

Lecture 38 - UM 102 (Spring 2021)

Vamsi Pritham Pingali

IISc

Recap

- Parametrised surfaces and examples. (

- Parametrised surfaces and examples. (Closed and non-closed ones too.)

- Parametrised surfaces and examples. (Closed and non-closed ones too.)
- Area (scalar and vector)

- Parametrised surfaces and examples. (Closed and non-closed ones too.)
- Area (scalar and vector) of regular parametrised surfaces.

- Parametrised surfaces and examples. (Closed and non-closed ones too.)
- Area (scalar and vector) of regular parametrised surfaces.
- Scalar line integral

- Parametrised surfaces and examples. (Closed and non-closed ones too.)
- Area (scalar and vector) of regular parametrised surfaces.
- Scalar line integral and scalar surface integral.

Reparametrisation invariance

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$.

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1-1 onto on the interiors.

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1-1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1-1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior.

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1 – 1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1 – 1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.
- Theorem:

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1-1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.
- Theorem: $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v J$.

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1 – 1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.
- Theorem: $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v J$.
- Proof:

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1 – 1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.
- Theorem: $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v J$.
- Proof: By the chain rule,

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1-1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.
- Theorem: $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v J$.
- Proof: By the chain rule, $\vec{R}_s = \vec{r}_u u_s + \vec{r}_v v_s$, $\vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u u_t + \vec{r}_v v_t$.

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1-1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.
- Theorem: $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v J$.
- Proof: By the chain rule, $\vec{R}_s = \vec{r}_u u_s + \vec{r}_v v_s$, $\vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u u_t + \vec{r}_v v_t$. Thus $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v (u_s v_t - v_s u_t)$, and since

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1-1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.
- Theorem: $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v J$.
- Proof: By the chain rule, $\vec{R}_s = \vec{r}_u u_s + \vec{r}_v v_s$, $\vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u u_t + \vec{r}_v v_t$. Thus $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v (u_s v_t - v_s u_t)$, and since $J = u_s v_t - v_s u_t$, we are done. □

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1-1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.
- Theorem: $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v J$.
- Proof: By the chain rule, $\vec{R}_s = \vec{r}_u u_s + \vec{r}_v v_s$, $\vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u u_t + \vec{r}_v v_t$. Thus $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v (u_s v_t - v_s u_t)$, and since $J = u_s v_t - v_s u_t$, we are done. □
- Theorem:

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1-1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.
- Theorem: $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v J$.
- Proof: By the chain rule, $\vec{R}_s = \vec{r}_u u_s + \vec{r}_v v_s$, $\vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u u_t + \vec{r}_v v_t$. Thus $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v (u_s v_t - v_s u_t)$, and since $J = u_s v_t - v_s u_t$, we are done. □
- Theorem: The surface integral is

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1-1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.
- Theorem: $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v J$.
- Proof: By the chain rule, $\vec{R}_s = \vec{r}_u u_s + \vec{r}_v v_s$, $\vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u u_t + \vec{r}_v v_t$. Thus $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v (u_s v_t - v_s u_t)$, and since $J = u_s v_t - v_s u_t$, we are done. □
- Theorem: The surface integral is reparametrisation invariant.

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1-1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.
- Theorem: $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v J$.
- Proof: By the chain rule, $\vec{R}_s = \vec{r}_u u_s + \vec{r}_v v_s$, $\vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u u_t + \vec{r}_v v_t$. Thus $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v (u_s v_t - v_s u_t)$, and since $J = u_s v_t - v_s u_t$, we are done. □
- Theorem: The surface integral is reparametrisation invariant.
- Proof:

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1-1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.
- Theorem: $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v J$.
- Proof: By the chain rule, $\vec{R}_s = \vec{r}_u u_s + \vec{r}_v v_s$, $\vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u u_t + \vec{r}_v v_t$. Thus $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v (u_s v_t - v_s u_t)$, and since $J = u_s v_t - v_s u_t$, we are done. □
- Theorem: The surface integral is reparametrisation invariant.
- Proof: $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} f dA = \int \int_{T'} f \|\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v\| dudv$. By the change of variables formula,

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1-1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.
- Theorem: $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v J$.
- Proof: By the chain rule, $\vec{R}_s = \vec{r}_u u_s + \vec{r}_v v_s$, $\vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u u_t + \vec{r}_v v_t$. Thus $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v (u_s v_t - v_s u_t)$, and since $J = u_s v_t - v_s u_t$, we are done. □
- Theorem: The surface integral is reparametrisation invariant.
- Proof: $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} f dA = \int \int_T f \|\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v\| du dv$. By the change of variables formula, this integral equals $\int \int_{T'} f \|\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v\| |J| ds dt$.

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1-1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.
- Theorem: $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v J$.
- Proof: By the chain rule, $\vec{R}_s = \vec{r}_u u_s + \vec{r}_v v_s$, $\vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u u_t + \vec{r}_v v_t$. Thus $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v (u_s v_t - v_s u_t)$, and since $J = u_s v_t - v_s u_t$, we are done. □
- Theorem: The surface integral is reparametrisation invariant.
- Proof: $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} f dA = \int \int_T f \|\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v\| du dv$. By the change of variables formula, this integral equals $\int \int_{T'} f \|\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v\| |J| ds dt$. This is precisely the surface integral

Reparametrisation invariance

- Let $\vec{r}(u, v)$ be a piecewise C^1 parametrised surface defined on $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Let $\vec{G}(s, t) = (u(s, t), v(s, t)) : T' \rightarrow T$ be a C^1 map that is 1-1 onto on the interiors. Assume that the Jacobian J of G is nowhere 0 on the interior. Then $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ is called a reparametrisation.
- Theorem: $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v J$.
- Proof: By the chain rule, $\vec{R}_s = \vec{r}_u u_s + \vec{r}_v v_s$, $\vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u u_t + \vec{r}_v v_t$. Thus $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = \vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v (u_s v_t - v_s u_t)$, and since $J = u_s v_t - v_s u_t$, we are done. □
- Theorem: The surface integral is reparametrisation invariant.
- Proof: $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} f dA = \int \int_T f \|\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v\| du dv$. By the change of variables formula, this integral equals $\int \int_{T'} f \|\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v\| |J| ds dt$. This is precisely the surface integral using the other parametrisation. □

Flux/Vector surface integral

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$.

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ ,

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector).

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves across an infinitesimal surface element $d\vec{A}$ is

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves across an infinitesimal surface element $d\vec{A}$ is $\vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}$.

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves across an infinitesimal surface element $d\vec{A}$ is $\vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}$. This quantity is the

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves across an infinitesimal surface element $d\vec{A}$ is $\vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}$. This quantity is the infinitesimal flux.

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves across an infinitesimal surface element $d\vec{A}$ is $\vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}$. This quantity is the infinitesimal flux. Likewise, if \vec{E} is the electric field,

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves across an infinitesimal surface element $d\vec{A}$ is $\vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}$. This quantity is the infinitesimal flux. Likewise, if \vec{E} is the electric field, $\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$ is also called flux (

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves across an infinitesimal surface element $d\vec{A}$ is $\vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}$. This quantity is the infinitesimal flux. Likewise, if \vec{E} is the electric field, $\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$ is also called flux (roughly measures the “number of lines of force”)

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves across an infinitesimal surface element $d\vec{A}$ is $\vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}$. This quantity is the infinitesimal flux. Likewise, if \vec{E} is the electric field, $\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$ is also called flux (roughly measures the “number of lines of force” going through the surface element).

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves across an infinitesimal surface element $d\vec{A}$ is $\vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}$. This quantity is the infinitesimal flux. Likewise, if \vec{E} is the electric field, $\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$ is also called flux (roughly measures the “number of lines of force” going through the surface element).
- Rigorously,

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves across an infinitesimal surface element $d\vec{A}$ is $\vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}$. This quantity is the infinitesimal flux. Likewise, if \vec{E} is the electric field, $\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$ is also called flux (roughly measures the “number of lines of force” going through the surface element).
- Rigorously, if $S \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ is a regular parametrised surface,

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves across an infinitesimal surface element $d\vec{A}$ is $\vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}$. This quantity is the infinitesimal flux. Likewise, if \vec{E} is the electric field, $\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$ is also called flux (roughly measures the “number of lines of force” going through the surface element).
- Rigorously, if $S \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ is a regular parametrised surface, and \vec{F} is a bounded vector field

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves across an infinitesimal surface element $d\vec{A}$ is $\vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}$. This quantity is the infinitesimal flux. Likewise, if \vec{E} is the electric field, $\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$ is also called flux (roughly measures the “number of lines of force” going through the surface element).
- Rigorously, if $S \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ is a regular parametrised surface, and \vec{F} is a bounded vector field on S , then the flux of \vec{F} through S is defined to be

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves across an infinitesimal surface element $d\vec{A}$ is $\vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}$. This quantity is the infinitesimal flux. Likewise, if \vec{E} is the electric field, $\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$ is also called flux (roughly measures the “number of lines of force” going through the surface element).
- Rigorously, if $S \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ is a regular parametrised surface, and \vec{F} is a bounded vector field on S , then the flux of \vec{F} through S is defined to be $\int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) du dv$.

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves across an infinitesimal surface element $d\vec{A}$ is $\vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}$. This quantity is the infinitesimal flux. Likewise, if \vec{E} is the electric field, $\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$ is also called flux (roughly measures the “number of lines of force” going through the surface element).
- Rigorously, if $S \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ is a regular parametrised surface, and \vec{F} is a bounded vector field on S , then the flux of \vec{F} through S is defined to be $\int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) du dv$.
- It is certainly not immediately clear

Flux/Vector surface integral

- Consider a fluid (can be charged too) moving through space with the velocity vector field $\vec{V}(x, y, z, t)$. If its density is ρ , the amount of fluid per unit area per unit time moving along \vec{V} is $\vec{J} = \rho\vec{V}$ (the flux density or the current vector). The amount per unit time that moves across an infinitesimal surface element $d\vec{A}$ is $\vec{J} \cdot d\vec{A}$. This quantity is the infinitesimal flux. Likewise, if \vec{E} is the electric field, $\vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A}$ is also called flux (roughly measures the “number of lines of force” going through the surface element).
- Rigorously, if $S \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ is a regular parametrised surface, and \vec{F} is a bounded vector field on S , then the flux of \vec{F} through S is defined to be $\int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) du dv$.
- It is certainly not immediately clear as to whether this quantity is reparametrisation invariant.

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t)$, $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t), \vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data, then $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) dudv = \int \int_{T'} \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) |J| dsdt.$

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t), \vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data, then $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) dudv = \int \int_{T'} \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) |J| dsdt$. However, $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) J$.

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t), \vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data, then $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) dudv = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) |J| dsdt$. However, $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) J$. Therefore, there is a sign discrepancy.

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t)$, $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data, then $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) dudv = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) |J| dsdt$. However, $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) J$. Therefore, there is a sign discrepancy. If $J > 0$ throughout, then $|J| = J$ and

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t)$, $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data, then $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) dudv = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) |J| dsdt$. However, $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) J$. Therefore, there is a sign discrepancy. If $J > 0$ throughout, then $|J| = J$ and the flux integral is reparametrisation invariant.

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t)$, $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data, then $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) dudv = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) |J| dsdt$. However, $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) J$. Therefore, there is a sign discrepancy. If $J > 0$ throughout, then $|J| = J$ and the flux integral is reparametrisation invariant. If $J < 0$ throughout, then the flux changes sign.

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t)$, $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data, then $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) dudv = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) |J| dsdt$. However, $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) J$. Therefore, there is a sign discrepancy. If $J > 0$ throughout, then $|J| = J$ and the flux integral is reparametrisation invariant. If $J < 0$ throughout, then the flux changes sign. The choice (outward vs inward) of normal

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t)$, $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data, then $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) dudv = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) |J| dsdt$. However, $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) J$. Therefore, there is a sign discrepancy. If $J > 0$ throughout, then $|J| = J$ and the flux integral is reparametrisation invariant. If $J < 0$ throughout, then the flux changes sign. The choice (outward vs inward) of normal is thus important (

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t)$, $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data, then $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) dudv = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) |J| dsdt$. However, $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) J$. Therefore, there is a sign discrepancy. If $J > 0$ throughout, then $|J| = J$ and the flux integral is reparametrisation invariant. If $J < 0$ throughout, then the flux changes sign. The choice (outward vs inward) of normal is thus important (akin to the vector line integral).

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t)$, $\vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data, then $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) dudv = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) |J| dsdt$. However, $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) J$. Therefore, there is a sign discrepancy. If $J > 0$ throughout, then $|J| = J$ and the flux integral is reparametrisation invariant. If $J < 0$ throughout, then the flux changes sign. The choice (outward vs inward) of normal is thus important (akin to the vector line integral).
- Let S be the unit upper hemisphere

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t), \vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data, then $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) dudv = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) |J| dsdt$. However, $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) J$. Therefore, there is a sign discrepancy. If $J > 0$ throughout, then $|J| = J$ and the flux integral is reparametrisation invariant. If $J < 0$ throughout, then the flux changes sign. The choice (outward vs inward) of normal is thus important (akin to the vector line integral).
- Let S be the unit upper hemisphere parametrised by $(\sin(u) \cos(v), \sin(u) \sin(v), \cos(u))$ where $(u, v) \in T = [0, \frac{\pi}{2}] \times [0, 2\pi]$.

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t), \vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data, then $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) dudv = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) |J| dsdt$. However, $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) J$. Therefore, there is a sign discrepancy. If $J > 0$ throughout, then $|J| = J$ and the flux integral is reparametrisation invariant. If $J < 0$ throughout, then the flux changes sign. The choice (outward vs inward) of normal is thus important (akin to the vector line integral).
- Let S be the unit upper hemisphere parametrised by $(\sin(u) \cos(v), \sin(u) \sin(v), \cos(u))$ where $(u, v) \in T = [0, \frac{\pi}{2}] \times [0, 2\pi]$. Then $\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v = \sin(u)(\sin(u) \cos(v), \sin(u) \sin(v), \cos(u))$.

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t), \vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data, then $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) dudv = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) |J| dsdt$. However, $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) J$. Therefore, there is a sign discrepancy. If $J > 0$ throughout, then $|J| = J$ and the flux integral is reparametrisation invariant. If $J < 0$ throughout, then the flux changes sign. The choice (outward vs inward) of normal is thus important (akin to the vector line integral).
- Let S be the unit upper hemisphere parametrised by $(\sin(u) \cos(v), \sin(u) \sin(v), \cos(u))$ where $(u, v) \in T = [0, \frac{\pi}{2}] \times [0, 2\pi]$. Then $\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v = \sin(u)(\sin(u) \cos(v), \sin(u) \sin(v), \cos(u))$. Let $\vec{F} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j}$. The flux of \vec{F}

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t), \vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data, then $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) dudv = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) |J| dsdt$. However, $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) J$. Therefore, there is a sign discrepancy. If $J > 0$ throughout, then $|J| = J$ and the flux integral is reparametrisation invariant. If $J < 0$ throughout, then the flux changes sign. The choice (outward vs inward) of normal is thus important (akin to the vector line integral).
- Let S be the unit upper hemisphere parametrised by $(\sin(u) \cos(v), \sin(u) \sin(v), \cos(u))$ where $(u, v) \in T = [0, \frac{\pi}{2}] \times [0, 2\pi]$. Then $\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v = \sin(u)(\sin(u) \cos(v), \sin(u) \sin(v), \cos(u))$. Let $\vec{F} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j}$. The flux of \vec{F} across S is

Reparametrisation invariance and an example

- As before, if $\vec{G}(s, t), \vec{R}(s, t) = \vec{r}(\vec{G}(s, t))$ are reparametrisation data, then $\int \int_{\vec{r}(T)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) dudv = \int \int_T \vec{F} \cdot (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) |J| dsdt$. However, $\vec{R}_s \times \vec{R}_t = (\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v) J$. Therefore, there is a sign discrepancy. If $J > 0$ throughout, then $|J| = J$ and the flux integral is reparametrisation invariant. If $J < 0$ throughout, then the flux changes sign. The choice (outward vs inward) of normal is thus important (akin to the vector line integral).
- Let S be the unit upper hemisphere parametrised by $(\sin(u) \cos(v), \sin(u) \sin(v), \cos(u))$ where $(u, v) \in T = [0, \frac{\pi}{2}] \times [0, 2\pi]$. Then $\vec{r}_u \times \vec{r}_v = \sin(u)(\sin(u) \cos(v), \sin(u) \sin(v), \cos(u))$. Let $\vec{F} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j}$. The flux of \vec{F} across S is $\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^3(u) dvdu = 0$.

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC:

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$.

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves?

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can:

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$.

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC.

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e.,

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$.

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (as opposed to the curve itself).

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (as opposed to the curve itself).
- Conversely,

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (as opposed to the curve itself).
- Conversely, suppose the line integral of

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (as opposed to the curve itself).
- Conversely, suppose the line integral of a vector field \vec{F} on an open connected set

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (as opposed to the curve itself).
- Conversely, suppose the line integral of a vector field \vec{F} on an open connected set depends only on

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (as opposed to the curve itself).
- Conversely, suppose the line integral of a vector field \vec{F} on an open connected set depends only on the endpoints of the path

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (as opposed to the curve itself).
- Conversely, suppose the line integral of a vector field \vec{F} on an open connected set depends only on the endpoints of the path and not on the path itself (

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (as opposed to the curve itself).
- Conversely, suppose the line integral of a vector field \vec{F} on an open connected set depends only on the endpoints of the path and not on the path itself (a conservative vector field),

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (as opposed to the curve itself).
- Conversely, suppose the line integral of a vector field \vec{F} on an open connected set depends only on the endpoints of the path and not on the path itself (a conservative vector field), then (let's restrict to \mathbb{R}^3 for simplicity) define
$$\phi(x, y, z) = \int_{(x_0, y_0, z_0)}^{(x, y, z)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}.$$

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (as opposed to the curve itself).
- Conversely, suppose the line integral of a vector field \vec{F} on an open connected set depends only on the endpoints of the path and not on the path itself (a conservative vector field), then (let's restrict to \mathbb{R}^3 for simplicity) define
$$\phi(x, y, z) = \int_{(x_0, y_0, z_0)}^{(x, y, z)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}.$$
$$\phi(x + h, y, z) - \phi(x, y, z) = \int_{(x, y, z)}^{(x+h, y, z)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$$
 along a straight line.

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (as opposed to the curve itself).
- Conversely, suppose the line integral of a vector field \vec{F} on an open connected set depends only on the endpoints of the path and not on the path itself (a conservative vector field), then (let's restrict to \mathbb{R}^3 for simplicity) define
$$\phi(x, y, z) = \int_{(x_0, y_0, z_0)}^{(x, y, z)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}.$$
$$\phi(x + h, y, z) - \phi(x, y, z) = \int_{(x, y, z)}^{(x+h, y, z)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$$
 along a straight line. Thus, $\phi_x = F_1$ by the FTC.

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (as opposed to the curve itself).
- Conversely, suppose the line integral of a vector field \vec{F} on an open connected set depends only on the endpoints of the path and not on the path itself (a conservative vector field), then (let's restrict to \mathbb{R}^3 for simplicity) define
$$\phi(x, y, z) = \int_{(x_0, y_0, z_0)}^{(x, y, z)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}.$$
$$\phi(x + h, y, z) - \phi(x, y, z) = \int_{(x, y, z)}^{(x+h, y, z)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$$
 along a straight line. Thus, $\phi_x = F_1$ by the FTC. Likewise, for the other components and hence

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (as opposed to the curve itself).
- Conversely, suppose the line integral of a vector field \vec{F} on an open connected set depends only on the endpoints of the path and not on the path itself (a conservative vector field), then (let's restrict to \mathbb{R}^3 for simplicity) define
$$\phi(x, y, z) = \int_{(x_0, y_0, z_0)}^{(x, y, z)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}.$$

$$\phi(x + h, y, z) - \phi(x, y, z) = \int_{(x, y, z)}^{(x+h, y, z)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$$
 along a straight line. Thus, $\phi_x = F_1$ by the FTC. Likewise, for the other components and hence $\vec{F} = \nabla \phi$.

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (as opposed to the curve itself).
- Conversely, suppose the line integral of a vector field \vec{F} on an open connected set depends only on the endpoints of the path and not on the path itself (a conservative vector field), then (let's restrict to \mathbb{R}^3 for simplicity) define
$$\phi(x, y, z) = \int_{(x_0, y_0, z_0)}^{(x, y, z)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}.$$
$$\phi(x + h, y, z) - \phi(x, y, z) = \int_{(x, y, z)}^{(x+h, y, z)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$$
 along a straight line. Thus, $\phi_x = F_1$ by the FTC. Likewise, for the other components and hence $\vec{F} = \nabla \phi$. Such a ϕ is called a

A prelude to Stokes' theorem

- Recall the one-variable FTC: $\int_a^b f'(x)dx = f(b) - f(a)$. Can we generalise it to regular curves? Indeed we can: Let f be a C^1 function defined in a neighbourhood of a regular parametrised curve $\vec{r}(t)$. Then $\int_a^b \frac{df}{dt} dt = f(b) - f(a)$ by the usual FTC. Now $\frac{df}{dt} = \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle$. Thus $\int_a^b \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t)), \vec{r}'(t) \rangle dt = f(b) - f(a)$, i.e., $\int \nabla f \cdot d\vec{r} = f(b) - f(a)$. This integral depends *only* on the end-points of the curve! (as opposed to the curve itself).
- Conversely, suppose the line integral of a vector field \vec{F} on an open connected set depends only on the endpoints of the path and not on the path itself (a conservative vector field), then (let's restrict to \mathbb{R}^3 for simplicity) define
$$\phi(x, y, z) = \int_{(x_0, y_0, z_0)}^{(x, y, z)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}.$$
$$\phi(x + h, y, z) - \phi(x, y, z) = \int_{(x, y, z)}^{(x+h, y, z)} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$$
 along a straight line. Thus, $\phi_x = F_1$ by the FTC. Likewise, for the other components and hence $\vec{F} = \nabla \phi$. Such a ϕ is called a *potential* for \vec{F} .

Stokes' theorem

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem:

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I .

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$.

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$.

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S .

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S . Let $\vec{F} = (P, Q, R)$ and $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (R_y - Q_z, P_z - R_x, Q_x - P_y)$.

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S . Let $\vec{F} = (P, Q, R)$ and $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (R_y - Q_z, P_z - R_x, Q_x - P_y)$. Suppose C is oriented such that

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S . Let $\vec{F} = (P, Q, R)$ and $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (R_y - Q_z, P_z - R_x, Q_x - P_y)$. Suppose C is oriented such that the surface lies on its left.

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S . Let $\vec{F} = (P, Q, R)$ and $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (R_y - Q_z, P_z - R_x, Q_x - P_y)$. Suppose C is oriented such that the surface lies on its left. Then $\int \int_S (\nabla \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{A} = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$.

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S . Let $\vec{F} = (P, Q, R)$ and $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (R_y - Q_z, P_z - R_x, Q_x - P_y)$. Suppose C is oriented such that the surface lies on its left. Then $\int \int_S (\nabla \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{A} = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$.
- The line integral

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S . Let $\vec{F} = (P, Q, R)$ and $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (R_y - Q_z, P_z - R_x, Q_x - P_y)$. Suppose C is oriented such that the surface lies on its left. Then $\int \int_S (\nabla \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{A} = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$.
- The line integral is sometimes called

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S . Let $\vec{F} = (P, Q, R)$ and $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (R_y - Q_z, P_z - R_x, Q_x - P_y)$. Suppose C is oriented such that the surface lies on its left. Then $\int \int_S (\nabla \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{A} = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$.
- The line integral is sometimes called the *circulation* of \vec{F} because

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S . Let $\vec{F} = (P, Q, R)$ and $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (R_y - Q_z, P_z - R_x, Q_x - P_y)$. Suppose C is oriented such that the surface lies on its left. Then $\int \int_S (\nabla \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{A} = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$.
- The line integral is sometimes called the *circulation* of \vec{F} because if we consider $\vec{F} = (-y, x, 0)$ and C as the unit circle, then

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S . Let $\vec{F} = (P, Q, R)$ and $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (R_y - Q_z, P_z - R_x, Q_x - P_y)$. Suppose C is oriented such that the surface lies on its left. Then $\int \int_S (\nabla \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{A} = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$.
- The line integral is sometimes called the *circulation* of \vec{F} because if we consider $\vec{F} = (-y, x, 0)$ and C as the unit circle, then the line integral is non-zero

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S . Let $\vec{F} = (P, Q, R)$ and $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (R_y - Q_z, P_z - R_x, Q_x - P_y)$. Suppose C is oriented such that the surface lies on its left. Then $\int \int_S (\nabla \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{A} = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$.
- The line integral is sometimes called the *circulation* of \vec{F} because if we consider $\vec{F} = (-y, x, 0)$ and C as the unit circle, then the line integral is non-zero whereas for $\vec{F} = (x, y, 0)$ it is zero.

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S . Let $\vec{F} = (P, Q, R)$ and $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (R_y - Q_z, P_z - R_x, Q_x - P_y)$. Suppose C is oriented such that the surface lies on its left. Then $\int \int_S (\nabla \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{A} = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$.
- The line integral is sometimes called the *circulation* of \vec{F} because if we consider $\vec{F} = (-y, x, 0)$ and C as the unit circle, then the line integral is non-zero whereas for $\vec{F} = (x, y, 0)$ it is zero. James Clerk Maxwell called

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S . Let $\vec{F} = (P, Q, R)$ and $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (R_y - Q_z, P_z - R_x, Q_x - P_y)$. Suppose C is oriented such that the surface lies on its left. Then $\int \int_S (\nabla \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{A} = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$.
- The line integral is sometimes called the *circulation* of \vec{F} because if we consider $\vec{F} = (-y, x, 0)$ and C as the unit circle, then the line integral is non-zero whereas for $\vec{F} = (x, y, 0)$ it is zero. James Clerk Maxwell called $\nabla \times \vec{F}$ as the

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S . Let $\vec{F} = (P, Q, R)$ and $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (R_y - Q_z, P_z - R_x, Q_x - P_y)$. Suppose C is oriented such that the surface lies on its left. Then $\int \int_S (\nabla \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{A} = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$.
- The line integral is sometimes called the *circulation* of \vec{F} because if we consider $\vec{F} = (-y, x, 0)$ and C as the unit circle, then the line integral is non-zero whereas for $\vec{F} = (x, y, 0)$ it is zero. James Clerk Maxwell called $\nabla \times \vec{F}$ as the "curl" of \vec{F}
(

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S . Let $\vec{F} = (P, Q, R)$ and $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (R_y - Q_z, P_z - R_x, Q_x - P_y)$. Suppose C is oriented such that the surface lies on its left. Then $\int \int_S (\nabla \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{A} = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$.
- The line integral is sometimes called the *circulation* of \vec{F} because if we consider $\vec{F} = (-y, x, 0)$ and C as the unit circle, then the line integral is non-zero whereas for $\vec{F} = (x, y, 0)$ it is zero. James Clerk Maxwell called $\nabla \times \vec{F}$ as the "curl" of \vec{F} (because it is like the

Stokes' theorem

- We want to generalise Green's theorem to integrals over surfaces (akin to the 1D prelude above).
- Theorem: Let S be a C^1 regular parametrised surface $S = \vec{r}(T)$ where $T \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set in $u - v$ plane bounded by a regular simple closed curve I . Assume that \vec{r} is actually C^2 on an open set containing $T \cup I$. Let C be the curve $\vec{r}(I)$. Let P, Q, R be C^1 scalar fields on S . Let $\vec{F} = (P, Q, R)$ and $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (R_y - Q_z, P_z - R_x, Q_x - P_y)$. Suppose C is oriented such that the surface lies on its left. Then $\int \int_S (\nabla \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{A} = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$.
- The line integral is sometimes called the *circulation* of \vec{F} because if we consider $\vec{F} = (-y, x, 0)$ and C as the unit circle, then the line integral is non-zero whereas for $\vec{F} = (x, y, 0)$ it is zero. James Clerk Maxwell called $\nabla \times \vec{F}$ as the “curl” of \vec{F} (because it is like the “circulation density”).

Stokes' theorem

- It is easy to see that

- It is easy to see that if S is a planar surface, then

Stokes' theorem

- It is easy to see that if S is a planar surface, then Stokes=Green.

Stokes' theorem

- It is easy to see that if S is a planar surface, then Stokes=Green.
- The proof of Stokes:

Stokes' theorem

- It is easy to see that if S is a planar surface, then Stokes=Green.
- The proof of Stokes: By linearity in \vec{F} and the symmetry of the expression,

Stokes' theorem

- It is easy to see that if S is a planar surface, then Stokes=Green.
- The proof of Stokes: By linearity in \vec{F} and the symmetry of the expression, it is enough to prove it for $\vec{F} = P\hat{i}$.

- It is easy to see that if S is a planar surface, then Stokes=Green.
- The proof of Stokes: By linearity in \vec{F} and the symmetry of the expression, it is enough to prove it for $\vec{F} = P\hat{i}$.
- Now $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (0, P_z, -P_y)$ and hence

- It is easy to see that if S is a planar surface, then Stokes=Green.
- The proof of Stokes: By linearity in \vec{F} and the symmetry of the expression, it is enough to prove it for $\vec{F} = P\hat{i}$.
- Now $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (0, P_z, -P_y)$ and hence $\nabla \times \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = -P_y(x_u y_v - x_v y_u) + P_z(z_u y_v - z_v y_u)$ which is $(P_{x_v})_u - (P_{x_u})_v$ (HW).

- It is easy to see that if S is a planar surface, then Stokes=Green.
- The proof of Stokes: By linearity in \vec{F} and the symmetry of the expression, it is enough to prove it for $\vec{F} = P\hat{i}$.
- Now $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (0, P_z, -P_y)$ and hence $\nabla \times \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = -P_y(x_u y_v - x_v y_u) + P_z(z_u y_v - z_v y_u)$ which is $(P_{x_v})_u - (P_{x_u})_v$ (HW). Apply Green to $\int \int_T ((P_{x_v})_u - (P_{x_u})_v) du dv$ to get

- It is easy to see that if S is a planar surface, then Stokes=Green.
- The proof of Stokes: By linearity in \vec{F} and the symmetry of the expression, it is enough to prove it for $\vec{F} = P\hat{i}$.
- Now $\nabla \times \vec{F} = (0, P_z, -P_y)$ and hence $\nabla \times \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = -P_y(x_u y_v - x_v y_u) + P_z(z_u y_v - z_v y_u)$ which is $(P_{x_v})_u - (P_{x_u})_v$ (HW). Apply Green to $\int \int_T ((P_{x_v})_u - (P_{x_u})_v) du dv$ to get $\int_C (P_{x_u} du + P_{x_v} dv) = \int_C P dx$.