# MTH 201: Multivariable Calculus and Differential Equations

Semester 1, 2014-15

#### **1. THREE-DIMENSIONAL GEOMETRY**

### 1.1. Lines and planes.

- (i) Vector, parametric, and symmetric equation of a line.
- (ii) Vector and scalar equations of a plane.

# 1.2. Cylinders and quadric surfaces.

- (i) Cylinders with examples.
- (ii) General equation of a quadric surface with examples.

# 2. Multivarable Differential Calculus

# 2.1. Scalar and vector fields.

- (i) Scalar and vector fields.
- (ii) Open balls and open sets.
- (iii) Interior, exterior, and boundary of a set.
- (iv) Theorem: If  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are open sets in  $\mathbb{R}^1$ , then  $A_1 \times A_2$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

# 2.2. Limits and continuity.

- (i) Limits and continuity.
- (ii) Theorem: If  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = b$  and  $\lim_{x\to a} g(x) = c$ , then: (a)  $\lim_{x\to a} (f(x) + g(x)) = b + c$ 

  - (b)  $\lim_{x \to a} \lambda f(x) = \lambda b$ , for every scalar  $\lambda$
  - (c)  $\lim_{x \to a} f(x)g(x) = bc$
  - (d)  $\lim_{x \to a} ||f(x)|| = ||b||$
- (iii) Components of a vector field.
- (iv) Theorem: A vector field is continuous if and only if each of its components are continuous.
- (v) The identity function and polynomial functions are continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ .
- (vi) The composition of two continuous functions is continuous.

- (vii) Example of a discontinuous scalar field that is continuous in each variable.
- (viii) Derivative f'(a; v) of a scalar field f with respect to a vector v.
- (ix) Mean Value Theorem (for scalar fields) : Let f'(a + tv, v) exist for each  $t \in [0, 1]$ . Then for some real number  $\theta \in (0, 1)$ , we have

f(a+y) - f(a) = f'(z; y), where  $z = a + \theta v$ .

## 2.3. Directional, partial and total derivatives.

- (i) Directional derivatives and partial derivatives.
- (ii) Directional derivatives and continuity.
- (iii) Differentiable scalar field.
- (iv) The total derivative.
- (v) Theorem: If f is differentiable at a with total derivative  $T_a$ , then the derivative f'(a; v) exists for every  $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and we have

$$T_a(v) = f'(a; v).$$

Moreover, if  $v = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ , we have

$$f'(a;v) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} D_k f(a) v_k.$$

#### 2.4. Gradient and tangent planes.

- (i) The gradient of a scalar field.
- (ii) Theorem: If a scalar field is differentiable at a, then f is continuous at a.
- (iii) Sufficient condition for differentiability: If f has partial derivatives  $D_1 f, \ldots, D_n f$  in some *n*-ball B(a) and are continuous at a, then f is differentiable at a.
- (iv) Theorem (Chain rule for scalar fields): Let f be a scalar field defined on an open set S in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and let r be a vector-valued function which maps an interval J from  $\mathbb{R}^1$  into S. Define the composite  $g = f \circ r$  on J by the g(t) = f(r(t)), if  $t \in J$ . Let  $t \in J$  such that r'(t) exists and assume that f is differentiable at r(t). Then g'(t) exists and is given by

$$g'(t) = \nabla f(a) \cdot r'(t),$$

where a = r(t).

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(v) Level sets and tangent planes.

#### 2.5. Derivatives of vector fields.

- (i) Derivatives of vector fields.
- (ii) Theorem: If f is differentiable at a with total derivative  $T_a$ , then the derivative f'(a; v) exists for every  $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and we have

$$T_a(v) = f'(a; v).$$

Moreover, if  $f = (f_1, \ldots, f_m)$  and  $v = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ , we have

$$T_a(v) = \sum_{k=1}^m \nabla f_k(a) \cdot e_k = (\nabla f_1(a) \cdot v, \dots, \nabla f_m(a) \cdot v).$$

- (iii) Theorem: If a vector field is differentiable at a, then f is continuous at a.
- (iv) Theorem (Chain Rule): Let f and g be vector fields such that the composition  $h = f \circ g$  is defined in a neighborhood of a point a. Assume that g is differentiable at a, with total derivative g'(a). Let b = g(a) and assume that f is differentiable at b, with total derivative f'(b). Then h is fifferentiable at a, and the total derivative h'(a) is given by

$$h'(a) = f'(b) \circ g'(a).$$

- (v) Matrix form of chain rule.
- (vi) Theorem (A sufficient condition for equality of mixed partial derivatives): Assume f is a scalar field such that the partial derivatives  $D_1 f$ ,  $D_2 f$ ,  $D_{1,2} f$ , and  $D_{2,1} f$  exist on an open set S. If f(a, b) is a point in S at which both  $D_{1,2} f$  and  $D_{2,1} f$  are continuous, we have

$$D_{1,2}f(a,b) = D_{2,1}f(a,b).$$

(vii) Theorem (Sufficient condition for equality of mixed partial derivatives): Assume f is a scalar field such that the partial derivatives  $D_1f$ ,  $D_2f$ , and  $D_{2,1}f$  exist on an open set S containing. Assume further that  $D_{2,1}f$  if continuous on S. Then the derivative  $D_{1,2}f(a,b)$  exists and we have

$$D_{1,2}f(a,b) = D_{2,1}f(a,b).$$

#### 3. Applications of derivatives

#### 3.1. Partial differential equations.

(i) First order PDE of the form

$$a\frac{\partial f(x,y)}{\partial x}\partial x + b\frac{\partial f(x,y)}{\partial y} = 0.$$

(ii) Theorem: Let g be differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}^1$ , and let f be the scalar field defined on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  by the equation

$$f(x,y) = g(ax - by),$$

where a and b are constants, not both zero. Then f satisfies the first-order PDE

(1) 
$$a\frac{\partial f(x,y)}{\partial x}\partial x + b\frac{\partial f(x,y)}{\partial y} = 0$$

everywhere in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Conversely, every differentiable solution necessarily has the form g(x, y) = f(ax - by).

# 3.2. The one-dimensional wave equation.

(i) the one-dimensional wave equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}$$

(ii) Theorem (D'Alembert's solution to the wave equation): Let Fand G be given by functions such that G is differentiable and Fis twice differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}^1$ . Then the function f is given by the formula

$$f(x,t) = \frac{F(x+ct) + F(x-ct)}{2} + \frac{1}{2c} \int_{x-ct}^{x+ct} G(s) ds$$

satisfies the wave equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}$$

and initial conditions f(x,0) = F(x),  $D_2 f(x,0) = G(x)$ . Conversely, any function with equal mixed partials which satisfies the wave equation necessarily has the above form.

## 3.3. The derivative of functions defined implicitly.

(i) Theorem: Let F be a scalar field differentiable on an open set T in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Assume that the equation

$$F(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=0$$

defines  $x_n$  explicitly as a differentiable function of  $x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}$ , say

$$x_n = f(x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}),$$

for all  $(x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1})$  in an open set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ . Then for each  $k = 1, 2, \ldots, n-1$ , the partial derivative  $D_k f$  is given by the formula

$$D_k f = -\frac{D_k F}{D_n F}$$

for all points at which  $D_n F \neq 0$ . The partial derivatives  $D_k f$  and  $D_n f$  are to be evaluated at  $(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1}, f(x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}))$ .

(ii) Jacobian determinant notation  $\frac{\partial(f_1, \ldots, f_n)}{\partial(x_1, \ldots, x_n)}$ .

(iii) Suppose that we have two surfaces with implicit representations F(x, y, z) = 0 and G(x, y, z) = 0 that intersect along a curve C. Suppose that it is possible to solve x and y in terms of z, and the solutions are given by the equations x = X(z) and y = Y(z). Then

$$X'(z) = \frac{\partial(F,G)/\partial(y,z)}{\partial(F,G)/\partial(x,y)}, Y'(z) = \frac{\partial(F,G)/\partial(z,x)}{\partial(F,G)/\partial(x,y)}.$$

#### 3.4. Maximum and minimum values.

- (i) Local maximum and minimum values of a function.
- (ii) Theorem: A scalar field f(x, y) has a local maximum or minimum at (a, b) and the first-order partial derivatives of f exist there, then  $f_x(a, b) = f_y(a, b) = 0$ .
- (iii) Critical (or stationary) points and saddle points of a function.
- (iv) Theorem (Second-derivative test): Let (a, b) be a critical point of a scalar field f(x, y) with continuous second-order partial derivatives in a 2-ball (or disk) with center (a, b). Let  $A = f_{xx}(a, b)$ , B =

 $f_{xy}(a,b), C = f_{yy}(a,b), \text{ and let}$ 

$$D = \det \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{bmatrix} = AC - B^2.$$

Then we have:

- (a) If D > 0 and  $f_{xx}(a, b) > 0$ , then f(a, b) is a local minimum.
- (b) If D > 0 and  $f_{xx}(a, b) < 0$ , then f(a, b) is a local maximum.
- (c) If D < 0, then f(a, b) is neither a local maximum nor a local minimum (or (a, b) is a saddle point).
- (d) If D = 0, then the test is inconclusive.
- (v) Theorem (Extreme value theorem): If a scalar field f(x, y) is continuous on a closed and bounded (i.e. compact) set  $A \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , then f attains its absolute maximum and absolute minimum values at points in A.
- (vi) Absolute maximum and minimum values.
- (vii) Theorem (Lagrange's Theorem): Let f and g have continuous partial derivatives such that f has an extremum at a point (a, b)on the smooth constraint curve g(x, y) = c. If  $\nabla g(a, b) \neq 0$ , there exists a real number  $\lambda$  such that

$$\nabla f(a,b) = \lambda \nabla g(a,b).$$

(viii) Method of Lagrange multipliers: Let f and g satisfy the hypothesis of Lagrange's Theorem, and let f have a maximum or minimum subject to the constraint g(x, y) = k. To find the extremal values of f, we use the following steps:

**Step 1:** Simultaneously solve the equations  $\nabla f(x, y) = \lambda g(x, y)$  and g(x, y) = k by solving the following system of equations.

$$f_x(x, y) = \lambda g_x(x, y)$$
$$f_y(x, y) = \lambda g_y(x, y)$$
$$g(x, y) = k$$

**Step 2:** Evaluate f at each solution point obtained in Step 1. The largest value yields the maximum of f subject to the constraint, and the smallest value yields the minimum of f subject to the constraint.

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#### 4. MULTIVARIABLE INTEGRAL CALCULUS

# 4.1. Double Integrals.

- (i) Interpreting the double inegral as volume of the solid bounded below by a region R and above by z = f(x, y).
- (ii) Double integrals over a rectangular region  $R : [a, b] \times [c, d]$ .
- (iii) Thorem (Fubini weaker form): If f(x, y) is continuous throughout the region  $R : [a, b] \times [c, d]$ , then

$$\iint_R f(x,y)dA = \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x,y)dxdy = \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x,y)dydx.$$

- (iv) Double integrals over a general region R.
- (v) Thorem (Fubini stronger form): Let f(x, y) be continuous on a region R.
  - (a) If R is defined by  $a \le x \le b$ ,  $g_1(x) \le y \le g_2(x)$ , with  $g_1$  and  $g_2$  continuous on [a, b], then

$$\iint_R f(x,y)dA = \int_a^b \int_{g_1(x)}^{g_2(x)} f(x,y)dydx.$$

(b) If R is defined by  $c \le y \le d$ ,  $h_1(x) \le x \le h_2(x)$ , with  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  continuous on [c, d], then

$$\iint_R f(x,y)dA = \int_c^d \int_{h_1(y)}^{h_2(y)} f(x,y)dxdy.$$

(vi) If f(x, y) and g(x, y) are continuous on the bounded region R, then the following properties hold.

(a) 
$$\iint_{R} cf(x,y)dA = c \iint_{R} f(x,y)dA, \text{ for any } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$
  
(b) 
$$\iint_{R} (f(x,y) \pm g(x,y))dA = \iint_{R} f(x,y)dA \pm \iint_{R} g(x,y)dA.$$
  
(c) 
$$\iint_{R} f(x,y)dA \ge 0, \text{ if } f(x,y) \ge 0 \text{ on } R.$$
  
(d) 
$$\iint_{R} f(x,y)dA \ge \iint_{R} g(x,y)dA, \text{ if } f(x,y) \ge g(x,y) \text{ on } R.$$
  
(e) 
$$\iint_{R} f(x,y)dA \ge \iint_{R_{1}} f(x,y)dA + \iint_{R_{2}} f(x,y)dA, \text{ if } R \text{ is the union of two nonoverlapping regions } R_{1} \text{ and } R_{2}.$$

(vii) The *area* of a closed, bounded plane region R is given by

$$A = \iint_A dA.$$

(viii) The average value of an integrable function f over a region R of area A is given by

The average value of 
$$f$$
 over  $R = \frac{1}{A} \iint_R f \, dA$ .

# 4.2. Triple integrals.

- (i) Integrability of F(x, y, z) over a closed, bounded region D in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .
- (ii) The *volume* of a closed, bounded region D in space is given by

$$V = \iiint_D dV.$$

## 4.3. Substitution in multiple integrals.

(i) Theorem (Substitution in double integrals): Suppose that a region G in the uv-plane is transformed one-to-one into a region R in the xy-plane by equations of the form x = g(u, v) and y = h(u, v). Then any function f(x, y) defined on R can be thought of as a function f(g(u, v), h(u, v)) defined on G. Moreover, if g, h, and f have continuous partial derivatives and  $\frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)}$  is zero only at isolated points, then

$$\iint_R f(x,y) \, dx \, dy = \iint_G f(g(u,v),h(u,v)) \left| \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} \right| \, du \, dv.$$

(ii) Theorem (Substitution in triple integrals): Suppose that a region G in the uvw-space is transformed one-to-one into a region R in the xyz-space by equations of the form x = g(u, v, w), y = h(u, v, w), and z = k(u, v, w). Then any function f(x, y, z) defined on R can be thought of as a function f(g(u, v, w), h(u, v, w), k(u, v, w)) defined on G. Moreover, if g, h, and k have continuous first partial derivatives and  $\frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)}$  is zero only at isolated points, then

$$\iiint_D f(x,y) \, dx \, dy \, dz = \iiint_G f(g(u,v,w), h(u,v,w), k(u,v,w)) \left| \frac{\partial(x,y,z)}{\partial(u,v,w)} \right| \, du \, dv \, dw$$

### 4.4. Double integrals in polar coordinates.

- (i) *Polar Coordinates* represent a point *P* by the ordered pairs  $(r, \theta)$  in which
  - (a) r is distance of P from the origin O, and
  - (b)  $\theta$  is the directed angle from the initial ray originating at O (along the positive direction of x-axis) to the ray OP.
- (ii) The rectangular (x, y) and polar  $(r, \theta)$  coordinate systems are related by the following set of equations

$$x = r\cos\theta, \ y = r\sin\theta, \ r^2 = x^2 + y^2, \ \text{and} \ \tan\theta = \frac{y}{x}.$$

(iii) Theorem: The area of a closed and bounded region R in polar coordinates is given by

$$A = \iint_R r \, dr \, d\theta.$$

(iv) Theorem (Double integral in polar coordinates): Suppose that a region G in the  $r\theta$ -plane is transformed one-to-one into a region R in the xy-plane by polar equations of the form  $x = r \cos \theta$  and  $y = r = \sin \theta$ . Then

$$\iint_R f(x,y) \, dx \, dy = \iint_G f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta) r \, dr \, d\theta.$$

- 4.5. Triple integrals in cylindrical and spherical cordinates.
  - (i) Cylindrical coordinates represent a point P in space ordered by triples  $(r, \theta, z)$  in which
    - (a) r and  $\theta$  are the polar coordinates of the verical projection of P onto the xy-plane, and
    - (b) z is the rectangular vertical coordinate.
  - (ii) The equations relating rectangular (x, y, z) and cylindrical  $(r, \theta, z)$  coordinates are:

$$x = r \cos \theta, \ y = r \sin \theta, \ z = z,$$
  
 $r^2 = x^2 + y^2, \ \tan \theta = \frac{y}{r}.$ 

Theorem (Triple integral in cylindrical coordinates): Suppose that a region G in the  $r\theta z$ -space is transformed one-to-one into a region R in the xyz-space by cylindrical equations of the form  $x = r \cos \theta$ ,  $y = r \sin \theta$ , and z = z. Then

$$\iiint_R f(x, y, z) \, dx \, dy \, dz = \iiint_G f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta, z) r \, dz \, dr \, d\theta.$$

- (iii) Spherical coordinates represent a point P in space ordered by triples  $(\rho, \phi, \theta)$  in which
  - (a)  $\rho$  is the distance from P to the origin,
  - (b)  $\theta$  is the angle from cylindrical coordinates ( $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$ ), and
  - (c)  $\phi$  is the angle  $\overline{OP}$  makes with the positive z-axis  $(0 \le \phi \le \pi)$ .
- (iv) The equations relating spherical  $(\rho, \theta, \phi)$  to cartesian (x, y, z) and cylindrical  $(r, \theta, z)$  coordinates are:

$$\begin{aligned} r &= \rho \sin \phi, \ x = r \cos \theta = \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta, \\ z &= \rho \cos \phi, \ y = r \sin \theta = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta, \\ \rho &= \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} = \sqrt{r^2 + z^2}. \end{aligned}$$

(v) Theorem (Triple integral in spherical coordinates): Suppose that a region G in the  $\rho\phi\theta$ -space is transformed one-to-one into a region R in the xyz-space by spherical equations of the form  $x = \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta, \ y = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta$ , and  $z = \rho \cos \phi$ . Then

$$\iiint_R f(x, y, z) \, dx \, dy \, dz = \iiint_G f(\rho \sin \phi \cos \theta, \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta, \rho \cos \phi) \rho^2 \sin \phi \, d\rho \, d\phi \, d\theta.$$

## 4.6. Line integrals.

(i) Line Integral: Let F be a vector field with continuous components defined along a smooth curve C parametrized by  $r(t), t \in [a, b]$ . Then the line integral of F along C is

$$\int_C F \cdot T \, ds = \int_C \left( F \cdot \frac{dr}{ds} \right) \, ds = \int_C F \cdot dr = \int_a^b F(r(t)) \cdot \frac{dr}{dt} \, dt.$$

 $r = \rho \sin \phi, \ x = r \cos \theta = \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta,$  $z = \rho \cos \phi, \ y = r \sin \theta = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta,$  $\rho = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} = \sqrt{r^2 + z^2}.$ 

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(ii) Let C be a smooth curve parametrized by r(t),  $t \in [a, b]$ , and F be a continuous force field over a region containing C. Then the work done in moving an object from the point A = r(a) ro the point B = r(b) along C is given by

$$W = \int_C F \cdot T \, ds = \int_a^b F(r(t)) \cdot \frac{dr}{dt} \, dt$$

(iii) Let F = Mi + Nj + Pk defined along the smooth curve C : r(t) = g(t)i + h(t)j + k(t)k,  $t \in [a, b]$ . Then the equivalent forms of the work integral are:

$$W = \int_{C} F \cdot T \, ds$$
  
=  $\int_{c} F \cdot dr$   
=  $\int_{a}^{b} F \cdot \frac{dr}{dt} dt$   
=  $\int_{a}^{b} \left( M \frac{dx}{dt} + N \frac{dy}{dt} + P \frac{dz}{dt} \right) dt$   
=  $\int_{C} M \, dx + N \, dy + P \, dz.$ 

(iv) If r(t) parametrizes a smooth curve C in the domain of a continuous velocity field F, then the *flow* along the curve from A = r(a) to B = r(b) is given by

$$\int_C F \cdot T \, ds.$$

(v) If C is a smooth simple closed curve in the domain of a continuous vector field F = M(x, y)i + N(x, y)j in the plane, and if N is the outward pointing unit normal vector on C, the *flux* of F across C is given by

$$\int_C F \cdot n \, ds.$$

Furthermore, if F = Mi + Nj, then the flux of F across C is given by

$$\int_C M\,dy - N\,dx.$$

### 4.7. Green's Theorem.

(i) The divergence (or the flux density) of a vector field F = Mi + Njat the point (x, y) is

div 
$$F = \nabla \cdot F = \frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}.$$

(ii) The *circulation density* of a vector field F = Mi + Nj at the point (x, y) is the scalar expression

$$\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}$$

This expression is also called the *k*-component of the curl, denoted by  $(\operatorname{curl} F) \cdot k$  or  $(\nabla \times F) \cdot k$ .

(iii) Green's Theorem (Flux-divergence or Normal Form): Let C be a piecewise smooth, simple closed curve enclosing a region R in the plane. Let F = Mi + Nj be a vector field with M and N having continuous first partial derivatives in a open region containing R. Then the outward flux of F across C equals the double integral of div  $F = \nabla \cdot F$  over the region R enclosed by C, that is,

$$\int_C F \cdot n \, ds = \int_C M \, dy - N \, dx = \iint_R (\nabla \cdot F) \, dx \, dy.$$

(iv) Green's Theorem (Circulation-Curl or Tangential Form): Let C be a piecewise smooth, simple closed curve enclosing a region R in the plane. Let F = Mi + Nj be a vector field with M and N having continuous first partial derivatives in a open region containing R. Then the counterclockwise circulation of F around C equals the double integral of  $(\operatorname{curl} F) \cdot k = (\nabla \times F) \cdot k$  over R, that is,

$$\int_C F \cdot T \, ds = \int_C M \, dx + N \, dy = \iint_R ((\nabla \times F) \cdot k) \, dx \, dy.$$

# 4.8. Surface Integrals.

(i) The area of the smooth surface

$$r(u,v) = f(u,v)i + g(u,v)j + h(u,v)k, (u,v) \in [a,b] \times [c,d]$$

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is given by

$$A = \iint_{R} |r_u \times r_v| \, dA = \int_{c}^{d} \int_{a}^{b} |r_u \times r_v| \, du \, dv.$$

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

$$\int_{R} \frac{|\nabla F|}{|\nabla F \cdot p|} \, dA,$$

where P is p = i, j, or k is the unit normal vector to R and  $\nabla F \cdot p \neq 0$ .

(iii) For a smooth surface defined parametrically as

$$r(u,v) = f(u,v)i + g(u,v)j + h(u,v)k, (u,v) \in R$$

and a continuous function G(x, y, z) defined on S, the surface integral of G over S is given by

$$\iint_{S} g(x, y, z) \, d\sigma = \iint_{R} G(f(u, v), g(u, v), h(u, v)) | r_u \times r_v | \, du \, dv.$$

(iv) For a surface S given implicitly by f(x, y, z) = c, where F is a continuously differentiable function, with S lying above its closed and bounded shadow region R in the coordinate plane beneath it, the surface integral of the continuous function G over S is given by

$$\iint_{S} g(x, y, z) \, d\sigma = \iint_{R} g(x, y, z) \frac{|\nabla F|}{|\nabla F \cdot p|} \, dA,$$

where P is p = i, j, or k is the unit normal vector to R and  $\nabla F \cdot p \neq 0$ .

(v) For a surface S given explicitly as a graph z = f(x, y), where f is a continuously differentiable function over a regions R in the xy-plane, the surface integral of the continuous function G over S is given by

$$\iint_{S} g(x, y, z) \, d\sigma = \iint_{R} G(x, y, f(x, y)) \sqrt{f_x^2 + f_y^2 + 1} \, dx \, dy.$$

## 4.9. Stokes' Theorem.

(i) Stokes' Theorem: Let S be a piecewise smooth oriented surface having a piecewise smooth boundary curve C. Let F = Mi + Nj + Pk be a vector field whose components have continuous first partial derivatives on an open region containing S. Then the circulation of F around C in the direction counterclockwise with respect to the surface's unit normal vector n equals the integral of  $(\nabla \times F) \cdot n$  over S, that is,

$$\int_C F \cdot dr = \iint_S (\nabla \times F) \cdot n \, d\sigma.$$

## 4.10. Gauss' Divergence Theorem.

(i) Gauss' Divergence Theorem: Let F be a vector field whose components have continuous first partial derivatives, and let S be a piecewise smooth oriented closed surface. The flux of F across Sin the direction of the surface's outward unit normal field n equals the integral of the divergence  $\nabla \cdot F$  over the region D enclosed by the surface, that is,

$$\iint_{S} F \cdot n \, d\sigma = \iiint_{D} \nabla \cdot F \, dV.$$

5. FIRST ORDER ORDINARY DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

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