

Level surface area elements for orthogonal coordinates

We already know from Lecture 17 that the standard representation of a surface has the form

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(u, v), \quad u_{\min} \leq u \leq u_{\max}, \quad v_{\min} \leq v \leq v_{\max} \quad (1)$$

where u and v are appropriately restricted curvilinear coordinates, and the corresponding surface area element is

$$dS = |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v| du dv. \quad (2)$$

Often—but by no means always*—these two curvilinear coordinates are orthogonal, that is, the direction in which u increases is perpendicular to the direction in which v increases, or

$$\mathbf{r}_u \cdot \mathbf{r}_v = 0. \quad (3)$$

Then

$$\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v = |\mathbf{r}_u| |\mathbf{r}_v| \sin\left(\frac{1}{2}\pi\right) \widehat{\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v} = |\mathbf{r}_u| |\mathbf{r}_v| \widehat{\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v}, \quad (4)$$

implying $|\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v| = |\mathbf{r}_u| |\mathbf{r}_v| |\widehat{\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v}| = |\mathbf{r}_u| |\mathbf{r}_v| \cdot 1 = |\mathbf{r}_u| |\mathbf{r}_v|$. Hence if—and only if—the curvilinear coordinates are orthogonal, then by (2) the surface area element is the product of the arc element $|\mathbf{r}_u| du$ generated when u increases infinitesimally while v is held fixed and the arc element $|\mathbf{r}_v| dv$ generated when v increases infinitesimally while u is held fixed:

$$dS = |\mathbf{r}_u| |\mathbf{r}_v| du dv = |\mathbf{r}_u| du |\mathbf{r}_v| dv. \quad (5)$$

Often these arc elements—and hence the corresponding surface area element—can be readily determined by simple geometry, thus obviating the need to calculate $\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v$.

For example, suppose that the underlying coordinate system is that of spherical polar coordinates ρ (radial extension, or distance from origin), θ (azimuth or longitude) and ϕ (colatitude). No matter where you are in space, you are at distance ρ from the origin on both a “great circle” (meridional circle) of radius ρ and a “small circle” (circle of latitude) of radius ($r =$) $\rho \sin(\phi)$, which is the distance from the axis between north and south poles. If you increase ρ a little bit while holding ϕ and θ constant, then you just move a little bit further directly away from the origin, and so the arc element is just $d\rho$; if you increase ϕ a little bit while holding ρ and θ constant, then you move a little bit further away from the north pole along your great circle in the direction of decreasing latitude, and so the arc element is $\text{RADIUS} \cdot d\phi = \rho d\phi$; and if you increase θ a little bit while holding ρ and ϕ constant, then you move a little bit further east along your small circle in the direction of increasing longitude, and so the arc element is $\text{RADIUS} \cdot d\theta = \rho \sin(\phi) d\theta$. Gathering our results together, the three arc elements are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} |\boldsymbol{\rho}_\rho| d\rho &= d\rho && (\text{increasing } \rho; \theta \text{ and } \phi \text{ held constant}) \\ |\boldsymbol{\rho}_\theta| d\theta &= \rho \sin(\phi) d\theta && (\text{increasing } \theta; \rho \text{ and } \phi \text{ held constant}) \\ |\boldsymbol{\rho}_\phi| d\phi &= \rho d\phi && (\text{increasing } \phi; \rho \text{ and } \theta \text{ held constant}) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

*The most obvious exception is the triangular region of Lecture 18, whose coordinates are not orthogonal unless the triangle itself is right-angled.

If we multiply all three arc elements together, then (6) tells us that the volume element for spherical polars is $dV = d\rho \cdot \rho \sin(\phi) d\theta \cdot \rho d\phi = \rho^2 \sin(\phi) d\rho d\theta d\phi$, as of course we have now known for several weeks. However, volume elements do not concern us here: we are interested only in surface area elements. And to create a surface, we must fix one coordinate.

There are, of course, precisely three possibilities. First, if we fix ρ , say $\rho = a$ in (6), then we obtain a sphere of radius a , for which

$$dS = |\boldsymbol{\rho}_\theta| d\theta \cdot |\boldsymbol{\rho}_\phi| d\phi = a \sin(\phi) d\theta \cdot a d\phi = a^2 \sin(\phi) d\theta d\phi. \quad (7a)$$

The corresponding unit outward normal is

$$\mathbf{n} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\rho}} = \frac{\boldsymbol{\rho}}{|\boldsymbol{\rho}|} = \frac{\boldsymbol{\rho}}{a} = \frac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}}{a} = \sin(\phi) \cos(\theta)\mathbf{i} + a \sin(\phi) \sin(\theta)\mathbf{j} + a \cos(\phi)\mathbf{k} \quad (7b)$$

because $\rho = a$ on the sphere, implying $x = \{a \sin(\phi)\} \cos(\theta)$, $y = \{a \sin(\phi)\} \sin(\theta)$ and $z = \{a \cos(\phi)\}$. Thus we have determined $\mathbf{n} dS$ without needing to calculate $\boldsymbol{\rho}_\theta \times \boldsymbol{\rho}_\phi$.

If we fix θ , say $\theta = \omega$ in (6), then we obtain a meridional plane, for which

$$dS = |\boldsymbol{\rho}_\rho| d\rho \cdot |\boldsymbol{\rho}_\phi| d\phi = d\rho \cdot \rho d\phi = \rho d\rho d\phi. \quad (8a)$$

In this case—unlike the first—the corresponding unit outward normal is a constant vector

$$\mathbf{n} = -\sin(\omega)\mathbf{i} + \cos(\omega)\mathbf{j} + 0\mathbf{k} \quad (8b)$$

because the plane is vertical and makes a fixed angle $\theta = \omega$ with the x - z plane, from which the azimuthal angle is measured; note that \mathbf{n} points east, the direction in which azimuth would be increasing if we hadn't fixed it. Here, in effect, we have standard two-dimensional polar coordinates turned around and shifted up into a vertical plane, with r , θ and $z = 0$ replaced by ρ , ϕ and $\theta = \omega$, respectively. But rarely does a use for (8) arise in practice—whereas (7) constantly earns its keep.

Finally, if we fix ϕ , say $\phi = \gamma$ in (6) with $0 < \gamma < \frac{1}{2}\pi$, then we obtain a cone, for which

$$dS = |\boldsymbol{\rho}_\rho| d\rho \cdot |\boldsymbol{\rho}_\theta| d\theta = d\rho \cdot \rho \sin(\gamma) d\theta = \sin(\gamma) \rho d\rho d\theta \quad (9a)$$

with corresponding downward unit normal

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{n} &= \cos(\gamma)\hat{\mathbf{r}} - \sin(\gamma)\mathbf{k} \\ &= \cos(\gamma) \cos(\theta)\mathbf{i} + \cos(\gamma) \sin(\theta)\mathbf{j} - \sin(\gamma)\mathbf{k} \end{aligned} \quad (9b)$$

where $\mathbf{r} = r \cos(\theta)\mathbf{i} + r \sin(\theta)\mathbf{j}$. Here, in effect, we have obtained \mathbf{n} by first resolving it in terms of its horizontal (parallel to $\hat{\mathbf{r}}$) and vertical (parallel to \mathbf{k}) components in an arbitrary meridional plane. For that we need only a simple sketch. Thus we have determined $\mathbf{n} dS$ without needing to calculate $\boldsymbol{\rho}_\rho \times \boldsymbol{\rho}_\theta$, just as in the other cases.

In cylindrical polar coordinates, the three expressions corresponding to (7)–(9) are

$$dS = |\boldsymbol{\rho}_r| dr \cdot |\boldsymbol{\rho}_\theta| d\theta = dr \cdot r d\theta = r dr d\theta \quad (10a)$$

with unit normal

$$\mathbf{n} = \pm \mathbf{k} \quad (10b)$$

for a horizontal ($z = \text{constant}$) plane,

$$dS = |\boldsymbol{\rho}_r| dr \cdot |\boldsymbol{\rho}_z| dz = r dr dz \quad (11a)$$

with unit normal

$$\mathbf{n} = \pm \{-\sin(\omega)\mathbf{i} + \cos(\omega)\mathbf{j} + 0\mathbf{k}\} \quad (11b)$$

for a meridional ($\theta = \text{constant} = \omega$) plane and

$$dS = |\boldsymbol{\rho}_\theta| d\theta \cdot |\boldsymbol{\rho}_z| dz = a d\theta dz \quad (12a)$$

with outward unit normal

$$\mathbf{n} = \hat{\mathbf{r}} = \cos(\theta)\mathbf{i} + \sin(\theta)\mathbf{j} + 0\mathbf{k} \quad (12b)$$

for a vertical ($r = \text{constant} = a$) cylinder with axis of symmetry along the z -axis. Rarely does a use for (11)—which corresponds, in effect, to Cartesian coordinates in a meridional plane—arise in practice, but (10) and (12) both earn their keep.