The cylinder in Example 3 can be parametrized using cylindrical coordinates.

Taking $u = \theta$ and $v = z$ in Equation (1) gives the parametrization

$$\mathbf{r}(\theta, z) = (3\sin 2\theta)\mathbf{i} + (6\sin^2\theta)\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le \theta \le \pi, \quad 0 \le z \le 5. \quad ■$$

Surface Area

Our goal is to find a double integral for calculating the area of a curved surface S based on the parametrization

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = f(u, v)\mathbf{i} + g(u, v)\mathbf{j} + h(u, v)\mathbf{k}, \qquad a \le u \le b, \quad c \le v \le d.$$

We need S to be smooth for the construction we are about to carry out. The definition of smoothness involves the partial derivatives of $\mathbf{r}$ with respect to u and v:

$$\mathbf{r}_u = \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial u}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial h}{\partial u}\mathbf{k}$$

$$\mathbf{r}_v = \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial v}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial v}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial h}{\partial v}\mathbf{k}.$$

DEFINITION Smooth Parametrized Surface

A parametrized surface $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = f(u, v)\mathbf{i} + g(u, v)\mathbf{j} + h(u, v)\mathbf{k}$ is **smooth** if $\mathbf{r}_u$ and $\mathbf{r}_v$ are continuous and $\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v$ is never zero on the parameter domain.

The condition that $\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v$ is never the zero vector in the definition of smoothness means that the two vectors $\mathbf{r}_u$ and $\mathbf{r}_v$ are nonzero and never lie along the same line, so they always determine a plane tangent to the surface.

Now consider a small rectangle ΔA_{uv} in R with sides on the lines $u = u_0$, $u = u_0 + \Delta u$, $v = v_0$ and $v = v_0 + \Delta v$ (Figure 16.54). Each side of ΔA_{uv} maps to a curve on the surface S, and together these four curves bound a "curved area element" $\Delta\sigma_{uv}$. In the notation of the figure, the side $v = v_0$ maps to curve C_1, the side $u = u_0$ maps to C_2, and their common vertex (u_0, v_0) maps to P_0.

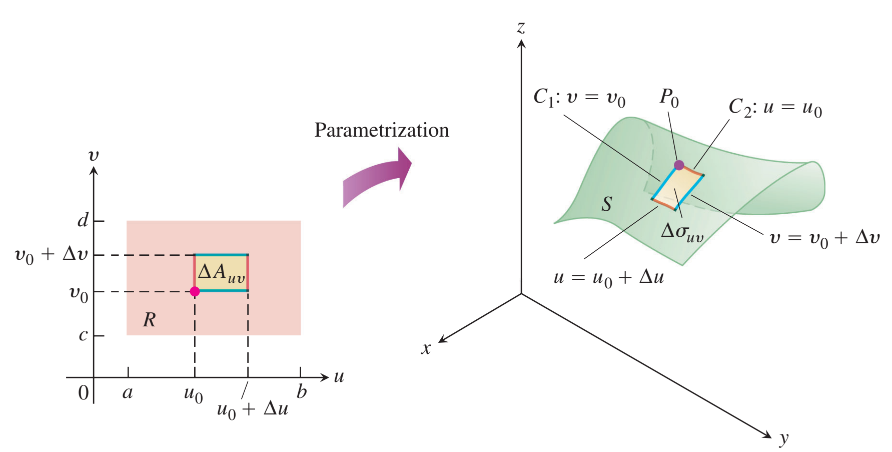


FIGURE 16.54 A rectangular area element ΔA_{uv} in the uv-plane maps onto a curved area element $\Delta\sigma_{uv}$ on S.

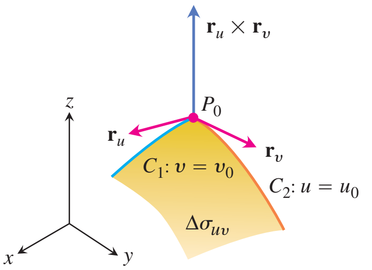


FIGURE 16.55 A magnified view of a surface area element $\Delta\sigma_{uv}$.

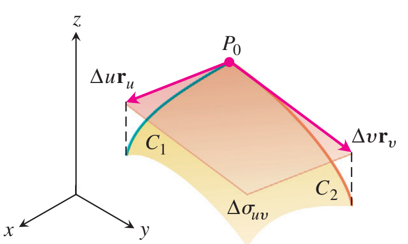


FIGURE 16.56 The parallelogram determined by the vectors $\Delta u\mathbf{r}_u$ and $\Delta v\mathbf{r}_v$ approximates the surface area element $\Delta\sigma_{uv}$.

Figure 16.55 shows an enlarged view of $\Delta\sigma_{uv}$. The vector $\mathbf{r}_u(u_0, v_0)$ is tangent to C_1 at P_0. Likewise, $\mathbf{r}_v(u_0, v_0)$ is tangent to C_2 at P_0. The cross product $\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v$ is normal to the surface at P_0. (Here is where we begin to use the assumption that S is smooth. We want to be sure that $\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v \neq \mathbf{0}$.)

We next approximate the surface element $\Delta\sigma_{uv}$ by the parallelogram on the tangent plane whose sides are determined by the vectors $\Delta u\mathbf{r}_u$ and $\Delta v\mathbf{r}_v$ (Figure 16.56). The area of this parallelogram is

$$|\Delta u\mathbf{r}_u \times \Delta v\mathbf{r}_v| = |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|\,\Delta u\,\Delta v. \tag{2}$$

A partition of the region R in the uv-plane by rectangular regions ΔA_{uv} generates a partition of the surface S into surface area elements $\Delta\sigma_{uv}$. We approximate the area of each surface element $\Delta\sigma_{uv}$ by the parallelogram area in Equation (2) and sum these areas together to obtain an approximation of the area of S:

$$\sum_u \sum_v |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|\,\Delta u\,\Delta v. \tag{3}$$

As Δu and Δv approach zero independently, the continuity of $\mathbf{r}_u$ and $\mathbf{r}_v$ guarantees that the sum in Equation (3) approaches the double integral $\int_c^d \int_a^b |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|\,du\,dv$. This double integral defines the area of the surface S and agrees with previous definitions of area, though it is more general.

DEFINITION Area of a Smooth Surface

The **area** of the smooth surface

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = f(u, v)\mathbf{i} + g(u, v)\mathbf{j} + h(u, v)\mathbf{k}, \qquad a \le u \le b, \quad c \le v \le d$$

is

$$A = \int_c^d \int_a^b |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|\,du\,dv. \tag{4}$$

As in Section 16.5, we can abbreviate the integral in Equation (4) by writing $d\sigma$ for $|\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|\,du\,dv$.

Surface Area Differential and Differential Formula for Surface Area

$$d\sigma = |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|\,du\,dv \qquad \iint_S d\sigma \tag{5}$$

Surface area differential — Differential formula for surface area

EXAMPLE 4 Finding Surface Area (Cone)

You Try It

Find the surface area of the cone in Example 1 (Figure 16.51).

Solution In Example 1, we found the parametrization

$$\mathbf{r}(r, \theta) = (r\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (r\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + r\mathbf{k}, \qquad 0 \le r \le 1, \quad 0 \le \theta \le 2\pi.$$

To apply Equation (4), we first find $\mathbf{r}_r \times \mathbf{r}_\theta$:

$$\mathbf{r}_r \times \mathbf{r}_\theta = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \cos\theta & \sin\theta & 1 \\ -r\sin\theta & r\cos\theta & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= -(r\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} - (r\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + \underbrace{(r\cos^2\theta + r\sin^2\theta)}_{r}\mathbf{k}.$$

Thus, $|\mathbf{r}_r \times \mathbf{r}_\theta| = \sqrt{r^2\cos^2\theta + r^2\sin^2\theta + r^2} = \sqrt{2r^2} = \sqrt{2}r$. The area of the cone is

$$A = \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^1 |\mathbf{r}_r \times \mathbf{r}_\theta|\, dr\, d\theta \qquad \text{Equation (4) with } u = r, v = \theta$$
$$= \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^1 \sqrt{2}\, r\, dr\, d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\, d\theta = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}(2\pi) = \pi\sqrt{2} \text{ units squared.}$$ ■

EXAMPLE 5 Finding Surface Area (Sphere)

Find the surface area of a sphere of radius a.

Solution We use the parametrization from Example 2:

$$\mathbf{r}(\phi, \theta) = (a\sin\phi\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (a\sin\phi\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + (a\cos\phi)\mathbf{k},$$
$$0 \le \phi \le \pi, \quad 0 \le \theta \le 2\pi.$$

For $\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta$, we get

$$\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ a\cos\phi\cos\theta & a\cos\phi\sin\theta & -a\sin\phi \\ -a\sin\phi\sin\theta & a\sin\phi\cos\theta & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= (a^2\sin^2\phi\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (a^2\sin^2\phi\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + (a^2\sin\phi\cos\phi)\mathbf{k}.$$

Thus,

$$|\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta| = \sqrt{a^4\sin^4\phi\cos^2\theta + a^4\sin^4\phi\sin^2\theta + a^4\sin^2\phi\cos^2\phi}$$
$$= \sqrt{a^4\sin^4\phi + a^4\sin^2\phi\cos^2\phi} = \sqrt{a^4\sin^2\phi(\sin^2\phi + \cos^2\phi)}$$
$$= a^2\sqrt{\sin^2\phi} = a^2\sin\phi,$$

since $\sin\phi \ge 0$ for $0 \le \phi \le \pi$. Therefore, the area of the sphere is

$$A = \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^{\pi} a^2\sin\phi\, d\phi\, d\theta$$
$$= \int_0^{2\pi}\Big[-a^2\cos\phi\Big]_0^{\pi} d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} 2a^2\, d\theta = 4\pi a^2 \text{ units squared.}$$

This agrees with the well-known formula for the surface area of a sphere. ■

Surface Integrals

Having found a formula for calculating the area of a parametrized surface, we can now integrate a function over the surface using the parametrized form.

DEFINITION Parametric Surface Integral

If S is a smooth surface defined parametrically as $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = f(u, v)\mathbf{i} + g(u, v)\mathbf{j} + h(u, v)\mathbf{k}$, $a \le u \le b$, $c \le v \le d$, and $G(x, y, z)$ is a continuous function defined on S, then the **integral of G over S** is

$$\iint_S G(x, y, z)\, d\sigma = \int_c^d \int_a^b G(f(u, v), g(u, v), h(u, v))\,|\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|\, du\, dv.$$

EXAMPLE 6 Integrating Over a Surface Defined Parametrically

Integrate $G(x, y, z) = x^2$ over the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, $0 \le z \le 1$.

Solution Continuing the work in Examples 1 and 4, we have $|\mathbf{r}_r \times \mathbf{r}_\theta| = \sqrt{2}r$ and

$$\iint_S x^2\, d\sigma = \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^1 \left(r^2\cos^2\theta\right)\left(\sqrt{2}r\right) dr\, d\theta \qquad x = r\cos\theta$$

$$= \sqrt{2}\int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^1 r^3\cos^2\theta\, dr\, d\theta$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{2}}{4}\int_0^{2\pi}\cos^2\theta\, d\theta = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{4}\left[\frac{\theta}{2} + \frac{1}{4}\sin 2\theta\right]_0^{2\pi} = \frac{\pi\sqrt{2}}{4}.$$

■

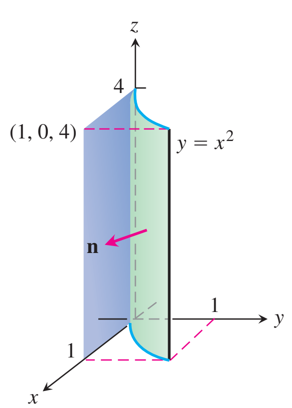


FIGURE 16.57 Finding the flux through the surface of a parabolic cylinder (Example 7).

EXAMPLE 7 Finding Flux

Find the flux of $\mathbf{F} = yz\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j} - z^2\mathbf{k}$ outward through the parabolic cylinder $y = x^2$, $0 \le x \le 1$, $0 \le z \le 4$ (Figure 16.57).

Solution On the surface we have $x = x$, $y = x^2$, and $z = z$, so we automatically have the parametrization $\mathbf{r}(x, z) = x\mathbf{i} + x^2\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le x \le 1$, $0 \le z \le 4$. The cross product of tangent vectors is

$$\mathbf{r}_x \times \mathbf{r}_z = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 2x & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 2x\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}.$$

The unit normal pointing outward from the surface is

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{\mathbf{r}_x \times \mathbf{r}_z}{|\mathbf{r}_x \times \mathbf{r}_z|} = \frac{2x\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}}{\sqrt{4x^2 + 1}}.$$

On the surface, $y = x^2$, so the vector field there is

$$\mathbf{F} = yz\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j} - z^2\mathbf{k} = x^2z\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j} - z^2\mathbf{k}.$$

Thus,

$$\mathbf{F}\cdot\mathbf{n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4x^2 + 1}}\left((x^2z)(2x) + (x)(-1) + (-z^2)(0)\right)$$

$$= \frac{2x^3z - x}{\sqrt{4x^2 + 1}}.$$

The flux of **F** outward through the surface is

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F}\cdot\mathbf{n}\,d\sigma = \int_0^4\int_0^1 \frac{2x^3z - x}{\sqrt{4x^2+1}}\,|\mathbf{r}_x \times \mathbf{r}_z|\,dx\,dz$$

$$= \int_0^4\int_0^1 \frac{2x^3z - x}{\sqrt{4x^2+1}}\sqrt{4x^2+1}\,dx\,dz$$

$$= \int_0^4\int_0^1 (2x^3z - x)\,dx\,dz = \int_0^4 \left[\frac{1}{2}x^4z - \frac{1}{2}x^2\right]_{x=0}^{x=1} dz$$

$$= \int_0^4 \frac{1}{2}(z-1)\,dz = \frac{1}{4}(z-1)^2\Big]_0^4$$

$$= \frac{1}{4}(9) - \frac{1}{4}(1) = 2.$$

EXAMPLE 8 Finding a Center of Mass

Find the center of mass of a thin shell of constant density δ cut from the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2+y^2}$ by the planes $z = 1$ and $z = 2$ (Figure 16.58).

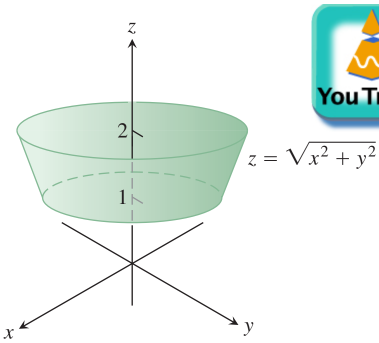


FIGURE 16.58 The cone frustum formed when the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2+y^2}$ is cut by the planes $z = 1$ and $z = 2$ (Example 8).

Solution The symmetry of the surface about the z-axis tells us that $\bar{x} = \bar{y} = 0$. We find $\bar{z} = M_{xy}/M$. Working as in Examples 1 and 4, we have

$$\mathbf{r}(r,\theta) = r\cos\theta\mathbf{i} + r\sin\theta\mathbf{j} + r\mathbf{k}, \qquad 1 \le r \le 2, \quad 0 \le \theta \le 2\pi,$$

and

$$|\mathbf{r}_r \times \mathbf{r}_\theta| = \sqrt{2}r.$$

Therefore,

$$M = \iint_S \delta\,d\sigma = \int_0^{2\pi}\int_1^2 \delta\sqrt{2}r\,dr\,d\theta$$

$$= \delta\sqrt{2}\int_0^{2\pi}\left[\frac{r^2}{2}\right]_1^2 d\theta = \delta\sqrt{2}\int_0^{2\pi}\left(2 - \frac{1}{2}\right)d\theta$$

$$= \delta\sqrt{2}\left[\frac{3\theta}{2}\right]_0^{2\pi} = 3\pi\delta\sqrt{2}$$

$$M_{xy} = \iint_S \delta z\,d\sigma = \int_0^{2\pi}\int_1^2 \delta r\sqrt{2}r\,dr\,d\theta$$

$$= \delta\sqrt{2}\int_0^{2\pi}\int_1^2 r^2\,dr\,d\theta = \delta\sqrt{2}\int_0^{2\pi}\left[\frac{r^3}{3}\right]_1^2 d\theta$$

$$= \delta\sqrt{2}\int_0^{2\pi}\frac{7}{3}\,d\theta = \frac{14}{3}\pi\delta\sqrt{2}$$

$$\bar{z} = \frac{M_{xy}}{M} = \frac{14\pi\delta\sqrt{2}}{3\left(3\pi\delta\sqrt{2}\right)} = \frac{14}{9}.$$

The shell's center of mass is the point (0, 0, 14/9).

EXERCISES 16.6

Finding Parametrizations for Surfaces

In Exercises 1–16, find a parametrization of the surface. (There are many correct ways to do these, so your answers may not be the same as those in the back of the book.)

1. The paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2, z \leq 4$
2. The paraboloid $z = 9 - x^2 - y^2, z \geq 0$
3. **Cone frustum** The first-octant portion of the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}/2$ between the planes $z = 0$ and $z = 3$
4. **Cone frustum** The portion of the cone $z = 2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ between the planes $z = 2$ and $z = 4$
5. **Spherical cap** The cap cut from the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9$ by the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$
6. **Spherical cap** The portion of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ in the first octant between the xy-plane and the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$
7. **Spherical band** The portion of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 3$ between the planes $z = \sqrt{3}/2$ and $z = -\sqrt{3}/2$
8. **Spherical cap** The upper portion cut from the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 8$ by the plane $z = -2$
9. **Parabolic cylinder between planes** The surface cut from the parabolic cylinder $z = 4 - y^2$ by the planes $x = 0, x = 2$, and $z = 0$
10. **Parabolic cylinder between planes** The surface cut from the parabolic cylinder $y = x^2$ by the planes $z = 0, z = 3$ and $y = 2$
11. **Circular cylinder band** The portion of the cylinder $y^2 + z^2 = 9$ between the planes $x = 0$ and $x = 3$
12. **Circular cylinder band** The portion of the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 4$ above the xy-plane between the planes $y = -2$ and $y = 2$
13. **Tilted plane inside cylinder** The portion of the plane $x + y + z = 1$
    a. Inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 9$
    b. Inside the cylinder $y^2 + z^2 = 9$
14. **Tilted plane inside cylinder** The portion of the plane $x - y + 2z = 2$
    a. Inside the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 3$
    b. Inside the cylinder $y^2 + z^2 = 2$
15. **Circular cylinder band** The portion of the cylinder $(x - 2)^2 + z^2 = 4$ between the planes $y = 0$ and $y = 3$
16. **Circular cylinder band** The portion of the cylinder $y^2 + (z - 5)^2 = 25$ between the planes $x = 0$ and $x = 10$

Areas of Parametrized Surfaces

In Exercises 17–26, use a parametrization to express the area of the surface as a double integral. Then evaluate the integral. (There are many correct ways to set up the integrals, so your integrals may not be the same as those in the back of the book. They should have the same values, however.)

17. **Titled plane inside cylinder** The portion of the plane $y + 2z = 2$ inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$
18. **Plane inside cylinder** The portion of the plane $z = -x$ inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$
19. **Cone frustum** The portion of the cone $z = 2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ between the planes $z = 2$ and $z = 6$
20. **Cone frustum** The portion of the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}/3$ between the planes $z = 1$ and $z = 4/3$
21. **Circular cylinder band** The portion of the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ between the planes $z = 1$ and $z = 4$
22. **Circular cylinder band** The portion of the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 10$ between the planes $y = -1$ and $y = 1$
23. **Parabolic cap** The cap cut from the paraboloid $z = 2 - x^2 - y^2$ by the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$
24. **Parabolic band** The portion of the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ between the planes $z = 1$ and $z = 4$
25. **Sawed-off sphere** The lower portion cut from the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 2$ by the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$
26. **Spherical band** The portion of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ between the planes $z = -1$ and $z = \sqrt{3}$

Integrals Over Parametrized Surfaces

In Exercises 27–34, integrate the given function over the given surface.

27. **Parabolic cylinder** $G(x, y, z) = x$, over the parabolic cylinder $y = x^2, 0 \leq x \leq 2, 0 \leq z \leq 3$
28. **Circular cylinder** $G(x, y, z) = z$, over the cylindrical surface $y^2 + z^2 = 4, z \geq 0, 1 \leq x \leq 4$
29. **Sphere** $G(x, y, z) = x^2$, over the unit sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$
30. **Hemisphere** $G(x, y, z) = z^2$, over the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2, z \geq 0$
31. **Portion of plane** $F(x, y, z) = z$, over the portion of the plane $x + y + z = 4$ that lies above the square $0 \leq x \leq 1$, $0 \leq y \leq 1$, in the xy-plane
32. **Cone** $F(x, y, z) = z - x$, over the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, $0 \leq z \leq 1$
33. **Parabolic dome** $H(x, y, z) = x^2\sqrt{5 - 4z}$, over the parabolic dome $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2, z \geq 0$
34. **Spherical cap** $H(x, y, z) = yz$, over the part of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ that lies above the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

Flux Across Parametrized Surfaces

In Exercises 35–44, use a parametrization to find the flux $\iint_S \mathbf{F}\cdot\mathbf{n}\,d\sigma$ across the surface in the given direction.

35. Parabolic cylinder $\mathbf{F} = z^2\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j} - 3z\mathbf{k}$ outward (normal away from the x-axis) through the surface cut from the parabolic cylinder $z = 4 - y^2$ by the planes $x = 0$, $x = 1$, and $z = 0$

36. Parabolic cylinder $\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{j} - xz\mathbf{k}$ outward (normal away from the yz-plane) through the surface cut from the parabolic cylinder $y = x^2$, $-1 \le x \le 1$, by the planes $z = 0$ and $z = 2$

37. Sphere $\mathbf{F} = z\mathbf{k}$ across the portion of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ in the first octant in the direction away from the origin

38. Sphere $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ across the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ in the direction away from the origin

39. Plane $\mathbf{F} = 2xy\mathbf{i} + 2yz\mathbf{j} + 2xz\mathbf{k}$ upward across the portion of the plane $x + y + z = 2a$ that lies above the square $0 \le x \le a$, $0 \le y \le a$, in the xy-plane

40. Cylinder $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ outward through the portion of the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ cut by the planes $z = 0$ and $z = a$

41. Cone $\mathbf{F} = xy\mathbf{i} - z\mathbf{k}$ outward (normal away from the z-axis) through the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, $0 \le z \le 1$

42. Cone $\mathbf{F} = y^2\mathbf{i} + xz\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$ outward (normal away from the z-axis) through the cone $z = 2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, $0 \le z \le 2$

43. Cone frustum $\mathbf{F} = -x\mathbf{i} - y\mathbf{j} + z^2\mathbf{k}$ outward (normal away from the z-axis) through the portion of the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ between the planes $z = 1$ and $z = 2$

44. Paraboloid $\mathbf{F} = 4x\mathbf{i} + 4y\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$ outward (normal way from the z-axis) through the surface cut from the bottom of the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ by the plane $z = 1$

Moments and Masses

45. Find the centroid of the portion of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ that lies in the first octant.

46. Find the center of mass and the moment of inertia and radius of gyration about the z-axis of a thin shell of constant density δ cut from the cone $x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = 0$ by the planes $z = 1$ and $z = 2$.

47. Find the moment of inertia about the z-axis of a thin spherical shell $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ of constant density δ.

48. Find the moment of inertia about the z-axis of a thin conical shell $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, $0 \le z \le 1$, of constant density δ.

Planes Tangent to Parametrized Surfaces

The tangent plane at a point $P_0(f(u_0, v_0), g(u_0, v_0), h(u_0, v_0))$ on a parametrized surface $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = f(u, v)\mathbf{i} + g(u, v)\mathbf{j} + h(u, v)\mathbf{k}$ is the plane through P_0 normal to the vector $\mathbf{r}_u(u_0, v_0) \times \mathbf{r}_v(u_0, v_0)$, the cross product of the tangent vectors $\mathbf{r}_u(u_0, v_0)$ and $\mathbf{r}_v(u_0, v_0)$ at P_0. In Exercises 49–52, find an equation for the plane tangent to the surface at P_0. Then find a Cartesian equation for the surface and sketch the surface and tangent plane together.

49. Cone The cone $\mathbf{r}(r, \theta) = (r\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (r\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + r\mathbf{k}$, $r \ge 0$, $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$ at the point $P_0(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2}, 2)$ corresponding to $(r, \theta) = (2, \pi/4)$

50. Hemisphere The hemisphere surface $\mathbf{r}(\phi, \theta) = (4\sin\phi\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (4\sin\phi\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + (4\cos\phi)\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le \phi \le \pi/2$, $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$, at the point $P_0(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2}, 2\sqrt{3})$ corresponding to $(\phi, \theta) = (\pi/6, \pi/4)$

51. Circular cylinder The circular cylinder $\mathbf{r}(\theta, z) = (3\sin 2\theta)\mathbf{i} + (6\sin^2\theta)\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le \theta \le \pi$, at the point $P_0(3\sqrt{3}/2, 9/2, 0)$ corresponding to $(\theta, z) = (\pi/3, 0)$ (See Example 3.)

52. Parabolic cylinder The parabolic cylinder surface $\mathbf{r}(x, y) = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} - x^2\mathbf{k}$, $-\infty < x < \infty$, $-\infty < y < \infty$, at the point $P_0(1, 2, -1)$ corresponding to $(x, y) = (1, 2)$

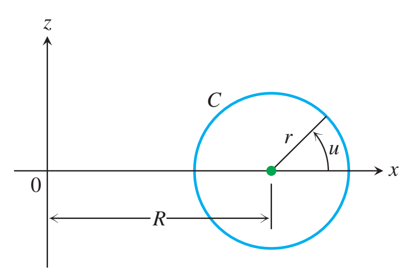
Further Examples of Parametrizations

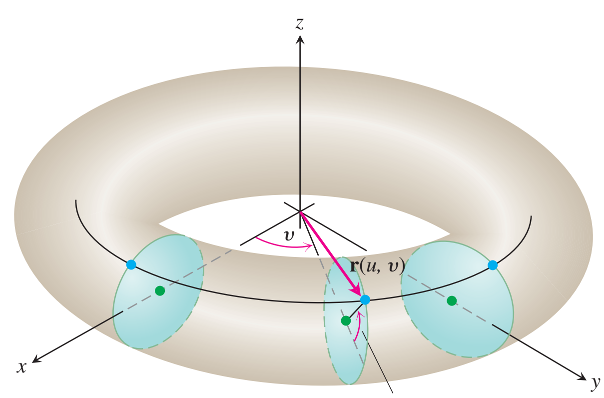
53. a. A *torus of revolution* (doughnut) is obtained by rotating a circle C in the xz-plane about the z-axis in space. (See the accompanying figure.) If C has radius $r > 0$ and center $(R, 0, 0)$, show that a parametrization of the torus is

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = ((R + r\cos u)\cos v)\mathbf{i} + ((R + r\cos u)\sin v)\mathbf{j} + (r\sin u)\mathbf{k},$$

where $0 \le u \le 2\pi$ and $0 \le v \le 2\pi$ are the angles in the figure.

b. Show that the surface area of the torus is $A = 4\pi^2 Rr$.



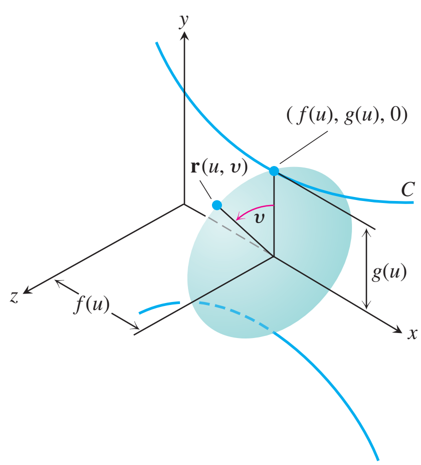


54. Parametrization of a surface of revolution Suppose that the parametrized curve C: $(f(u), g(u))$ is revolved about the x-axis, where $g(u) > 0$ for $a \le u \le b$.

a. Show that

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = f(u)\mathbf{i} + (g(u)\cos v)\mathbf{j} + (g(u)\sin v)\mathbf{k}$$

is a parametrization of the resulting surface of revolution, where $0 \le v \le 2\pi$ is the angle from the xy-plane to the point $\mathbf{r}(u, v)$ on the surface. (See the accompanying figure.) Notice that $f(u)$ measures distance *along* the axis of revolution and $g(u)$ measures distance *from* the axis of revolution.



b. Find a parametrization for the surface obtained by revolving the curve $x = y^2$, $y \ge 0$, about the x-axis.

55. a. Parametrization of an ellipsoid Recall the parametrization $x = a\cos\theta$, $y = b\sin\theta$, $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$ for the ellipse $(x^2/a^2) + (y^2/b^2) = 1$ (Section 3.5, Example 13). Using the angles θ and ϕ in spherical coordinates, show that

$$\mathbf{r}(\theta, \phi) = (a\cos\theta\cos\phi)\mathbf{i} + (b\sin\theta\cos\phi)\mathbf{j} + (c\sin\phi)\mathbf{k}$$

is a parametrization of the ellipsoid $(x^2/a^2) + (y^2/b^2) + (z^2/c^2) = 1$.

b. Write an integral for the surface area of the ellipsoid, but do not evaluate the integral.

56. Hyperboloid of one sheet

a. Find a parametrization for the hyperboloid of one sheet $x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = 1$ in terms of the angle θ associated with the circle $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$ and the hyperbolic parameter u associated with the hyperbolic function $r^2 - z^2 = 1$. (See Section 7.8, Exercise 84.)

b. Generalize the result in part (a) to the hyperboloid $(x^2/a^2) + (y^2/b^2) - (z^2/c^2) = 1$.

57. (*Continuation of Exercise 56.*) Find a Cartesian equation for the plane tangent to the hyperboloid $x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = 25$ at the point $(x_0, y_0, 0)$, where $x_0{}^2 + y_0{}^2 = 25$.

58. Hyperboloid of two sheets Find a parametrization of the hyperboloid of two sheets $(z^2/c^2) - (x^2/a^2) - (y^2/b^2) = 1$.

16.7 Stokes' Theorem

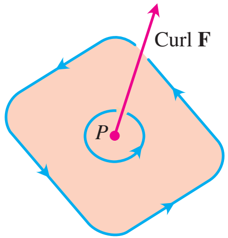


FIGURE 16.59 The circulation vector at a point P in a plane in a three-dimensional fluid flow. Notice its right-hand relation to the circulation line.

As we saw in Section 16.4, the circulation density or curl component of a two-dimensional field $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j}$ at a point (x, y) is described by the scalar quantity $(\partial N/\partial x - \partial M/\partial y)$. In three dimensions, the circulation around a point P in a plane is described with a vector. This vector is normal to the plane of the circulation (Figure 16.59) and points in the direction that gives it a right-hand relation to the circulation line. The length of the vector gives the rate of the fluid's rotation, which usually varies as the circulation plane is tilted about P. It turns out that the vector of greatest circulation in a flow with velocity field $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$ is the **curl vector**

$$\text{curl } \mathbf{F} = \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial N}{\partial z}\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial x}\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right)\mathbf{k}. \tag{1}$$

We get this information from Stokes' Theorem, the generalization of the circulation-curl form of Green's Theorem to space.

Notice that $(\text{curl } \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{k} = (\partial N/\partial x - \partial M/\partial y)$ is consistent with our definition in Section 16.4 when $\mathbf{F} = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j}$. The formula for curl $\mathbf{F}$ in Equation (1) is often written using the symbolic operator

$$\nabla = \mathbf{i}\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \mathbf{j}\frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \mathbf{k}\frac{\partial}{\partial z}. \tag{2}$$

(The symbol ∇ is pronounced "del.") The curl of **F** is $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}$:

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ M & N & P \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial N}{\partial z}\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial x}\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right)\mathbf{k}$$

$$= \text{curl } \mathbf{F}.$$

$$\text{curl } \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \qquad (3)$$

EXAMPLE 1 Finding Curl F

Find the curl of $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 - y)\mathbf{i} + 4z\mathbf{j} + x^2\mathbf{k}$.

Solution

$$\text{curl } \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \qquad \text{Equation (3)}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ x^2 - y & 4z & x^2 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(x^2) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(4z)\right)\mathbf{i} - \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x^2) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(x^2 - y)\right)\mathbf{j}$$

$$+ \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(4z) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(x^2 - y)\right)\mathbf{k}$$

$$= (0 - 4)\mathbf{i} - (2x - 0)\mathbf{j} + (0 + 1)\mathbf{k}$$

$$= -4\mathbf{i} - 2x\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$$

As we will see, the operator ∇ has a number of other applications. For instance, when applied to a scalar function $f(x, y, z)$, it gives the gradient of f:

$$\nabla f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\mathbf{k}.$$

This may now be read as "del f" as well as "grad f."

Stokes' Theorem

Stokes' Theorem says that, under conditions normally met in practice, the circulation of a vector field around the boundary of an oriented surface in space in the direction counterclockwise with respect to the surface's unit normal vector field **n** (Figure 16.60) equals the integral of the normal component of the curl of the field over the surface.

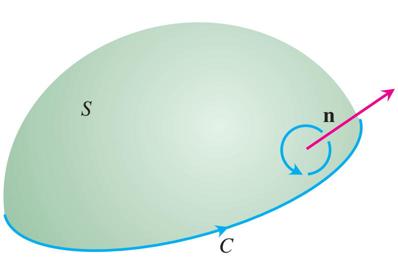


FIGURE 16.60 The orientation of the bounding curve C gives it a right-handed relation to the normal field **n**.

THEOREM 5 Stokes' Theorem

The circulation of a vector field $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$ around the boundary C of an oriented surface S in the direction counterclockwise with respect to the surface's unit normal vector $\mathbf{n}$ equals the integral of $\nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}$ over S.

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma \tag{4}$$

Counterclockwise circulation — Curl integral

Notice from Equation (4) that if two different oriented surfaces S_1 and S_2 have the same boundary C, their curl integrals are equal:

$$\iint_{S_1} \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}_1\, d\sigma = \iint_{S_2} \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}_2\, d\sigma.$$

Both curl integrals equal the counterclockwise circulation integral on the left side of Equation (4) as long as the unit normal vectors $\mathbf{n}_1$ and $\mathbf{n}_2$ correctly orient the surfaces.

Naturally, we need some mathematical restrictions on $\mathbf{F}$, C, and S to ensure the existence of the integrals in Stokes' equation. The usual restrictions are that all functions, vector fields, and their derivatives be continuous.

If C is a curve in the xy-plane, oriented counterclockwise, and R is the region in the xy-plane bounded by C, then $d\sigma = dx\,dy$ and

$$(\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} = (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{k} = \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right).$$

Under these conditions, Stokes' equation becomes

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right) dx\,dy,$$

which is the circulation-curl form of the equation in Green's Theorem. Conversely, by reversing these steps we can rewrite the circulation-curl form of Green's Theorem for two-dimensional fields in del notation as

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_R \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{k}\, dA. \tag{5}$$

See Figure 16.61.

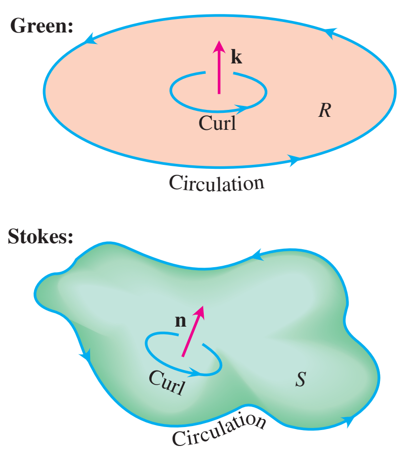


FIGURE 16.61 Comparison of Green's Theorem and Stokes' Theorem.

EXAMPLE 2 Verifying Stokes' Equation for a Hemisphere

Evaluate Equation (4) for the hemisphere $S: x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9, z \geq 0$, its bounding circle $C: x^2 + y^2 = 9, z = 0$, and the field $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i} - x\mathbf{j}$.

Solution We calculate the counterclockwise circulation around C (as viewed from above) using the parametrization $\mathbf{r}(\theta) = (3\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (3\sin\theta)\mathbf{j}$, $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$:

$$d\mathbf{r} = (-3\sin\theta\, d\theta)\mathbf{i} + (3\cos\theta\, d\theta)\mathbf{j}$$

$$\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i} - x\mathbf{j} = (3\sin\theta)\mathbf{i} - (3\cos\theta)\mathbf{j}$$

$$\mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r} = -9\sin^2\theta\, d\theta - 9\cos^2\theta\, d\theta = -9\, d\theta$$

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_0^{2\pi} -9\, d\theta = -18\pi.$$

For the curl integral of $\mathbf{F}$, we have

$$\nabla\times\mathbf{F} = \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial N}{\partial z}\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial x}\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right)\mathbf{k}$$

$$= (0-0)\mathbf{i} + (0-0)\mathbf{j} + (-1-1)\mathbf{k} = -2\mathbf{k}$$

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2+z^2}} = \frac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}}{3} \qquad \text{Outer unit normal}$$

$$d\sigma = \frac{3}{z}\, dA \qquad \text{Section 16.5, Example 5, with } a = 3$$

$$\nabla\times\mathbf{F}\cdot\mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = -\frac{2z}{3}\frac{3}{z}\, dA = -2\, dA$$

and

$$\iint_S \nabla\times\mathbf{F}\cdot\mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = \iint_{x^2+y^2\le 9} -2\, dA = -18\pi.$$

The circulation around the circle equals the integral of the curl over the hemisphere, as it should. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Finding Circulation

Find the circulation of the field $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 - y)\mathbf{i} + 4z\mathbf{j} + x^2\mathbf{k}$ around the curve C in which the plane $z = 2$ meets the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, counterclockwise as viewed from above (Figure 16.62).

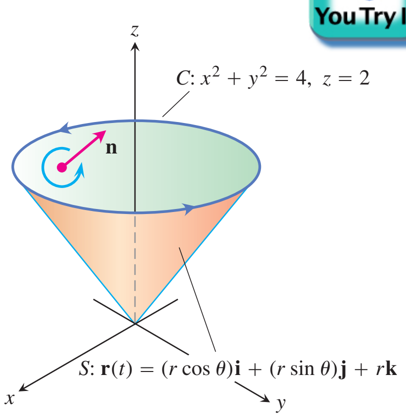


FIGURE 16.62 The curve C and cone S in Example 3.

Solution Stokes' Theorem enables us to find the circulation by integrating over the surface of the cone. Traversing C in the counterclockwise direction viewed from above corresponds to taking the *inner* normal $\mathbf{n}$ to the cone, the normal with a positive z-component.

We parametrize the cone as

$$\mathbf{r}(r,\theta) = (r\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (r\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + r\mathbf{k}, \qquad 0 \le r \le 2, \quad 0 \le \theta \le 2\pi.$$

We then have

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{\mathbf{r}_r \times \mathbf{r}_\theta}{|\mathbf{r}_r \times \mathbf{r}_\theta|} = \frac{-(r\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} - (r\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + r\mathbf{k}}{r\sqrt{2}} \qquad \text{Section 16.6, Example 4}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(-(\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} - (\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}\right)$$

$$d\sigma = r\sqrt{2}\,dr\,d\theta \qquad \text{Section 16.6, Example 4}$$
$$\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = -4\mathbf{i} - 2x\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k} \qquad \text{Example 1}$$
$$= -4\mathbf{i} - 2r\cos\theta\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}. \qquad x = r\cos\theta$$

Accordingly,

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(4\cos\theta + 2r\cos\theta\sin\theta + 1\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(4\cos\theta + r\sin 2\theta + 1\right)$$

and the circulation is

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma \qquad \text{Stokes' Theorem, Equation (4)}$$
$$= \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(4\cos\theta + r\sin 2\theta + 1\right)\left(r\sqrt{2}\,dr\,d\theta\right) = 4\pi. \quad \blacksquare$$

Paddle Wheel Interpretation of $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}$

Suppose that $\mathbf{v}(x, y, z)$ is the velocity of a moving fluid whose density at (x, y, z) is $\delta(x, y, z)$ and let $\mathbf{F} = \delta\mathbf{v}$. Then

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

is the circulation of the fluid around the closed curve C. By Stokes' Theorem, the circulation is equal to the flux of $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}$ through a surface S spanning C:

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma.$$

Suppose we fix a point Q in the domain of $\mathbf{F}$ and a direction $\mathbf{u}$ at Q. Let C be a circle of radius ρ, with center at Q, whose plane is normal to $\mathbf{u}$. If $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}$ is continuous at Q, the average value of the $\mathbf{u}$-component of $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}$ over the circular disk S bounded by C approaches the $\mathbf{u}$-component of $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}$ at Q as $\rho \to 0$:

$$(\nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{u})_Q = \lim_{\rho \to 0} \frac{1}{\pi\rho^2} \iint_S \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{u}\, d\sigma.$$

If we replace the surface integral in this last equation by the circulation, we get

$$(\nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{u})_Q = \lim_{\rho \to 0} \frac{1}{\pi\rho^2} \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}. \tag{6}$$

The left-hand side of Equation (6) has its maximum value when $\mathbf{u}$ is the direction of $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}$. When ρ is small, the limit on the right-hand side of Equation (6) is approximately

$$\frac{1}{\pi\rho^2} \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r},$$

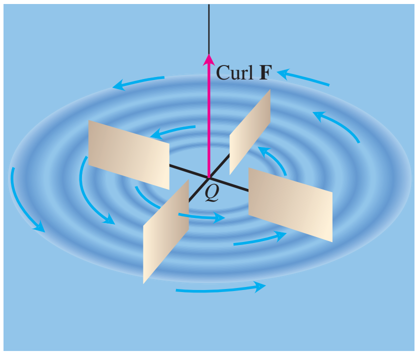


FIGURE 16.63 The paddle wheel interpretation of curl **F**.

which is the circulation around C divided by the area of the disk (circulation density). Suppose that a small paddle wheel of radius ρ is introduced into the fluid at Q, with its axle directed along $\mathbf{u}$. The circulation of the fluid around C will affect the rate of spin of the paddle wheel. The wheel will spin fastest when the circulation integral is maximized; therefore it will spin fastest when the axle of the paddle wheel points in the direction of $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}$ (Figure 16.63).

EXAMPLE 4 Relating $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}$ to Circulation Density

A fluid of constant density rotates around the z-axis with velocity $\mathbf{v} = \omega(-y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j})$, where ω is a positive constant called the *angular velocity* of the rotation (Figure 16.64). If $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{v}$, find $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}$ and relate it to the circulation density.

Solution With $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{v} = -\omega y\mathbf{i} + \omega x\mathbf{j}$,

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial N}{\partial z}\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial x}\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right)\mathbf{k}$$

$$= (0 - 0)\mathbf{i} + (0 - 0)\mathbf{j} + (\omega - (-\omega))\mathbf{k} = 2\omega\mathbf{k}.$$

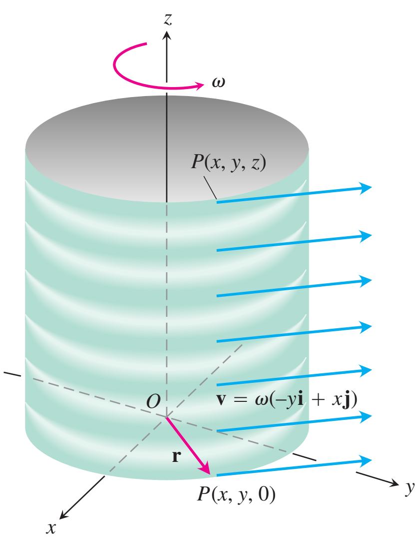


FIGURE 16.64 A steady rotational flow parallel to the xy-plane, with constant angular velocity ω in the positive (counterclockwise) direction (Example 4).

By Stokes' Theorem, the circulation of $\mathbf{F}$ around a circle C of radius ρ bounding a disk S in a plane normal to $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}$, say the xy-plane, is

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \nabla \times \mathbf{F}\cdot\mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = \iint_S 2\omega\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{k}\, dx\, dy = (2\omega)(\pi\rho^2).$$

Thus,

$$(\nabla \times \mathbf{F})\cdot\mathbf{k} = 2\omega = \frac{1}{\pi\rho^2}\oint_C \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r},$$

consistent with Equation (6) when $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{k}$. ■

EXAMPLE 5 Applying Stokes' Theorem

Use Stokes' Theorem to evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r}$, if $\mathbf{F} = xz\mathbf{i} + xy\mathbf{j} + 3xz\mathbf{k}$ and C is the boundary of the portion of the plane $2x + y + z = 2$ in the first octant, traversed counterclockwise as viewed from above (Figure 16.65).

You Try It

Solution The plane is the level surface $f(x, y, z) = 2$ of the function $f(x, y, z) = 2x + y + z$. The unit normal vector

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{\nabla f}{|\nabla f|} = \frac{(2\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k})}{|2\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}\left(2\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}\right)$$

is consistent with the counterclockwise motion around C. To apply Stokes' Theorem, we find

$$\text{curl}\,\mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \dfrac{\partial}{\partial x} & \dfrac{\partial}{\partial y} & \dfrac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ xz & xy & 3xz \end{vmatrix} = (x - 3z)\mathbf{j} + y\mathbf{k}.$$

On the plane, z equals $2 - 2x - y$, so

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = (x - 3(2 - 2x - y))\mathbf{j} + y\mathbf{k} = (7x + 3y - 6)\mathbf{j} + y\mathbf{k}$$

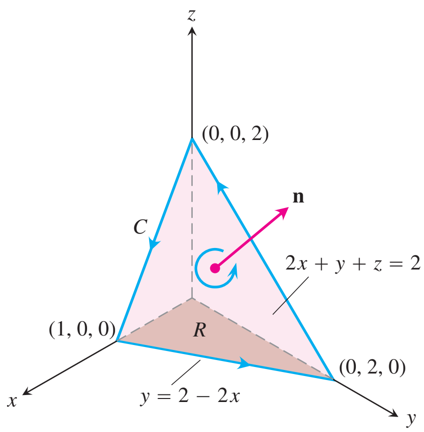


FIGURE 16.65 The planar surface in Example 5.

and

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}\left(7x + 3y - 6 + y\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}\left(7x + 4y - 6\right).$$

The surface area element is

$$d\sigma = \frac{|\nabla f|}{|\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{k}|}\, dA = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{1}\, dx\, dy.$$

The circulation is

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma \qquad \text{Stokes' Theorem, Equation (4)}$$

$$= \int_0^1 \int_0^{2-2x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}\left(7x + 4y - 6\right)\sqrt{6}\, dy\, dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 \int_0^{2-2x} (7x + 4y - 6)\, dy\, dx = -1.$$

Proof of Stokes' Theorem for Polyhedral Surfaces

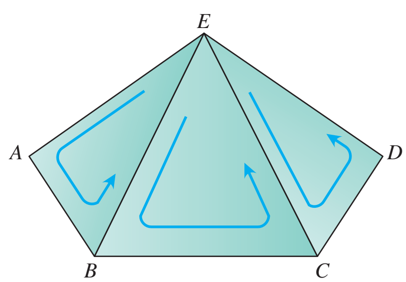


FIGURE 16.66 Part of a polyhedral surface.

Let S be a polyhedral surface consisting of a finite number of plane regions. (See Figure 16.66 for an example.) We apply Green's Theorem to each separate panel of S. There are two types of panels:

1. Those that are surrounded on all sides by other panels
2. Those that have one or more edges that are not adjacent to other panels.

The boundary Δ of S consists of those edges of the type 2 panels that are not adjacent to other panels. In Figure 16.66, the triangles EAB, BCE, and CDE represent a part of S, with $ABCD$ part of the boundary Δ. Applying Green's Theorem to the three triangles in turn and adding the results, we get

$$\left(\oint_{EAB} + \oint_{BCE} + \oint_{CDE}\right)\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \left(\iint_{EAB} + \iint_{BCE} + \iint_{CDE}\right)\nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma. \qquad (7)$$

The three line integrals on the left-hand side of Equation (7) combine into a single line integral taken around the periphery $ABCDE$ because the integrals along interior segments cancel in pairs. For example, the integral along segment BE in triangle ABE is opposite in sign to the integral along the same segment in triangle EBC. The same holds for segment CE. Hence, Equation (7) reduces to

$$\oint_{ABCDE} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_{ABCDE} \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma.$$

When we apply Green's Theorem to all the panels and add the results, we get

$$\oint_{\Delta} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma.$$

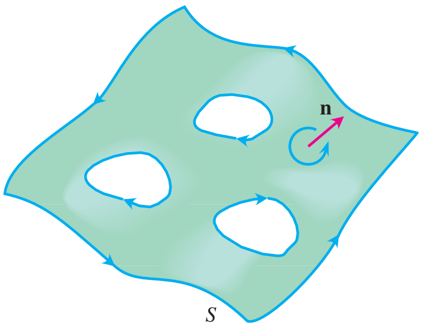


FIGURE 16.67 Stokes' Theorem also holds for oriented surfaces with holes.

This is Stokes' Theorem for a polyhedral surface S. You can find proofs for more general surfaces in advanced calculus texts.

Stokes' Theorem for Surfaces with Holes

Stokes' Theorem can be extended to an oriented surface S that has one or more holes (Figure 16.67), in a way analogous to the extension of Green's Theorem: The surface integral over S of the normal component of $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}$ equals the sum of the line integrals around all the boundary curves of the tangential component of $\mathbf{F}$, where the curves are to be traced in the direction induced by the orientation of S.

An Important Identity

The following identity arises frequently in mathematics and the physical sciences.

$$\text{curl grad } f = \mathbf{0} \qquad \text{or} \qquad \nabla \times \nabla f = \mathbf{0} \tag{8}$$

This identity holds for any function $f(x, y, z)$ whose second partial derivatives are continuous. The proof goes like this:

$$\nabla \times \nabla f = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \end{vmatrix} = (f_{zy} - f_{yz})\mathbf{i} - (f_{zx} - f_{xz})\mathbf{j} + (f_{yx} - f_{xy})\mathbf{k}.$$

If the second partial derivatives are continuous, the mixed second derivatives in parentheses are equal (Theorem 2, Section 14.3) and the vector is zero.

Conservative Fields and Stokes' Theorem

In Section 16.3, we found that a field $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative in an open region D in space is equivalent to the integral of $\mathbf{F}$ around every closed loop in D being zero. This, in turn, is equivalent in *simply connected* open regions to saying that $\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$.

THEOREM 6 Curl F = 0 Related to the Closed-Loop Property

If $\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$ at every point of a simply connected open region D in space, then on any piecewise-smooth closed path C in D,

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0.$$

Sketch of a Proof Theorem 6 is usually proved in two steps. The first step is for simple closed curves. A theorem from topology, a branch of advanced mathematics, states that

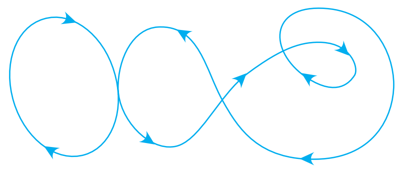


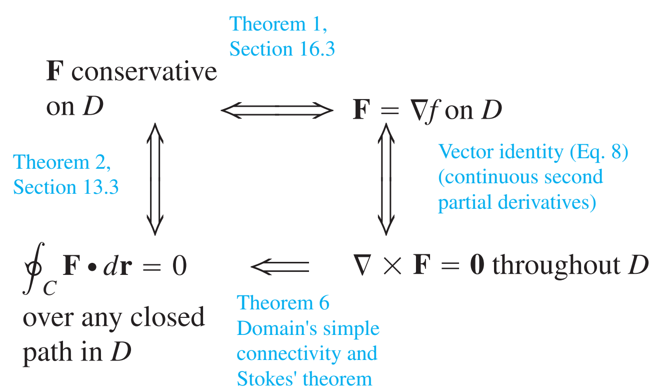
FIGURE 16.68 In a simply connected open region in space, differentiable curves that cross themselves can be divided into loops to which Stokes' Theorem applies.

every differentiable simple closed curve C in a simply connected open region D is the boundary of a smooth two-sided surface S that also lies in D. Hence, by Stokes' Theorem,

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = 0.$$

The second step is for curves that cross themselves, like the one in Figure 16.68. The idea is to break these into simple loops spanned by orientable surfaces, apply Stokes' Theorem one loop at a time, and add the results. ■

The following diagram summarizes the results for conservative fields defined on connected, simply connected open regions.



EXERCISES 16.7

Using Stokes' Theorem to Calculate Circulation

In Exercises 1–6, use the surface integral in Stokes' Theorem to calculate the circulation of the field $\mathbf{F}$ around the curve C in the indicated direction.

1. $\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{i} + 2x\mathbf{j} + z^2\mathbf{k}$

   C: The ellipse $4x^2 + y^2 = 4$ in the xy-plane, counterclockwise when viewed from above

2. $\mathbf{F} = 2y\mathbf{i} + 3x\mathbf{j} - z^2\mathbf{k}$

   C: The circle $x^2 + y^2 = 9$ in the xy-plane, counterclockwise when viewed from above

3. $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i} + xz\mathbf{j} + x^2\mathbf{k}$

   C: The boundary of the triangle cut from the plane $x + y + z = 1$ by the first octant, counterclockwise when viewed from above

4. $\mathbf{F} = (y^2 + z^2)\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + z^2)\mathbf{j} + (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{k}$

   C: The boundary of the triangle cut from the plane $x + y + z = 1$ by the first octant, counterclockwise when viewed from above

5. $\mathbf{F} = (y^2 + z^2)\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{j} + (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{k}$

   C: The square bounded by the lines $x = \pm 1$ and $y = \pm 1$ in the xy-plane, counterclockwise when viewed from above

6. $\mathbf{F} = x^2y^3\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$

   C: The intersection of the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 16, z \geq 0$, counterclockwise when viewed from above.

Flux of the Curl

7. Let $\mathbf{n}$ be the outer unit normal of the elliptical shell

$$S: \quad 4x^2 + 9y^2 + 36z^2 = 36, \qquad z \geq 0,$$

   and let

$$\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i} + x^2\mathbf{j} + (x^2 + y^4)^{3/2} \sin e^{\sqrt{xyz}}\,\mathbf{k}.$$

   Find the value of

$$\iint_S \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma.$$

   (*Hint:* One parametrization of the ellipse at the base of the shell is $x = 3\cos t, y = 2\sin t, 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$.)

8. Let $\mathbf{n}$ be the outer unit normal (normal away from the origin) of the parabolic shell

$$S: \quad 4x^2 + y + z^2 = 4, \qquad y \geq 0,$$

and let

$$\mathbf{F} = \left(-z + \frac{1}{2+x}\right)\mathbf{i} + (\tan^{-1} y)\mathbf{j} + \left(x + \frac{1}{4+z}\right)\mathbf{k}.$$

Find the value of

$$\iint_S \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma.$$

9. Let S be the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$, $0 \le z \le h$, together with its top, $x^2 + y^2 \le a^2$, $z = h$. Let $\mathbf{F} = -y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j} + x^2\mathbf{k}$. Use Stokes' Theorem to find the flux of $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}$ outward through S.

10. Evaluate

$$\iint_S \nabla \times (y\mathbf{i}) \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma,$$

where S is the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$, $z \ge 0$.

11. Flux of curl F Show that

$$\iint_S \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma$$

has the same value for all oriented surfaces S that span C and that induce the same positive direction on C.

12. Let $\mathbf{F}$ be a differentiable vector field defined on a region containing a smooth closed oriented surface S and its interior. Let $\mathbf{n}$ be the unit normal vector field on S. Suppose that S is the union of two surfaces S_1 and S_2 joined along a smooth simple closed curve C. Can anything be said about

$$\iint_S \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma?$$

Give reasons for your answer.

Stokes' Theorem for Parametrized Surfaces

In Exercises 13–18, use the surface integral in Stokes' Theorem to calculate the flux of the curl of the field $\mathbf{F}$ across the surface S in the direction of the outward unit normal $\mathbf{n}$.

13. $\mathbf{F} = 2z\mathbf{i} + 3x\mathbf{j} + 5y\mathbf{k}$

S: $\mathbf{r}(r, \theta) = (r\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (r\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + (4 - r^2)\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le r \le 2$, $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$

14. $\mathbf{F} = (y - z)\mathbf{i} + (z - x)\mathbf{j} + (x + z)\mathbf{k}$

S: $\mathbf{r}(r, \theta) = (r\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (r\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + (9 - r^2)\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le r \le 3$, $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$

15. $\mathbf{F} = x^2y\mathbf{i} + 2y^3z\mathbf{j} + 3z\mathbf{k}$

S: $\mathbf{r}(r, \theta) = (r\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (r\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + r\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le r \le 1$, $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$

16. $\mathbf{F} = (x - y)\mathbf{i} + (y - z)\mathbf{j} + (z - x)\mathbf{k}$

S: $\mathbf{r}(r, \theta) = (r\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (r\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + (5 - r)\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le r \le 5$, $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$

17. $\mathbf{F} = 3y\mathbf{i} + (5 - 2x)\mathbf{j} + (z^2 - 2)\mathbf{k}$

S: $\mathbf{r}(\phi, \theta) = (\sqrt{3}\sin\phi\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (\sqrt{3}\sin\phi\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + (\sqrt{3}\cos\phi)\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le \phi \le \pi/2$, $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$

18. $\mathbf{F} = y^2\mathbf{i} + z^2\mathbf{j} + x\mathbf{k}$

S: $\mathbf{r}(\phi, \theta) = (2\sin\phi\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (2\sin\phi\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + (2\cos\phi)\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le \phi \le \pi/2$, $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$

Theory and Examples

19. Zero circulation Use the identity $\nabla \times \nabla f = \mathbf{0}$ (Equation (8) in the text) and Stokes' Theorem to show that the circulations of the following fields around the boundary of any smooth orientable surface in space are zero.

a. $\mathbf{F} = 2x\mathbf{i} + 2y\mathbf{j} + 2z\mathbf{k}$

b. $\mathbf{F} = \nabla(xy^2z^3)$

c. $\mathbf{F} = \nabla \times (x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k})$

d. $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$

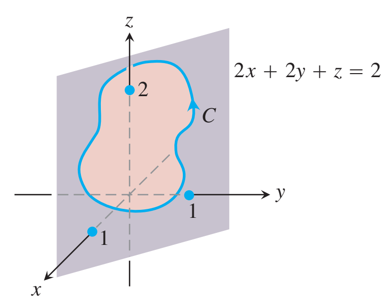
20. Zero circulation Let $f(x, y, z) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-1/2}$. Show that the clockwise circulation of the field $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$ around the circle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ in the xy-plane is zero

a. by taking $\mathbf{r} = (a\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (a\sin t)\mathbf{j}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$, and integrating $\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ over the circle.

b. by applying Stokes' Theorem.

21. Let C be a simple closed smooth curve in the plane $2x + 2y + z = 2$, oriented as shown here. Show that

$$\oint_C 2y\, dx + 3z\, dy - x\, dz$$



depends only on the area of the region enclosed by C and not on the position or shape of C.

22. Show that if $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$, then $\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$.

23. Find a vector field with twice-differentiable components whose curl is $x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ or prove that no such field exists.

24. Does Stokes' Theorem say anything special about circulation in a field whose curl is zero? Give reasons for your answer.

25. Let R be a region in the xy-plane that is bounded by a piecewise-smooth simple closed curve C and suppose that the moments of inertia of R about the x- and y-axes are known to be I_x and I_y. Evaluate the integral

$$\oint_C \nabla(r^4) \cdot \mathbf{n}\, ds,$$

where $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, in terms of I_x and I_y.

26. **Zero curl, yet field not conservative** Show that the curl of

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{-y}{x^2 + y^2}\mathbf{i} + \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2}\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$$

is zero but that

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

is not zero if C is the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ in the xy-plane. (Theorem 6 does not apply here because the domain of $\mathbf{F}$ is not simply connected. The field $\mathbf{F}$ is not defined along the z-axis so there is no way to contract C to a point without leaving the domain of $\mathbf{F}$.)

16.8 The Divergence Theorem and a Unified Theory

The divergence form of Green's Theorem in the plane states that the net outward flux of a vector field across a simple closed curve can be calculated by integrating the divergence of the field over the region enclosed by the curve. The corresponding theorem in three dimensions, called the Divergence Theorem, states that the net outward flux of a vector field across a closed surface in space can be calculated by integrating the divergence of the field over the region enclosed by the surface. In this section, we prove the Divergence Theorem and show how it simplifies the calculation of flux. We also derive Gauss's law for flux in an electric field and the continuity equation of hydrodynamics. Finally, we unify the chapter's vector integral theorems into a single fundamental theorem.

Divergence in Three Dimensions

The **divergence** of a vector field $\mathbf{F} = M(x, y, z)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y, z)\mathbf{j} + P(x, y, z)\mathbf{k}$ is the scalar function

$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial P}{\partial z}. \tag{1}$$

The symbol "div **F**" is read as "divergence of **F**" or "div **F**." The notation $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$ is read "del dot **F**."

Div **F** has the same physical interpretation in three dimensions that it does in two. If **F** is the velocity field of a fluid flow, the value of div **F** at a point (x, y, z) is the rate at which fluid is being piped in or drained away at (x, y, z). The divergence is the flux per unit volume or flux density at the point.

EXAMPLE 1 Finding Divergence

Find the divergence of $\mathbf{F} = 2xz\mathbf{i} - xy\mathbf{j} - z\mathbf{k}$.

Solution The divergence of **F** is

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(2xz) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(-xy) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(-z) = 2z - x - 1.$$

Divergence Theorem

The Divergence Theorem says that under suitable conditions, the outward flux of a vector field across a closed surface (oriented outward) equals the triple integral of the divergence of the field over the region enclosed by the surface.

THEOREM 7 Divergence Theorem

The flux of a vector field $\mathbf{F}$ across a closed oriented surface S in the direction of the surface's outward unit normal field $\mathbf{n}$ equals the integral of $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$ over the region D enclosed by the surface:

$$\underbrace{\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma}_{\text{Outward flux}} = \underbrace{\iiint_D \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}\, dV}_{\text{Divergence integral}}. \tag{2}$$

EXAMPLE 2 Supporting the Divergence Theorem

Evaluate both sides of Equation (2) for the field $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ over the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$.

Solution The outer unit normal to S, calculated from the gradient of $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - a^2$, is

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{2(x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k})}{\sqrt{4(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)}} = \frac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}}{a}.$$

Hence,

$$\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = \frac{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}{a}\, d\sigma = \frac{a^2}{a}\, d\sigma = a\, d\sigma$$

because $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ on the surface. Therefore,

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = \iint_S a\, d\sigma = a \iint_S d\sigma = a(4\pi a^2) = 4\pi a^3.$$

The divergence of $\mathbf{F}$ is

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(z) = 3,$$

so

$$\iiint_D \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}\, dV = \iiint_D 3\, dV = 3\left(\frac{4}{3}\pi a^3\right) = 4\pi a^3.$$ ■

EXAMPLE 3 Finding Flux

You Try It

Find the flux of $\mathbf{F} = xy\mathbf{i} + yz\mathbf{j} + xz\mathbf{k}$ outward through the surface of the cube cut from the first octant by the planes $x = 1$, $y = 1$, and $z = 1$.

Solution Instead of calculating the flux as a sum of six separate integrals, one for each face of the cube, we can calculate the flux by integrating the divergence

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(xy) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(yz) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(xz) = y + z + x$$

over the cube's interior:

$$\text{Flux} = \iint_{\substack{\text{Cube}\\ \text{surface}}} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = \iiint_{\substack{\text{Cube}\\ \text{interior}}} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}\, dV \qquad \text{The Divergence Theorem}$$

$$= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y + z)\, dx\, dy\, dz = \frac{3}{2}. \qquad \text{Routine integration}$$

■

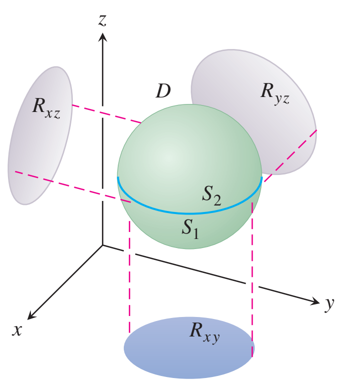


FIGURE 16.69 We first prove the Divergence Theorem for the kind of three-dimensional region shown here. We then extend the theorem to other regions.

Proof of the Divergence Theorem for Special Regions

To prove the Divergence Theorem, we assume that the components of $\mathbf{F}$ have continuous first partial derivatives. We also assume that D is a convex region with no holes or bubbles, such as a solid sphere, cube, or ellipsoid, and that S is a piecewise smooth surface. In addition, we assume that any line perpendicular to the xy-plane at an interior point of the region R_{xy} that is the projection of D on the xy-plane intersects the surface S in exactly two points, producing surfaces

$$S_1: \quad z = f_1(x, y), \qquad (x, y) \text{ in } R_{xy}$$

$$S_2: \quad z = f_2(x, y), \qquad (x, y) \text{ in } R_{xy},$$

with $f_1 \le f_2$. We make similar assumptions about the projection of D onto the other coordinate planes. See Figure 16.69.

The components of the unit normal vector $\mathbf{n} = n_1\mathbf{i} + n_2\mathbf{j} + n_3\mathbf{k}$ are the cosines of the angles α, β, and γ that $\mathbf{n}$ makes with $\mathbf{i}$, $\mathbf{j}$, and $\mathbf{k}$ (Figure 16.70). This is true because all the vectors involved are unit vectors. We have

$$n_1 = \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{i} = |\mathbf{n}||\mathbf{i}| \cos \alpha = \cos \alpha$$

$$n_2 = \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{j} = |\mathbf{n}||\mathbf{j}| \cos \beta = \cos \beta$$

$$n_3 = \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{k} = |\mathbf{n}||\mathbf{k}| \cos \gamma = \cos \gamma$$

Thus,

$$\mathbf{n} = (\cos \alpha)\mathbf{i} + (\cos \beta)\mathbf{j} + (\cos \gamma)\mathbf{k}$$

and

$$\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} = M \cos \alpha + N \cos \beta + P \cos \gamma.$$

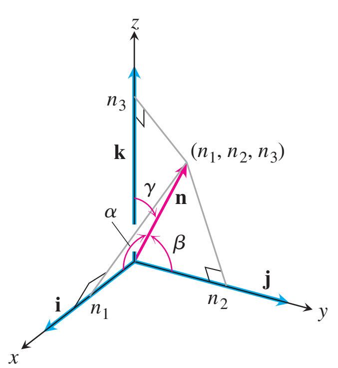


FIGURE 16.70 The scalar components of the unit normal vector $\mathbf{n}$ are the cosines of the angles α, β, and γ that it makes with $\mathbf{i}$, $\mathbf{j}$, and $\mathbf{k}$.

In component form, the Divergence Theorem states that

$$\iint_S (M \cos \alpha + N \cos \beta + P \cos \gamma)\, d\sigma = \iiint_D \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial P}{\partial z}\right) dx\, dy\, dz.$$

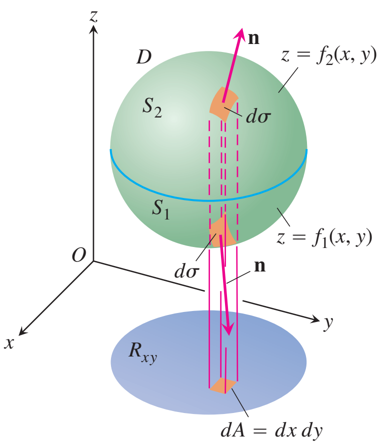


FIGURE 16.71 The three-dimensional region D enclosed by the surfaces S_1 and S_2 shown here projects vertically onto a two-dimensional region R_{xy} in the xy-plane.

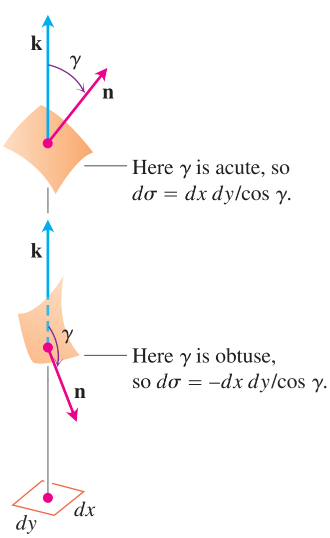


FIGURE 16.72 An enlarged view of the area patches in Figure 16.71. The relations $d\sigma = \pm dx\,dy/\cos\gamma$ are derived in Section 16.5.

We prove the theorem by proving the three following equalities:

$$\iint_S M\cos\alpha\,d\sigma = \iiint_D \frac{\partial M}{\partial x}\,dx\,dy\,dz \tag{3}$$

$$\iint_S N\cos\beta\,d\sigma = \iiint_D \frac{\partial N}{\partial y}\,dx\,dy\,dz \tag{4}$$

$$\iint_S P\cos\gamma\,d\sigma = \iiint_D \frac{\partial P}{\partial z}\,dx\,dy\,dz \tag{5}$$

Proof of Equation (5) We prove Equation (5) by converting the surface integral on the left to a double integral over the projection R_{xy} of D on the xy-plane (Figure 16.71). The surface S consists of an upper part S_2 whose equation is $z = f_2(x, y)$ and a lower part S_1 whose equation is $z = f_1(x, y)$. On S_2, the outer normal $\mathbf{n}$ has a positive $\mathbf{k}$-component and

$$\cos\gamma\,d\sigma = dx\,dy \qquad \text{because} \qquad d\sigma = \frac{dA}{|\cos\gamma|} = \frac{dx\,dy}{\cos\gamma}.$$

See Figure 16.72. On S_1, the outer normal $\mathbf{n}$ has a negative $\mathbf{k}$-component and

$$\cos\gamma\,d\sigma = -dx\,dy.$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_S P\cos\gamma\,d\sigma &= \iint_{S_2} P\cos\gamma\,d\sigma + \iint_{S_1} P\cos\gamma\,d\sigma\\ &= \iint_{R_{xy}} P(x, y, f_2(x, y))\,dx\,dy - \iint_{R_{xy}} P(x, y, f_1(x, y))\,dx\,dy\\ &= \iint_{R_{xy}} [P(x, y, f_2(x, y)) - P(x, y, f_1(x, y))]\,dx\,dy\\ &= \iint_{R_{xy}} \left[\int_{f_1(x,y)}^{f_2(x,y)} \frac{\partial P}{\partial z}\,dz\right] dx\,dy = \iiint_D \frac{\partial P}{\partial z}\,dz\,dx\,dy.\end{aligned}$$

This proves Equation (5). ■

The proofs for Equations (3) and (4) follow the same pattern; or just permute x, y, z; M, N, P; α, β, γ, in order, and get those results from Equation (5).

Divergence Theorem for Other Regions

The Divergence Theorem can be extended to regions that can be partitioned into a finite number of simple regions of the type just discussed and to regions that can be defined as limits of simpler regions in certain ways. For example, suppose that D is the region between two concentric spheres and that $\mathbf{F}$ has continuously differentiable components throughout D and on the bounding surfaces. Split D by an equatorial plane and apply the

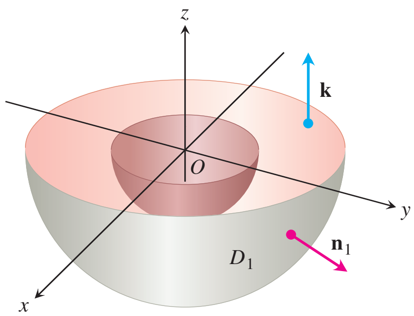


FIGURE 16.73 The lower half of the solid region between two concentric spheres.

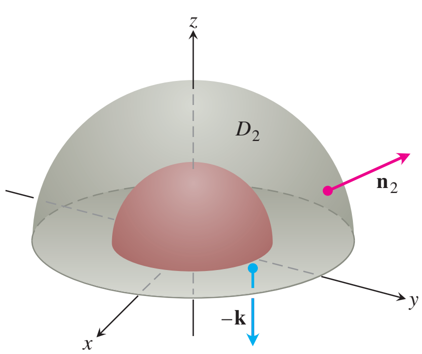


FIGURE 16.74 The upper half of the solid region between two concentric spheres.

Divergence Theorem to each half separately. The bottom half, D_1, is shown in Figure 16.73. The surface S_1 that bounds D_1 consists of an outer hemisphere, a plane washer-shaped base, and an inner hemisphere. The Divergence Theorem says that

$$\iint_{S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}_1 \, d\sigma_1 = \iiint_{D_1} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} \, dV_1. \tag{6}$$

The unit normal $\mathbf{n}_1$ that points outward from D_1 points away from the origin along the outer surface, equals $\mathbf{k}$ along the flat base, and points toward the origin along the inner surface. Next apply the Divergence Theorem to D_2, and its surface S_2 (Figure 16.74):

$$\iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}_2 \, d\sigma_2 = \iiint_{D_2} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} \, dV_2. \tag{7}$$

As we follow $\mathbf{n}_2$ over S_2, pointing outward from D_2, we see that $\mathbf{n}_2$ equals $-\mathbf{k}$ along the washer-shaped base in the xy-plane, points away from the origin on the outer sphere, and points toward the origin on the inner sphere. When we add Equations (6) and (7), the integrals over the flat base cancel because of the opposite signs of $\mathbf{n}_1$ and $\mathbf{n}_2$. We thus arrive at the result

$$\iint_{S} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, d\sigma = \iiint_{D} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} \, dV,$$

with D the region between the spheres, S the boundary of D consisting of two spheres, and $\mathbf{n}$ the unit normal to S directed outward from D.

EXAMPLE 4 Finding Outward Flux

Find the net outward flux of the field

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}}{\rho^3}, \qquad \rho = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

across the boundary of the region D: $0 < a^2 \le x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \le b^2$.

Solution The flux can be calculated by integrating $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$ over D. We have

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-1/2}(2x) = \frac{x}{\rho}$$

and

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x\rho^{-3}) = \rho^{-3} - 3x\rho^{-4}\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{\rho^3} - \frac{3x^2}{\rho^5}.$$

Similarly,

$$\frac{\partial N}{\partial y} = \frac{1}{\rho^3} - \frac{3y^2}{\rho^5} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{\rho^3} - \frac{3z^2}{\rho^5}.$$

Hence,

$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = \frac{3}{\rho^3} - \frac{3}{\rho^5}(x^2 + y^2 + z^2) = \frac{3}{\rho^3} - \frac{3\rho^2}{\rho^5} = 0$$

and

$$\iiint_D \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}\, dV = 0.$$

So the integral of $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$ over D is zero and the net outward flux across the boundary of D is zero. There is more to learn from this example, though. The flux leaving D across the inner sphere S_a is the negative of the flux leaving D across the outer sphere S_b (because the sum of these fluxes is zero). Hence, the flux of $\mathbf{F}$ across S_a in the direction away from the origin equals the flux of $\mathbf{F}$ across S_b in the direction away from the origin. Thus, the flux of $\mathbf{F}$ across a sphere centered at the origin is independent of the radius of the sphere. What is this flux?

To find it, we evaluate the flux integral directly. The outward unit normal on the sphere of radius a is

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}} = \frac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}}{a}.$$

Hence, on the sphere,

$$\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} = \frac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}}{a^3} \cdot \frac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}}{a} = \frac{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}{a^4} = \frac{a^2}{a^4} = \frac{1}{a^2}$$

and

$$\iint_{S_a} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = \frac{1}{a^2} \iint_{S_a} d\sigma = \frac{1}{a^2}(4\pi a^2) = 4\pi.$$

The outward flux of $\mathbf{F}$ across any sphere centered at the origin is 4π. ■

Gauss's Law: One of the Four Great Laws of Electromagnetic Theory

There is still more to be learned from Example 4. In electromagnetic theory, the electric field created by a point charge q located at the origin is

$$\mathbf{E}(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{|\mathbf{r}|^2}\left(\frac{\mathbf{r}}{|\mathbf{r}|}\right) = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\mathbf{r}}{|\mathbf{r}|^3} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}}{\rho^3},$$

where ϵ_0 is a physical constant, $\mathbf{r}$ is the position vector of the point (x, y, z), and $\rho = |\mathbf{r}| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$. In the notation of Example 4,

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\mathbf{F}.$$

The calculations in Example 4 show that the outward flux of $\mathbf{E}$ across any sphere centered at the origin is q/ϵ_0, but this result is not confined to spheres. The outward flux of $\mathbf{E}$ across any closed surface S that encloses the origin (and to which the Divergence Theorem applies) is also q/ϵ_0. To see why, we have only to imagine a large sphere S_a centered at the origin and enclosing the surface S. Since

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \nabla \cdot \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\mathbf{F} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = 0$$

when $\rho > 0$, the integral of $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}$ over the region D between S and S_a is zero. Hence, by the Divergence Theorem,

$$\iint_{\substack{\text{Boundary}\\ \text{of } D}} \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = 0,$$

and the flux of $\mathbf{E}$ across S in the direction away from the origin must be the same as the flux of $\mathbf{E}$ across S_a in the direction away from the origin, which is q/ϵ_0. This statement, called *Gauss's Law*, also applies to charge distributions that are more general than the one assumed here, as you will see in nearly any physics text.

$$\text{Gauss's law:} \quad \iint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

Continuity Equation of Hydrodynamics

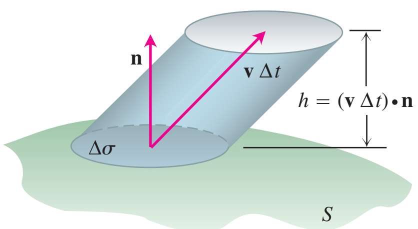


FIGURE 16.75 The fluid that flows upward through the patch $\Delta\sigma$ in a short time Δt fills a "cylinder" whose volume is approximately base $\times$ height $= \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, \Delta\sigma\, \Delta t$.

Let D be a region in space bounded by a closed oriented surface S. If $\mathbf{v}(x, y, z)$ is the velocity field of a fluid flowing smoothly through D, $\delta = \delta(t, x, y, z)$ is the fluid's density at (x, y, z) at time t, and $\mathbf{F} = \delta\mathbf{v}$, then the **continuity equation** of hydrodynamics states that

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} + \frac{\partial \delta}{\partial t} = 0.$$

If the functions involved have continuous first partial derivatives, the equation evolves naturally from the Divergence Theorem, as we now see.

First, the integral

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma$$

is the rate at which mass leaves D across S (leaves because $\mathbf{n}$ is the outer normal). To see why, consider a patch of area $\Delta\sigma$ on the surface (Figure 16.75). In a short time interval Δt, the volume ΔV of fluid that flows across the patch is approximately equal to the volume of a cylinder with base area $\Delta\sigma$ and height $(\mathbf{v}\Delta t) \cdot \mathbf{n}$, where $\mathbf{v}$ is a velocity vector rooted at a point of the patch:

$$\Delta V \approx \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, \Delta\sigma\, \Delta t.$$

The mass of this volume of fluid is about

$$\Delta m \approx \delta\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, \Delta\sigma\, \Delta t,$$

so the rate at which mass is flowing out of D across the patch is about

$$\frac{\Delta m}{\Delta t} \approx \delta\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, \Delta\sigma.$$

This leads to the approximation

$$\frac{\sum \Delta m}{\Delta t} \approx \sum \delta\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, \Delta\sigma$$

as an estimate of the average rate at which mass flows across S. Finally, letting $\Delta\sigma \to 0$ and $\Delta t \to 0$ gives the instantaneous rate at which mass leaves D across S as

$$\frac{dm}{dt} = \iint_S \delta \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma,$$

which for our particular flow is

$$\frac{dm}{dt} = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma.$$

Now let B be a solid sphere centered at a point Q in the flow. The average value of $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$ over B is

$$\frac{1}{\text{volume of } B} \iiint_B \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}\, dV.$$

It is a consequence of the continuity of the divergence that $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$ actually takes on this value at some point P in B. Thus,

$$(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F})_P = \frac{1}{\text{volume of } B} \iiint_B \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}\, dV = \frac{\displaystyle\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma}{\text{volume of } B}$$

$$= \frac{\text{rate at which mass leaves } B \text{ across its surface } S}{\text{volume of } B} \tag{8}$$

The fraction on the right describes decrease in mass per unit volume.

Now let the radius of B approach zero while the center Q stays fixed. The left side of Equation (8) converges to $(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F})_Q$, the right side to $(-\partial\delta/\partial t)_Q$. The equality of these two limits is the continuity equation

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = -\frac{\partial \delta}{\partial t}.$$

The continuity equation "explains" $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$: The divergence of $\mathbf{F}$ at a point is the rate at which the density of the fluid is decreasing there.

The Divergence Theorem

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = \iiint_D \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}\, dV$$

now says that the net decrease in density of the fluid in region D is accounted for by the mass transported across the surface S. So, the theorem is a statement about conservation of mass (Exercise 31).

Unifying the Integral Theorems

If we think of a two-dimensional field $\mathbf{F} = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j}$ as a three-dimensional field whose $\mathbf{k}$-component is zero, then $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = (\partial M/\partial x) + (\partial N/\partial y)$ and the normal form of Green's Theorem can be written as

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, ds = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y}\right) dx\, dy = \iint_R \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}\, dA.$$

Similarly, $\nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{k} = (\partial N/\partial x) - (\partial M/\partial y)$, so the tangential form of Green's Theorem can be written as

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right) dx\, dy = \iint_R \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{k}\, dA.$$

With the equations of Green's Theorem now in del notation, we can see their relationships to the equations in Stokes' Theorem and the Divergence Theorem.

Green's Theorem and Its Generalization to Three Dimensions

Normal form of Green's Theorem: $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, ds = \iint_R \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}\, dA$

Divergence Theorem: $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = \iiint_D \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}\, dV$

Tangential form of Green's Theorem: $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_R \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{k}\, dA$

Stokes' Theorem: $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma$

Notice how Stokes' Theorem generalizes the tangential (curl) form of Green's Theorem from a flat surface in the plane to a surface in three-dimensional space. In each case, the integral of the normal component of curl **F** over the interior of the surface equals the circulation of **F** around the boundary.

Likewise, the Divergence Theorem generalizes the normal (flux) form of Green's Theorem from a two-dimensional region in the plane to a three-dimensional region in space. In each case, the integral of $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$ over the interior of the region equals the total flux of the field across the boundary.

There is still more to be learned here. All these results can be thought of as forms of a *single fundamental theorem*. Think back to the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus in Section 5.3. It says that if $f(x)$ is differentiable on (a, b) and continuous on $[a, b]$, then

FIGURE 16.76 The outward unit normals at the boundary of $[a, b]$ in one-dimensional space.

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

If we let $\mathbf{F} = f(x)\mathbf{i}$ throughout $[a, b]$, then $(df/dx) = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$. If we define the unit vector field $\mathbf{n}$ normal to the boundary of $[a, b]$ to be $\mathbf{i}$ at b and $-\mathbf{i}$ at a (Figure 16.76), then

$$\begin{aligned} f(b) - f(a) &= f(b)\mathbf{i} \cdot (\mathbf{i}) + f(a)\mathbf{i} \cdot (-\mathbf{i}) \\ &= \mathbf{F}(b) \cdot \mathbf{n} + \mathbf{F}(a) \cdot \mathbf{n} \\ &= \text{total outward flux of } \mathbf{F} \text{ across the boundary of } [a, b]. \end{aligned}$$

The Fundamental Theorem now says that

$$\mathbf{F}(b) \cdot \mathbf{n} + \mathbf{F}(a) \cdot \mathbf{n} = \int_{[a,b]} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}\, dx.$$

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, the normal form of Green's Theorem, and the Divergence Theorem all say that the integral of the differential operator $\nabla \cdot$ operating on a field **F** over a region equals the sum of the normal field components over the boundary of the region. (Here we are interpreting the line integral in Green's Theorem and the surface integral in the Divergence Theorem as "sums" over the boundary.)

Stokes' Theorem and the tangential form of Green's Theorem say that, when things are properly oriented, the integral of the normal component of the curl operating on a field equals the sum of the tangential field components on the boundary of the surface.

The beauty of these interpretations is the observance of a single unifying principle, which we might state as follows.

> The integral of a differential operator acting on a field over a region equals the sum of the field components appropriate to the operator over the boundary of the region.

EXERCISES 16.8

Calculating Divergence

In Exercises 1–4, find the divergence of the field.

1. The spin field in Figure 16.14.
2. The radial field in Figure 16.13.
3. The gravitational field in Figure 16.9.
4. The velocity field in Figure 16.12.

Using the Divergence Theorem to Calculate Outward Flux

In Exercises 5–16, use the Divergence Theorem to find the outward flux of **F** across the boundary of the region D.

5. **Cube** $\mathbf{F} = (y - x)\mathbf{i} + (z - y)\mathbf{j} + (y - x)\mathbf{k}$

   D: The cube bounded by the planes $x = \pm 1, y = \pm 1$, and $z = \pm 1$

6. $\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{i} + y^2\mathbf{j} + z^2\mathbf{k}$

   a. Cube D: The cube cut from the first octant by the planes $x = 1, y = 1$, and $z = 1$

   b. Cube D: The cube bounded by the planes $x = \pm 1$, $y = \pm 1$, and $z = \pm 1$

   c. Cylindrical can D: The region cut from the solid cylinder $x^2 + y^2 \le 4$ by the planes $z = 0$ and $z = 1$

7. **Cylinder and paraboloid** $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i} + xy\mathbf{j} - z\mathbf{k}$

   D: The region inside the solid cylinder $x^2 + y^2 \le 4$ between the plane $z = 0$ and the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$

8. **Sphere** $\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{i} + xz\mathbf{j} + 3z\mathbf{k}$

   D: The solid sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \le 4$

9. **Portion of sphere** $\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{i} - 2xy\mathbf{j} + 3xz\mathbf{k}$

   D: The region cut from the first octant by the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$

10. **Cylindrical can** $\mathbf{F} = (6x^2 + 2xy)\mathbf{i} + (2y + x^2z)\mathbf{j} + 4x^2y^3\mathbf{k}$

    D: The region cut from the first octant by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and the plane $z = 3$

11. **Wedge** $\mathbf{F} = 2xz\mathbf{i} - xy\mathbf{j} - z^2\mathbf{k}$

    D: The wedge cut from the first octant by the plane $y + z = 4$ and the elliptical cylinder $4x^2 + y^2 = 16$

12. **Sphere** $\mathbf{F} = x^3\mathbf{i} + y^3\mathbf{j} + z^3\mathbf{k}$

    D: The solid sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \le a^2$

13. **Thick sphere** $\mathbf{F} = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}\,(x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k})$

    D: The region $1 \le x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \le 2$

14. **Thick sphere** $\mathbf{F} = (x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k})/\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$

    D: The region $1 \le x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \le 4$

15. **Thick sphere** $\mathbf{F} = (5x^3 + 12xy^2)\mathbf{i} + (y^3 + e^y \sin z)\mathbf{j} + (5z^3 + e^y \cos z)\mathbf{k}$

    D: The solid region between the spheres $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ and $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 2$

16. **Thick cylinder** $\mathbf{F} = \ln(x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{i} - \left(\frac{2z}{x}\tan^{-1}\frac{y}{x}\right)\mathbf{j} + z\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\,\mathbf{k}$

    D: The thick-walled cylinder $1 \le x^2 + y^2 \le 2, \quad -1 \le z \le 2$

Properties of Curl and Divergence

17. div (curl G) is zero

a. Show that if the necessary partial derivatives of the components of the field $\mathbf{G} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$ are continuous, then $\nabla \cdot \nabla \times \mathbf{G} = 0$.

b. What, if anything, can you conclude about the flux of the field $\nabla \times \mathbf{G}$ across a closed surface? Give reasons for your answer.

18. Let $\mathbf{F}_1$ and $\mathbf{F}_2$ be differentiable vector fields and let a and b be arbitrary real constants. Verify the following identities.

a. $\nabla \cdot (a\mathbf{F}_1 + b\mathbf{F}_2) = a\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}_1 + b\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}_2$

b. $\nabla \times (a\mathbf{F}_1 + b\mathbf{F}_2) = a\nabla \times \mathbf{F}_1 + b\nabla \times \mathbf{F}_2$

c. $\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{F}_1 \times \mathbf{F}_2) = \mathbf{F}_2 \cdot \nabla \times \mathbf{F}_1 - \mathbf{F}_1 \cdot \nabla \times \mathbf{F}_2$

19. Let $\mathbf{F}$ be a differentiable vector field and let $g(x, y, z)$ be a differentiable scalar function. Verify the following identities.

a. $\nabla \cdot (g\mathbf{F}) = g\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} + \nabla g \cdot \mathbf{F}$

b. $\nabla \times (g\mathbf{F}) = g\nabla \times \mathbf{F} + \nabla g \times \mathbf{F}$

20. If $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$ is a differentiable vector field, we define the notation $\mathbf{F} \cdot \nabla$ to mean

$$M\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + N\frac{\partial}{\partial y} + P\frac{\partial}{\partial z}.$$

For differentiable vector fields $\mathbf{F}_1$ and $\mathbf{F}_2$, verify the following identities.

a. $\nabla \times (\mathbf{F}_1 \times \mathbf{F}_2) = (\mathbf{F}_2 \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{F}_1 - (\mathbf{F}_1 \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{F}_2 + (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}_2)\mathbf{F}_1 - (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}_1)\mathbf{F}_2$

b. $\nabla(\mathbf{F}_1 \cdot \mathbf{F}_2) = (\mathbf{F}_1 \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{F}_2 + (\mathbf{F}_2 \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{F}_1 + \mathbf{F}_1 \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}_2) + \mathbf{F}_2 \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}_1)$

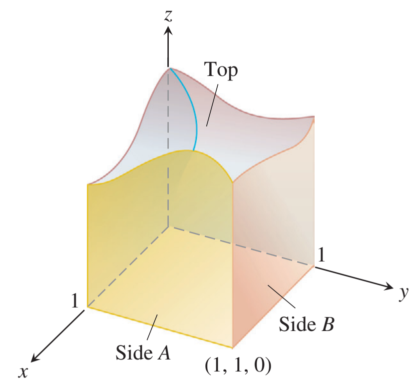
Theory and Examples

21. Let $\mathbf{F}$ be a field whose components have continuous first partial derivatives throughout a portion of space containing a region D bounded by a smooth closed surface S. If $|\mathbf{F}| \le 1$, can any bound be placed on the size of

$$\iiint_D \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}\, dV?$$

Give reasons for your answer.

22. The base of the closed cubelike surface shown here is the unit square in the xy-plane. The four sides lie in the planes $x = 0, x = 1, y = 0$, and $y = 1$. The top is an arbitrary smooth surface whose identity is unknown. Let $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} - 2y\mathbf{j} + (z + 3)\mathbf{k}$ and suppose the outward flux of $\mathbf{F}$ through side A is 1 and through side B is -3. Can you conclude anything about the outward flux through the top? Give reasons for your answer.



23. a. Show that the flux of the position vector field $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ outward through a smooth closed surface S is three times the volume of the region enclosed by the surface.

b. Let $\mathbf{n}$ be the outward unit normal vector field on S. Show that it is not possible for $\mathbf{F}$ to be orthogonal to $\mathbf{n}$ at every point of S.

24. Maximum flux Among all rectangular solids defined by the inequalities $0 \le x \le a, 0 \le y \le b, 0 \le z \le 1$, find the one for which the total flux of $\mathbf{F} = (-x^2 - 4xy)\mathbf{i} - 6yz\mathbf{j} + 12z\mathbf{k}$ outward through the six sides is greatest. What *is* the greatest flux?

25. Volume of a solid region Let $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ and suppose that the surface S and region D satisfy the hypotheses of the Divergence Theorem. Show that the volume of D is given by the formula

$$\text{Volume of } D = \frac{1}{3}\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma.$$

26. Flux of a constant field Show that the outward flux of a constant vector field $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{C}$ across any closed surface to which the Divergence Theorem applies is zero.

27. Harmonic functions A function $f(x, y, z)$ is said to be *harmonic* in a region D in space if it satisfies the Laplace equation

$$\nabla^2 f = \nabla \cdot \nabla f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

throughout D.

a. Suppose that f is harmonic throughout a bounded region D enclosed by a smooth surface S and that $\mathbf{n}$ is the chosen unit normal vector on S. Show that the integral over S of $\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{n}$, the derivative of f in the direction of $\mathbf{n}$, is zero.

b. Show that if f is harmonic on D, then

$$\iint_S f\, \nabla f \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = \iiint_D |\nabla f|^2\, dV.$$

28. Flux of a gradient field Let S be the surface of the portion of the solid sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leq a^2$ that lies in the first octant and let $f(x, y, z) = \ln\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$. Calculate

$$\iint_S \nabla f \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma.$$

($\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{n}$ is the derivative of f in the direction of $\mathbf{n}$.)

29. Green's first formula Suppose that f and g are scalar functions with continuous first- and second-order partial derivatives throughout a region D that is bounded by a closed piecewise-smooth surface S. Show that

$$\iint_S f\, \nabla g \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = \iiint_D (f\, \nabla^2 g + \nabla f \cdot \nabla g)\, dV. \tag{9}$$

Equation (9) is **Green's first formula**. (*Hint:* Apply the Divergence Theorem to the field $\mathbf{F} = f\, \nabla g$.)

30. Green's second formula (*Continuation of Exercise 29.*) Interchange f and g in Equation (9) to obtain a similar formula. Then subtract this formula from Equation (9) to show that

$$\iint_S (f\, \nabla g - g \nabla f) \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = \iiint_D (f\, \nabla^2 g - g \nabla^2 f)\, dV. \tag{10}$$

This equation is **Green's second formula**.

31. Conservation of mass Let $\mathbf{v}(t, x, y, z)$ be a continuously differentiable vector field over the region D in space and let $p(t, x, y, z)$ be a continuously differentiable scalar function. The variable t represents the time domain. The Law of Conservation of Mass asserts that

$$\frac{d}{dt}\iiint_D p(t, x, y, z)\, dV = -\iint_S p\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma,$$

where S is the surface enclosing D.

a. Give a physical interpretation of the conservation of mass law if $\mathbf{v}$ is a velocity flow field and p represents the density of the fluid at point (x, y, z) at time t.

b. Use the Divergence Theorem and Leibniz's Rule,

$$\frac{d}{dt}\iiint_D p(t, x, y, z)\, dV = \iiint_D \frac{\partial p}{\partial t}\, dV,$$

to show that the Law of Conservation of Mass is equivalent to the continuity equation,

$$\nabla \cdot p\mathbf{v} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = 0.$$

(In the first term $\nabla \cdot p\mathbf{v}$, the variable t is held fixed, and in the second term $\partial p/\partial t$, it is assumed that the point (x, y, z) in D is held fixed.)

32. The heat diffusion equation Let $T(t, x, y, z)$ be a function with continuous second derivatives giving the temperature at time t at the point (x, y, z) of a solid occupying a region D in space. If the solid's heat capacity and mass density are denoted by the constants c and ρ, respectively, the quantity $c\rho T$ is called the solid's **heat energy per unit volume**.

a. Explain why $-\nabla T$ points in the direction of heat flow.

b. Let $-k\nabla T$ denote the **energy flux vector**. (Here the constant k is called the **conductivity**.) Assuming the Law of Conservation of Mass with $-k\nabla T = \mathbf{v}$ and $c\rho T = p$ in Exercise 31, derive the diffusion (heat) equation

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = K\nabla^2 T,$$

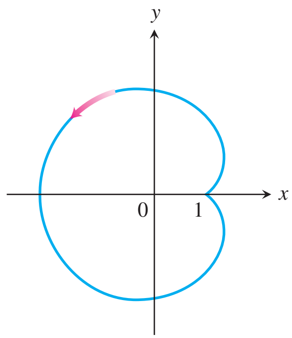
where $K = k/(c\rho) > 0$ is the *diffusivity* constant. (Notice that if $T(t, x)$ represents the temperature at time t at position x in a uniform conducting rod with perfectly insulated sides, then $\nabla^2 T = \partial^2 T/\partial x^2$ and the diffusion equation reduces to the one-dimensional heat equation in Chapter 14's Additional Exercises.)

Chapter 16 Additional and Advanced Exercises

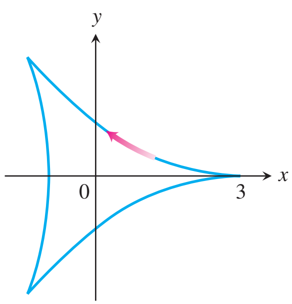
Finding Areas with Green's Theorem

Use the Green's Theorem area formula, Equation (13) in Exercises 16.4, to find the areas of the regions enclosed by the curves in Exercises 1–4.

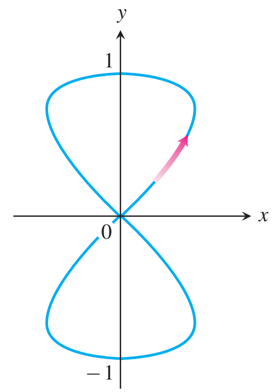
1. The limaçon $x = 2\cos t - \cos 2t$, $y = 2\sin t - \sin 2t$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$



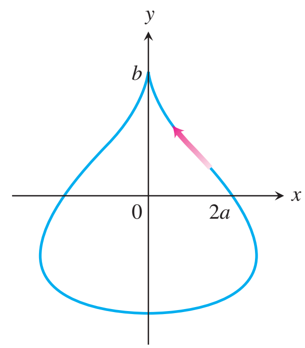
2. The deltoid $x = 2\cos t + \cos 2t$, $y = 2\sin t - \sin 2t$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$



3. The eight curve $x = (1/2)\sin 2t$, $y = \sin t$, $0 \le t \le \pi$ (one loop)



4. The teardrop $x = 2a\cos t - a\sin 2t$, $y = b\sin t$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$



Theory and Applications

5. a. Give an example of a vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ that has value $\mathbf{0}$ at only one point and such that curl $\mathbf{F}$ is nonzero everywhere. Be sure to identify the point and compute the curl.

b. Give an example of a vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ that has value $\mathbf{0}$ on precisely one line and such that curl $\mathbf{F}$ is nonzero everywhere. Be sure to identify the line and compute the curl.

c. Give an example of a vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ that has value $\mathbf{0}$ on a surface and such that curl $\mathbf{F}$ is nonzero everywhere. Be sure to identify the surface and compute the curl.

6. Find all points (a, b, c) on the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = R^2$ where the vector field $\mathbf{F} = yz^2\mathbf{i} + xz^2\mathbf{j} + 2xyz\mathbf{k}$ is normal to the surface and $\mathbf{F}(a, b, c) \neq \mathbf{0}$.

7. Find the mass of a spherical shell of radius R such that at each point (x, y, z) on the surface the mass density $\delta(x, y, z)$ is its distance to some fixed point (a, b, c) of the surface.

8. Find the mass of a helicoid

$$\mathbf{r}(r, \theta) = (r\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (r\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + \theta\mathbf{k},$$

$0 \le r \le 1, 0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$, if the density function is $\delta(x, y, z) = 2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. See Practice Exercise 27 for a figure.

9. Among all rectangular regions $0 \le x \le a, 0 \le y \le b$, find the one for which the total outward flux of $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + 4xy)\mathbf{i} - 6y\mathbf{j}$ across the four sides is least. What *is* the least flux?

10. Find an equation for the plane through the origin such that the circulation of the flow field $\mathbf{F} = z\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j} + y\mathbf{k}$ around the circle of intersection of the plane with the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ is a maximum.

11. A string lies along the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ from (2, 0) to (0, 2) in the first quadrant. The density of the string is $\rho(x, y) = xy$

a. Partition the string into a finite number of subarcs to show that the work done by gravity to move the string straight down to the x-axis is given by

$$\text{Work} = \lim_{n\to\infty}\sum_{k=1}^{n} g\, x_k y_k^2 \Delta s_k = \int_C g\, xy^2\, ds,$$

where g is the gravitational constant.

b. Find the total work done by evaluating the line integral in part (a).

c. Show that the total work done equals the work required to move the string's center of mass $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ straight down to the x-axis.

12. A thin sheet lies along the portion of the plane $x + y + z = 1$ in the first octant. The density of the sheet is $\delta(x, y, z) = xy$.

a. Partition the sheet into a finite number of subpieces to show that the work done by gravity to move the sheet straight down to the xy-plane is given by

$$\text{Work} = \lim_{n\to\infty}\sum_{k=1}^{n} g\, x_k y_k z_k\, \Delta\sigma_k = \iint_S g\, xyz\, d\sigma,$$

where g is the gravitational constant.

b. Find the total work done by evaluating the surface integral in part (a).

c. Show that the total work done equals the work required to move the sheet's center of mass $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z})$ straight down to the xy-plane.

13. Archimedes' principle If an object such as a ball is placed in a liquid, it will either sink to the bottom, float, or sink a certain distance and remain suspended in the liquid. Suppose a fluid has constant weight density w and that the fluid's surface coincides with the plane $z = 4$. A spherical ball remains suspended in the fluid and occupies the region $x^2 + y^2 + (z - 2)^2 \le 1$.

a. Show that the surface integral giving the magnitude of the total force on the ball due to the fluid's pressure is

$$\text{Force} = \lim_{n\to\infty}\sum_{k=1}^{n} w(4 - z_k)\, \Delta\sigma_k = \iint_S w(4 - z)\, d\sigma.$$

b. Since the ball is not moving, it is being held up by the buoyant force of the liquid. Show that the magnitude of the buoyant force on the sphere is

$$\text{Buoyant force} = \iint_S w(z - 4)\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{n}\, d\sigma,$$

where $\mathbf{n}$ is the outer unit normal at (x, y, z). This illustrates Archimedes' principle that the magnitude of the buoyant force on a submerged solid equals the weight of the displaced fluid.

c. Use the Divergence Theorem to find the magnitude of the buoyant force in part (b).

14. Fluid force on a curved surface A cone in the shape of the surface $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, 0 \le z \le 2$ is filled with a liquid of constant weight density w. Assuming the xy-plane is "ground level," show that the total force on the portion of the cone from $z = 1$ to $z = 2$ due to liquid pressure is the surface integral

$$F = \iint_S w(2 - z)\, d\sigma.$$

Evaluate the integral.

15. Faraday's Law If $\mathbf{E}(t, x, y, z)$ and $\mathbf{B}(t, x, y, z)$ represent the electric and magnetic fields at point (x, y, z) at time t, a basic principle of electromagnetic theory says that $\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\partial\mathbf{B}/\partial t$. In this expression $\nabla \times \mathbf{E}$ is computed with t held fixed and $\partial\mathbf{B}/\partial t$ is calculated with (x, y, z) fixed. Use Stokes' Theorem to derive Faraday's Law

$$\oint_C \mathbf{E}\cdot d\mathbf{r} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\iint_S \mathbf{B}\cdot\mathbf{n}\, d\sigma,$$

where C represents a wire loop through which current flows counterclockwise with respect to the surface's unit normal $\mathbf{n}$, giving rise to the voltage

$$\oint_C \mathbf{E}\cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

around C. The surface integral on the right side of the equation is called the *magnetic flux*, and S is any oriented surface with boundary C.

16. Let

$$\mathbf{F} = -\frac{GmM}{|\mathbf{r}|^3}\mathbf{r}$$

be the gravitational force field defined for $\mathbf{r} \neq \mathbf{0}$. Use Gauss's Law in Section 16.8 to show that there is no continuously differentiable vector field $\mathbf{H}$ satisfying $\mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{H}$.

17. If $f(x, y, z)$ and $g(x, y, z)$ are continuously differentiable scalar functions defined over the oriented surface S with boundary curve C, prove that

$$\iint_S (\nabla f \times \nabla g) \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma = \oint_C f\, \nabla g \cdot d\mathbf{r}.$$

18. Suppose that $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}_1 = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}_2$ and $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}_1 = \nabla \times \mathbf{F}_2$ over a region D enclosed by the oriented surface S with outward unit normal $\mathbf{n}$ and that $\mathbf{F}_1 \cdot \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{F}_2 \cdot \mathbf{n}$ on S. Prove that $\mathbf{F}_1 = \mathbf{F}_2$ throughout D.

19. Prove or disprove that if $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = 0$ and $\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$, then $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$.

20. Let S be an oriented surface parametrized by $\mathbf{r}(u, v)$. Define the notation $d\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \mathbf{r}_u\, du \times \mathbf{r}_v\, dv$ so that $d\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ is a vector normal to the surface. Also, the magnitude $d\sigma = |d\boldsymbol{\sigma}|$ is the element of surface area (by Equation 5 in Section 16.6). Derive the identity

$$d\sigma = (EG - F^2)^{1/2}\, du\, dv$$

where

$$E = |\mathbf{r}_u|^2, \quad F = \mathbf{r}_u \cdot \mathbf{r}_v, \quad \text{and} \quad G = |\mathbf{r}_v|^2.$$

21. Show that the volume V of a region D in space enclosed by the oriented surface S with outward normal $\mathbf{n}$ satisfies the identity

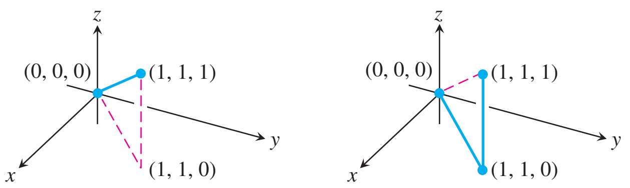
$$V = \frac{1}{3}\iint_S \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, d\sigma,$$

where $\mathbf{r}$ is the position vector of the point (x, y, z) in D.

Chapter 16 Practice Exercises

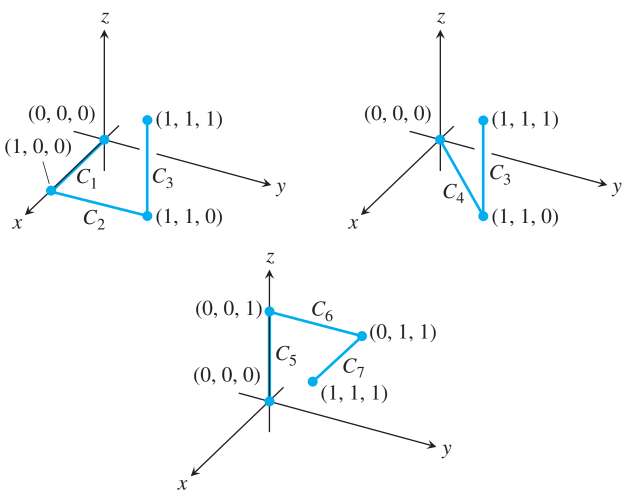
Evaluating Line Integrals

1. The accompanying figure shows two polygonal paths in space joining the origin to the point (1, 1, 1). Integrate $f(x, y, z) = 2x - 3y^2 - 2z + 3$ over each path.



Path 1 Path 2

2. The accompanying figure shows three polygonal paths joining the origin to the point (1, 1, 1). Integrate $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y - z$ over each path.



3. Integrate $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{x^2 + z^2}$ over the circle

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (a \cos t)\mathbf{j} + (a \sin t)\mathbf{k}, \qquad 0 \le t \le 2\pi.$$

4. Integrate $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ over the involute curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t + t \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t - t \cos t)\mathbf{j}, \qquad 0 \le t \le \sqrt{3}.$$

Evaluate the integrals in Exercises 5 and 6.

5. $\displaystyle\int_{(-1,1,1)}^{(4,-3,0)} \frac{dx + dy + dz}{\sqrt{x + y + z}}$

6. $\displaystyle\int_{(1,1,1)}^{(10,3,3)} dx - \sqrt{\frac{z}{y}}\,dy - \sqrt{\frac{y}{z}}\,dz$

7. Integrate $\mathbf{F} = -(y \sin z)\mathbf{i} + (x \sin z)\mathbf{j} + (xy \cos z)\mathbf{k}$ around the circle cut from the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 5$ by the plane $z = -1$, clockwise as viewed from above.

8. Integrate $\mathbf{F} = 3x^2y\mathbf{i} + (x^3 + 1)\mathbf{j} + 9z^2\mathbf{k}$ around the circle cut from the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9$ by the plane $x = 2$.

Evaluate the integrals in Exercises 9 and 10.

9. $\displaystyle\int_C 8x \sin y\, dx - 8y \cos x\, dy$

   C is the square cut from the first quadrant by the lines $x = \pi/2$ and $y = \pi/2$.

10. $\displaystyle\int_C y^2\, dx + x^2\, dy$

    C is the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 4$.

Evaluating Surface Integrals

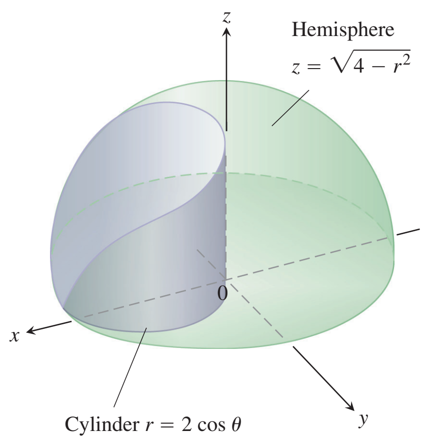
11. **Area of an elliptical region** Find the area of the elliptical region cut from the plane $x + y + z = 1$ by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

12. **Area of a parabolic cap** Find the area of the cap cut from the paraboloid $y^2 + z^2 = 3x$ by the plane $x = 1$.

13. **Area of a spherical cap** Find the area of the cap cut from the top of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ by the plane $z = \sqrt{2}/2$.

14. a. Hemisphere cut by cylinder Find the area of the surface cut from the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4, z \geq 0$, by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 2x$.

b. Find the area of the portion of the cylinder that lies inside the hemisphere. (*Hint:* Project onto the xz-plane. Or evaluate the integral $\int h\, ds$, where h is the altitude of the cylinder and ds is the element of arc length on the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 2x$ in the xy-plane.)



15. Area of a triangle Find the area of the triangle in which the plane $(x/a) + (y/b) + (z/c) = 1$ $(a, b, c > 0)$ intersects the first octant. Check your answer with an appropriate vector calculation.

16. Parabolic cylinder cut by planes Integrate

a. $g(x, y, z) = \dfrac{yz}{\sqrt{4y^2 + 1}}$ **b.** $g(x, y, z) = \dfrac{z}{\sqrt{4y^2 + 1}}$

over the surface cut from the parabolic cylinder $y^2 - z = 1$ by the planes $x = 0, x = 3$, and $z = 0$.

17. Circular cylinder cut by planes Integrate $g(x, y, z) = x^4 y(y^2 + z^2)$ over the portion of the cylinder $y^2 + z^2 = 25$ that lies in the first octant between the planes $x = 0$ and $x = 1$ and above the plane $z = 3$.

18. Area of Wyoming The state of Wyoming is bounded by the meridians 111°3′ and 104°3′ west longitude and by the circles 41° and 45° north latitude. Assuming that Earth is a sphere of radius $R = 3959$ mi, find the area of Wyoming.

Parametrized Surfaces

Find the parametrizations for the surfaces in Exercises 19–24. (There are many ways to do these, so your answers may not be the same as those in the back of the book.)

19. Spherical band The portion of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 36$ between the planes $z = -3$ and $z = 3\sqrt{3}$

20. Parabolic cap The portion of the paraboloid $z = -(x^2 + y^2)/2$ above the plane $z = -2$

21. Cone The cone $z = 1 + \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, z \leq 3$

22. Plane above square The portion of the plane $4x + 2y + 4z = 12$ that lies above the square $0 \leq x \leq 2, 0 \leq y \leq 2$ in the first quadrant

23. Portion of paraboloid The portion of the paraboloid $y = 2(x^2 + z^2)$, $y \leq 2$, that lies above the xy-plane

24. Portion of hemisphere The portion of the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 10, y \geq 0$, in the first octant

25. Surface area Find the area of the surface

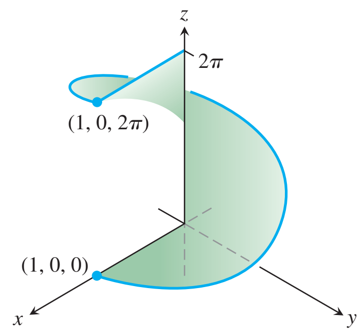
$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = (u + v)\mathbf{i} + (u - v)\mathbf{j} + v\mathbf{k},$$
$$0 \leq u \leq 1, \quad 0 \leq v \leq 1.$$

26. Surface integral Integrate $f(x, y, z) = xy - z^2$ over the surface in Exercise 25.

27. Area of a helicoid Find the surface area of the helicoid

$$\mathbf{r}(r, \theta) = (r \cos \theta)\mathbf{i} + (r \sin \theta)\mathbf{j} + \theta\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi, \quad 0 \leq r \leq 1,$$

in the accompanying figure.



28. Surface integral Evaluate the integral $\iint_S \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + 1}\, d\sigma$, where S is the helicoid in Exercise 27.

Conservative Fields

Which of the fields in Exercises 29–32 are conservative, and which are not?

29. $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$

30. $\mathbf{F} = (x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k})/(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}$

31. $\mathbf{F} = xe^y\mathbf{i} + ye^z\mathbf{j} + ze^x\mathbf{k}$

32. $\mathbf{F} = (\mathbf{i} + z\mathbf{j} + y\mathbf{k})/(x + yz)$

Find potential functions for the fields in Exercises 33 and 34.

33. $\mathbf{F} = 2\mathbf{i} + (2y + z)\mathbf{j} + (y + 1)\mathbf{k}$

34. $\mathbf{F} = (z \cos xz)\mathbf{i} + e^y\mathbf{j} + (x \cos xz)\mathbf{k}$

Work and Circulation

In Exercises 35 and 36, find the work done by each field along the paths from (0, 0, 0) to (1, 1, 1) in Exercise 1.

35. $\mathbf{F} = 2xy\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + x^2\mathbf{k}$ **36.** $\mathbf{F} = 2xy\mathbf{i} + x^2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$

37. Finding work in two ways Find the work done by

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}}{(x^2 + y^2)^{3/2}}$$

over the plane curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = (e^t \cos t)\mathbf{i} + (e^t \sin t)\mathbf{j}$ from the point $(1, 0)$ to the point $(e^{2\pi}, 0)$ in two ways:

a. By using the parametrization of the curve to evaluate the work integral

b. By evaluating a potential function for $\mathbf{F}$.

38. Flow along different paths Find the flow of the field $\mathbf{F} = \nabla(x^2ze^y)$

a. Once around the ellipse C in which the plane $x + y + z = 1$ intersects the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 25$, clockwise as viewed from the positive y-axis

b. Along the curved boundary of the helicoid in Exercise 27 from $(1, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 0, 2\pi)$.

In Exercises 39 and 40, use the surface integral in Stokes' Theorem to find the circulation of the field $\mathbf{F}$ around the curve C in the indicated direction.

39. Circulation around an ellipse $\mathbf{F} = y^2\mathbf{i} - y\mathbf{j} + 3z^2\mathbf{k}$

C: The ellipse in which the plane $2x + 6y - 3z = 6$ meets the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, counterclockwise as viewed from above

40. Circulation around a circle $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y)\mathbf{i} + (x + y)\mathbf{j} + (4y^2 - z)\mathbf{k}$

C: The circle in which the plane $z = -y$ meets the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$, counterclockwise as viewed from above

Mass and Moments

41. Wire with different densities Find the mass of a thin wire lying along the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sqrt{2}t\mathbf{i} + \sqrt{2}t\mathbf{j} + (4 - t^2)\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 1$, if the density at t is **(a)** $\delta = 3t$ and **(b)** $\delta = 1$.

42. Wire with variable density Find the center of mass of a thin wire lying along the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + 2t\mathbf{j} + (2/3)t^{3/2}\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 2$, if the density at t is $\delta = 3\sqrt{5 + t}$.

43. Wire with variable density Find the center of mass and the moments of inertia and radii of gyration about the coordinate axes of a thin wire lying along the curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3}t^{3/2}\mathbf{j} + \frac{t^2}{2}\mathbf{k}, \qquad 0 \le t \le 2,$$

if the density at t is $\delta = 1/(t + 1)$.

44. Center of mass of an arch A slender metal arch lies along the semicircle $y = \sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$ in the xy-plane. The density at the point (x, y) on the arch is $\delta(x, y) = 2a - y$. Find the center of mass.

45. Wire with constant density A wire of constant density $\delta = 1$ lies along the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = (e^t \cos t)\mathbf{i} + (e^t \sin t)\mathbf{j} + e^t\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le \ln 2$. Find $\bar{z}$, I_z, and R_z.

46. Helical wire with constant density Find the mass and center of mass of a wire of constant density δ that lies along the helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2 \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (2 \cos t)\mathbf{j} + 3t\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$.

47. Inertia, radius of gyration, center of mass of a shell Find I_z, R_z, and the center of mass of a thin shell of density $\delta(x, y, z) = z$ cut from the upper portion of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 25$ by the plane $z = 3$.

48. Moment of inertia of a cube Find the moment of inertia about the z-axis of the surface of the cube cut from the first octant by the planes $x = 1$, $y = 1$, and $z = 1$ if the density is $\delta = 1$.

Flux Across a Plane Curve or Surface

Use Green's Theorem to find the counterclockwise circulation and outward flux for the fields and curves in Exercises 49 and 50.

49. Square $\mathbf{F} = (2xy + x)\mathbf{i} + (xy - y)\mathbf{j}$

C: The square bounded by $x = 0$, $x = 1$, $y = 0$, $y = 1$

50. Triangle $\mathbf{F} = (y - 6x^2)\mathbf{i} + (x + y^2)\mathbf{j}$

C: The triangle made by the lines $y = 0$, $y = x$, and $x = 1$

51. Zero line integral Show that

$$\oint_C \ln x \sin y\, dy - \frac{\cos y}{x}\, dx = 0$$

for any closed curve C to which Green's Theorem applies.

52. a. Outward flux and area Show that the outward flux of the position vector field $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$ across any closed curve to which Green's Theorem applies is twice the area of the region enclosed by the curve.

b. Let $\mathbf{n}$ be the outward unit normal vector to a closed curve to which Green's Theorem applies. Show that it is not possible for $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$ to be orthogonal to $\mathbf{n}$ at every point of C.

In Exercises 53–56, find the outward flux of $\mathbf{F}$ across the boundary of D.

53. Cube $\mathbf{F} = 2xy\mathbf{i} + 2yz\mathbf{j} + 2xz\mathbf{k}$

D: The cube cut from the first octant by the planes $x = 1$, $y = 1$, $z = 1$

54. Spherical cap $\mathbf{F} = xz\mathbf{i} + yz\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$

D: The entire surface of the upper cap cut from the solid sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \le 25$ by the plane $z = 3$

55. Spherical cap $\mathbf{F} = -2x\mathbf{i} - 3y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$

D: The upper region cut from the solid sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \le 2$ by the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$

56. Cone and cylinder $\mathbf{F} = (6x + y)\mathbf{i} - (x + z)\mathbf{j} + 4yz\mathbf{k}$

D: The region in the first octant bounded by the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, and the coordinate planes

57. Hemisphere, cylinder, and plane Let S be the surface that is bounded on the left by the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2, y \leq 0$, in the middle by the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = a^2, 0 \leq y \leq a$, and on the right by the plane $y = a$. Find the flux of $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i} + z\mathbf{j} + x\mathbf{k}$ outward across S.

58. Cylinder and planes Find the outward flux of the field $\mathbf{F} = 3xz^2\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} - z^3\mathbf{k}$ across the surface of the solid in the first octant that is bounded by the cylinder $x^2 + 4y^2 = 16$ and the planes $y = 2z, x = 0$, and $z = 0$.

59. Cylindrical can Use the Divergence Theorem to find the flux of $\mathbf{F} = xy^2\mathbf{i} + x^2y\mathbf{j} + y\mathbf{k}$ outward through the surface of the region enclosed by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and the planes $z = 1$ and $z = -1$.

60. Hemisphere Find the flux of $\mathbf{F} = (3z + 1)\mathbf{k}$ upward across the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2, z \geq 0$ **(a)** with the Divergence Theorem and **(b)** by evaluating the flux integral directly.

Chapter 16 Questions to Guide Your Review

1. What are line integrals? How are they evaluated? Give examples.
2. How can you use line integrals to find the centers of mass of springs? Explain.
3. What is a vector field? A gradient field? Give examples.
4. How do you calculate the work done by a force in moving a particle along a curve? Give an example.
5. What are flow, circulation, and flux?
6. What is special about path independent fields?
7. How can you tell when a field is conservative?
8. What is a potential function? Show by example how to find a potential function for a conservative field.
9. What is a differential form? What does it mean for such a form to be exact? How do you test for exactness? Give examples.
10. What is the divergence of a vector field? How can you interpret it?
11. What is the curl of a vector field? How can you interpret it?
12. What is Green's theorem? How can you interpret it?
13. How do you calculate the area of a curved surface in space? Give an example.

14. What is an oriented surface? How do you calculate the flux of a three-dimensional vector field across an oriented surface? Give an example.

15. What are surface integrals? What can you calculate with them? Give an example.

16. What is a parametrized surface? How do you find the area of such a surface? Give examples.

17. How do you integrate a function over a parametrized surface? Give an example.

18. What is Stokes' Theorem? How can you interpret it?

19. Summarize the chapter's results on conservative fields.

20. What is the Divergence Theorem? How can you interpret it?

21. How does the Divergence Theorem generalize Green's Theorem?

22. How does Stokes' Theorem generalize Green's Theorem?

23. How can Green's Theorem, Stokes' Theorem, and the Divergence Theorem be thought of as forms of a single fundamental theorem?

Chapter 16 Technology Application Projects

Mathematica/Maple Module

Work in Conservative and Nonconservative Force Fields

Explore integration over vector fields and experiment with conservative and nonconservative force functions along different paths in the field.

Mathematica/Maple Module

How Can You Visualize Green's Theorem?

Explore integration over vector fields and use parametrizations to compute line integrals. Both forms of Green's Theorem are explored.

Mathematica/Maple Module

Visualizing and Interpreting the Divergence Theorem

Verify the Divergence Theorem by formulating and evaluating certain divergence and surface integrals.