Choose a point  $(x_k, y_k, z_k)$  on each surface element  $\Delta S_k$  and draw the unit normal  $x_k = 1$  at this point. Let  $y_k$  be the acute angle between this unit normal and the positive z - axis.

If this surface element is sufficiently small, it can be regarded as a plane as shown in figure (5.15)(k). n = 1 We know from geometry, that if two planes intersect at an acute angle, an area in one plane we equal projected into the other by multiplying the cosine of the included angle as shown in figure (5.16). Since the angle between two planes is the angle between their normals,

therefore  $\Delta S_k \cos \gamma_k \approx \Delta A_k$ 

or 
$$\Delta S_k \approx \sec \gamma_k \Delta A_k = \frac{\Delta x_k \Delta y_k}{|\hat{n}_k.\hat{k}|}$$

Thus the sum (1) in the definition of the normal surface integral

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \overline{A}_{k} \cdot \hat{n}_{k} \Delta S_{k} \approx \sum_{k=1}^{n} \overline{A}_{k} \cdot \hat{n}_{k} \frac{\Delta x_{k} \Delta y_{k}}{|\hat{n}_{k} \cdot \hat{k}|}$$

and the limit of this sum can be written as

$$\iint_{S} \vec{A} \cdot \hat{n} dS = \iint_{R} \vec{A} \cdot \hat{n} \frac{dx dy}{|\hat{n} \cdot \hat{k}|}$$

NOTE: Similarly, we can prove that if R is the projection of the surface S on the yz-plane, the

rigue

E (12)

$$\iint_{S} \overline{A} \cdot \hat{n} dS = \iint_{R} \overline{A} \cdot \hat{n} \frac{dy dz}{|\hat{n} \cdot \hat{i}|}$$

and if R is the projection of S on the zx-plane, then  $\iint_{A} \frac{1}{n} dS = \iint_{A} \frac{1}{n} \frac{dz}{|\hat{n}|} dS$ 

EXAMPLE (11): Evaluate 
$$\iint \vec{A} \cdot \hat{n} dS$$
 where  $\vec{A} = 18z\hat{i} - 12\hat{j} + 3y\hat{k}$  and  $\vec{S}$  the plane  $2x + 3y + 6z = 12$  which is located in the first octant

SOLUTION: The surface S and its projection R on the xy-plane are shown in figure of (2 x

We know that 
$$\iint_{S} \vec{A} \cdot \hat{n} dS = \iint_{R} \vec{A} \cdot \hat{n} \frac{dx dy}{|\hat{n} \cdot \hat{k}|}$$

Also we know that a normal vector to the surface 2x + 3y + 6z = 12 is given by

and 
$$\iint_{S} \overrightarrow{A} \cdot \widehat{n} \, dS = \iint_{R} \overrightarrow{A} \cdot \widehat{n} \frac{dy \, dz}{\left|\widehat{n} \cdot \widehat{i}\right|} = \int_{y=0}^{6} \int_{z=0}^{4} \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} (y+x) \cdot \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2} \, dz \, dy$$

$$= \int_{0}^{6} \int_{0}^{4} \left[ y + \left( \frac{6-y}{2} \right) \right] dz \, dy = \int_{0}^{6} \int_{0}^{4} \left( 3 + \frac{y}{2} \right) dz \, dy$$

$$= \int_{0}^{6} \left( 3 + \frac{y}{2} \right) |z|_{0}^{4} \, dy = 4 \int_{0}^{6} \left( 3 + \frac{y}{2} \right) dy = 4 \left| 3y + \frac{y^{2}}{4} \right|_{0}^{6}$$

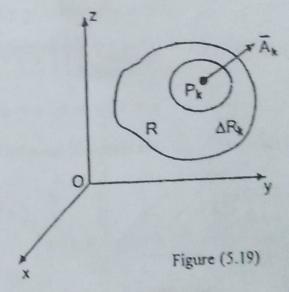
$$= 4 \left( 18 + 9 \right) = 108$$

#### VOLUME INTEGRAL 5.8

Let A (x, y, z) be a vector point function which is defined and continuous in a closed region R. Subdivide the region R into n subregions  $\Delta R_k$  of volume  $\Delta V_k$ , k = 1, 2, ..., n. Let  $P_k (x_k, y_k, z_k)$  be any point on each subregion  $\Delta R_k$  as shown in figure (5.19).

Define  $\overline{A}(x_k, y_k, z_k) = \overline{A}_k$ . We multiply the value of A at the selected point (i.e. Ak) with the volume of the corresponding subregion and form the sum

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \vec{A}_{k} \Delta V_{k} \tag{1}$$



Now take the limit of sum (1) as  $n \to \infty$  in such a way that each  $\Delta V_k \to 0$ . This limit, if it exists, is

called the volume integral of  $\overline{A}(x,y,z)$  over R and is denoted by

i.e. 
$$\iiint_{R} \overline{A}(x,y,z) dV = Lt \sum_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{k} \Delta V_{k}$$
 (2)

If  $\vec{A} = A_1 \hat{i} + A_2 \hat{j} + A_3 \hat{k}$ , then the volume integral (2) can be written as

$$\iiint_{R} \overline{A} dV = \widehat{i} \iiint_{R} A_{1} dV + \widehat{i} \iiint_{R} A_{2} dV + \widehat{k} \iiint_{R} A_{3} dV$$
(3)

If we have a scalar point function  $\phi(x,y,z)$  defined and continuous over the region R, then the

integral becomes 
$$\iiint \phi \, dV$$
 (3)

In rectangular coordinate system, dV = dxdydz so the volume integral (3) can be written as

$$\iiint_{R} \phi(x,y,z) dx dy dz$$

which is the ordinary triple integral of  $\phi(x,y,z)$  over the region R. If  $\phi(x,y,z) = 1$ , the

$$V$$
 of the region  $R$  is given by  $V = \iiint_R dV$ .

Evaluate \frac{1}{r} d V where R is the region bounded by the surfaces x EXAMPLE (13):  $y = 0, y = 6, z = x^{1}, z = 4.$ 

The region R bounded by the given surfaces is shown in figure (5.20). Then SOLUTION:

The region R bounded by the given surfaces is shown in figure (5.20). Then

$$\iiint_{R} \vec{r} \, dV = \iint_{X=0}^{2} \iint_{X=0}^{4} (x \hat{i} + y \hat{j} + z \hat{k}) \, dz \, dy \, dx$$

$$x = 0 \quad y = 0 \quad z = x^{2}$$

$$= \hat{i} \iint_{0}^{2} \iint_{0}^{4} x \, dz \, dy \, dx$$

$$= \hat{i} \iint_{0}^{2} \iint_{0}^{4} y \, dz \, dy \, dx$$

$$= \hat{i} \iint_{0}^{4} \int_{0}^{4} \int_{0}^{4} z \, dz \, dy \, dx$$

$$= \hat{i} \iint_{0}^{4} \int_{0}^{4} \int_{0}^{4} z \, dz \, dy \, dx$$
Figure (5.20)

$$= \hat{i} \iint_{0}^{4} \int_{0}^{4} |z|_{x^{4}}^{4} \, dy \, dx + \hat{i} \iint_{0}^{2} \int_{0}^{4} |z|_{x^{4}}^{4} \, dy \, dx + \hat{k} \iint_{0}^{2} \left| \frac{1}{2} z^{2} \right|_{x^{4}}^{4} \, dy \, dx$$

$$= \hat{i} \iint_{0}^{4} \int_{0}^{4} |z|_{x^{4}}^{4} \, dy \, dx + \hat{i} \iint_{0}^{2} \int_{0}^{4} |z|_{x^{4}}^{4} \, dy \, dx + \hat{k} \iint_{0}^{4} \left| \frac{1}{2} z^{2} \right|_{x^{4}}^{4} \, dy \, dx$$

$$= \hat{i} \iint_{0}^{4} |x|_{x^{4}}^{4} \, dy \, dx + \hat{i} \iint_{0}^{4} \int_{0}^{4} \left| \frac{1}{2} z^{2} \right|_{x^{4}}^{4} \, dy \, dx + \hat{k} \iint_{0}^{4} \left| \frac{1}{2} z^{2} \right|_{x^{4}}^{4} \, dy \, dx$$

## VECTOR AND TENSOR ANALYSIS

$$= 6\hat{i} \int_{0}^{2} (4x - x^{3}) dx + \hat{j} \int_{0}^{2} (4 - x^{2}) \left| \frac{1}{2} y^{2} \right|_{0}^{4} dx + 6\hat{k} \int_{0}^{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} x^{4} \right) \left| \frac{1}{2} x^{4} \right|_{0}^{2}$$

$$= 6\hat{i} \left| 2x^{2} - \frac{1}{4}x^{4} \right|_{0}^{2} + 18\hat{j} \left| 4x - \frac{1}{3}x^{3} \right|_{0}^{2} + 6\hat{k} \left| 8x - \frac{1}{10}x^{4} \right|_{0}^{2}$$

$$= 6\hat{i} (4) + 18\hat{j} \left( \frac{16}{3} \right) + 6\hat{k} \left( \frac{64}{5} \right)$$

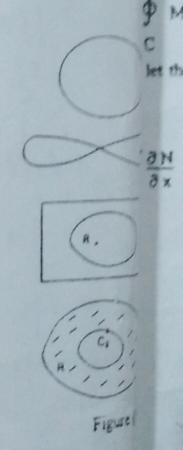
$$= 24\hat{i} + 96\hat{j} + \frac{384}{5}\hat{k}$$

## SIMPLY AND MULTIPLY CONNECTED REGIONS

A simple closed curve is a closed curve which does not intersect itself anywhere. For example, the curve in figure [5.21 (a)] is a simple closed curve while the curve in figure [5.21 (b)] is not.

A region R is said to be simply connected if any simple closed curve lying in R can be continuously shrunk to a point. For example, the interior of a rectangle as shown in figure [5.21 (c)] is an example of a simply connected region.

A region R which is not simply connected is called multiply connected) For example, the region R exterior to C1 and interior to C<sub>1</sub> is not simply connected because a circle drawn within R and enclosing C2 cannot be shrunk to a point without crossing C2 as shown in figure [5.21 (d)]. In other words, the regions which have holes are called multiply connected.



#### 5.10 GREEN'S THEOREM IN THE PLANE

We will consider vector functions of just x and y and derive a relationship to integral around a closed curve and a double integral over the part of the plane enclosed by the

If R is a simply-connected region of the xy-plane bounded by a close THOREM (5.6): and if M and N are continuous functions of x and y havial derivatives in R, then

$$\oint_{C} M dx + N dy = \iint_{R} \left( \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \right) dx dy$$

where C is described in the positive (counterclockwise) direction

We prove the theorem for a closed curve C which has the property und PROOF: line parallel to the coordinate axes cuts C in at most two points as shown in figure (5.22). Let the equations of the curves AEB and AFB be  $y = f_1(x)$  and  $y = f_2(x)$  respectively

### LINE, SURFACE, AND VOLUME INTEGRALS AND RELATED INTEGRA

$$\oint_{C} M dx = -\iint_{R} \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} dx dy$$
 (1)

milarly let the equations of the curves EAF and EBF be  $x = g_1(y)$  and  $x = g_2(y)$  respectively.

$$\iint_{R} \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} dx dy = \int_{y=e}^{f} \left[ \int_{x=g_{1}(y)}^{g_{2}(y)} \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} dx \right] dy = \int_{e}^{f} |N(x,y)|_{g_{1}(y)}^{g_{2}(y)} dy$$

$$= \int_{e}^{f} [N(g_{2},y) - N(g_{1},y)] dy$$

$$= \int_{e}^{f} N(g_{1},y) dy + \int_{e}^{f} N(g_{2},y) dy$$

$$= \int_{e}^{f} N dy$$

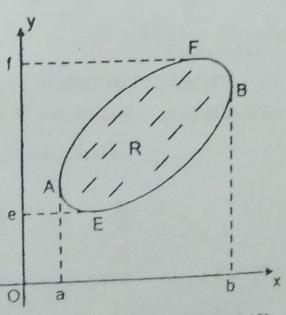


Figure (5.22)

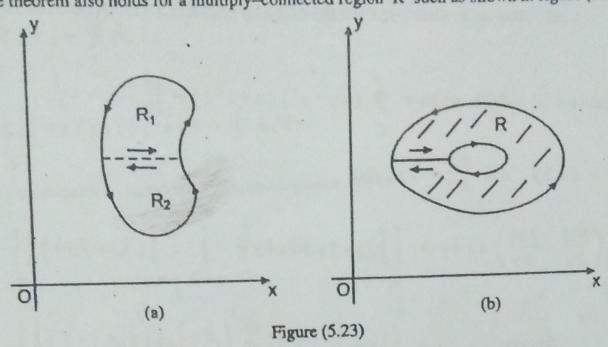
ding equations (1) and (2), we get

$$\oint_{C} M dx + N dy = \iint_{R} \left( \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \right) dx dy$$

OTE: (i) The proof can be extended to the curves C for which lines parallel to the coordinate axes may C in more than two points as shown in figure (5.23) (a)

(2)

(ii) The theorem also holds for a multiply-connected region R such as shown in figure (5.23) (b).



EXAMPLE (14): Verify Green's theorem in the plane for  $M = xy + y^2$  and  $N = x^2$  where C is the closed curve of the region bounded by y = x and  $y = x^2$ .

SOLUTION: The plane curves y = x and  $y = x^2$  intersect at (0,0) and (1,1). Let  $C_1$  be the curve  $y = x^2$  and  $C_2$  the curve y = x and let the closed curve C be formed from  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ . The positive direction in traversing C is shown in figure (5.24).

Then we must show that

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

Now  $\oint M dx + N dy = \oint (xy + y^2) dx + x^2 dy \tag{1}$ 

$$C_2$$
 $y = x$ 
 $C_1$ 
 $C_1$ 
 $C_1$ 
 $C_1$ 
Figure (5.24)

Along the curve  $C_1$ :  $y = x^2$ , dy = 2x dx, while x varies from 0 to 1. The line integral (1) equals

$$\int_{C_1} M dx + N dy = \int_{0}^{1} (x^3 + x^4) dx + 2x^3 dx$$

$$= \int_{0}^{1} (3x^3 + x^4) dx = \left| \frac{3}{4}x^4 + \frac{x^5}{5} \right|_{0}^{1} = \frac{3}{4} + \frac{1}{5} = \frac{19}{20} \quad (2)$$

Along the curve  $C_2$ : y = x, dy = dx, while x varies from 1 to 0. The line integral (1) equals

$$\int M dx + N dy = \int 2x^{2} dx + x^{2} dx = \int 3x^{2} dx = |x^{3}|_{1}^{0} = -1$$
(3)

Then from equations (2) and (3), we have 
$$\oint_{C} (xy+y^2) dx + x^2 dy = \frac{19}{20} - 1 = -\frac{1}{20}$$
Since 
$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = x + 2y, \text{ and } \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = 2x, \text{ then}$$

$$\iint_{R} \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}\right) dx dy = \iint_{R} (x-2y) dx dy = \int_{x=0}^{1} \int_{y=x^2} (x-2y) dy$$

$$= \iint_{Q} |xy-y^2|_{x^2}^{x^2} dx = \int_{Q}^{1} (x^4-x^3) dx$$

so that the theorem is verified.

# 5.11 GREEN'S THEOREM IN THE PLANE IN VECTOR NOTATION FIRST VECTOR FORM (OR TANGENTIAL FORM) OF GREEN'S THEORE

We have 
$$\oint_C M dx + N dy = \iint_R \left( \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \right) dx dy$$
 (1)

 $= \left| \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^4}{4} \right|_0^1 = \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{4} = -\frac{1}{20}$ 

Now 
$$M dx + N dy = (M \hat{i} + N \hat{j}) \cdot (dx \hat{i} + dy \hat{j}) = \overline{A} \cdot d \overrightarrow{r}$$

where 
$$\vec{A} = M\hat{i} + N\hat{j}$$
 and  $d\vec{r} = dx\hat{i} + dy\hat{j}$ . Also, if  $\vec{A} = M\hat{i} + N\hat{j}$  then

$$\nabla \times \overrightarrow{A} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ M & N & 0 \end{vmatrix} = -\frac{\partial N}{\partial z} \hat{i} + \frac{\partial M}{\partial z} \hat{j} + \left( \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \right) \hat{k}$$

so that 
$$(\nabla \times \overrightarrow{A}) \cdot \hat{k} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}$$

Then from equation (1) Green's theorem in the plane can be written

$$\oint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{r} = \iint (\nabla \times \vec{A}) \cdot \hat{k} dR \quad \text{where} \quad dR = dx dy$$
C

A generalization of this to surface S in space having C as boundary leads quite naturally theorem. This form of Green's theorem is sometimes called Stokes' theorem in the plane. Thus

# SECOND VECTOR FORM (OR NORMAL FORM) OF GREEN'S THEOREM IST.

As above, 
$$Mdx + Ndy = \overline{A} \cdot d\overline{r} = \overline{A} \cdot \hat{T} ds$$

where 
$$\frac{d\vec{r}}{ds} = \hat{T}$$
 = Unit tangent vector to C [see the figure (5.25)]

If 
$$\hat{n}$$
 is the outward drawn unit normal to C, then  $\hat{T} = \hat{k} \times \hat{n}$  so that

$$Mdx+Ndy = \overline{A} \cdot \hat{T}ds = \overline{A} \cdot (\hat{k} \times \hat{n}) ds = (\overline{A} \times \hat{k}) \cdot \hat{n} ds$$

Since 
$$\overline{A} = M\hat{i} + N\hat{j}$$
, therefore

$$\overline{B} = \overline{A} \times \hat{k} = (M\hat{i} + N\hat{j}) \times \hat{k} = N\hat{i} - M\hat{j}$$

and 
$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}$$

then equation (1) becomes 
$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot \hat{n} ds = \iint \nabla \cdot \vec{B} dR$$

where dR = dxdy

# O Figure in equa

#### 5.12 STOKES' THEOREM

THEOREM (5.7): It states that if S is an open, two-sided surface bounded by a sill curve C, then if A has continuous first partial derivatives

$$\oint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{r} = \iint (\nabla \times \vec{A}) \cdot \hat{n} dS \Rightarrow ($$

In words the line integral of the tangential component of a vector function A taken around to curve C is equal to the surface integral of the normal component of the curl of A taken around the surface S having C as its boundary.

PROOF: Let 
$$\vec{A} = A_1 \hat{i} + A_2 \hat{j} + A_3 \hat{k}$$
, then Stokes' theorem can be written at

$$\iint_{S} [\nabla x (A_1 \hat{i} + A_2 \hat{j} + A_3 \hat{k})] . \hat{n} dS = \oint_{C} A_1 dx + A_2 dy + A_3 dz$$

We prove this theorem for a surface S which has the property that its projections on the x) planes are regions bounded by simple closed curves as shown in figure (\$ 20) and representation z = f(x, y) or x = g(y, z) or y = h(z, x), where f(x, y) are

#### VECTOR AND TENSOR ANALYSIS

for both curves, we must have

$$\oint F dx = \oint A_1 dx$$

$$\Gamma \qquad C$$

or 
$$\iint [\nabla x (A_1 \hat{i})] . \hat{n} dS = \oint A_1 dx$$

$$C$$
(4)

Similarly, by projections on the other coordinate planes, we have

$$\iint [\nabla x (A_2 \hat{j})] . \hat{n} dS = \oint A_2 dy$$
S
C
(5)

$$\iint_{S} [\nabla x (A_3 \hat{k})] . \hat{n} dS = \oint_{C} A_3 dz$$
(6)

Addition of equations (4), (5), and (6) completes the proof of the theorem.

# RECTANGULAR FORM OF STOKES' THEOREM

Let  $\vec{A} = A_1 \hat{i} + A_2 \hat{j} + A_3 \hat{k}$  and  $\hat{n} = n_1 \hat{i} + n_2 \hat{j} + n_3 \hat{k}$  be the outward drawn unit to the surface S. If  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  are the angles which the unit normal  $\hat{n}$  makes with the directions of x, y, and z axes respectively, then

$$n_1 = \hat{n} \cdot \hat{i} = \cos \alpha$$

$$n_2 = \hat{n} \cdot \hat{j} = \cos \beta$$
and
$$n_3 = \hat{n} \cdot \hat{k} = \cos \gamma$$

The quantities  $\cos \alpha$ ,  $\cos \beta$ , and  $\cos \gamma$  are the directions cosines of  $\hat{n}$ . Then

$$\hat{n} = \cos \alpha \hat{i} + \cos \beta \hat{j} + \cos \gamma \hat{k}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial a} & \frac{\partial}{\partial a} & \frac{\partial}{\partial a} \end{vmatrix}$$

Thus 
$$\nabla \times \vec{A} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ A_1 & A_2 & A_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\partial A_1}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial z}\right)\hat{i} + \left(\frac{\partial A_1}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial x}\right)\hat{j} + \left(\frac{\partial A_2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial y}\right)\hat{k}$$

and 
$$(\nabla \times \vec{A}) \cdot \hat{n} = (\frac{\partial A_1}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial z}) \cos \alpha + (\frac{\partial A_1}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial x}) \cos \beta + (\frac{\partial A_2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial y}) \cos \alpha$$

and 
$$(\nabla x A) \cdot \hat{n} = (\partial y \partial z)$$
  
Also  $\vec{A} \cdot d\vec{r} = (A_1 \hat{i} + A_2 \hat{j} + A_3 \hat{k}) \cdot (dx \hat{i} + dy \hat{j} + dz \hat{k}) = A_1 dx + A_2 dy + A_3 dy$ 

and Stokes' theorem becomes

$$\oint_{A_1 dx + A_2 dy + A_3 dz}$$

$$= \iiint_{S} \left[ \left( \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial z} \right) \cos \alpha + \left( \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial x} \right) \cos \beta + \left( \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial y} \right) \cos \gamma \right] dS$$

EXAMPLE (15): Verify Stokes' theorem for  $\vec{A} = (2x-y)\hat{i} - yz^2\hat{j} - y^2z\hat{k}$ , where S is upper half surface of the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$  and C is its boundary.

SOLUTION: The surface S and its projection R on the xy-plane is shown in figure (5.27).

The boundary C of S is a circle in the xy-plane of radius 1 and centre at the origin.

Let  $x = \cos \theta$ ,  $y = \sin \theta$ , z = 0,  $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$  be the parametric equations of C.

Then 
$$\oint_{C} \overline{A} \cdot d\overline{r} = \oint_{C} (2x-y) dx - yz^{2} dy - y^{2}z dz$$

$$= \int_{0}^{2\pi} (2\cos\theta - \sin\theta) (-\sin\theta) d\theta$$

$$= \int_{0}^{2\pi} (-2\sin\theta\cos\theta + \sin^{2}\theta) d\theta$$

$$= \int_{0}^{2\pi} \left[ -\sin 2\theta + \left( \frac{1-\cos 2\theta}{2} \right) \right] d\theta$$

$$= \left| \frac{\cos 2\theta}{2} + \frac{\theta}{2} - \frac{\sin 2\theta}{4} \right|_{0}^{2\pi} = \frac{1}{2} + \pi - \frac{1}{2} = \pi$$
Also,  $\nabla \times \overline{A} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ 2x - y - yz^{2} - y^{2}z \end{vmatrix} = \hat{k}$ 

Then 
$$\iint_{S} (\nabla \times \overline{A}) \cdot \hat{n} dS = \iint_{S} \hat{k} \cdot \hat{n} dS = \iint_{S} dx dy \quad (\text{since } \hat{n} \cdot \hat{k} dS = dx dy)$$

 $= 4 \int \int dy dx = 4 \int \sqrt{1-x^2} dx$ 

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Let  $x = \sin \theta$ ,  $dx = \cos \theta d\theta$ ,  $0 \le \theta \le \pi/2$ . Then

$$\iint (\nabla \times \overrightarrow{A}) \cdot \widehat{n} dS = 4 \int \cos^2 \theta d\theta = 4 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \int (1 + \cos 2\theta) d\theta$$

$$S = 2 \left|\theta + \frac{\sin 2\theta}{2}\right| = 2 \left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \pi$$

and Stokes' theorem is verified.

#### 5.13 GAUSS' DIVERGENCE THEOREM

Gauss' divergence theorem has wide applications in mathematics, physics and en used to derive equations governing the flow of fluids, heat conduction, wave propagation fields.

THEOREM (5.8): It states that if R is the region bounded by a closed surface S vector point function with continuous first partial derivatives, the

$$\iint_{A} \hat{A} \cdot \hat{n} \, dS = \iiint_{R} \nabla \cdot \hat{A} \, dV = \iint_{A} \nabla \cdot \hat{A} \, dV = \iint_{R} \nabla \cdot \hat{A} \,$$

In words the surface integral of the normal component of a vector function A takes surface S is equal to the integral of the divergence of A taken over the region R enclosed by

PROOF: If  $\overline{A}$  is expressed in terms of components as  $\overline{A} = A_1 \hat{i} + A_2 \hat{j}^{*A}$  divergence theorem can be written as

$$\iint_{S} (A_1 \hat{i} + A_2 \hat{j} + A_3 \hat{k}) \cdot \hat{n} dS = \iiint_{R} \left( \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial A_3}{\partial z} \right) dV$$

To establish this, we prove that the respective integrals on each side are equal

We prove this for a closed surface S, which has the property that any line parallel to the coordinate axes cuts S in atmost two points. Under this assumption, it follows that S is a double valued surface over its

# LINE, SURFACE, AND VOLUME INTEGRALS AND RELATED INTEGRAL THEORE

$$\frac{\int_{\partial z} dv = \iiint_{R} \frac{\partial A_{1}}{\partial z} dz dy dx}{\int_{R} \int_{Z} \int_{Z} \frac{\partial A_{2}}{\partial z} dz} dz dy dz$$

$$= \iiint_{R} \left[ \int_{Z=f_{1}(x,y)} \frac{\partial A_{2}}{\partial z} dz \right] dy dz$$

$$= \iiint_{A_{1}(x,y,z)} \int_{f_{1}(x,y)}^{f_{2}(x,y)} dy dx$$

$$= \iint_{P'} \{A, [x,y,f_2(x,y)] - A, [x,y,f_1(x,y)]\} dydx (1)$$

part  $S_2$ ,  $dydx = \cos \gamma_2 dS_2 = \hat{k} \cdot \hat{n}_1 dS_2$ , since the normal  $\hat{n}_2$  to  $S_2$  makes an For the lower part  $S_1$ ,  $dydx = \cos \gamma_1 dS_1 = -\hat{k} \cdot \hat{n}_1 dS_1$ , since the normal

angle y, with - k

$$A,[x,y,f_{1}(x,y)]dydx = \iint_{S_{2}} A,\hat{k}.\hat{n}_{2}dS_{2}$$

$$A_{1}[x,y,f_{1}(x,y)]dydx = -\iint_{S_{1}} A_{1}\hat{k}.\hat{n}_{1}dS_{1}$$

equation (1) becomes

$$\iint_{\partial Z} \frac{\partial \dot{A}_{1}}{\partial z} dV = \iint_{S_{1}} A_{1} \hat{k} \cdot \hat{n}_{2} dS_{2} + \iint_{S_{1}} A_{1} \hat{k} \cdot \hat{n}_{1} dS_{1}$$

= 
$$\iint A, \hat{k}.\hat{n}dS$$

(2)

by projecting S on the yz and zx coordinate planes, we obtain respectively.

#### LINE, SURFACE, AND VOLUME INTEGRALS AND RELATED INTEGRAL THEOREMS.

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial z} dV = \iiint_{R} \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial z} dz dy dx \\ = \iiint_{R'} \int_{z=f_1(x,y)} \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial z} dz dy dz \\ = \iiint_{R} |A_1(x,y)|^{f_1(x,y)} dy dx \\ = \iiint_{R'} \{A_3[x,y,f_2(x,y)] - A_3[x,y,f_1(x,y)]\} dy dx \end{cases}$$

part  $S_2$ ,  $dy dx = \cos \gamma_2 dS_2 = \hat{k} \cdot \hat{n}_2 dS_2$ , since the normal  $\hat{n}_2$  to  $S_2$  makes an acute. For the lower part  $S_1$ ,  $dy dx = \cos \gamma_1 dS_1 = -\hat{k} \cdot \hat{n}_1 dS_1$ , since the normal  $\hat{n}_1$  to angle  $\gamma_1$  with  $-\hat{k}$ .

$$A_3[x,y,f_2(x,y)]dydx = \iint_{S_2} A_3\hat{k}.\hat{n}_2dS_2$$

$$A_3[x,y,f_1(x,y)]dydx = -\iint_{S_1} A_3\hat{k}.\hat{n}_1dS_1$$

equation (1) becomes

$$\int \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial z} dV = \iint_{S_1} A_1 \hat{k} \cdot \hat{n}_1 dS_2 + \iint_{S_1} A_1 \hat{k} \cdot \hat{n}_1 dS_1$$

$$= \iint_{S_1} A_1 \hat{k} \cdot \hat{n} dS$$
(2)

projecting S on the way and a weardingte planes we obtain respectively

tion of equations (2), (3), and (4) completes the proof of the theorem.

the that Gauss' divergence theorem is a generalization of Green's theorem in the plane where the ne) region R and its boundary (curve) C are replaced by a (space) region R and its closed boundary face) S. For this reason the divergence theorem is often called Green's theorem in space.

#### RECTANGULAR FORM OF GAUSS'S DIVERGENCE THEOREM

Let 
$$\vec{A} = A_1 \hat{i} + A_2 \hat{j} + A_3 \hat{k}$$
, and  $\hat{n} = n_1 \hat{i} + n_2 \hat{j} + n_3 \hat{k}$   

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{A} = \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial z}$$

$$\vec{A} \cdot \hat{n} = (A_1 \hat{i} + A_2 \hat{j} + A_3 \hat{k}) \cdot (\cos \alpha \hat{i} + \cos \beta \hat{j} + \cos \gamma \hat{k})$$

$$= A_1 \cos \alpha + A_2 \cos \beta + A_3 \cos \gamma$$

d the Gauss' divergence theorem can be written as

OLUTION:

$$\iiint\limits_{R} \left( \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial A_3}{\partial z} \right) dx dy dz = \iint\limits_{S} \left( A_1 \cos \alpha + A_2 \cos \beta + A_3 \cos \gamma \right) dS$$

XAMPLE (16) Verify the divergence theorem for  $\vec{A} = 4 \times z \hat{i} - y^2 \hat{j} + y z \hat{k}$  where S is the surface of the cube bounded by

$$x = 0$$
,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $y = 1$ ,  $z = 0$ ,  $z = 1$ .

The given cube is shown in figure (5.29). By the divergence theorem, we have

$$\iint_{S} \overrightarrow{A} \cdot \widehat{\mathbf{n}} \, dS = \iiint_{R} \nabla \cdot \overrightarrow{A} \, dV$$
Now
$$\iint_{R} \nabla \cdot \overrightarrow{A} \, dV = \iiint_{R} \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (4xz) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (-y^{2}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (yz) \right] dV$$

$$= \iiint_{R} (4z-y) \, dV = \iiint_{0} (4z-y) \, dz \, dy \, dx$$

$$= \iiint_{0} |2z^{2} - yz|_{0}^{1} \, dy \, dx = \iint_{0} (2-y) \, dy \, dx$$

$$= \iiint_{0} |2y - \frac{y^{2}}{2}|_{0}^{1} \, dx = \frac{3}{2} \int_{0}^{1} dx = \frac{3}{2}$$

$$\iint_{\overline{A}} \hat{A} dS = \iint_{\overline{A}} \hat{A} dS_1 + \iint_{\overline{A}} \hat{A} dS_2$$