

16.7 Surface Integrals

Recall: if D is a 2D-region, then $\iint_D f \, dA = \text{Area}(D) \cdot f_{\text{av}}$

For surfaces: approximate S by parallelograms ΔS_{ij} located at points P_{ij} . On each parallelogram, $f_{\text{av}} \approx f(P_{ij})$, and so it seems sensible to have

$$\iint_S f \, dS \approx \sum_{i,j} f(P_{ij}) \cdot \text{Area}(\Delta S_{ij})$$

where the approximation improves with more parallelograms.

If S is parameterized then we know how to compute the areas:

Theorem. Suppose the surface S is parameterized by $\mathbf{r}(u, v)$ where $(u, v) \in D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$, and that f is continuous on S . The integral of f over S is defined to be

$$\iint_S f \, dS = \iint_D f(\mathbf{r}(u, v)) |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v| \, du \, dv$$

Similar Notations Observe how the notation is similar to that for a line integral:

$$\text{Surface Integral: } \iint_S f \, dS = \iint_D f(\mathbf{r}(u, v)) |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v| \, du \, dv$$

$$\text{Line Integral: } \int_C f \, ds = \int_a^b f(\mathbf{r}(t)) |\mathbf{r}'(t)| \, dt$$

Example Find the integral of the function $f(x, y, z) = x^2$ over the part of the plane $x + y + z = 2$ above the triangle with corners $(0, 0), (1, 0), (0, 1)$

The surface S is the graph of

$$z = g(x, y) = 2 - x - y$$

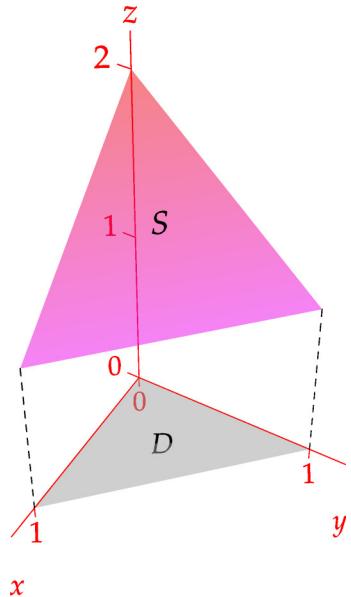
hence the area element is

$$ds = \sqrt{g_x^2 + g_y^2 + 1} \, dx \, dy = \sqrt{3} \, dx \, dy$$

The integral is therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S x^2 \, dS &= \iint_D x^2 \sqrt{3} \, dx \, dy = \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} x^2 \sqrt{3} \, dy \, dx \\ &= \sqrt{3} \int_0^1 x^2 - x^3 \, dx = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{12} \end{aligned}$$

This example is easy because S is a *graph* and we can therefore see the domain D as part of the xy -plane. The parameterization $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \\ 2-u-v \end{pmatrix}$ and the computation of $ds = |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v| \, du \, dv$ does not need to be made explicit.



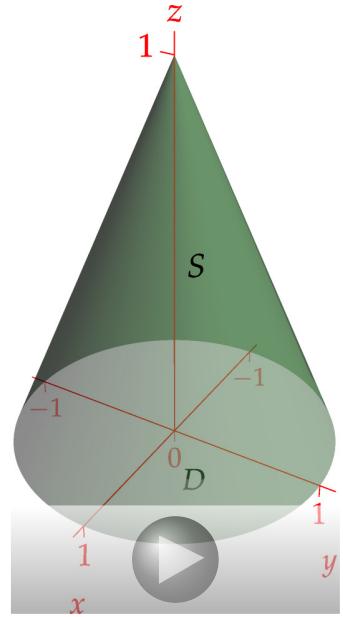
Example Calculate $\iint_S z \, dS$ where S is the region of the cone $z = 1 - r$ in cylindrical polar co-ordinates lying above the x, y -plane

This is also a graph, although it is easiest to parameterize the cone using polar co-ordinates $(u, v) = (r, \theta)$:

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \begin{pmatrix} u \cos v \\ u \sin v \\ 1 - u \end{pmatrix}, \quad 0 \leq u \leq 1, \quad 0 \leq v < 2\pi$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v &= \begin{pmatrix} \cos v \\ \sin v \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} -u \sin v \\ u \cos v \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u \cos v \\ u \sin v \\ u \end{pmatrix} \\ \implies dS &= \sqrt{2} u \, du \, dv \end{aligned}$$



The integral is therefore

$$\iint_S z \, dS = \iint_D (1 - u) \sqrt{2} u \, du \, dv = \sqrt{2} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 u - u^2 \, du \, dv = \frac{\sqrt{2}\pi}{3}$$

Piecewise Surfaces Surfaces can consist of multiple parts: we must compute a separate surface integral, with separate parameterization, for each piece.

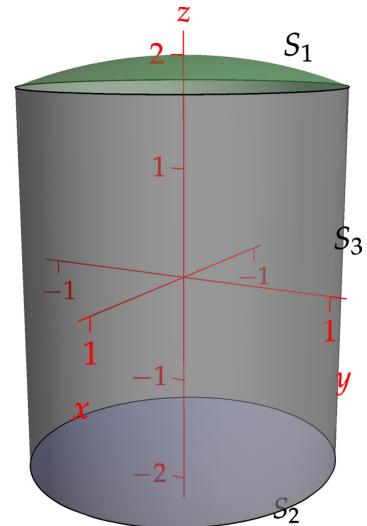
For example, we compute the integral $\iint_S y^2 - z \, dS$ where S comprises parts of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ and the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ as shown. The intersections happen at $z = \pm\sqrt{3}$

Take S_1 to be the upper part of the sphere, S_2 the lower, and S_3 the cylinder

There are several choices for how to parameterize each surface. We will use spherical co-ordinates for the parts of the spheres, and cylindrical co-ordinates for the cylinder.

It is straightforward to check that the maximum angle ϕ for the upper cap S_1 is $\phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} = \frac{\pi}{6}$. We therefore have the parameterizations:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}_1(u, v) &= \begin{pmatrix} 2 \sin u \cos v \\ 2 \sin u \sin v \\ 2 \cos u \end{pmatrix} & 0 \leq u \leq \frac{\pi}{6}, \quad 0 \leq v < 2\pi & ((u, v) = (\phi, \theta)) \\ \mathbf{r}_2(u, v) &= \mathbf{r}_1(u, v) & \frac{5\pi}{6} \leq u \leq \pi, \quad 0 \leq v < 2\pi \\ \mathbf{r}_3(u, v) &= \begin{pmatrix} \cos u \\ \sin u \\ v \end{pmatrix} & 0 \leq u < 2\pi, \quad -\sqrt{3} \leq v \leq \sqrt{3} & ((u, v) = (\theta, z)) \end{aligned}$$



Calculate the area elements:

$$dS_1 = dS_2 = \left| \begin{pmatrix} 2 \cos u \cos v \\ 2 \cos u \sin v \\ -2 \sin u \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} -2 \sin u \sin v \\ 2 \sin u \cos v \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right| du dv = 4 \sin u \left| \begin{pmatrix} \sin u \cos v \\ \sin u \sin v \\ \cos u \end{pmatrix} \right| du dv$$

$$= 4 \sin u du dv$$

$$dS_3 = \left| \begin{pmatrix} -\sin u \\ \cos u \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right| du dv = \left| \begin{pmatrix} \cos u \\ \sin u \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right| du dv = du dv$$

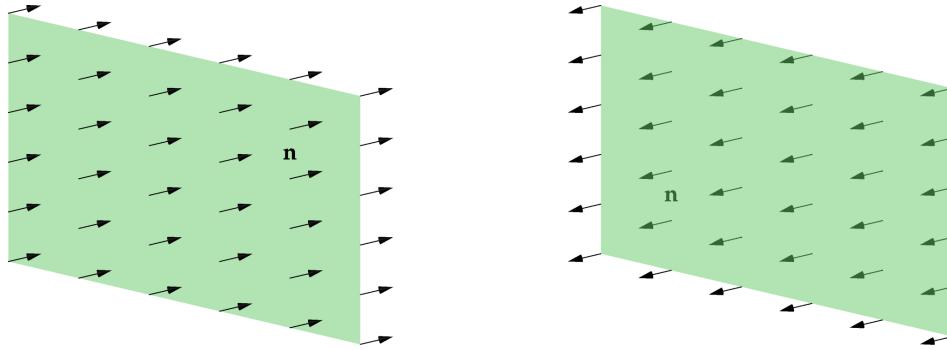
To compute $\iint_S z^2 dS$ we sum the three integrals:

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S z^2 dS &= \iint_{S_1} z^2 dS_1 + \iint_{S_2} z^2 dS_2 + \iint_{S_3} z^2 dS_3 \\ &= \left(\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{6}} + \int_0^{2\pi} \int_{\frac{5\pi}{6}}^{\pi} \right) (2 \cos u)^2 \cdot 4 \sin u du dv + \int_{-\sqrt{3}}^{\sqrt{3}} \int_0^{2\pi} v^2 du dv \\ &= 2\pi \left(\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{6}} + \int_{\frac{5\pi}{6}}^{\pi} \right) 16 \cos^2 u \sin u du + 2\pi \int_{-\sqrt{3}}^{\sqrt{3}} v^2 dv \\ &= \frac{32\pi}{3} [-\cos^3 u]_0^{\frac{\pi}{6}} + \frac{32\pi}{3} [-\cos^3 u]_{\frac{5\pi}{6}}^{\pi} + \frac{4\pi}{3} v^3 \Big|_0^{\sqrt{3}} \\ &= \frac{32\pi}{3} \left(-\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)^3 + 1 - (-1) + \left(-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)^3 \right) + 4\pi\sqrt{3} = \frac{4(16 - 3\sqrt{3})}{3}\pi \end{aligned}$$

Orientation

An inhabitant of a surface needs to know which way is 'up'.

Definition. A connected surface S is orientable if it has exactly two faces. An orientation is a smooth choice of unit normal vector field¹ \mathbf{n} .



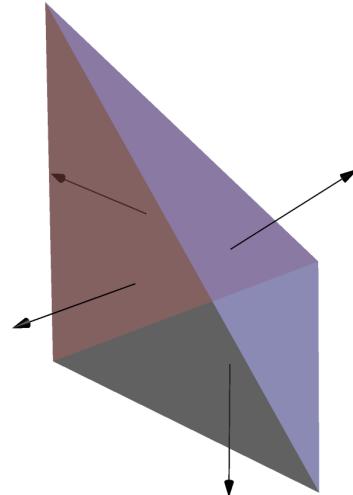
Suppose that $\mathbf{r}(u, v)$ parameterizes S . We say that (u, v) are oriented co-ordinates if $\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v$ always points in the same direction as the orientation \mathbf{n} .

¹At each point we have a choice of two unit normal vectors \mathbf{n} . An orientable surface therefore has two opposite possible orientations.

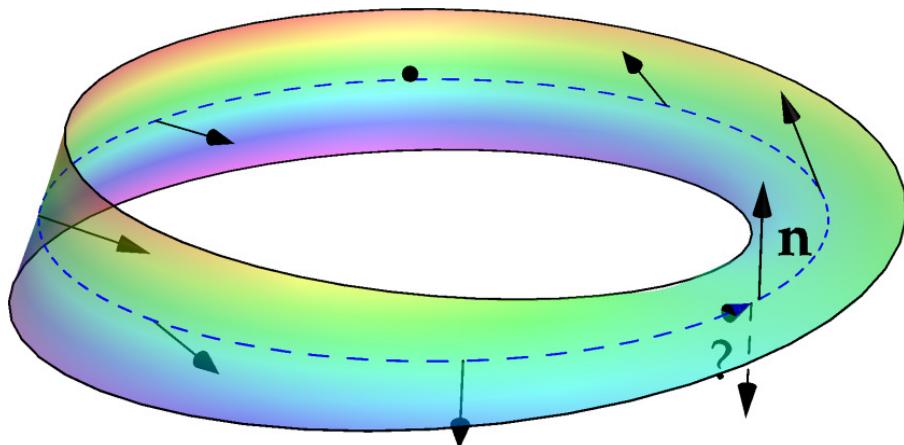
Choice of Orientation For most orientable surfaces the choice is entirely arbitrary, although there are several conventions.

1. Graphs of functions $z = f(x, y)$ or $z = f(r, \theta)$ are typically orientated so that the normal vectors point upwards. This is equivalent to having (x, y) and (r, θ) be oriented co-ordinates.
2. Closed surfaces (such as spheres) tend to be oriented so that \mathbf{n} points outwards. We refer to this as *positive orientation* of a closed surface.
3. If a surface is piecewise smooth, the orientation *must* be preserved across edges.

A positively oriented tetrahedron is drawn. Notice that the orientation is preserved across edges, so that all faces are oriented outwards.



A non-orientable surface Not all surfaces are orientable, the Möbius strip being the classic example.²



Traveling round the dashed curve changes the notion of ‘up’: it is impossible to smoothly choose \mathbf{n} on the entire surface because the surface only has one face.

Small parts of a Möbius strip can be oriented, but not the entire surface.

²The Klein_Bottle is even weirder...

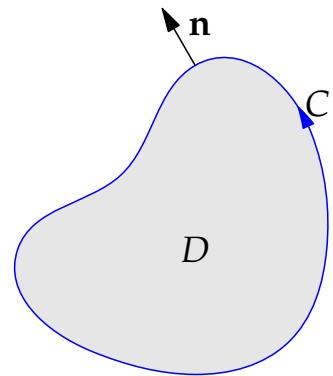
Flux Integrals

Recall an earlier physical interpretation of Green's Theorem.

If C is the boundary of a simply-connected region D , then $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}$ is the component of \mathbf{F} pointing out of D : indeed

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, ds = \text{total flow of } \mathbf{F} \text{ out of } D$$

This notion can be extended to 3-dimensions.



Definition. If \mathbf{F} is a continuous vector field defined on an oriented surface S with normal vector field \mathbf{n} , then the flux integral³ of \mathbf{F} over S is defined as

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$$

Notation If $(u, v) \in D$ are oriented co-ordinates on S , then $\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v$ points in the same direction as \mathbf{n} , whence

$$\mathbf{n} \, dS = \frac{\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v}{|\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|} |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v| \, du \, dv = \mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v \, du \, dv$$

Because of this, it is conventional to define the *vector area element*⁴

$$d\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{n} \, dS = \mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v \, du \, dv$$

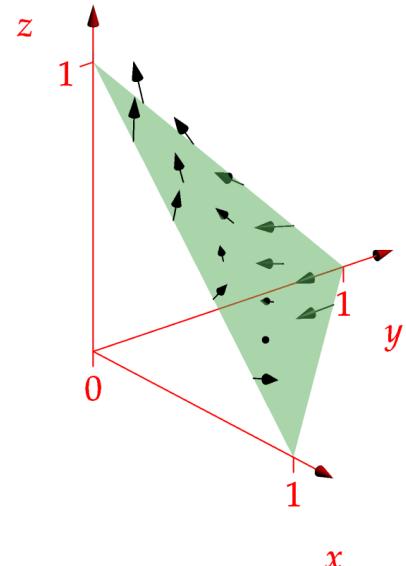
and write the flux integral of \mathbf{F} as

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \iint_D \mathbf{F} \cdot (\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v) \, du \, dv$$

Example Compute the flux of the vector field $\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{i} - y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ across the upward-oriented plane $x + y + z = 1$ in the positive octant.

The plane is a graph, whence we may use co-ordinates $(u, v) = (x, y)$. The parameterization by $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1-u-v \end{pmatrix}$ where $0 \leq u \leq 1$ and $0 \leq v \leq 1-u$, quickly gives the correct normal vector field $\mathbf{n} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. The flux is then

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} &= \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-u} \begin{pmatrix} u^2 \\ -v \\ 1-u-v \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \, dv \, du \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-u} u^2 - u - 2v + 1 \, dv \, du = \frac{1}{12} \end{aligned}$$



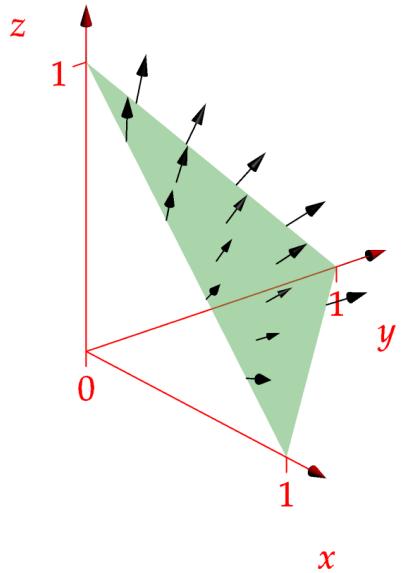
³Or *surface integral* or simply *flux*

⁴The distinction between $ds = |\mathbf{r}'(t)| \, dt$ and $d\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}'(t) \, dt$ is similar. The advantage of $d\mathbf{S}$ and $d\mathbf{r}$ are that they require no square-roots to compute.

Now we compute the same flux as before, but with a subtle change in the vector field $\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$.

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} &= \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-u} \begin{pmatrix} u^2 \\ v \\ 1-u-v \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} dv du \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-u} u^2 - u + 1 dv du = \frac{5}{12}\end{aligned}$$

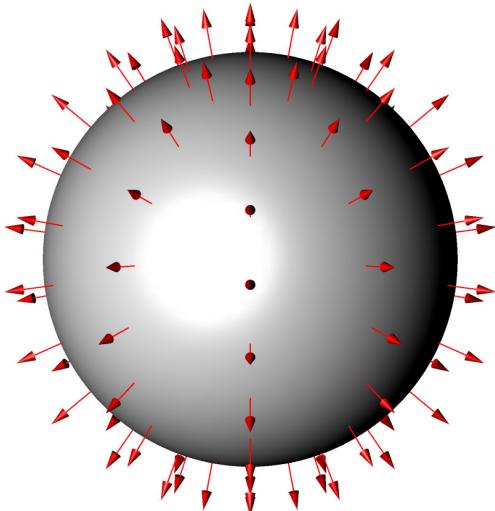
Note how the directions of the arrows explain the *fivefold* increase in flux. The vector field \mathbf{F} is mostly pointing in the same direction as the normal vector \mathbf{n} , hence a positive flux.



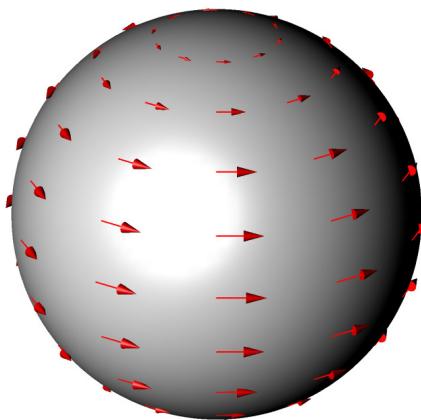
Example Compare the flux of the radial and rotational vector fields $\mathbf{F}_1 = \mathbf{r} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$, $\mathbf{F}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -y \\ x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ across the sphere of radius 1.

Here $\mathbf{n} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{r}$ and so

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_S \mathbf{F}_1 \cdot d\mathbf{S} &= \iint_S \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{r} dS = \iint_S r^2 dS = \iint_S dS = \text{Area}(S) = 4\pi \\ \iint_S \mathbf{F}_2 \cdot d\mathbf{S} &= \iint_S \begin{pmatrix} -y \\ x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \mathbf{r} dS = 0\end{aligned}$$



Arrows normal to S : flux > 0



Arrows tangent: flux = 0

Net Flux Flux can be both in and out of a region

For example, let S comprise two subsurfaces,

S_1 : the paraboloid $z = 4 - x^2 - 4y^2$ for $z \geq 0$

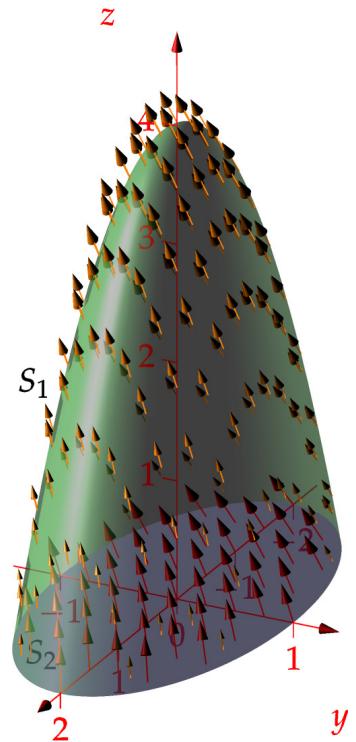
S_2 the elliptical disk $x^2 + 4y^2 \leq 4$

Let $\mathbf{F} = (z - x)\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + (z + 3)\mathbf{k}$

Parameterizing the paraboloid S_1 as a graph $(u, v) = (x, y)$ oriented upwards, we quickly compute the normal vector field $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v = \begin{pmatrix} 2u \\ 8v \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, whence

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_{S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} &= \iint_D \begin{pmatrix} (4 - u^2 - 4v^2) - u \\ -1 \\ 4 - u^2 - 4v^2 + 3 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 2u \\ 8v \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} du dv \\ &= \iint_D (2u + 1)(4 - u^2 - 4v^2) - 2u^2 - 8v + 3 du dv \end{aligned}$$

where D is the inside of the ellipse $u^2 + 4v^2 = 4$.



To compute this integral, change variables to modified polar co-ordinates $u = 2r \cos \theta$, $v = r \sin \theta$, so that $du dv = 2r dr d\theta$. With a little substitution and cancelling, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_{S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 ((4r \cos \theta + 1)(4 - 4r^2) - 8r^2 \cos^2 \theta - 8r \sin \theta + 3) 2r dr d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 ((4 - 4r^2 - 4r^2(1 + \cos 2\theta) + 3) 2r dr d\theta \\ &= 4\pi \int_0^1 (7 - 8r^2)r dr = 6\pi \end{aligned}$$

Over S_2 , the outward pointing normal vector is $\mathbf{n} = -\mathbf{k}$ (*downward!*) and so

$$\iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = - \iint_S \begin{pmatrix} -x \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} dS = -3 \iint_S dS = -6\pi$$

since S_2 is an ellipse. The net flux is therefore zero: there is as much flux into the region bounded by S as there is leaving it.

Non-examinable Application: Heat Flow

If the temperature at a point (x, y, z) in a solid body is $T(x, y, z)$, then its gradient vector field records the direction and rate of greatest increase in the temperature.

The *heat flow* is the vector field $\mathbf{F} = -k\nabla T$, where k (the *conductivity*) is a constant depending on the material.

The *heat flux* (= power output) out of a solid with boundary surface S is the flux of the heat flow:

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = -k \iint_S \nabla T \cdot \mathbf{n} dS$$

(Units: $[T] = \text{K}$, $[\nabla T] = \text{Km}^{-1}$, $[k] = \text{Wm}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}$, $[\mathbf{F}] = \text{Wm}^{-2}$)

Example A hot sphere of gold ($k = 318 \text{ Wm}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}$) of radius 10 cm has temperature

$$T(r) = \frac{1000}{1 + 10r} \quad \text{K}$$

at a distance of $r = |\mathbf{r}|$ m from its center. The heat flow is then⁵

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{3180000}{r(1 + 10r)^2} \mathbf{r} \quad \text{Wm}^{-2}$$

On the surface of the sphere ($r = 0.1$ m) this is $\mathbf{F} = 7950000\mathbf{r} \text{ Wm}^{-2}$. Since the unit normal vector field is $10\mathbf{r}$, we find that the total heat flux of the gold sphere is

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = \iint_{r=0.1} 7950000\mathbf{r} \cdot 10\mathbf{r} dS = 795000 \iint_{r=0.1} dS = 795000 \cdot \frac{4\pi}{10^2} = 31800\pi \text{ W}$$

or approximately 100 kW.

⁵Using $\nabla f(r) = \frac{f'(r)}{r} \mathbf{r}$ for any radial function f .