

# Chapter 5

## Integral Vector Calculus: Surface Integrals

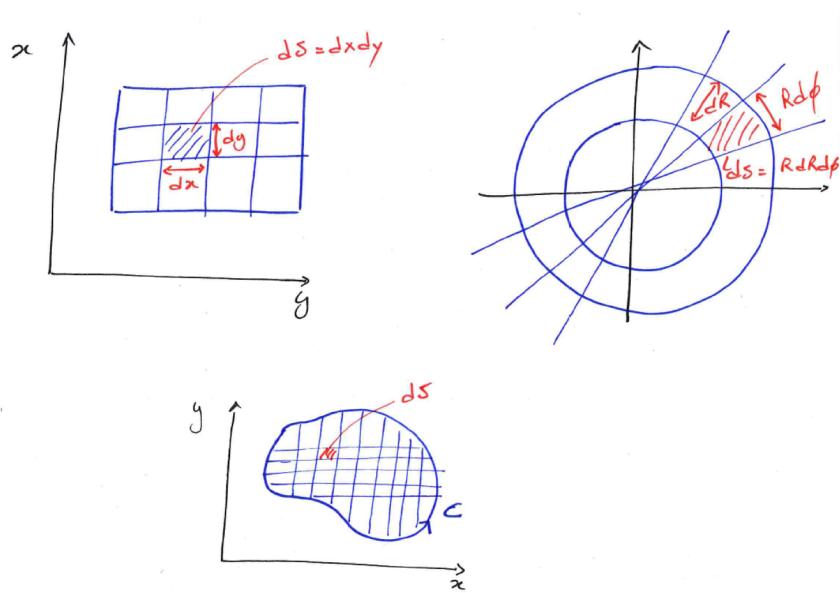
See appendix at the end of Chapter 6 for an schematic overview of the integration part

### 5.1 Surface Integrals

#### 5.1.1 Introduction

Surface integrals are a generalisation of the idea integration over a 2D planar area.

For example, suppose we want to integrate a function  $f(x, y)$  over a given area  $S$  of  $x$ - $y$  plane.



Then the sum of  $f$  over each element of the mesh multiplied by the differential surface area of each

element

$$\sum f \, ds \rightarrow \iint_S f(x, y) \, ds.$$

This is the simplest example of a surface integral, the surface being a portion of the  $x$ - $y$  plane.

### 5.1.2 Rapid examples

- Calculate

$$\iint_A xy \, dxdy,$$

where  $A$  is the triangle of vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ .

Integrating with respect to  $x$  first from 0 to the side where  $y = 1 - 1x$  to  $x = 1 - y$ ,

$$\iint_A xy \, dxdy = \int_0^1 y \int_0^{1-y} x \, dxdy = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 y(1-y)^2 \, dy = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 (y - 2y^2 + y^3) \, dy = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{4} \right) = \frac{1}{24}$$

- Calculate

$$\iint_A 3x^2 \, dxdy$$

where  $A$  is the disk centred at  $(0, 0)$  and radius 2.

$$\iint_A 3x^2 \, dxdy = 3 \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^2 r^2 \cos^2 \theta \, r \, dr \, d\theta$$

using  $x = r \cos \theta$  and  $dS = r \, dr \, d\theta$

$$\iint_A x^2 \, dxdy = 3 \int_0^2 r^3 \, dr \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 \theta \, d\theta = 12\pi$$

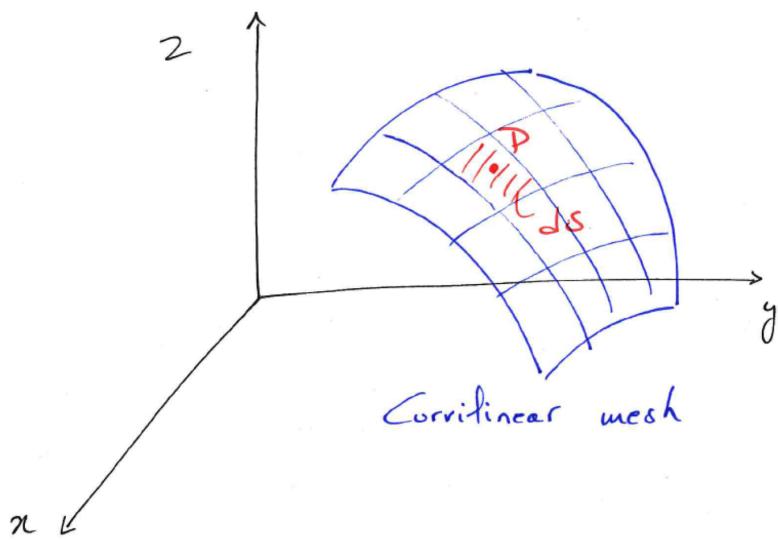
Recall

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 \theta \, d\theta = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} (1 + \cos 2\theta) \, d\theta = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \theta + \frac{\sin 2\theta}{2} \right]_{\theta=0}^{\theta=2\pi} = \pi$$

or using symmetry arguments: We integrate over a period and sin and cos are the same functions with the argument is just shifted by  $\pi/2$ , therefore we must have  $\int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 \theta \, d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 \theta \, d\theta$  and  $\int_0^{2\pi} (\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta) \, d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} 1 \, d\theta = 2\pi = 2 \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 \theta \, d\theta$

### 5.1.3 General case

We now want to generalise this notion to non-planar or curved surfaces in space.



The function  $f$  to be integrated is defined at points  $P$  on the surface  $S$ . Again, the surface integral is just the sum of  $f$  at the points  $P$ , multiplied by the local surface element  $dS$  at  $P$ .

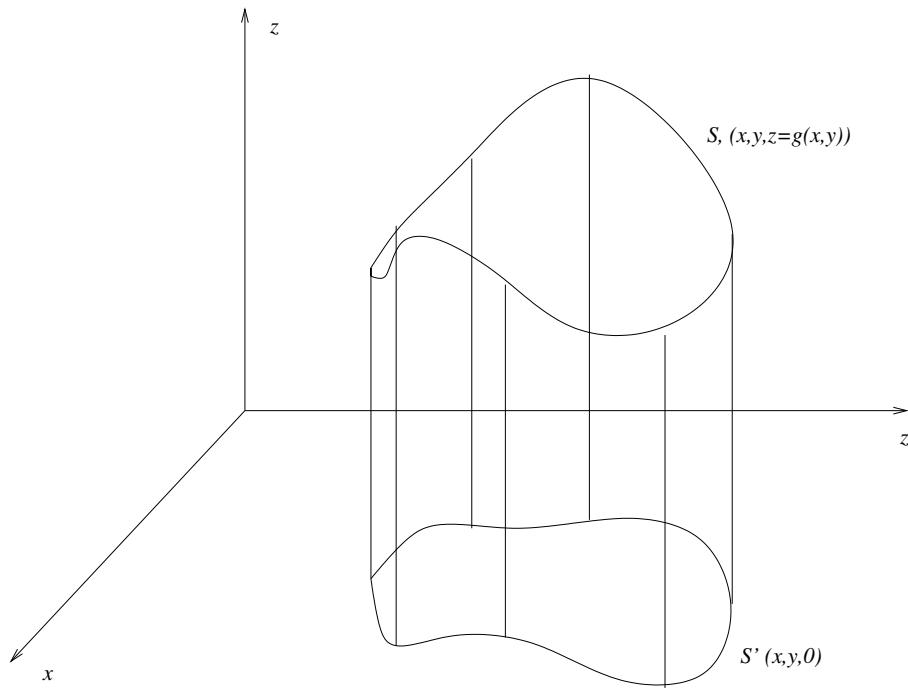
$$\sum_P f dx \rightarrow \iint_S f ds$$

Here again the double integral sign implies that  $S$  can be represented by 2 coordinates, generally curvilinear coordinates.

## 5.2 Method of Projections

### 5.2.1 Formula

Consider a surface  $S$  defined by  $z = g(x, y)$ , where  $g$  is a differentiable real function of 2 variables,  $x$  and  $y$ .

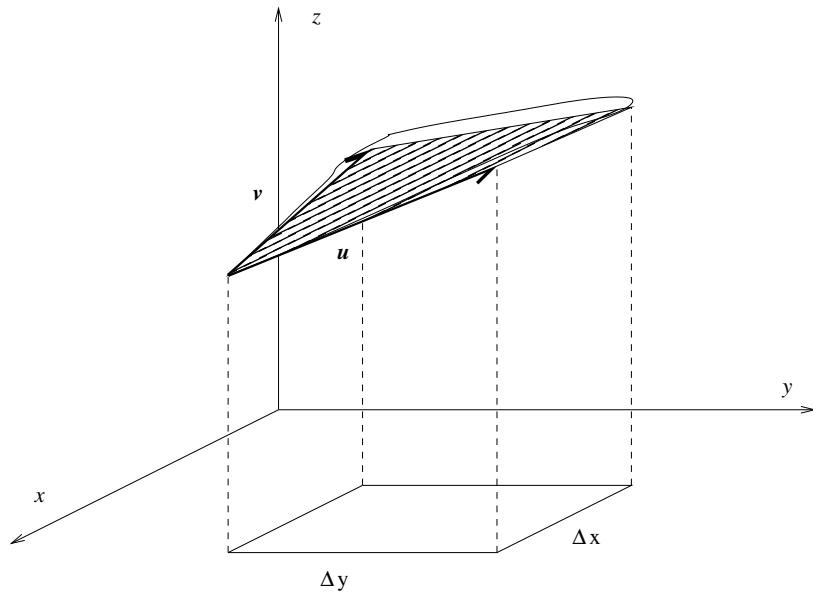


Consider the projection \$S'\$ of the surface \$S\$ onto the plane \$z = 0\$, we have

$$\iint_S f(x, y, z) dS = \iint_{S'} f(x, y, g(x, y)) \sqrt{\left(\left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial y}\right)^2 + 1\right)} dx dy \quad (1.1)$$

### 5.2.2 Elements of proof

We approximate \$dS\$ by the area of a small parallelogram, such that the differences are of higher order than \$dx dy\$ (i.e. remaining term/\$dx dy \rightarrow 0\$ as \$dx dy \rightarrow 0\$).



$\Delta S = |\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}| + \text{higher order terms which are negligible when taking the limit}$

with  $\mathbf{u} = (\Delta x, 0, \Delta x \frac{\partial g}{\partial x})$ , and  $\mathbf{v} = (0, \Delta y, \Delta y \frac{\partial g}{\partial y})$ . And

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \Delta x & 0 & \Delta x \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \\ 0 & \Delta y & \Delta y \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= (-\Delta y \Delta x \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}, -\Delta x \Delta y \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}, \Delta x \Delta y)\end{aligned}$$

as  $\Delta x, \Delta y \rightarrow dx, dy$

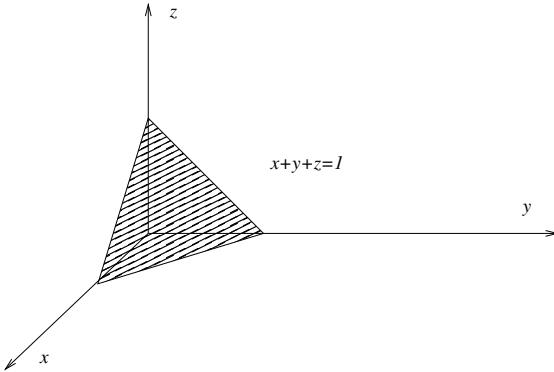
$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} \rightarrow dxdy \left( -\frac{\partial g}{\partial x}, -\frac{\partial g}{\partial y}, 1 \right)$$

and

$$dS \rightarrow \sqrt{\left( \left( \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \right)^2 + 1 \right)} dxdy$$

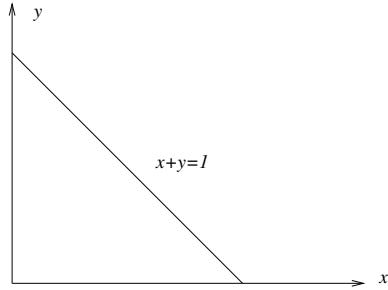
### 5.2.3 Examples

- **Ex. 1** Consider the scalar function  $f(x, y, z) = 2xy + z$  and the surface  $S$  defined by the portion of the plane  $x + y + z = 1$  for  $x, y, z \geq 0$ .



To calculate this area, we can use the projection  $S'$  of  $S$  on the plane  $z = 0$ , and use  $z = g(x, y) = 1 - x - y$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_S f(x, y, z) dS &= \iint_{S'} f(x, y, g(x, y)) \sqrt{\left( \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \right)^2 + 1} dxdy \\ &= \iint_{S'} (2xy + (1 - x - y)) \sqrt{(-1)^2 + (-1)^2 + 1} dxdy = \sqrt{3} \iint_{S'} (2xy + (1 - x - y)) dxdy\end{aligned}$$



The surface  $S'$  is shown on the figure above, and is delimited by the axis  $y = 0$ ,  $x = 0$ , and  $x + y = 1$ . Integrating first with respect to  $y$  (note: here the order does not matter) we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{3} \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} (2xy + 1 - x - y) dy dx &= \sqrt{3} \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} (y(2x - 1) + (1 - x)) dy dx \\ &= \sqrt{3} \int_0^1 \left[ (2x - 1) \frac{y^2}{2} + (1 - x)y \right]_{y=0}^{y=(1-x)} dx = \sqrt{3} \int_0^1 \left( (2x - 1) \frac{(1-x)^2}{2} + (1 - x)^2 \right) dx \\ &= \sqrt{3} \int_0^1 \left( x^3 - \frac{3}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{2} \right) dx = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} \end{aligned}$$

Alternatively we could project onto the plane  $y = 0$  and we would have  $y = h(x, z) = 1 - x - z$ , and  $\sqrt{(\partial h / \partial x)^2 + (\partial h / \partial y)^2 + 1} = \sqrt{3}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S f dS &= \sqrt{3} \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} (2(x(1-x-z)) + z) dz dx \\ &= \sqrt{3} \int_0^1 \left( 2x(1-x)(1-x) + (1-2x) \frac{(1-x)^2}{2} \right) dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \left( \sqrt{3}x^3 - \sqrt{3}\frac{3}{2}x^2 + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \right) dx = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} \end{aligned}$$

**Ex. 2** Calculate the surface of the paraboloid  $z = 1 - (x^2 + y^2) = f(x, y)$

Here we want to calculate

$$\iint_S dS = \iint_{S'} \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)^2 + 1} dA$$

where  $S'$  is the surface of the disk of radius 1,  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ , on the plane  $z = 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S dS &= \iint_{S'} ((2x)^2 + (2y)^2 + 1)^{1/2} dx dy = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{4} + r^2\right)^{1/2} 2r dr d\theta = 2\pi \int_{1/4}^{5/4} u^{1/2} du \\ &= 2\pi \frac{2}{3} \left[u^{3/2}\right]_{1/4}^{5/4} = \frac{4\pi}{3} \left(\left(\frac{5}{4}\right)^{3/2} - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{3/2}\right) = \frac{\pi}{6} (5^{3/2} - 1) \end{aligned}$$

using the substitution  $u = \frac{1}{4} + r^2$ .

- **Ex. 3** Consider the scalar function  $f(x, y, z) = z^2$  over the surface of the upper hemisphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1, z \geq 0$ .

We project the surface onto the disk  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  on the plane  $z = 0$ . We use  $z = g(x, y) = \sqrt{1 - (x^2 + y^2)}$  on the hemisphere. We have

$$\sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial y}\right)^2 + 1} = \sqrt{\frac{x^2}{1 - (x^2 + y^2)} + \frac{y^2}{1 - (x^2 + y^2)} + 1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (x^2 + y^2)}}$$

So we have

$$\iint_S z^2 dS = \iint_{S'} (1 - (x^2 + y^2)) \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (x^2 + y^2)}} dx dy = \iint_{S'} \sqrt{1 - (x^2 + y^2)} dx dy$$

Using polar co-ordinates :  $x^2 + y^2 = r^2, dx dy \rightarrow r dr d\theta$

$$\iint_S z^2 dS = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 \sqrt{1 - r^2} r dr d\theta = 2\pi \int_1^0 -\frac{1}{2} u^{1/2} du = 2\pi \left[ -\frac{1}{3} u^{3/2} \right]_0^1 = \frac{2\pi}{3}$$

using the substitution  $u = 1 - r^2$ .

*Note: Using spherical polar.... we would have*

$$x = r \cos \phi \sin \theta$$

$$y = r \sin \phi \sin \theta$$

$$z = r \cos \theta$$

$dS = r^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$  where  $r = \text{const}$  at the surface of a sphere

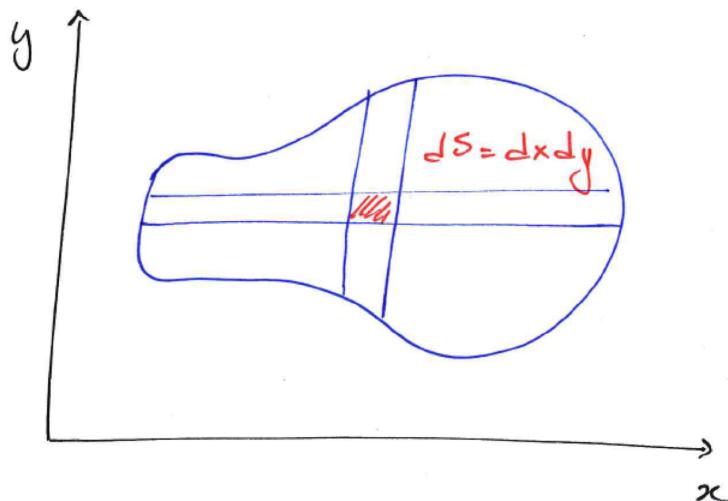
$$dV = r^2 \sin \theta dr d\theta d\phi$$

For the upper hemisphere of radius  $r = 1$ , we have  $0 < \phi < 2\pi$  and  $0 < \theta < \pi/2$  for  $z \geq 0$  so the integral is

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta d\theta d\phi = 2\pi \left[ -\frac{\cos^3 \theta}{3} \right]_0^{\pi/2} = \frac{2\pi}{3}$$

#### 5.2.4 Surface Integrals: common surfaces in classical co-ordinate systems

(i)  $xy$ -plane ( $z=\text{constant}$ )



$$\iint_S f dS = \iint_S f dx dy$$

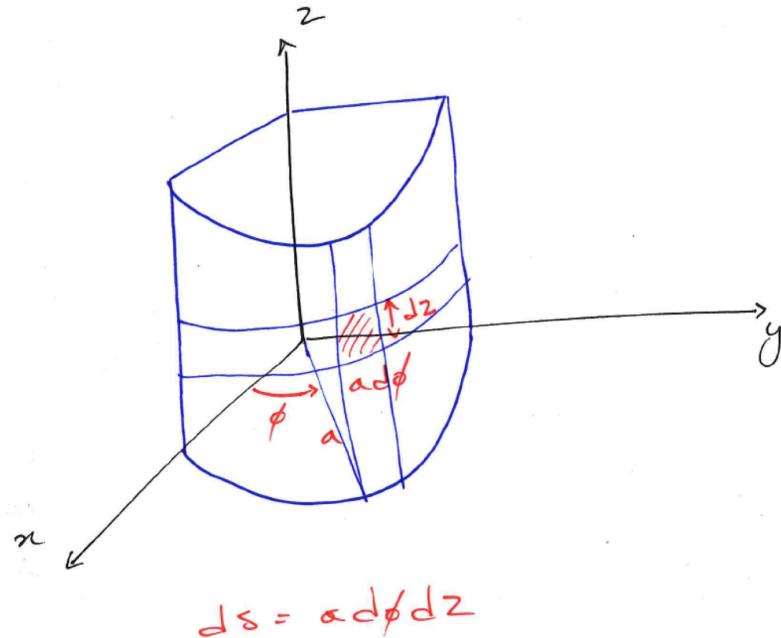
or

$$\iint_f (r, \theta) dS = \iint f(r, \theta) r dr d\theta$$

Indeed, recall that

$$\begin{aligned} dS &= dx dy = \left| \begin{array}{cc} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} \end{array} \right| dr d\theta \\ &= \left| \begin{array}{cc} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{array} \right| dr d\theta = r(\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta) dr d\theta. \end{aligned}$$

(ii) Side of a cylinder of radius  $a$



$$\iint_S f dS = \iint_S f(R, \phi, z) dS = \int_{\phi} \int_z f(a, \phi, z) dz ad\phi$$

*This can be proved using the method of projection:* Consider the side surface for  $y > 0$  (generalise to  $y < 0$  afterwards) for which we can express  $y$  as a simple function of  $x, y$ :

$$y = g(x, z) = \sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$$

According to the method of projection

$$dS = \sqrt{\left(\left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial z}\right)^2 + 1\right)} dx dz$$

with in this case

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial x} = \frac{-x}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial g}{\partial z} = 0.$$

So

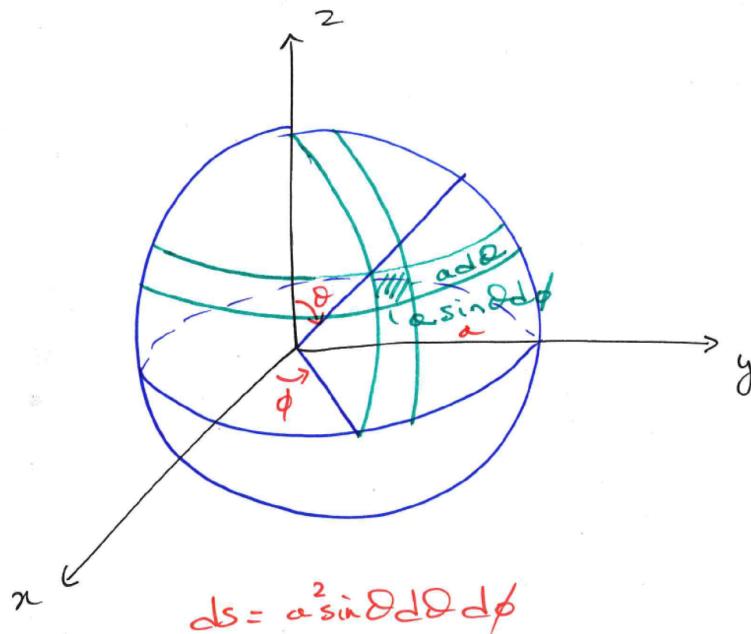
$$dS = \sqrt{\frac{x^2}{a^2 - x^2} + 1} dx dz = \sqrt{\frac{a^2}{a^2 - x^2}} dx dz$$

where  $-a \leq x \leq a$ . Make the substitution  $a = a \cos \phi$ ,  $\phi$  is an angle,  $|dx| = a \sin \phi d\phi$ . Note: it is OK because the substitution affects only one variable!  $z$  is independent of  $\phi$ . We will figure the sign later.

$$dS = \sqrt{\frac{1}{1 - \cos^2 \phi}} a \sin \phi d\phi dz = \frac{1}{\sin \phi} a \sin \phi d\phi dz = ad\phi dz.$$

*Note: The sign (-) of  $dx$  we ignored comes from when  $d\phi > 0$ ,  $dx < 0$  for  $0 < \phi < \pi$ , so we would have to change the limits to come back to the correct sign.*

(iii) Surface of a sphere of radius  $a$



$$\iint f ds = \iint f(r, \theta, \phi) dS = \int_{\phi} \int_{\theta} f(a, \theta, \phi) a^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

### 5.2.5 Link between volume elements and surface elements

Cylindrical  $\rightarrow$  polar

$$dV = R dR d\theta dz$$

$$dS = ad\theta dz \text{ on the side (no variation of } R)$$

$$dS = RdR d\theta \text{ on the top and bottom (no variation of } 2)$$

Spherical

$$dV = r^2 dr \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

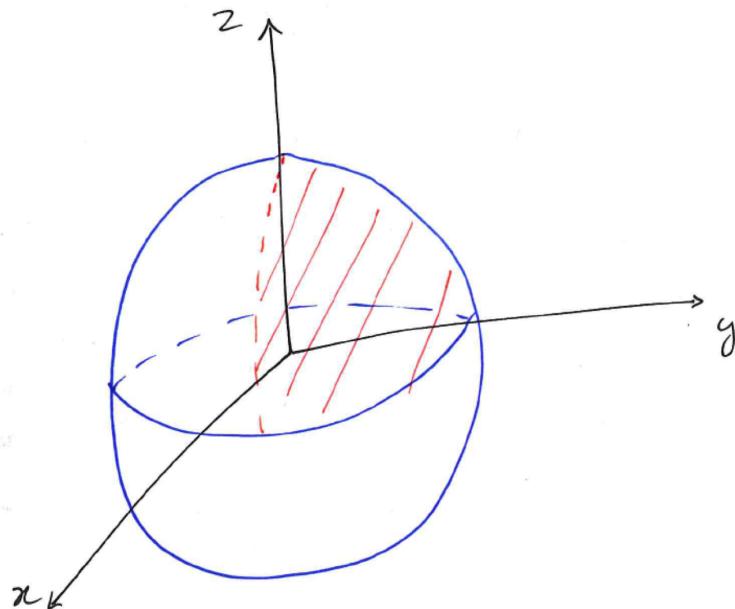
$$dS = a^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

#### Examples

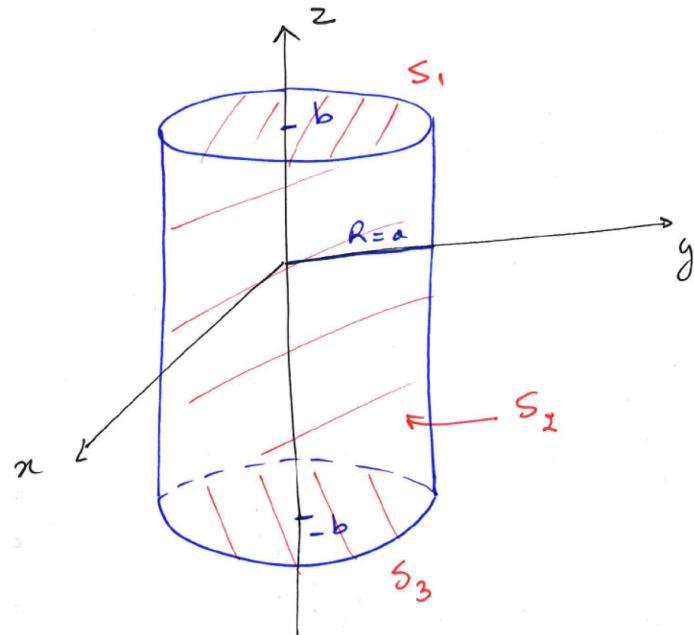
- a) Evaluate  $\iint_S dS$  where  $S$  is the surface area of the sphere for which  $x, y, z > 0$  (first octant):

$$S = a^2 \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin \theta d\theta \int_0^{\pi/2} d\phi =$$

$$a^2 \frac{\pi}{2} [-\cos \theta]_0^{\pi/2} = a^2 \frac{\pi}{2}$$

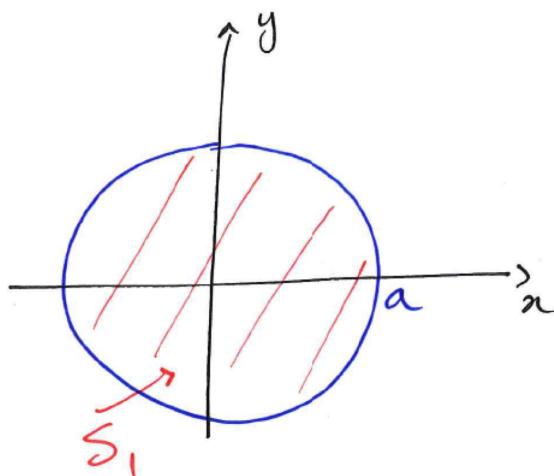


- b) Evaluate  $\iint_S f ds$  where  $f$  is  $f = Rz^2$  expressed in cylindrical polar coordinates and  $S$  is the entire surface of a cylinder of radius  $a$  between  $z = -b$  and  $b$



$$\iint_S f dS = \iint_{S_1} f dS + \iint_{S_2} f dS + \iint_{S_3} f dS$$

Top View :



On  $S_1$ ,  $f = Rb^2$  on the surface of a disk (located at  $z = +b$ ) of radius  $a$  and centred at  $(0, 0, b)$ .

Using cylindrical polars (equivalent here to 2D polars)

$$I_1 = \iint_{S_1} f dS = \int_0^a \int_0^{2\pi} Rb^2 R d\phi dR = b^2 \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \int_0^a R^2 dR = 2\pi b^2 \frac{a^3}{3}$$

$I_3$  is the same as  $z = +b \Rightarrow f = Rb^2$  is the same and the surface is “identical” (disk of radius  $a$ )

$$I_3 = \frac{2}{3}\pi b^2 a^3$$

Finally  $I_2$ : Here  $R = a$  does not vary

$$dS = ad\phi dz$$

$$f = az^2 \quad -b \leq z \leq b \text{ and } 0 \leq \phi \leq 2\pi$$

$$I_2 = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_{-b}^b az^2 adz d\phi = 2\pi a^2 \int_{-b}^b z^2 dz = 2\pi a^2 \left[ \frac{z^3}{3} \right]_{-b}^b = \frac{4\pi a^2 b^3}{3}$$

$$I = I_1 + I_2 + I_3 = \frac{2\pi b^2 a^3}{3} + \frac{4\pi b^3 a^2}{3} + \frac{2\pi b^2 a^3}{3} = \frac{4\pi}{3} b^2 a^2 (b + a)$$

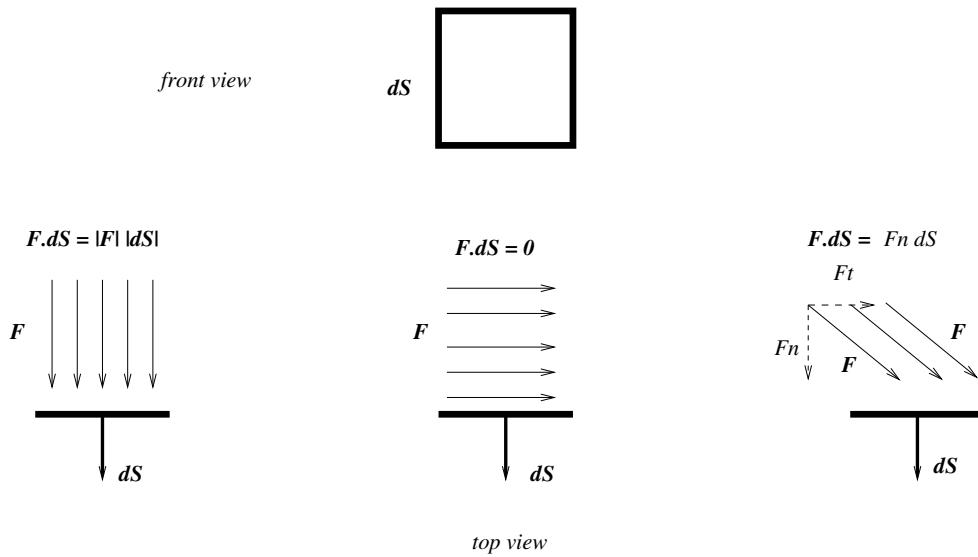
## 5.3 Vector form of a surface integral

### 5.3.1 Why? - Notion of Flux

The flux of the vector quantity  $\mathbf{F}$  across the surface  $dS$  is the ‘amount’ of  $\mathbf{F}$  crossing the elementary surface  $dS$ . Only the component  $F_n$  of  $\mathbf{F}$  normal to  $dS$  will cross it, the tangential part  $F_t$  just slides/goes along it. In other words, if we consider the unit vector  $\mathbf{n}$  normal to the surface  $dS$ , the local flux is

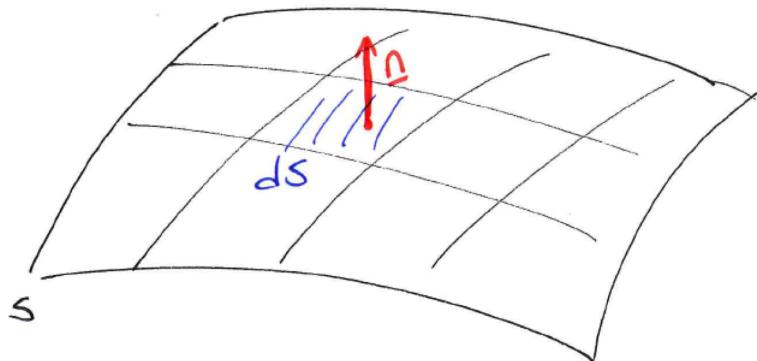
$$\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

by defining  $d\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{n} dS$ . See figure below for illustration.



### 5.3.2 Definition

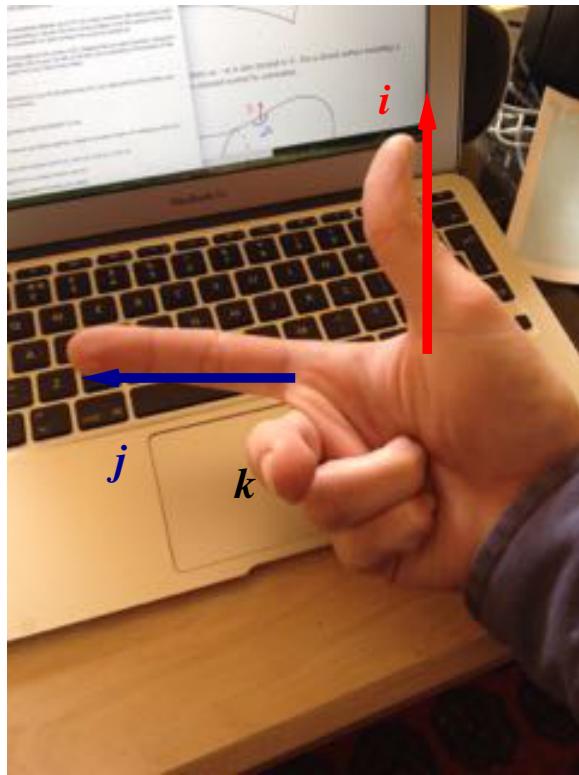
Consider a surface  $S$  with a unit normal vector  $\mathbf{n}$



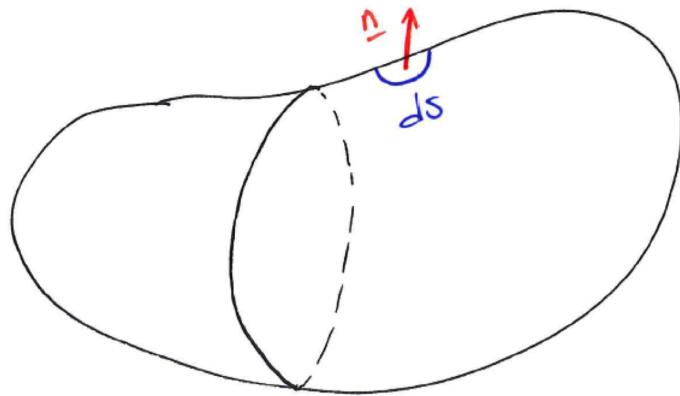
Here the direction  $\mathbf{n}$  is somewhat arbitrary as  $-\mathbf{n}$  is also normal to  $S$  and is also a unit vector. For a closed surface bounding a volume  $V$  the normal is taken to be the outward normal by convention. This follows the convention for open surface that could be worded as

*Consider a surface  $S$  bounded by the contour  $C$ . Imagine that you walk (forward!) along  $C$  such that you keep the surface  $S$  to your left at all time, you're standing in the direction of the normal, i.e. the normal goes from your feet to your head.*

... alternatively



*The right-hand convention: If your thumb goes along  $C$ , direction  $\mathbf{i}$  in the figure, your index points at the surface, direction  $\mathbf{j}$  in the figure, your middle finger gives the normal., denoted  $\mathbf{k}$  in the figure*



We have seen that we can define a surface integral of a scalar function  $f$  (defined on  $S$ ) by  $\iint_S f dS$ .

Now given the vector function  $\mathbf{F} = F_x \mathbf{i} + F_y \mathbf{j} + F_z \mathbf{k}$ .

$\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}$  is a scalar function, say  $f$ .

We can therefore define

$$d\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{n} dS$$

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \iint_S (\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}) dS = \iint_S f dS$$

Note that  $d\mathbf{s}$  only depends on the surface  $S$ .

### Examples

(i) Evaluate

$$I = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

for

$$\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{r}$$

and  $S$  is the surface of the upper hemisphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1, z \geq 0$ .

Here  $dS = \sin \theta d\theta d\phi \mathbf{e}_r$  as  $r = 1$  here. On the upper hemisphere of radius 1,  $0 < \phi < 2\pi$  and  $0 < \theta < \pi/2$ . On the surface of the hemisphere  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{e}_r$  so the integral is

$$I = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \mathbf{e}_r \cdot \mathbf{e}_r \sin \theta d\theta d\phi = 2\pi.$$

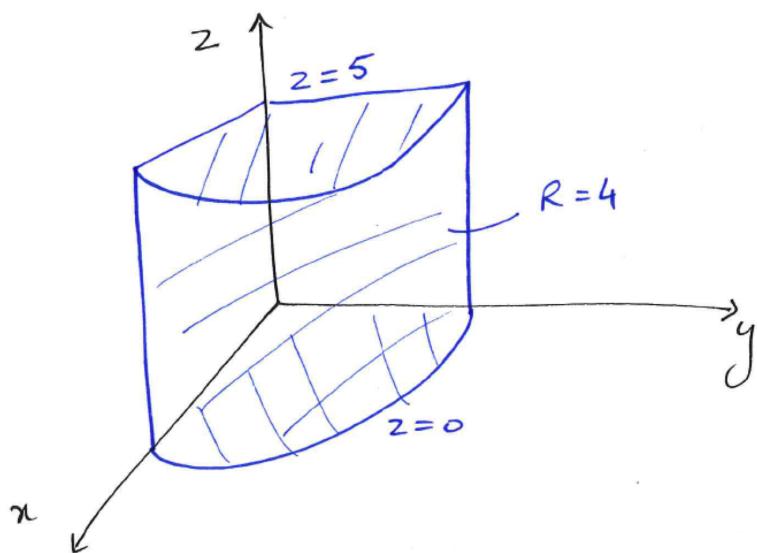
(ii) Evaluate

$$I = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

where

$$\mathbf{F} = y^2 \mathbf{j}$$

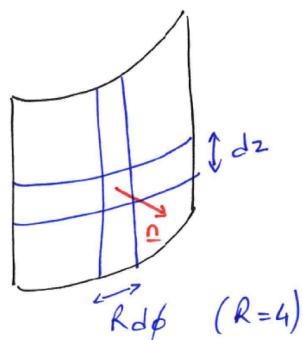
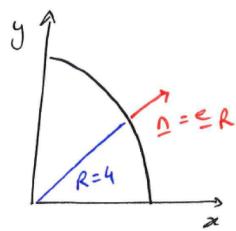
And  $S$  is the portion of the surface of a cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 16$  between  $z = 0$  and  $z = 5$  in the first octant ( $x, y, z \geq 0$ ).



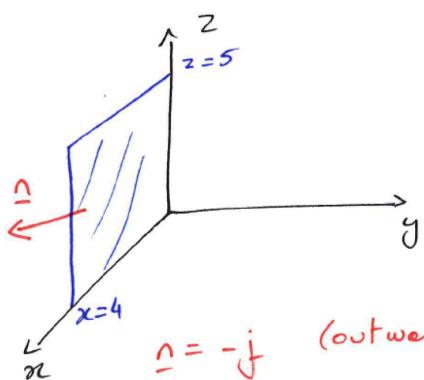
We will take the normal vectors pointing outward.

We have 5 sides in this surface:

Let's define them

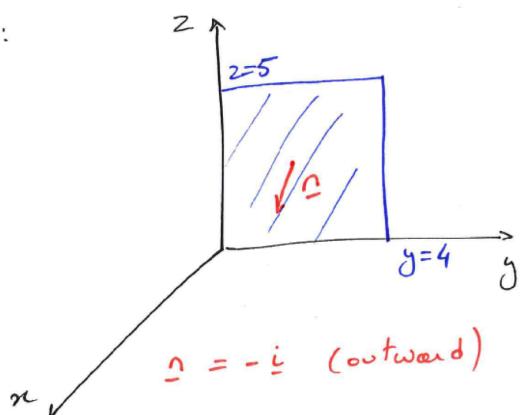
$S_1:$ Top view

$$ds = R dz d\phi \underline{e}_R$$

 $S_2:$ 

$$\begin{aligned} y &= 0 \\ 0 &\leq x \leq 4 \\ 0 &\leq z \leq 5 \end{aligned}$$

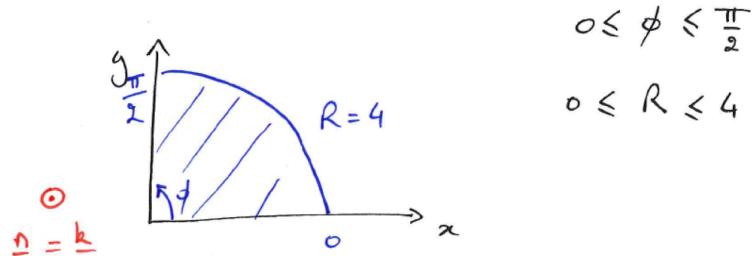
$$ds = -dx dz \underline{j}$$

 $S_3:$ 

$$\begin{aligned} x &= 0 \\ 0 &\leq y \leq 4 \\ 0 &\leq z \leq 5 \end{aligned}$$

$$ds = -dy dz \underline{i}$$

$S_4$  : The top surface



$$ds = R dR d\phi \underline{k}$$

$S_5$  : The bottom surface

$$z = 0$$

$$0 \leq R \leq 4$$

$$0 \leq \phi \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\underline{n} = -\underline{k} \quad (\text{downward})$$

$$ds = -R dR d\phi \underline{k}$$

Let's integrate now

$$I_1 = \iint_{S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^5 /y^2 \mathbf{j} \cdot (4dzd\phi) \mathbf{e}_R$$

$$y^2 = (R \sin \theta)^2 \text{ with } R = 4$$

$$I_1 = \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^5 4^3 \sin^2 \phi \mathbf{j} \cdot \mathbf{e}_R dz d\phi$$

$$\mathbf{e}_R = \cos \phi \mathbf{i} + \sin \phi \mathbf{j}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{j} \cdot \mathbf{e}_R = \sin \phi$$

$$I_1 = \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^5 64 \sin^3 \phi dz d\phi$$

$$= 320 \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^3 \phi \phi d\phi$$

Use

$$\sin^3 \phi = \sin \phi \sin^2 \phi$$

$$= \sin \phi (1 - \cos^2 \phi)$$

and substitute  $u = \cos \phi$ ,  $du = -\sin \phi d\phi$

$$\begin{aligned} I_1 &= 320 \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^3 \phi d\phi = 320 \int_1^0 (1 - u^2)(-du) \\ I_1 &= 320 \int_0^1 (1 - u^2) du = 320 \left[ u - \frac{u^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{640}{3} \\ I_2 &= y = 0 \text{ on } S_2 \Rightarrow \mathbf{F} = 0 \\ &\Rightarrow \iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = 0 \\ I_3 &= \iint_{S_3} \mathbf{S} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \int_0^4 \int_0^5 y^2 \mathbf{j} - (-i d2dy) = 0 \text{ as } \mathbf{i} \cdot \mathbf{j} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$I_4 = I_5 = 0$  as well as  $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0$  ( $\mathbf{n} = \pm \mathbf{k}$ )

$$\Rightarrow I = I_1 = \frac{640}{3}$$

### 5.3.3 General case: parametric form

In the general case, a surface may be described by two independent (curvilinear) co-ordinates, say  $u, v$

$$S = \{\mathbf{r} = (x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v)), (u, v) \in D\}$$

where  $D$  is the domain of  $(u, v)$  (e.g.  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ).

$$dS = \left| \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v} \right| dudv$$

You can recover again all most common  $dS$ 's this way!

Note that for a planar surface  $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = (x(u, v), y(u, v), 0)$ , we recover the Jacobian!