

## Lecture 14

Let's work out some examples.

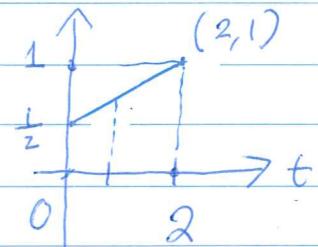
e.g. Let  $\gamma_1: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $\gamma_1(t) = (t, 2t)$ ,

$\gamma_2: [0, 2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $\gamma_2(t) = (t+1, 2)$ .

Write down a parametrization of  $\gamma = \gamma_1 + \gamma_2$  on  $[0, 1]$ .

First we have free to find the "break pt" of  $\gamma$ . Let it be  $\gamma_2$ , we rescale  $\gamma_1$  to  $[0, \frac{1}{2}] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  by setting it to be  $t \mapsto (2t, 4t)$ . Next, we want to transplant  $\gamma_2$  from  $[0, 2]$  to  $[\frac{1}{2}, 1]$ :  $t = 4z - 2$  maps  $z$   $[\frac{1}{2}, 1]$  to  $[0, 2]$

$\therefore \gamma_2$  is the same as  $z \mapsto (4z-1, 2)$



$$\text{In } \gamma(t) = \begin{cases} (2t, 4t), & t \in [0, \frac{1}{2}], \\ (4t-1, 2), & t \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1]. \end{cases}$$

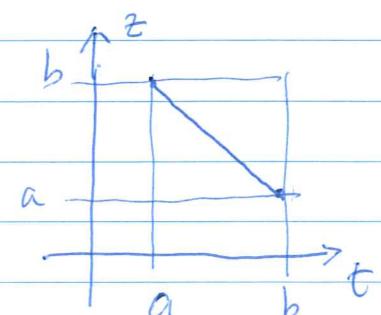
$z = \frac{1}{4}(t-2)+1$   
 $t = 4z-2$ .

$[\frac{1}{2}, 1] \rightarrow [0, 2]$

e.g. Find  $-\gamma$  if  $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  or  $\mathbb{R}^3$

Let  $\gamma_1(t) = \gamma(a+b-t)$ ,  $t \in [a, b]$ .

So  $\gamma_1(a) = \gamma(b)$ ,  $\gamma_1(b) = \gamma(a)$ , and



$$\gamma_1'(t) = -\gamma(a+b-t)$$

$$z = -(t-b)+a, \text{ or}$$

$$\Rightarrow |\gamma_1'(t)| = |\gamma(a+b-t)| > 0$$

$$t = b+a-z$$

We see that as  $t$  runs from  $a$  to  $b$ ,  $\gamma_1$  runs from  $\gamma(b)$  to  $\gamma(a)$  monotonically, so  $-\gamma = \gamma_1$ . (or more precisely,  $\gamma_1(t)$  is a parametrization for  $-\gamma$ .)

e.g. Let  $\gamma(t) = (\cos t^2, \sin t^2)$ ,  $t \in [0, \sqrt{2\pi}]$ . Find its parametrization in arc-length.

$$\gamma'(t) = (-2t \sin t^2, 2t \cos t^2)$$

$$|\gamma'(t)| = 2t$$

$$s = \psi(t) = \int_0^t 2z dz = t^2$$

$$\therefore \varphi(s) = \psi^{-1}(s) = \sqrt{s} : [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow [0, \sqrt{2\pi}]$$

$$\text{Let } \tilde{\gamma}(s) = \gamma(\varphi(s)) = \gamma(\sqrt{s}) = (\cos(\sqrt{s})^2, \sin(\sqrt{s})^2) \\ = (\cos s, \sin s), \quad s \in [0, 2\pi],$$

is the arc-length parametrization  
of  $\gamma$ .

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Line integral of the second kind is concerned with the integration of a vector field along a curve.

We introduce vector fields now.

The notion of a vector field comes up from physics long time ago. Now it is not only a fundamental notion in physics, but also important in mathematical analysis, dynamical systems and differential topology.

A vector field in a region in  $\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R}^3$ , is simply

$$\vec{v} = (P(x, y), Q(x, y)), \text{ or } (P(x, y, z), Q(x, y, z), R(x, y, z))$$

$$\text{or } (L(x, y), M(x, y)), \text{ or } (L(x, y, z), M(x, y, z), N(x, y, z))$$

Where the components are functions in the region. A vector field is continuous (resp.  $C^1$ ) if the components are continuous (resp.  $C^1$ ).

Usually we represent the vector field by putting  $(P, Q)$  or  $(P, Q, R)$  at the base pt  $(x, y)$ , or  $(x, y, z)$ .

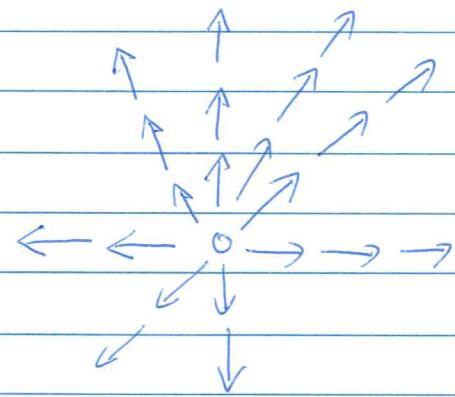
By the definition, a vector field is very general. However, in practise we better have some common vector fields in our mind. Let's look at some examples.

e.g. At each point  $(x, y)$  the vector field is a unit vector pointing out along the direction from the origin to  $(x, y)$ .

$$\vec{v} = \left( \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}}, \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}} \right)$$

$$= (\cos \theta, \sin \theta) \text{ (polar)}$$

$$\text{at } (x, y) = (r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta),$$



As  $\vec{v}$  does not have a limit at  $(0, 0)$ , this vector field is naturally defined in

$$\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}.$$

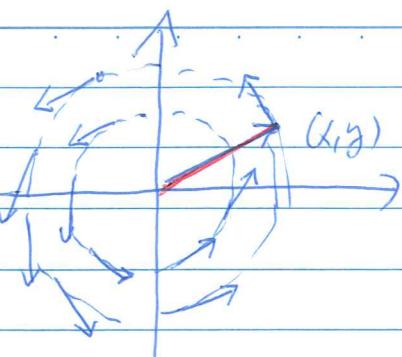
e.g.  $\vec{w} = (-y, x)$  at  $(x, y)$ .  $\vec{w}$  is a vector field defined in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . From  $(x, y) \cdot (-y, x) = 0$ ,

we see that it points to the orthogonal direction of  $(x, y)$ . It is in the form of a rotation.

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$$|\vec{w}| = \sqrt{y^2 + x^2} = r \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } (x,y) \rightarrow 0.$$

that's the strength of rotation  $\rightarrow 0$   
 as  $(x,y) \rightarrow 0$ . So  $\vec{w}$  is defined everywhere.  
 In fact, it is a  $C^1$ -vector field.

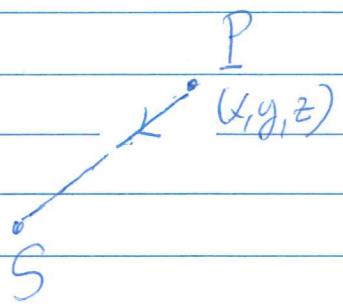


e.g. Let  $M$  be the mass of the sun located at  $(0,0,0)$  and  $m$  be the mass of a planet. The force field acting on the planet is given by, its magnitude,

$$|\vec{F}| = \frac{GMm}{r^2}, \quad r - \text{distance from the sun}$$

and the direction is toward the sun, that is,

$$\frac{(x,y,z)}{r} \quad (\text{unit vector})$$



$$\therefore \vec{F} = -\frac{GmM}{r^3} (x,y,z) = -\frac{GmM}{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}} (x,y,z).$$

$\vec{F}$  is  $C^1$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \{(0,0,0)\}$ , and  $|\vec{F}(x,y,z)| \rightarrow \infty$  as  $(x,y,z) \rightarrow (0,0,0)$ .

e.g. As a good approximation, the gravity on Earth is a constant force field

$$\vec{G} = (0, 0, -g), \quad g > 0.$$

