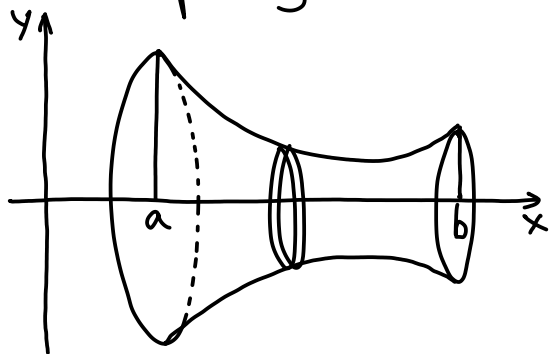


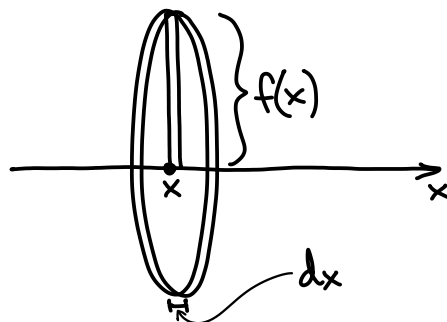
## 5.1 - Introduction: Areas and Volumes

As with partial derivatives in Chapter 2, we begin with an example that is convenient - but ultimately not the best as a primary point of view.

Recall computing the volume in a rotated surface:



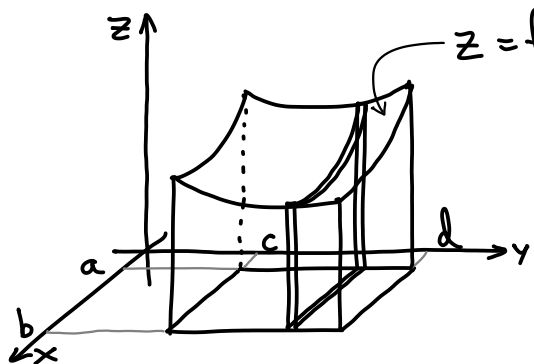
$$V = \int dv$$



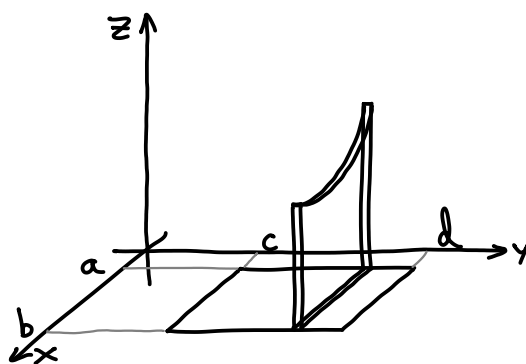
$$dv = \pi (f(x))^2 dx$$

Conveniently,  $dv$  here is a shape we already understand.

How can we compute the volume under the graph  $z = f(x, y)$  (continuous, non-negative) over a rectangle?



$$V = \int dv$$

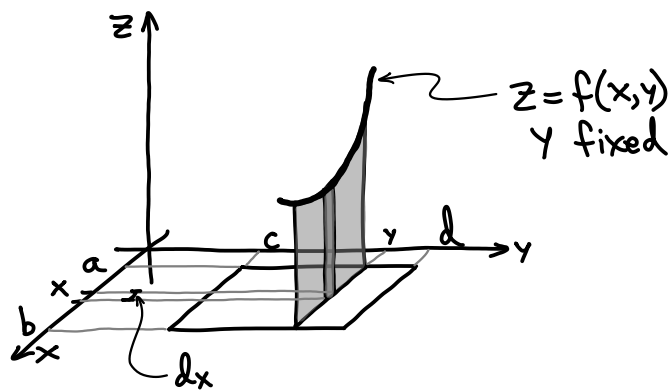


$$dv = ?$$

One face of the slice is the area under a curve!

$$\text{So } A(y) = \int_a^b f(x,y) dx$$

$$\text{and } dv = A(y) dy \\ = \left( \int_a^b f(x,y) dx \right) dy$$



$$\text{Then } V = \int_c^d \left( \int_a^b f(x,y) dx \right) dy.$$

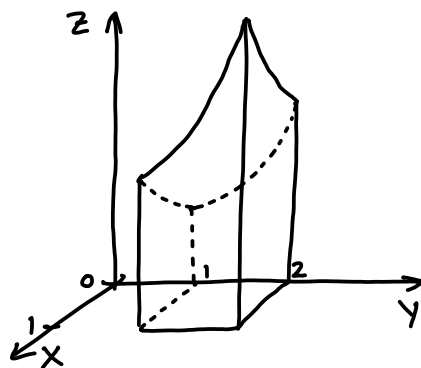
This is an iterated integral.

NB -  $dy$  integral was written 1st, but  $dx$  is evaluated 1st!  
Use "inside", "outside"!

For the inside integral ( $dx$ ), the outside variable ( $y$ ) is constant.

Ex:1) Find the volume under the graph of  $f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$  over the rectangle  $[0,1] \times [1,2]$ .

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \int_1^2 \left( \int_0^1 x^2 + y^2 dx \right) dy \\ &= \int_1^2 \left[ \frac{1}{3} x^3 + x y^2 \right]_{x=0}^{x=1} dy \\ &= \int_1^2 \left( \left( \frac{1}{3} + y^2 \right) - (0) \right) dy \\ &= \left[ \frac{1}{3} y + \frac{1}{3} y^3 \right]_1^2 = \left( \frac{10}{3} - \frac{2}{3} \right) = \frac{8}{3} \end{aligned}$$



Alternatively, we could compute this same volume by slicing first in the  $x$ -direction. (Think through these details!)

The result is  $V = \int_a^b \left( \int_c^d f(x,y) dy \right) dx$ .

So  $\int_c^d \left( \int_a^b f(x,y) dx \right) dy = V = \int_a^b \left( \int_c^d f(x,y) dy \right) dx$ .

So you can switch the order of the differentials (and the bounds!).

Warning: This result only works when the domain is a rectangle.

In single variable, we also computed things like the mass of a rod with  $\delta = \delta(x)$ . What if we want to compute the mass of a rectangular sheet with  $\delta = \delta(x,y)$  ← (mass per unit area)?

Previously:  $V = \int_c^d \left( \int_a^b f(x,y) dx \right) dy$  (height)(length) = area  
area accumulates

Now...?:  $m \stackrel{?}{=} \int_c^d \left( \int_a^b \delta(x,y) dx \right) dy$   $\left( \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{area}} \right)$  (length) = ??  
accumulates?

This argument has a problem then — for every application other than volume!

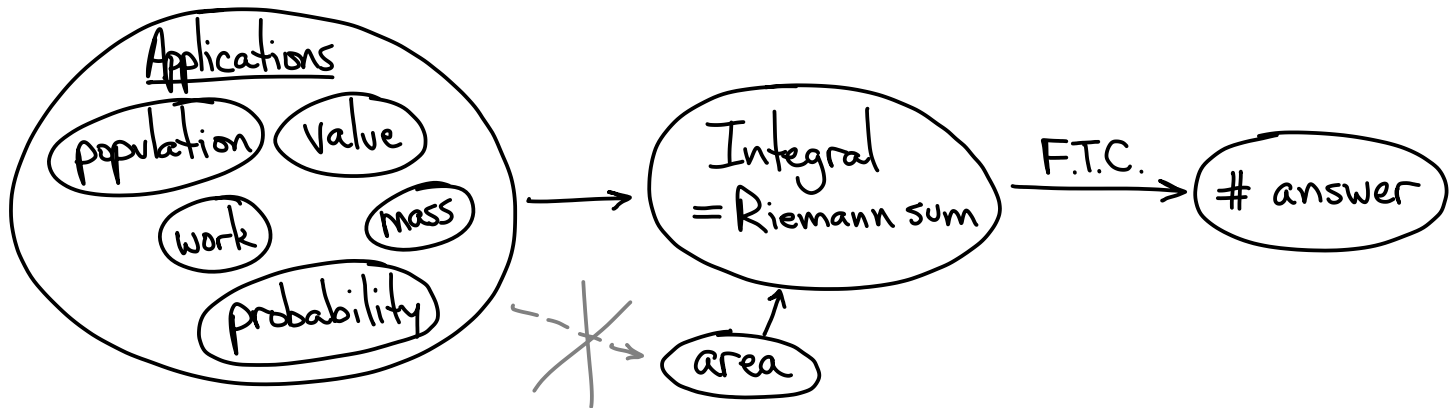
## 5.2 - Double Integrals

Recall that a single variable integral is a Riemann sum!

Def: For  $f$  continuous on  $[a, b]$ ,

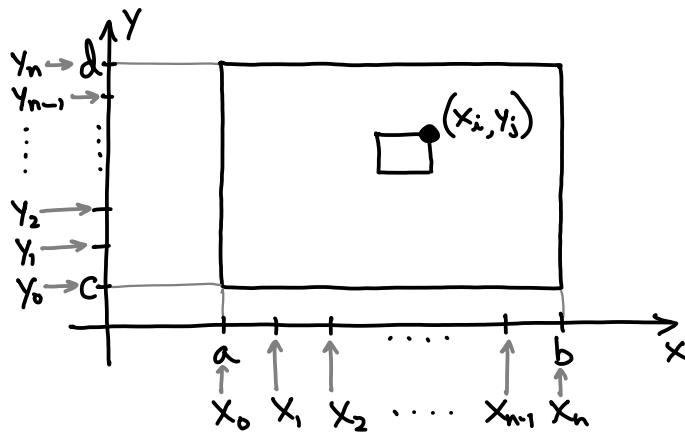
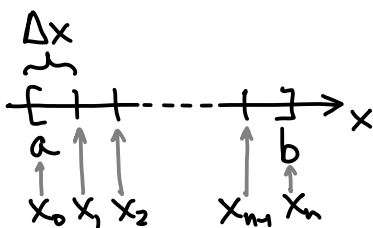
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x \quad \left( \Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}, x_i = a + i \Delta x \right)$$

"Area under a graph" is mostly a visual aid — rarely the goal and almost never immediately useful for applications!



Sometimes we need to add up over a rectangle...

We should try to generalize the idea of a Riemann sum to a 2-d domain.



$$\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$$

$$\Delta y = \frac{d-c}{n}$$

$$x_i = a + i \Delta x$$

$$y_j = c + j \Delta y$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x$$

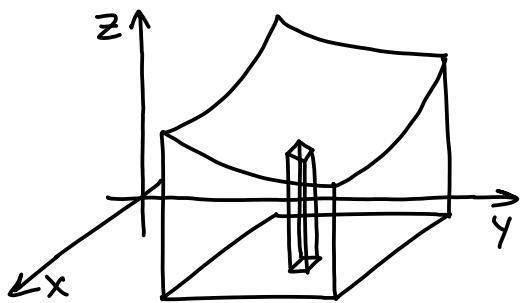
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i,j=1}^n f(x_i, y_j) \Delta x \Delta y$$

Def: For  $f$  continuous on  $R = [a,b] \times [c,d]$ , the double integral is

$$\iint_R f(x,y) dA = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i,j=1}^n f(x_i, y_j) \Delta x \Delta y$$

(The book uses "irregular partitions" and "test points"...  
For continuous  $f(x,y)$ , these make no difference!)

Ex: Volume under a graph  $z = f(x,y)$  (continuous, positive)



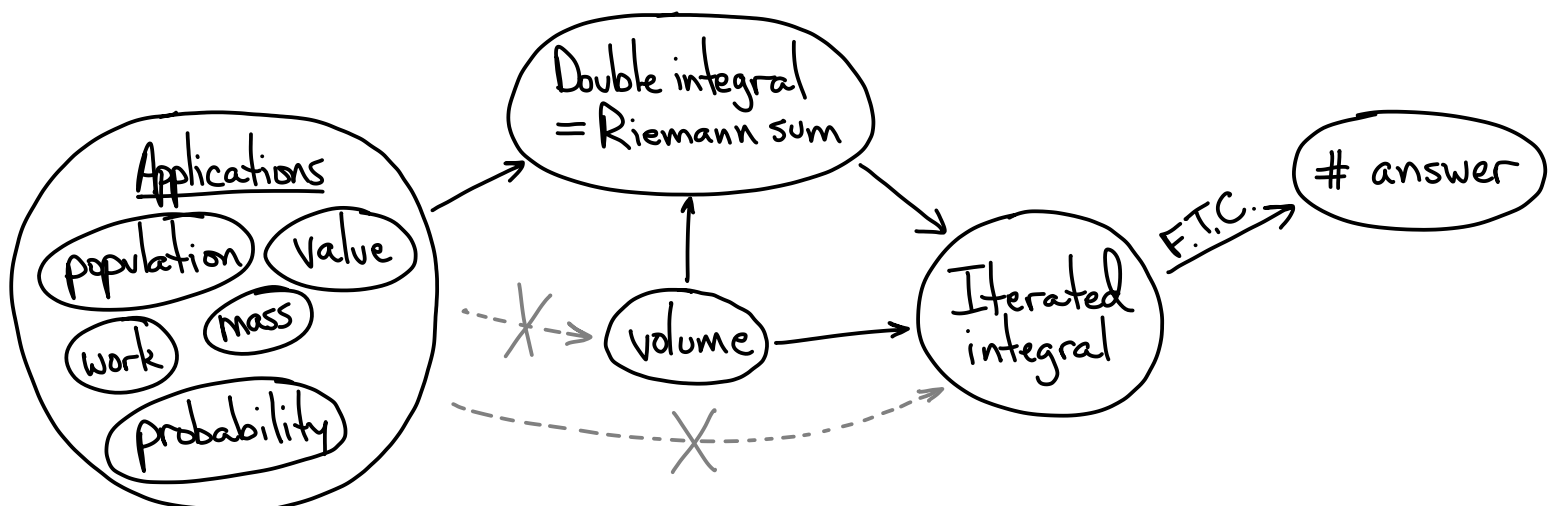
$$\begin{aligned} V &= \lim \sum \Delta V \\ &= \lim \sum f(x_i, y_j) \Delta x \Delta y \\ &= \iint_R f(x,y) dA \end{aligned}$$

But previously we computed this volume with iterated integrals...

Thm: For  $f$  continuous on  $R = [a,b] \times [c,d]$ ,

$$\iint_R f dA = \int_a^b \int_c^d f dy dx = \int_c^d \int_a^b f dx dy$$

This allows for a 3-step argument for computing:



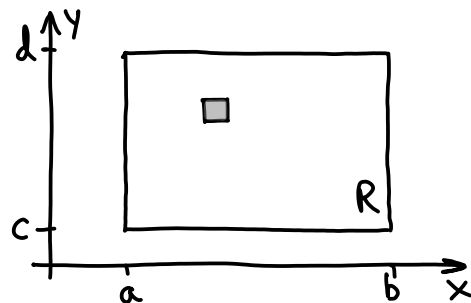
Ex:) Compute the mass on the rectangular sheet  $R=[a,b] \times [c,d]$  with  $\delta = \delta(x,y)$ .

$$\textcircled{1} m = \lim \sum \Delta m = \lim \sum \delta(x,y) \Delta x \Delta y = \iint_R \delta \, dA$$

(Alt:  $= \iint dm = \iint \delta \, dx \, dy = \iint_R \delta \, dA$ .)

$$\textcircled{2} \iint_R \delta \, dA = \int_a^b \int_c^d \delta \, dy \, dx$$

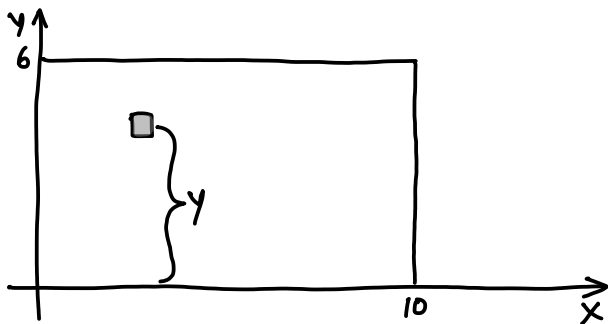
$\textcircled{3}$  Compute  $\int_a^b \int_c^d \delta \, dy \, dx$  with F.T.C.



Double integral notation is a convenient shorthand for the development of a Riemann sum.

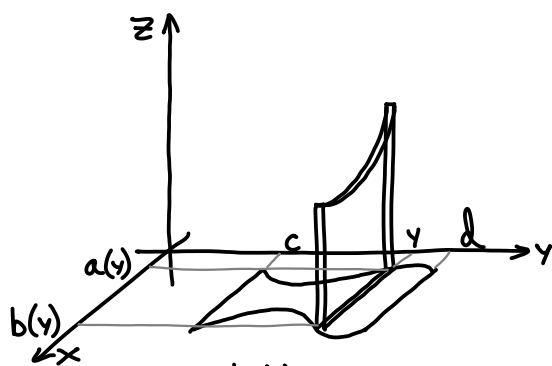
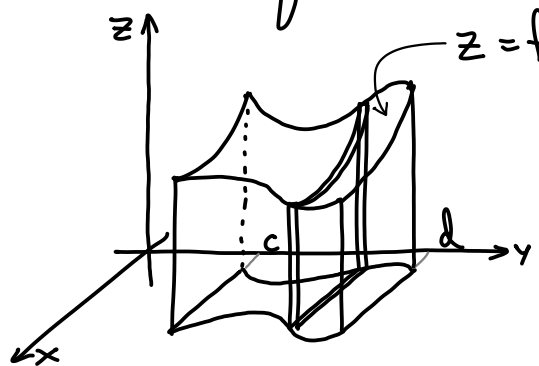
Ex:) A wall is to be  $[0,10] \times [0,6]$  in the  $xy$ -plane ( $y$  is up), with  $\delta(x,y) = 1+x+y$ . How much work does it take to build this wall using materials on  $y=0$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \iint dW \\ &= \iint y \, dF \\ &= \iint y \delta \, dA \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_0^{10} \int_0^6 (y)(1+x+y) \, dy \, dx = \int_0^{10} \int_0^6 y + xy + y^2 \, dy \, dx \\ &= \int_0^{10} \left[ \frac{1}{2}y^2 + \frac{1}{2}xy^2 + \frac{1}{3}y^3 \right]_{y=0}^{y=6} dx = \int_0^{10} 90 + 18x \, dx = 90x + 9x^2 \Big|_0^{10} \\ &= 1800 \end{aligned}$$

What if the domain is not a rectangle? Think back to the volume question...



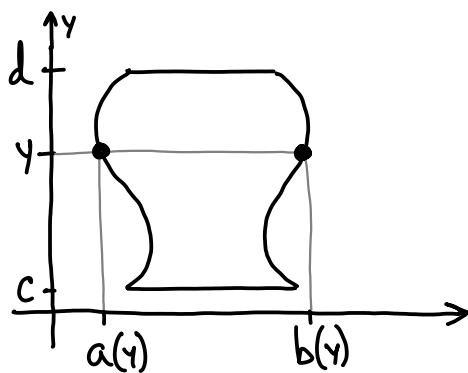
$$V = \int dv$$

$$= \int_c^d \int_{a(y)}^{b(y)} f(x, y) dx dy$$

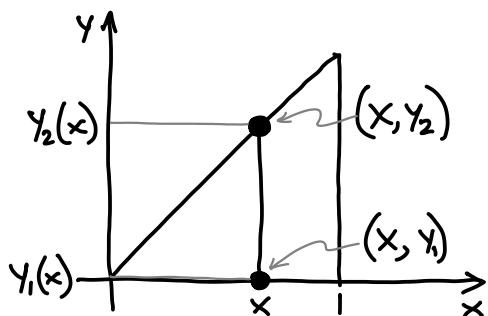
The inner bounds become functions of the outer variable!

Note, you only need to look at the domain to figure out these bounds!

Bounds define points on curves with equations... Solve!



Ex:)  $D$  is the triangle with vertices  $(0,0)$ ,  $(1,0)$ ,  $(1,1)$ .  
Compute  $\iint_D x+y dA$ .

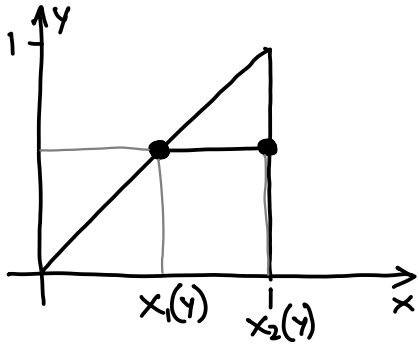


①  $x \in [0, 1]$

②  $(x, y_1)$  is on  $y=0$ , so  $y_1(x) = 0$   
 $(x, y_2)$  is on  $y=x$ , so  $y_2(x) = x$

$$\iint_D x+y dA = \int_0^1 \int_0^x x+y dy dx = \int_0^1 \left( xy + \frac{1}{2} y^2 \right) \Big|_{y=0}^{y=x} dx = \int_0^1 \frac{3}{2} x^2 dx \dots$$

Alt:



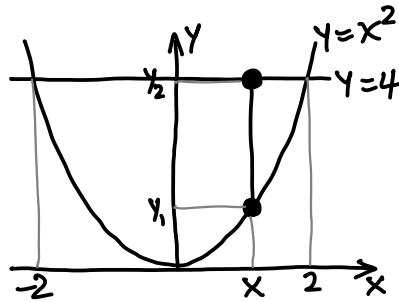
①  $y \in [0, 1]$

②  $(x_1, y)$  is on  $y=x$ , so  $x_1(y)=y$   
 $(x_2, y)$  is on  $x=1$ , so  $x_2(y)=1$

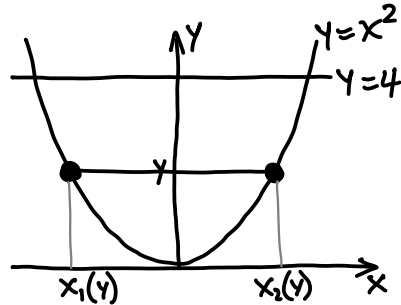
$$\iint_D x+y \, dA = \int_0^1 \int_{x=y}^1 x+y \, dx \, dy = \int_0^1 \left( \frac{1}{2}x^2 + xy \right) \Big|_{x=y}^{x=1} dy$$
$$= \int_0^1 \left( \frac{1}{2} + y \right) - \left( \frac{3}{2}y^2 \right) dy = \dots$$

Ex:  $D$  is bounded by  $y=x^2$  and  $y=4$ . Write  $\iint_D f \, dA$  as an iterated integral.

$$\int_{-2}^2 \int_{x^2}^4 f \, dy \, dx$$



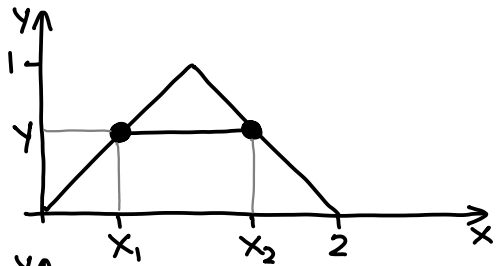
$$\int_0^4 \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} f \, dx \, dy$$



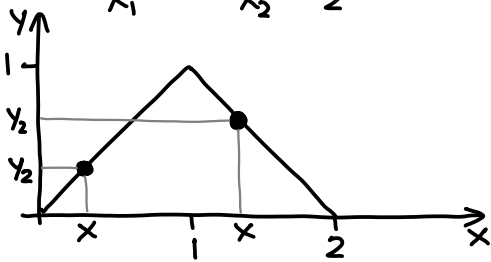
All else being equal, if the bound equation(s) have a clear "input" variable, it's nice to put that on the outside.



Ex.:  $D$  is the triangle with corners  $(0,0)$ ,  $(1,1)$ ,  $(2,0)$ .  
Write  $\iint_D f \, dA$  as an iterated integral.



$$\int_0^1 \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f \, dx \, dy$$



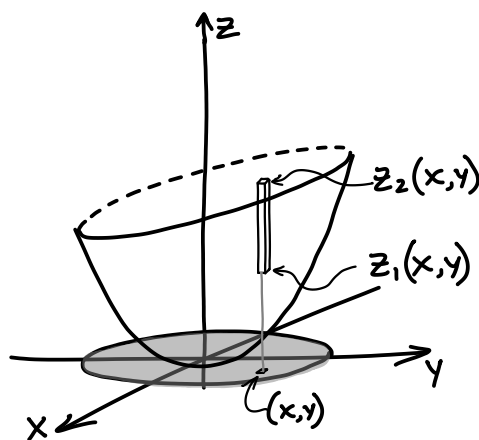
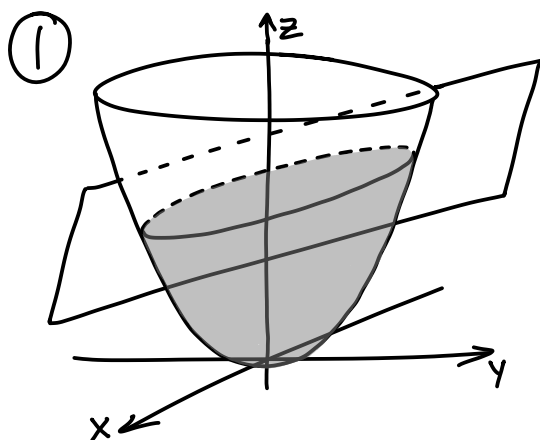
$$\int_0^1 \int_0^x f \, dy \, dx + \int_1^2 \int_0^{2-x} f \, dy \, dx$$

If you can, try to slice so that your inner bound functions are nice!

Alt.: Try not to slice through corners!

Sometimes you have to find the domain.

Ex.: Find the volume between  $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $4x + 8y + 2z = 7$ .



$$V = \iint dV$$

$$= \iint (z_2 - z_1) \, dA$$

② Domain is determined by where these surfaces intersect — where  $z_1(x,y) = z_2(x,y)$ !

$$x^2 + y^2 = \frac{7}{2} - 2x - 4y$$

$$x^2 + 2x + y^2 + 4y = \frac{7}{2}$$

$$(x^2 + 2x + 1) + (y^2 + 4y + 4) = \frac{7}{2} + 1 + 4$$

$$(x+1)^2 + (y+2)^2 = \frac{17}{2}$$

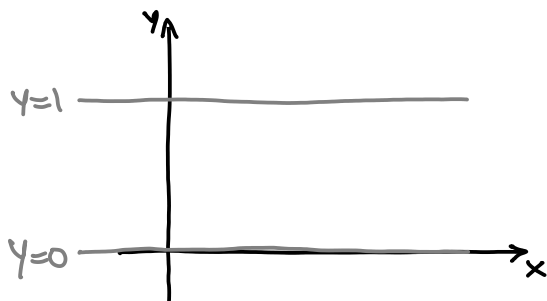
## 5.3 - Changing the Order of Integration

From an iterated integral you can infer the domain of the double integral, and then slice in the other order. Sometimes this is useful.

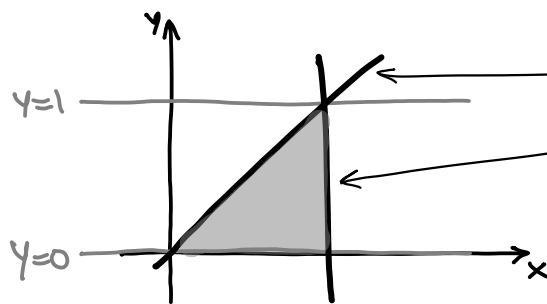
Ex: Compute  $\int_0^1 \int_y^1 e^{x^2} dx dy$

(Problem:  $\int e^{x^2} dx$  can't be written in closed form...)

The outer bounds mean the domain  $D$  is bounded by the lines  $y=0, y=1$ :



The inner bounds mean  $D$  is bounded by  $x(y)=y, x(y)=1$ :



So the shaded region is  $D$ . Slicing the other way gives

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_D e^{x^2} dA &= \int_0^1 \int_0^x e^{x^2} dy dx \\ &= \int_0^1 x e^{x^2} dx \end{aligned}$$

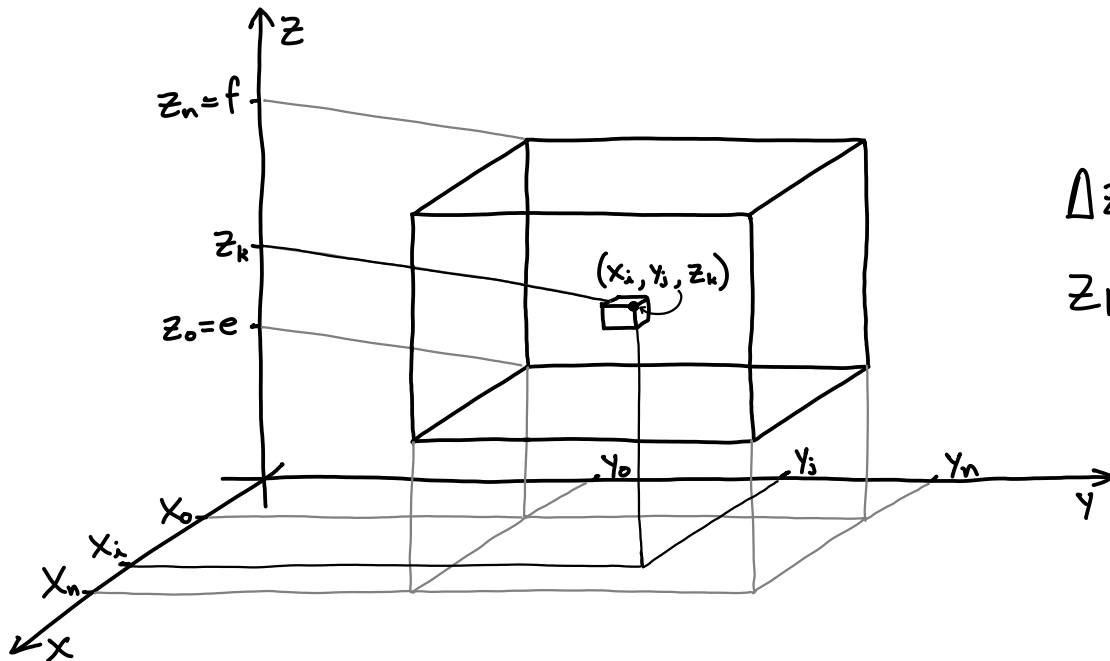
which can be computed by the substitution  $u=x^2$ !

## 5.4 - Triple Integrals

Sometimes we need to add up over a 3-d region!

- How much mass is in a solid with  $\delta = \delta(x, y, z)$ ?
- What is the probability of an event with p.d.f.  $f(x, y, z)$ ?

We should try to generalize the idea of a Riemann sum to a 3-d domain.



$$\Delta z = \frac{f - e}{n}$$

$$z_k = e + k\Delta z$$

Def.: For  $f$  continuous on  $R = [a, b] \times [c, d] \times [e, f]$ ,  
the triple integral is

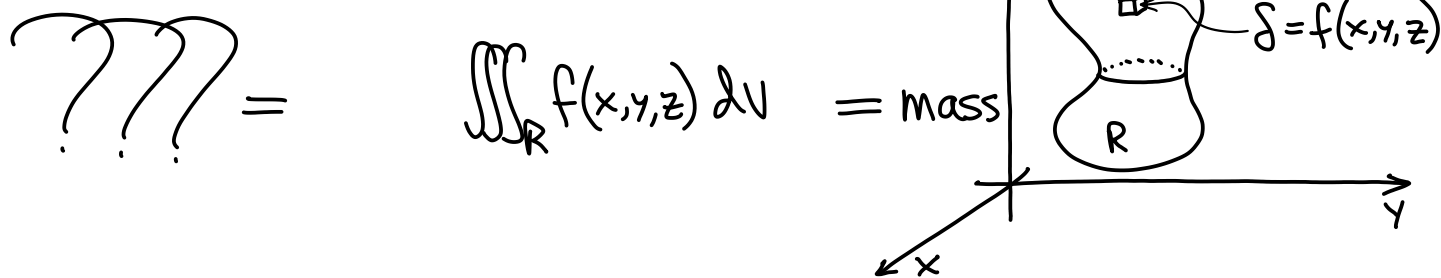
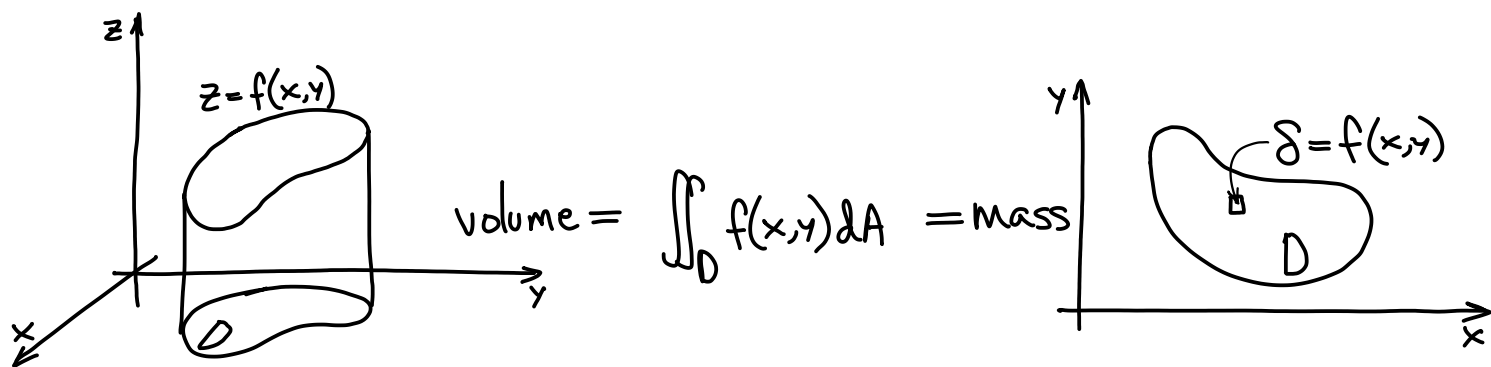
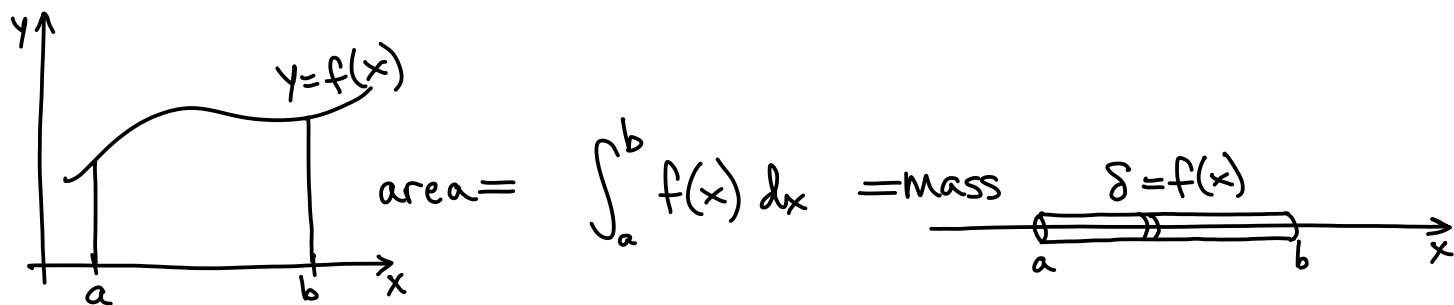
$$\iiint_R f(x, y, z) \, dV = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i, j, k=1}^n f(x_i, y_j, z_k) \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$$

(The book uses "irregular partitions" and "test points" ...  
For continuous  $f(x, y)$ , these make no difference!)

Exi) What is the mass in  $R$  with  $\delta = \delta(x, y, z)$ ?

$$m = \iiint dm = \iiint_R \delta(x, y, z) dV$$

There is no "standard" geometric example/application...



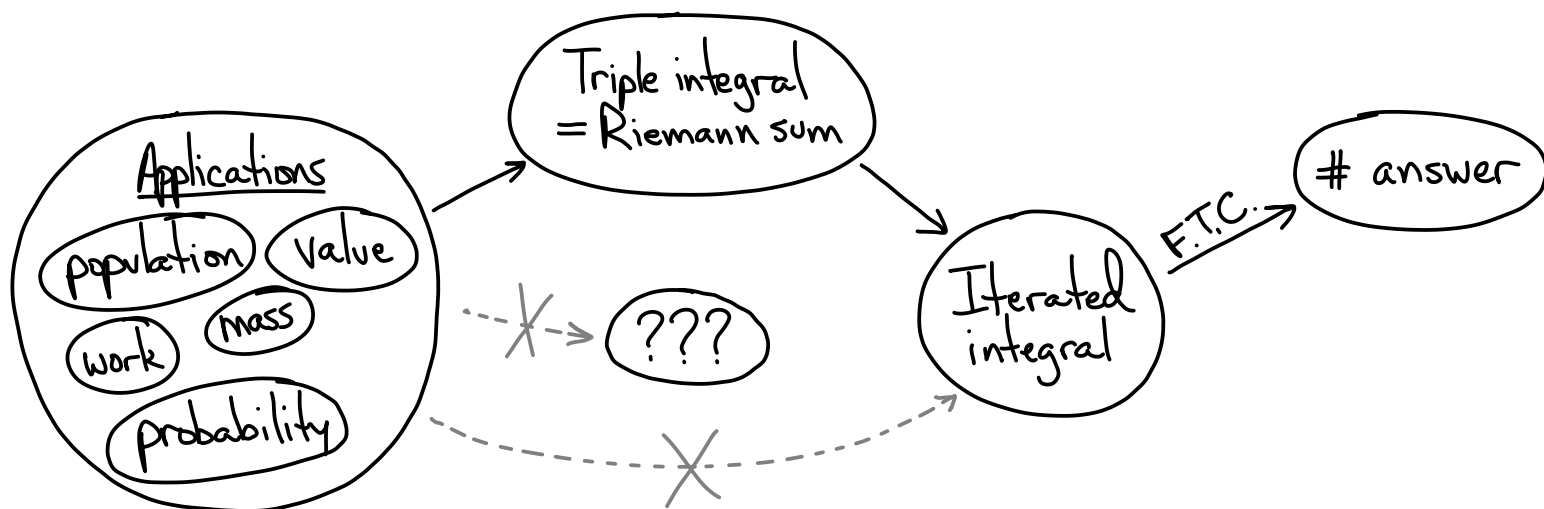
This is another argument against the graph point of view on single/double integrals... It sets up an unsustainable pattern!

Without the graph point of view we can't argue like we did for double integrals. But still:

Thm:) For  $f$  continuous on  $R = [a,b] \times [c,d] \times [e,f]$ ,

$$\iiint_R f \, dV = \int_a^b \int_c^d \int_e^f f \, dz \, dy \, dx = \int_e^f \int_c^d \int_a^b f \, dx \, dy \, dz = \dots$$

This allows for a 3-step argument for computing:



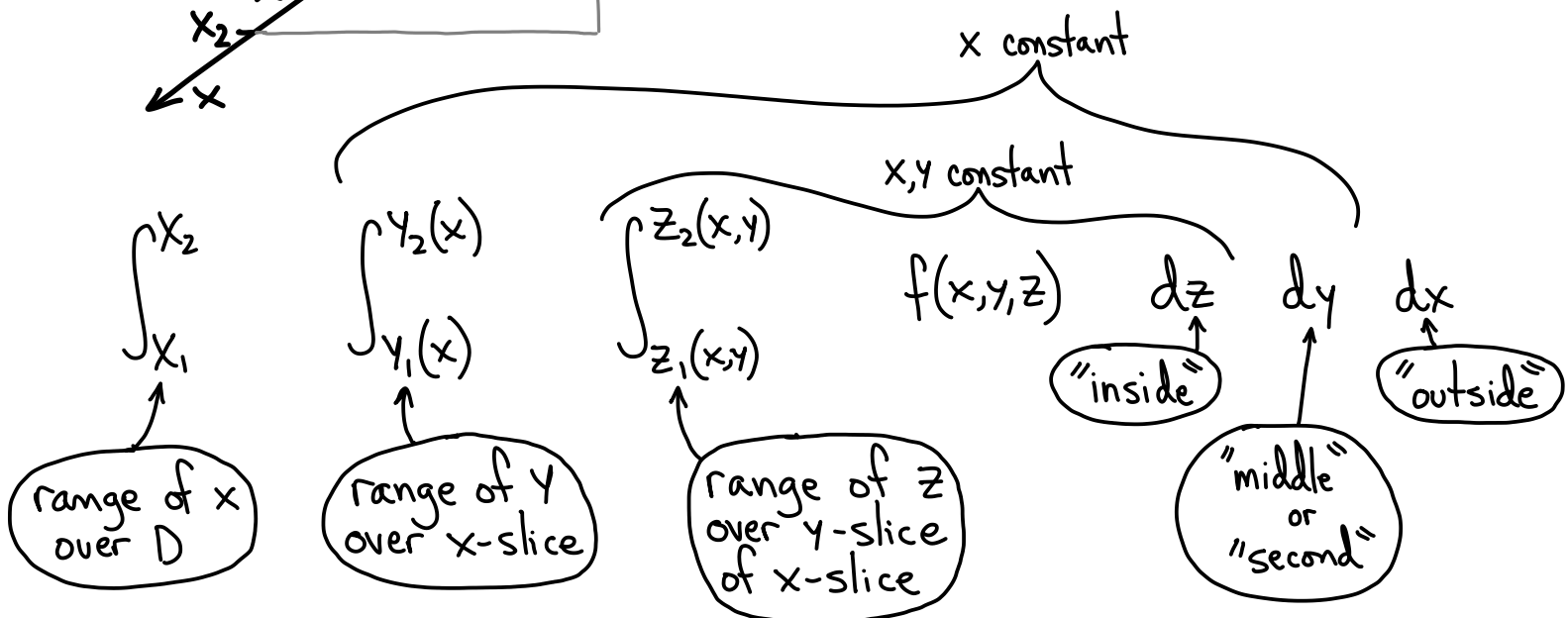
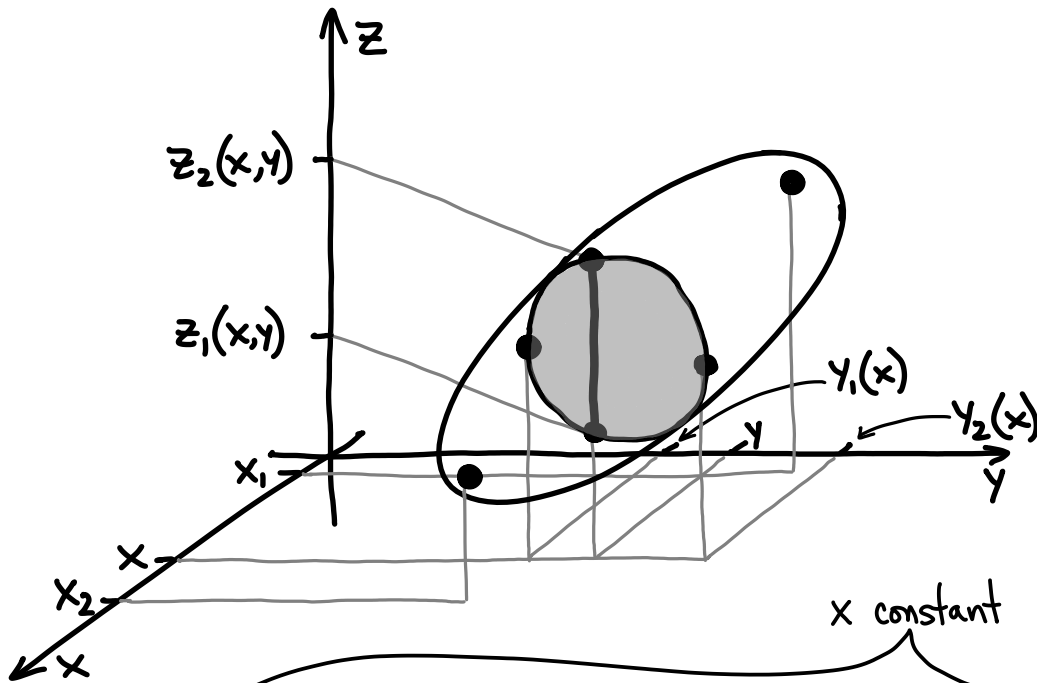
Ex:) Compute the mass in  $R = [1,2] \times [0,2] \times [0,1]$  with  $\delta(x,y,z) = 1 + 2xyz$ .

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \iiint_R \delta \, dV = \int_0^2 \int_1^2 \int_0^1 1 + 2xyz \, dz \, dx \, dy \\ &= \int_0^2 \int_1^2 \left[ z + xyz^2 \right]_{z=0}^{z=1} dx \, dy \\ &= \int_0^2 \int_1^2 1 + xy \, dx \, dy = \int_0^2 \left[ x + \frac{1}{2}x^2y \right]_{x=1}^{x=2} dy \\ &= \int_0^2 1 + \frac{3}{2}y \, dy = \left[ y + \frac{3}{4}y^2 \right]_0^2 = 5 \end{aligned}$$

For non-rectangular domains, again we can't make a geometric argument like we did for double integrals.

But the process is analogous, constructing the iterated integral:

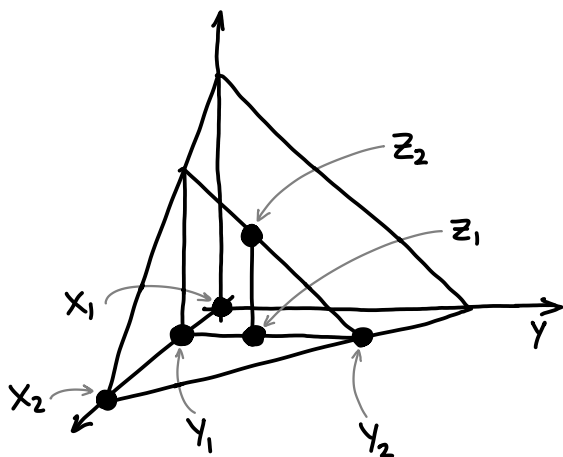
- ① Slice it orthogonal to a coordinate axis.
- ② Identify the bounds for that coordinate integral by the locations of the first and last slices.
- ③ Fix a slice, by a generic value of that variable.



Note:

- This constructs the iterated integral "outside" to "inside".
- Each bound can be a function of variable(s) further to the outside.
- Bounds come from points on surfaces with equations.

Ex:1)  $T$  is the tetrahedron bounded by  
 $x=0, y=0, z=0, x+y+z=1$ .



$$\begin{aligned}x_2: y=0, z=0, x+y+z=1 &\Rightarrow x_2=1 \\y_2: x=x, z=0, x+y+z=1 &\Rightarrow y_2=1-x \\z_2: x=x, y=y, x+y+z=1 &\Rightarrow z_2=1-x-y\end{aligned}$$

$$\iiint_T f \, dV = \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} f \, dz \, dy \, dx$$

You can slice in any of 6 orders. Choose wisely!

- Try not to slice through corners.
- If one variable is more naturally a function of the others, put it on the inside.
- Look for "good" projections:
  - "shadow" is desirable;
  - "top", "bottom" surfaces each consistent & desirable;
  - then, with those two variables on the outside, the projection gives the bounds!



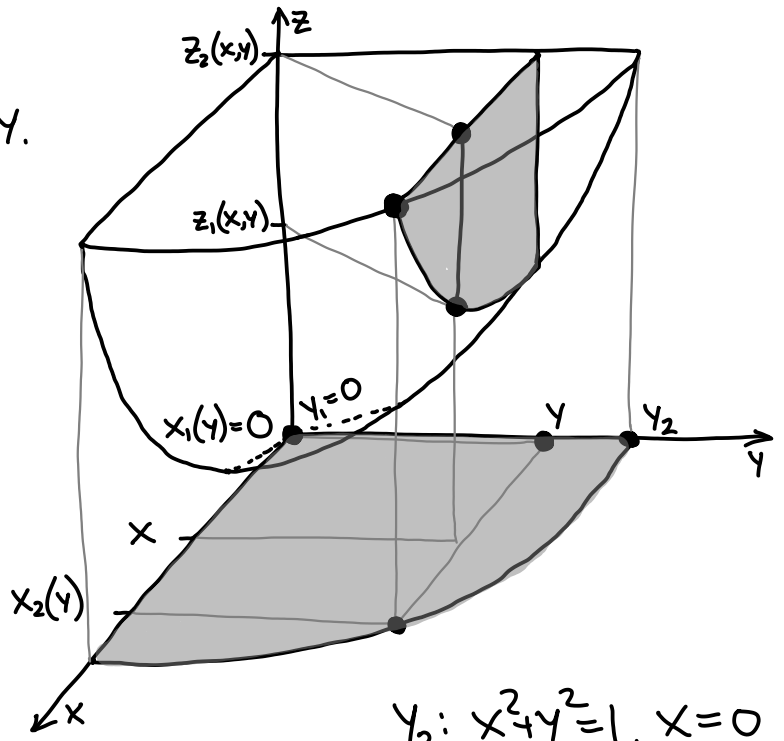
Ex:  $R$  is the region in the first octant bounded by  $z=1$ ,  $z=x^2+y^2$ .

①  $z$  is best as a fn of  $x, y$ .

② "good" projection to  $xy$ -plane.

So we choose " $dz dx dy$ " and look at the  $xy$  shadow for the  $x$  &  $y$  bounds.

Circular edge is where  $z=x^2+y^2$ ,  $z=1$ , so  $x^2+y^2=1$ .

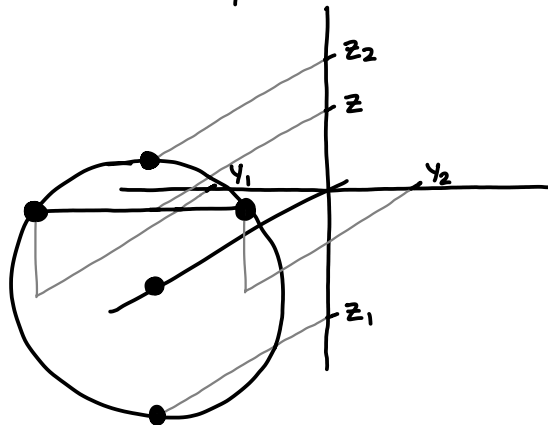
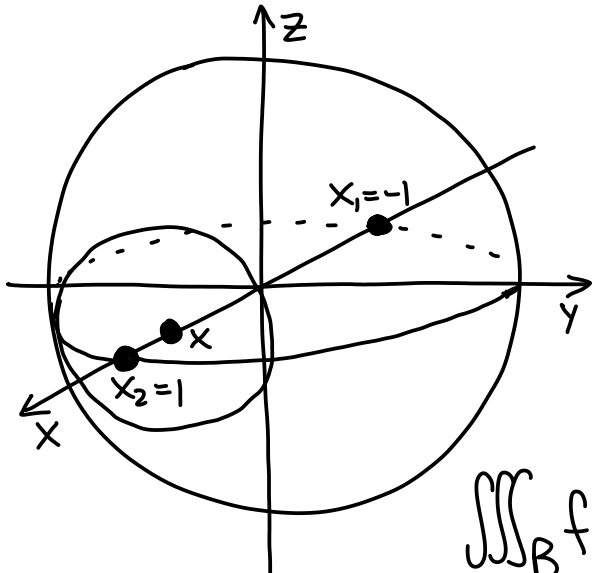


$$y_2: x^2+y^2=1, x=0 \Rightarrow y_2=1$$

$$x_2: y=y, x^2+y^2=1 \Rightarrow x_2=\sqrt{1-y^2}$$

$$\iiint_R f dV = \int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} \int_{x^2+y^2}^1 f dz dx dy$$

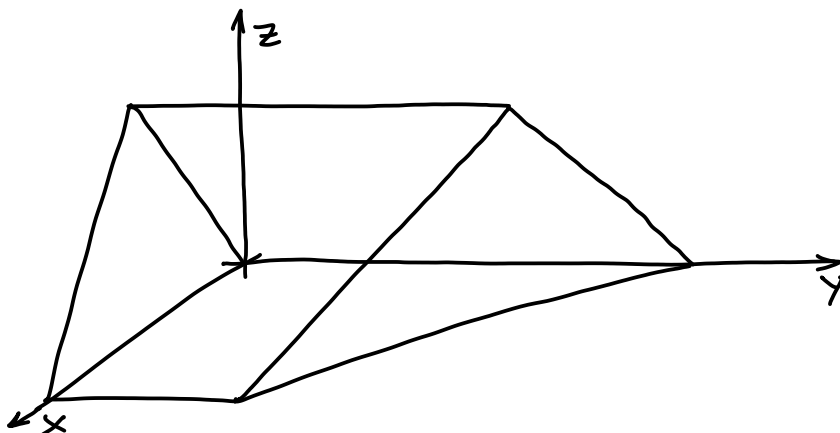
Ex:  $B$  is the unit ball, choose  $dy dz dx$ .



$$\iiint_B f dV = \int_{-1}^1 \int_{-\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \int_{-\sqrt{1-x^2-z^2}}^{\sqrt{1-x^2-z^2}} f dy dz dx$$

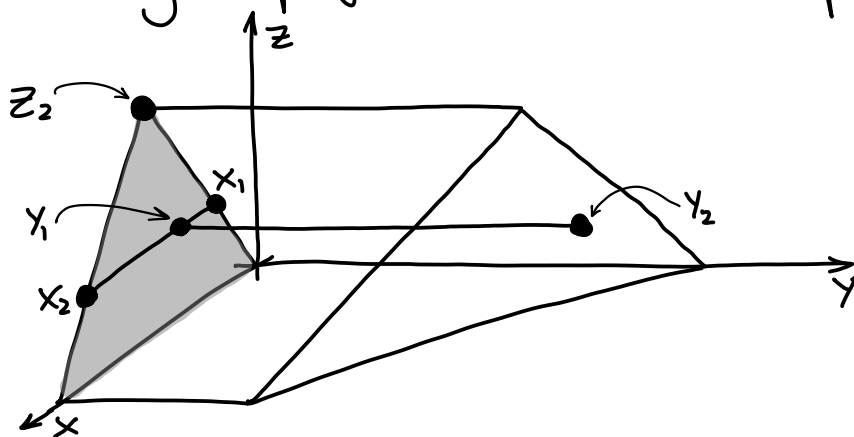
Ex:)  $R$  is bounded by:  $y=0, z=0, z=x, x+y+z=3, x+z=2$ .

① Trick for drawing: Note 3 eq's have no y's  $\Rightarrow$  || to y-axis.



②a) Note that the only slicing that avoids corners is  $dy dx dz$ .

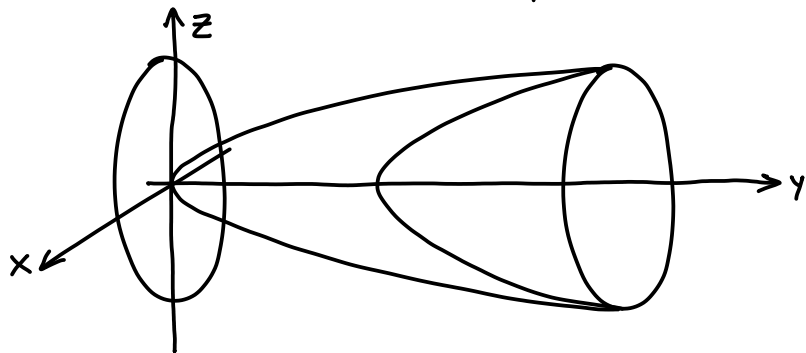
②b) There is a good projection to the  $xz$ -plane.



③

$$\iiint_R f \, dV = \int_0^1 \int_z^{2-z} \int_0^{3-x-z} f \, dy \, dx \, dz$$

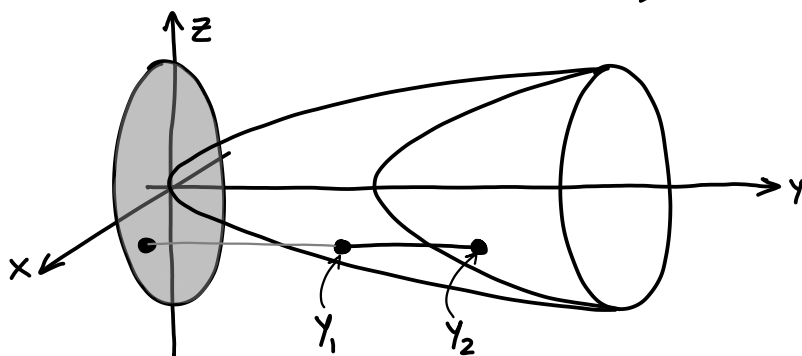
Ex:)  $R$  is bounded by  $y = x^2 + z^2 + 4$ ,  $y = 2(x^2 + z^2)$ .



- (a)  $y$  is dependent
  - (b) good proj. to  $xz$ -plane
- $\Rightarrow$  choose  $dy dz dx$

Shadow is defined by the intersection:

$$y_1 = y_2 \Rightarrow x^2 + z^2 + 4 = 2(x^2 + z^2) \Rightarrow x^2 + z^2 = 4$$

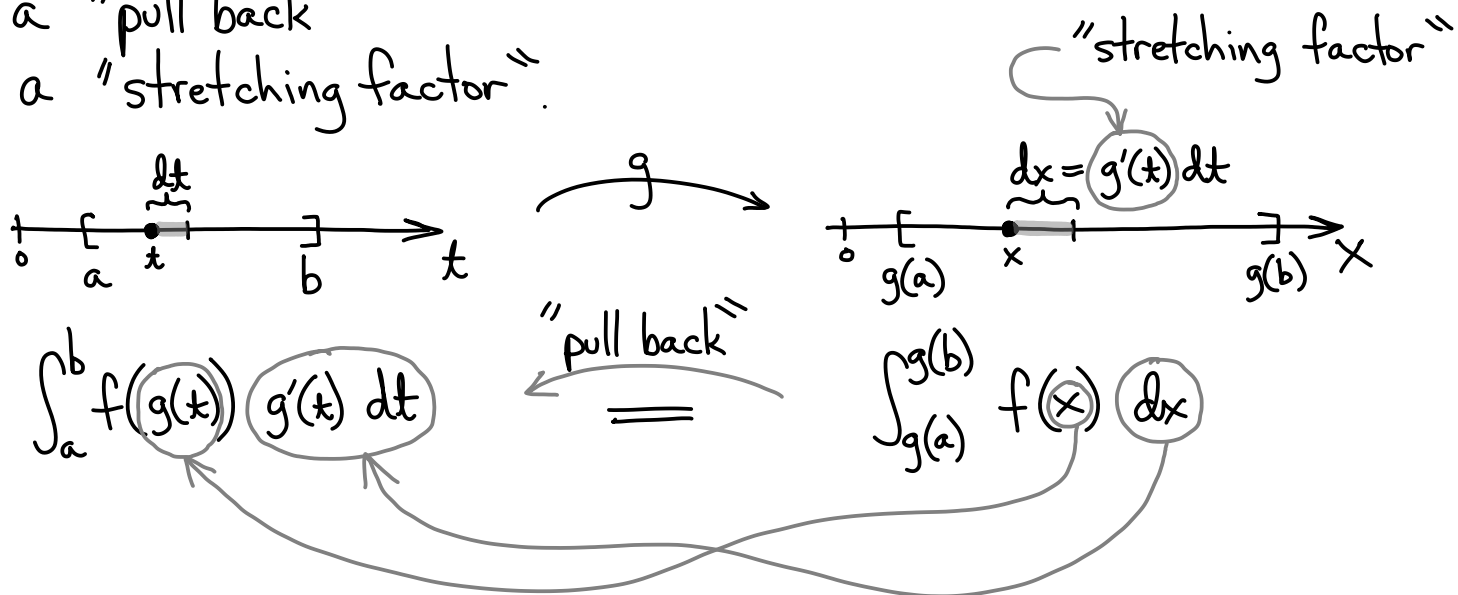


So 
$$\iiint_R f \, dV = \int_{-2}^2 \int_{-\sqrt{4-x^2}}^{\sqrt{4-x^2}} \int_{2(x^2+z^2)}^{x^2+z^2+4} f \, dy \, dz \, dx$$

# 5.5 - Change of Variables

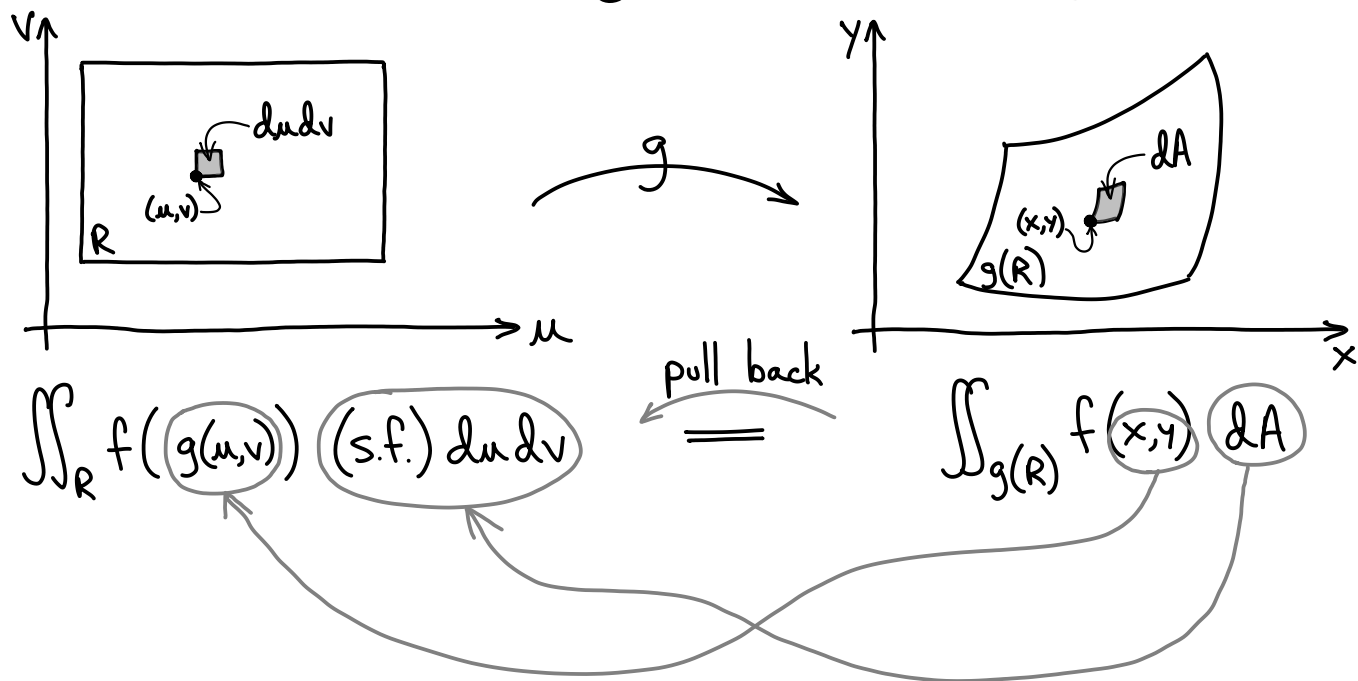
The substitution rule can be thought of in terms of

- ① a "pull back"
- ② a "stretching factor".



This changes both the integrand and the domain.

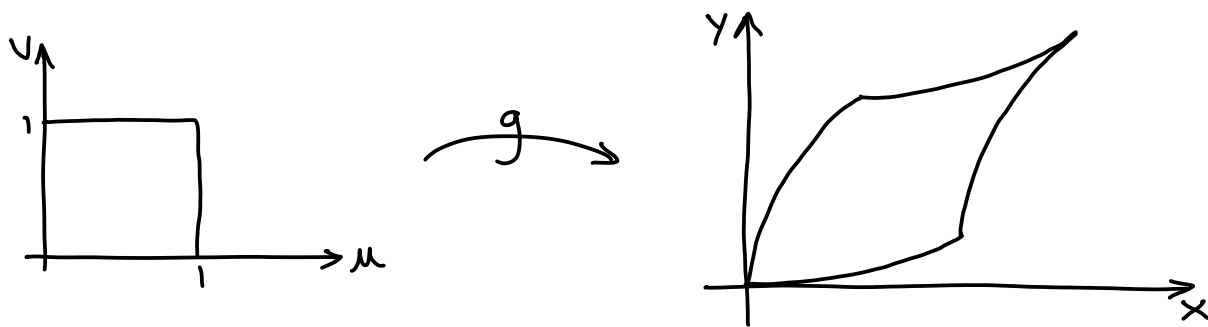
We can do the same thing for double integrals.



Turns out the stretching factor is

$$(\text{s.f.}) = |\det Dg| = \left| \det \begin{pmatrix} \partial x / \partial u & \partial x / \partial v \\ \partial y / \partial u & \partial y / \partial v \end{pmatrix} \right| = \left| \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} \right|$$

Ex: Compute  $\iint_D x+y \, dA$ , where  $D$  in the  $xy$ -plane is the image of the unit square  $S$  in the  $uv$ -plane by  $g(u,v) = (u^2+3v, v^2+3u) = (x,y)$ .



$$\frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} = \det \begin{pmatrix} 2u & 3 \\ 3 & 2v \end{pmatrix} = 4uv - 9$$

$$\left| \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} \right| = |4uv - 9| = 9 - 4uv$$

$$\text{Then } \iint_D x+y \, dA = \iint_S ((u^2+3v) + (v^2+3u))(9-4uv) \, du \, dv$$

Some useful transformations:

This  $g$ ...

$$g(u,v) = (u+a, v+b)$$

$$g(u,v) = (ku, v)$$

$g =$  ccw rotation by  $\theta$

... does this in the pull back:

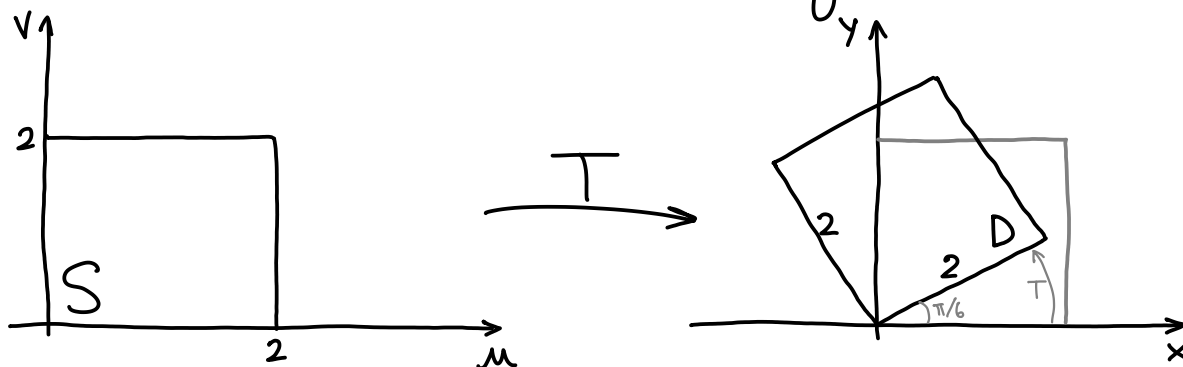
translates by  $(-a, -b)$

squishes by  $k$  in  $x$ -direction

rotates cw by  $\theta$

Ex:  $D$  is the square with corners at  $\vec{0}$ ,  $(\sqrt{3}, 1)$ ,  $(-1, \sqrt{3})$ ,  $(\sqrt{3}-1, \sqrt{3}+1)$ .  
 Compute  $\iint_D 2x-y \, dA$ .

$D$  is a ccw rotation of an easier square:



$$T\begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} = A\begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \\ 1/2 & \sqrt{3}/2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\det DT = \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} = \det \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \\ 1/2 & \sqrt{3}/2 \end{pmatrix} = 1$$

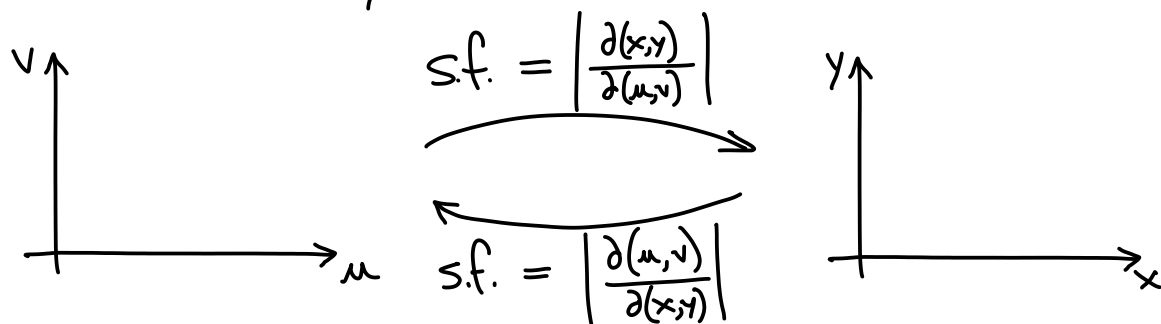
(This is geometrically expected — but, show the calculation!)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \iint_D 2x-y \, dA &= \iint_S \left( 2\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}u - \frac{1}{2}v\right) - \left(\frac{1}{2}u + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}v\right) \right) (|1| \, du \, dv) \\ &= \int_0^2 \int_0^2 \left( \sqrt{3} - \frac{1}{2} \right) u + \left( -1 - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \right) v \, du \, dv \end{aligned}$$

Some details about the transformation:

- must be continuously differentiable.
- must be invertible.

Sometimes it is easier to think of the transformation going the other way.



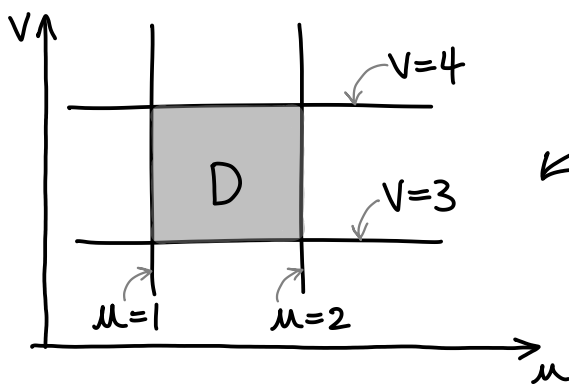
The composition does nothing, so  $\left| \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} \right| \left| \frac{\partial(u,v)}{\partial(x,y)} \right| = 1$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} \right| = \frac{1}{\left| \frac{\partial(u,v)}{\partial(x,y)} \right|}$$

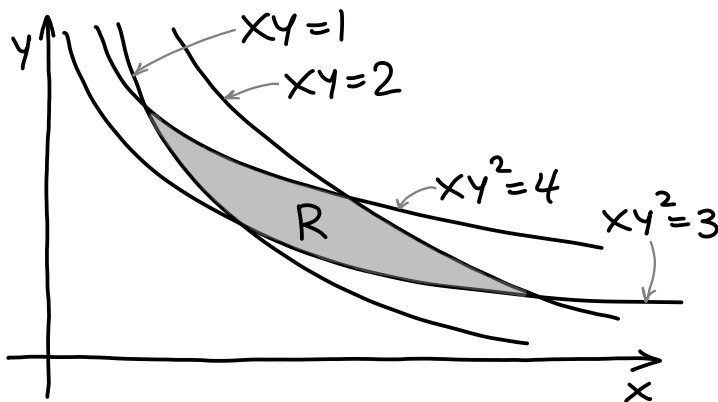
So these s.f. behave like fractions - even though they aren't.

Ex:  $R$  is bounded by  $xy=1$ ,  $xy=2$ ,  $xy^2=3$ ,  $xy^2=4$ .  
in the first quadrant. Compute  $\iint_R x^8 y^3 dA$ .

Choose  $u=xy$ ,  $v=xy^2$ .



$$\begin{aligned} u &= xy \\ v &= xy^2 \end{aligned}$$



Easy to compute  $\frac{\partial(u,v)}{\partial(x,y)} = \det \begin{pmatrix} y & x \\ y^2 & 2xy \end{pmatrix} = xy^2$

Then the s.f. we need is  $\frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} = \frac{1}{xy^2}$ . Then

So we have

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_R x^8 y^3 dx dy &= \iint_D x^8 y^3 \left| \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} \right| du dv \\ &= \iint_D x^8 y^3 \left( \frac{1}{xy^2} \right) du dv = \int_3^4 \int_1^2 x^7 y du dv\end{aligned}$$

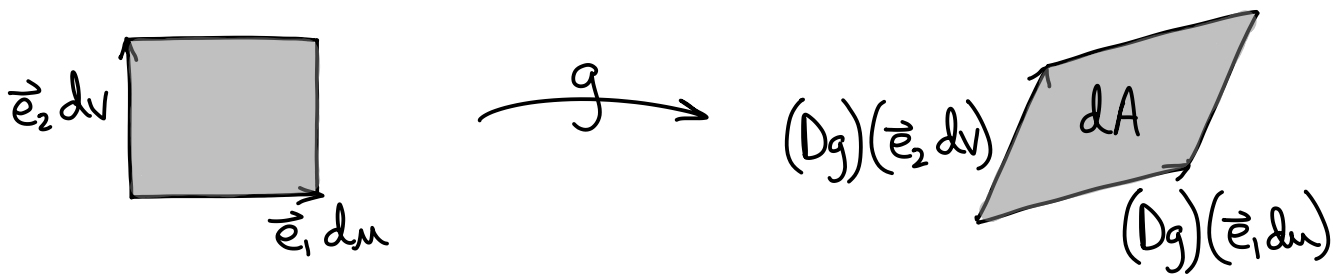
How do we convert the integrand? Try to guess the form and solve.

$$x^7 y^1 \stackrel{?}{=} (xy)^a (xy^2)^b = x^{a+b} y^{a+2b}$$

$$\text{Need: } \left. \begin{array}{l} a+b=7 \\ a+2b=1 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow a=13, b=-6$$

$$\text{Then } x^7 y^1 = u^{13} v^{-6}$$

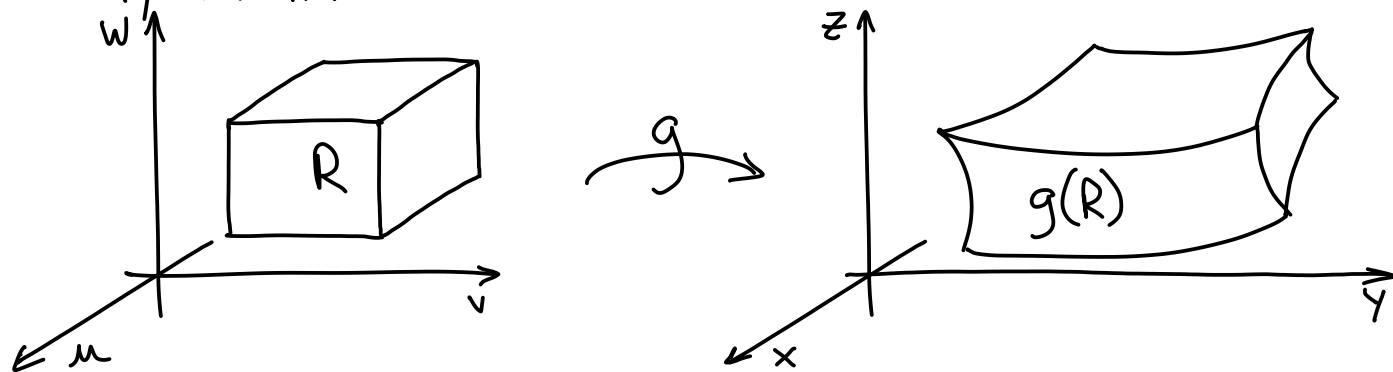
Where does the s.f. formula come from?



$$\begin{aligned}dA &= \left| \det \left( (Dg)(\vec{e}_1 du), (Dg)(\vec{e}_2 dv) \right) \right| = \left| \det \left( (Dg)(\vec{e}_1), (Dg)(\vec{e}_2) \right) \right| du dv \\ &= \left| \det(Dg) \right| du dv\end{aligned}$$



Similarly in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ :

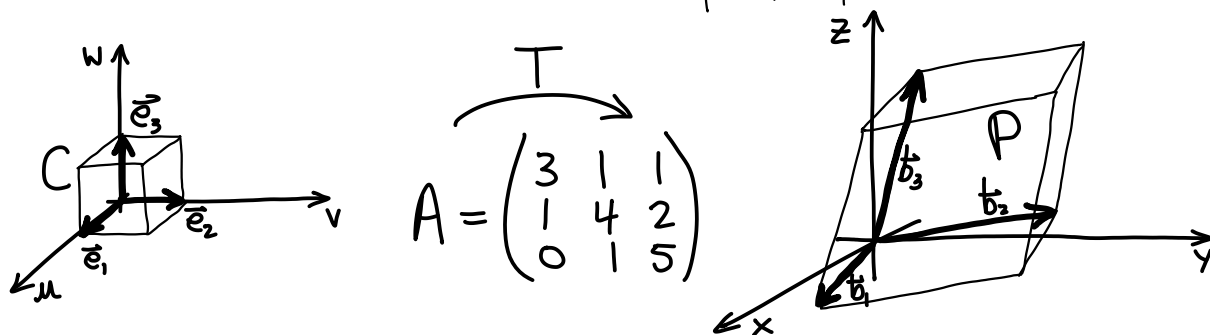


$$\begin{aligned} \iiint_R f(g(u,v,w)) |\det Dg| \, du \, dv \, dw &= \iiint_{g(R)} f(x,y,z) \, dV \\ &= \iiint_R f(g(u,v,w)) \left| \frac{\partial(x,y,z)}{\partial(u,v,w)} \right| \, du \, dv \, dw \end{aligned}$$

Thm: For  $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$ ,  $DT = A$ . (Check!)

Ex:  $P$  is the parallelepiped with a corner at  $\vec{0}$  and edges  $\vec{b}_1 = (3, 1, 0)$ ,  $\vec{b}_2 = (1, 4, 1)$ ,  $\vec{b}_3 = (1, 2, 5)$ .  
Compute  $\iiint_P z \, dV$ .

Note that  $P = T(C)$  where  $C$  is the unit cube and  $T(\vec{u}) = A\vec{u} = \vec{x}$  with  $A = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{b}_1 & \vec{b}_2 & \vec{b}_3 \end{pmatrix}$ .

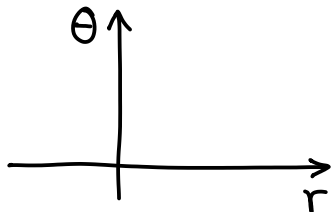


$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } \iiint_C z \left| \frac{\partial(x,y,z)}{\partial(u,v,w)} \right| \, du \, dv \, dw &= \iiint_P z \, dx \, dy \, dz \\ &= \det A \\ &= 0u + 1v + 5w \end{aligned}$$

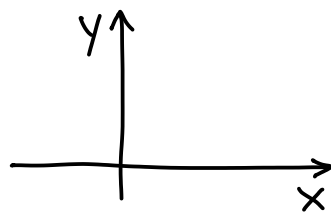
# Integral "in a coordinate system"

Recall that coordinate systems are functions. We can use them as transformations for change of variables!

Polar:



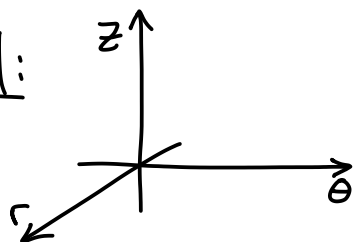
$$\begin{array}{l} \xrightarrow{g_p} \\ r \cos \theta = x \\ r \sin \theta = y \end{array}$$



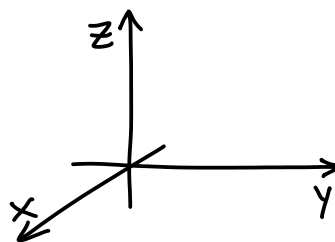
$$\frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(r,\theta)} = \dots = r.$$

Choose  $r \geq 0$ , then s.f. =  $|r| = r$ .

Cylindrical:



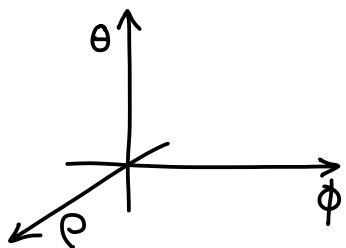
$$\begin{array}{l} \xrightarrow{g_c} \\ r \cos \theta = x \\ r \sin \theta = y \\ z = z \end{array}$$



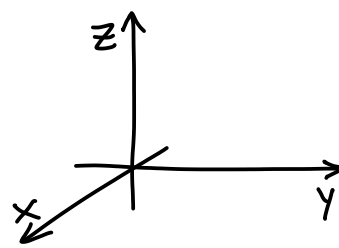
$$\frac{\partial(x,y,z)}{\partial(r,\theta,z)} = \dots = r.$$

Choose  $r \geq 0$ , then s.f. =  $|r| = r$ .

Spherical:



$$\begin{array}{l} \xrightarrow{g_s} \\ \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta = x \\ \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta = y \\ \rho \cos \phi = z \end{array}$$

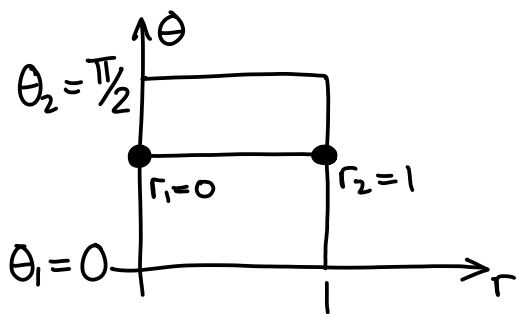


$$\frac{\partial(x,y,z)}{\partial(\rho,\phi,\theta)} = \dots = \rho^2 \sin \phi.$$

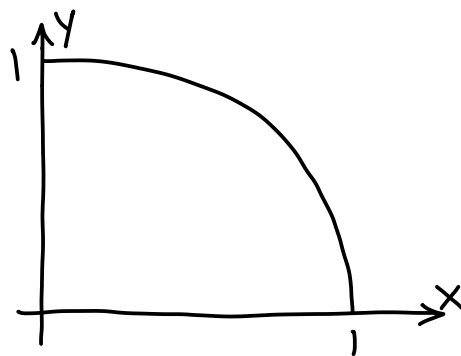
Choose  $\phi \in [0, \pi]$ , then

$$\text{s.f.} = |\rho^2 \sin \phi| = \rho^2 \sin \phi$$

Ex:  $R$  is 1st quadrant portion of the unit disk.  
 Compute  $\iint_R x^2 + y^2 \, dA$ .



$\xrightarrow{g_p}$



$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^1 (r^2) (r \, dr \, d\theta)$$

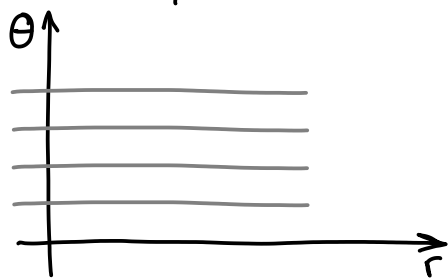
=

$$\iint_R (x^2 + y^2) \, dA$$

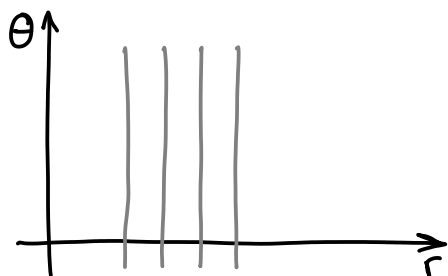
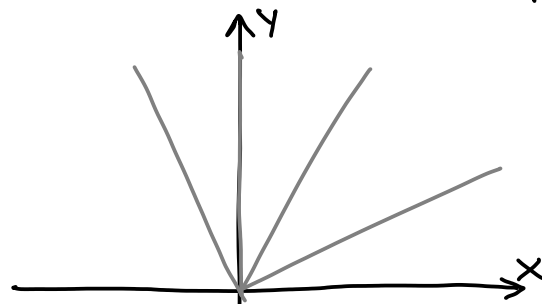
$$= \int_0^{\pi/2} \left( \frac{1}{4} r^4 \right) \Big|_{r=0}^{r=1} d\theta = \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{1}{4} d\theta = \frac{\pi}{8}$$

$$\left( \begin{aligned} &= \int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} x^2 + y^2 \, dy \, dx \\ &= \dots \quad \text{😞} \end{aligned} \right)$$

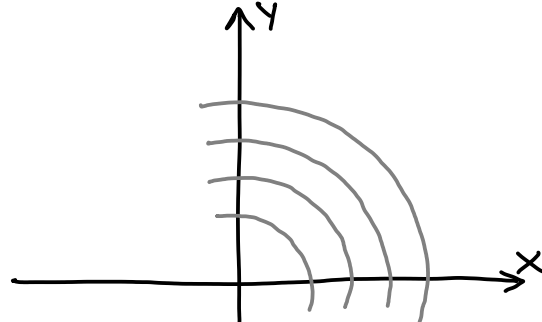
Note that you can "see"  $\theta$ -slices and  $r$ -slices in the  $xy$ -plane.



$\xrightarrow{g_p}$

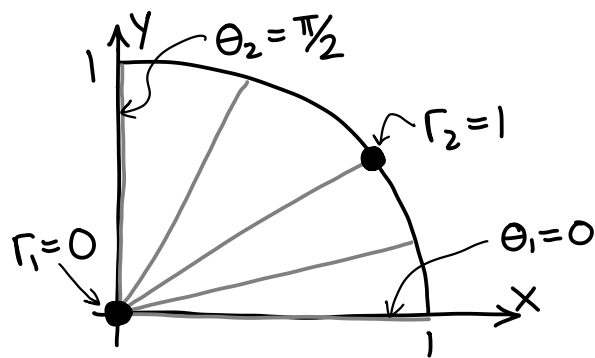
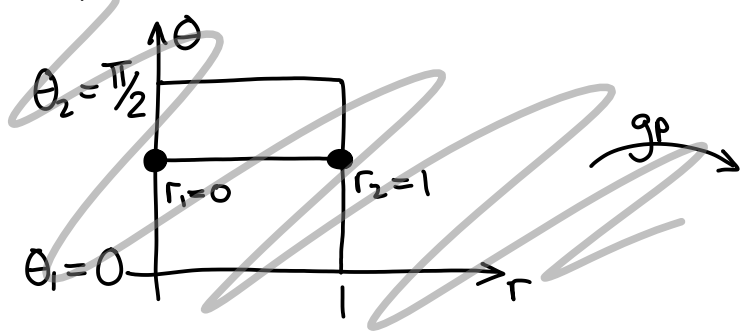


$\xrightarrow{g_p}$



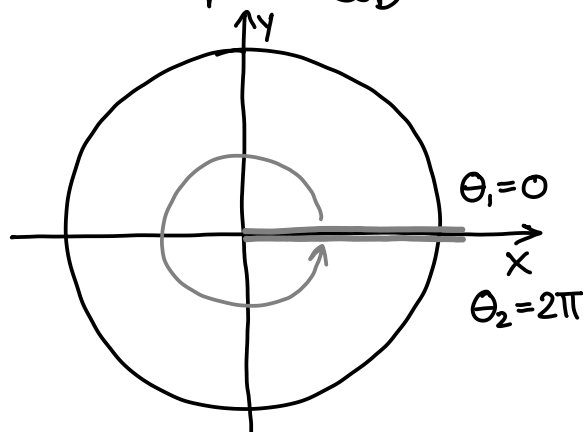
So you don't even have to draw the pull back domain to slice it!

Ex:  $R$  is 1st quadrant portion of the unit disk.  
 Compute  $\iint_R x^2 + y^2 \, dA$ .



$$\iint_R (x^2 + y^2) \, dA = \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^1 (r^2) (r \, dr \, d\theta) = \dots$$

Ex: Compute  $\iint_D \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \, dA$  where  $D$  is the unit disk.



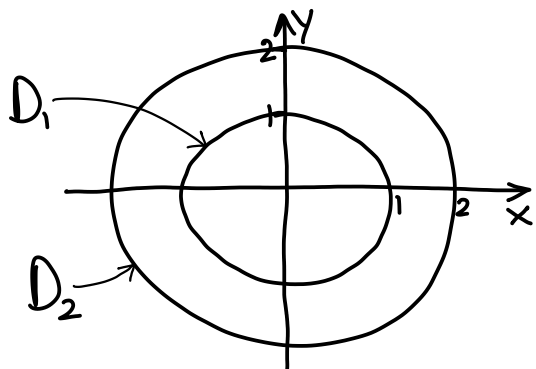
$\theta$  goes "all the way around".

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 (r) (r \, dr \, d\theta) &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 r^2 \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{3} r^3 \right]_{r=0}^{r=1} d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{3} d\theta = \frac{2\pi}{3} \end{aligned}$$

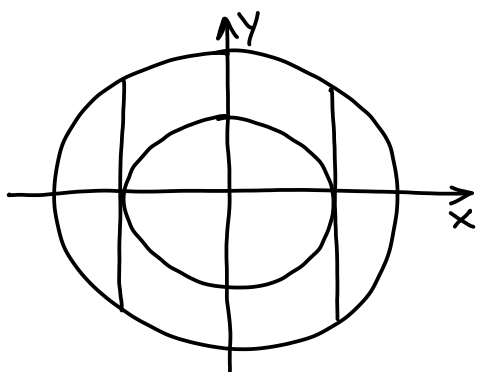
## Tips

- Almost always best to use the order " $dr \, d\theta$ ", because  $r$  is usually dependent.
- Always write " $r \, dr \, d\theta$ " all at once in an integral; forgetting the " $r$ " is very easy/common, costs lots of points!
- Bounds come from points on curves with equations.

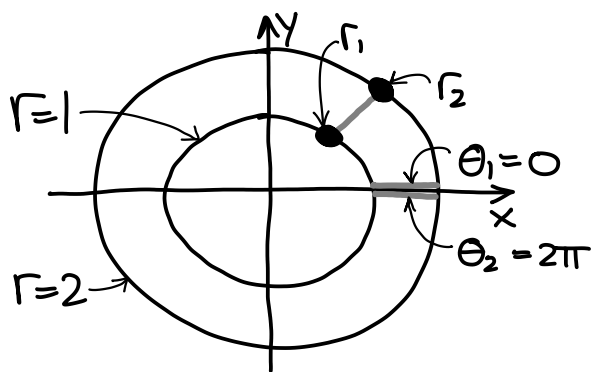
Ex:1) Compute  $\iint_R \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}} dA$ , where  $R$  is the annulus  $D_2 \setminus D_1$  below.



Tempting to say  $\iint_R = \iint_{D_2} - \iint_{D_1} \dots$   
but  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}}$  is undefined at  $\vec{0}$ !



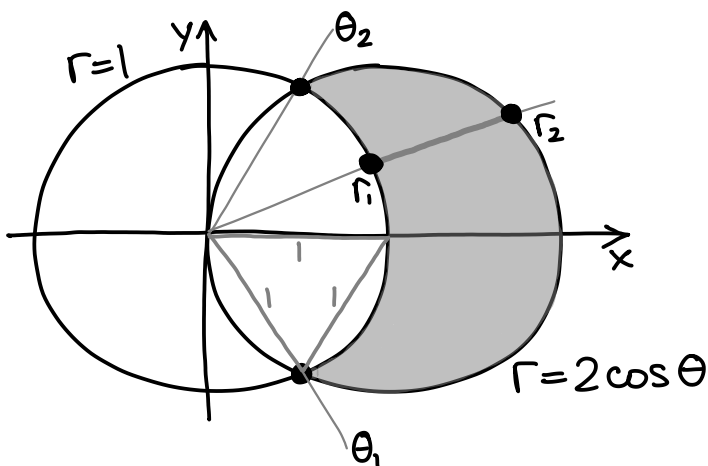
Best rectangular option requires four separate (and hard!) integrals.



Easy in polar!

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \int_1^2 \left(\frac{1}{r}\right) r dr d\theta = 2\pi$$

Ex:2) Compute  $\iint_R x dA$ ,  $R = \{(x-1)^2 + y^2 \leq 1\} \setminus \{x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$ .



$$\int_{-\pi/3}^{\pi/3} \int_1^{2\cos\theta} (r\cos\theta)(r dr d\theta)$$

Ex: Compute  $J = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$ . (Relates to normal distributions)

$$J^2 = \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \right) \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2} dy \right)$$

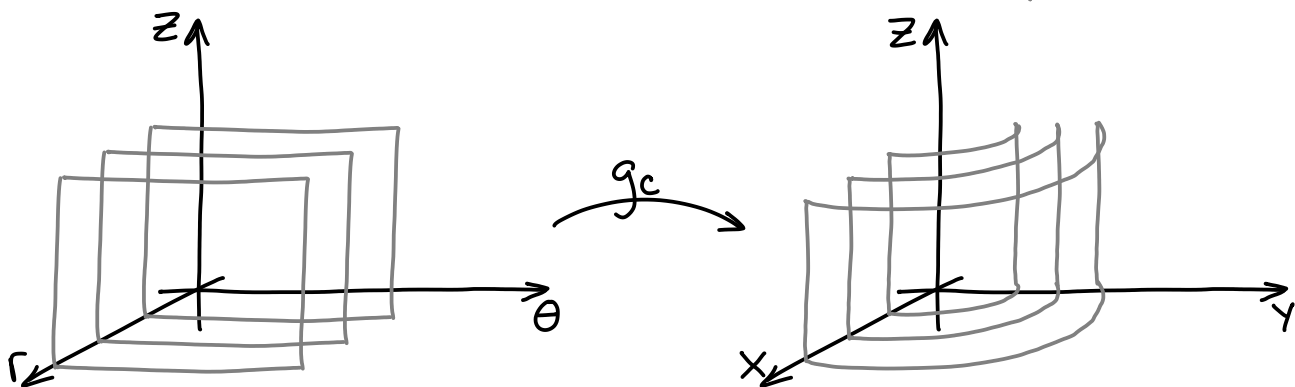
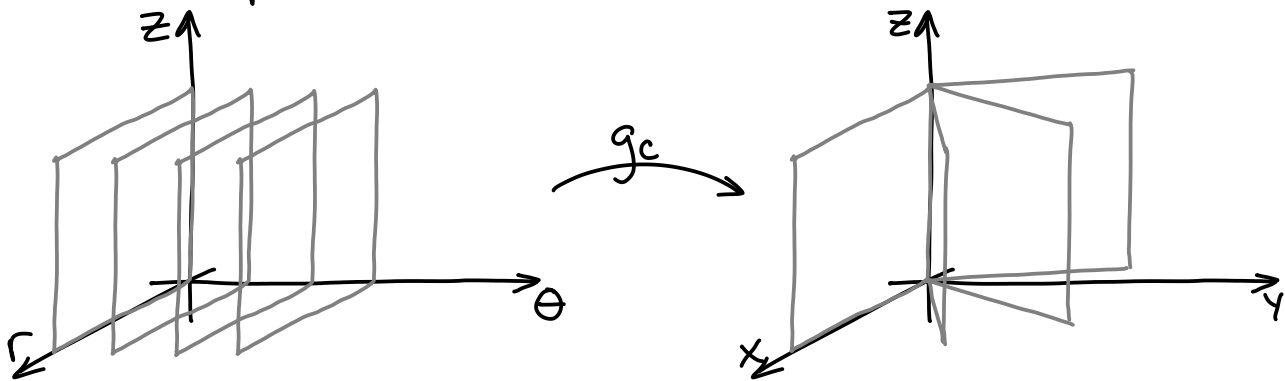
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \right) e^{-y^2} dy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} e^{-y^2} dx \right) dy$$

$$= \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dA$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-r^2} r dr d\theta = \dots = \pi \quad \text{So } J = \sqrt{\pi}.$$

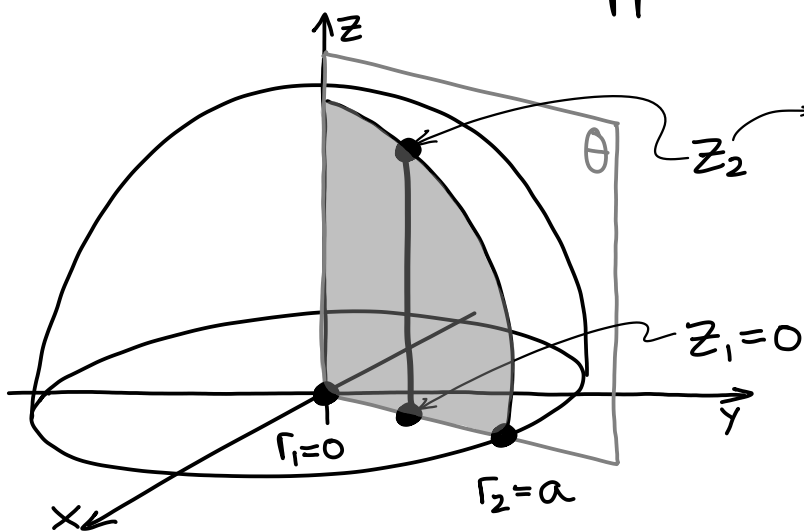
In cylindrical too, you can "see" coordinate slices in XYZ-space.



## Tips for cylindrical coordinates

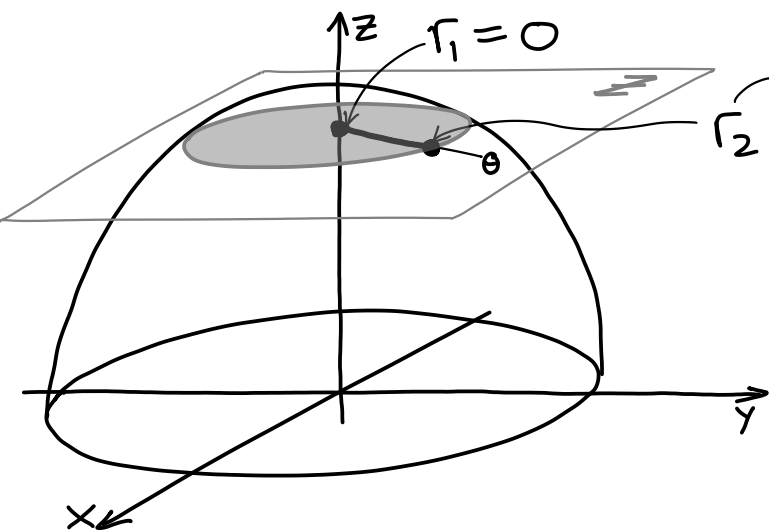
- Almost always best to use "dr dθ dz" or "dz dr dθ" because r is usually dependent on θ.
- Always write "r dr dθ dz" all at once in an integral; forgetting the "r" is very easy/common, costs lots of points!
- Bounds come from points on surfaces with equations.

Ex:) Let R be the upper half ball of radius a.



on sphere  $r^2 + z^2 = a^2$   
 $\Rightarrow z_2 = \sqrt{a^2 - r^2}$

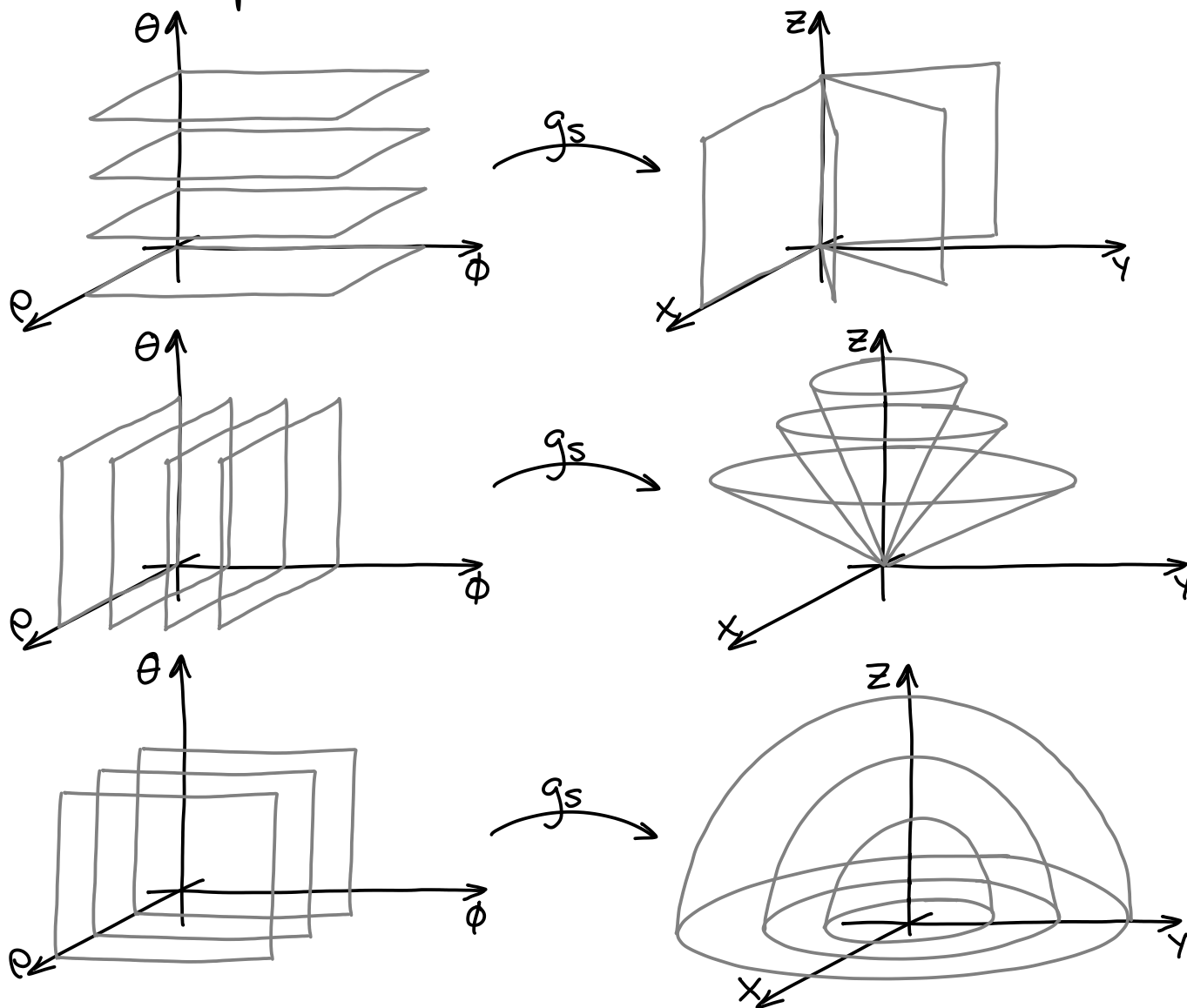
$$\iiint_R f \, dV = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^a \int_0^{\sqrt{a^2 - r^2}} f \, r \, dz \, dr \, d\theta$$



on sphere  $r^2 + z^2 = a^2$   
 $\Rightarrow r_2 = \sqrt{a^2 - z^2}$

$$\iiint_R f \, dV = \int_0^a \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\sqrt{a^2 - z^2}} f \, r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$$

In spherical too, you can "see" coordinate slices in  $xyz$ -space.

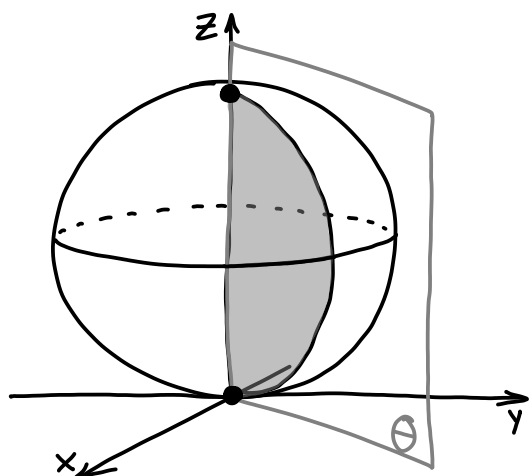


## Tips for spherical coordinates

- Almost always best to use " $d\rho d\phi d\theta$ ", because  $\rho$  is usually dependent on  $\phi, \theta$ , and given shapes of slices.
- Always write " $\rho^2 \sin\phi d\rho d\phi d\theta$ " all at once in an integral; forgetting the " $\rho^2 \sin\phi$ " is very easy/common, costs lots of points!
- Bounds come from points on surfaces with equations.

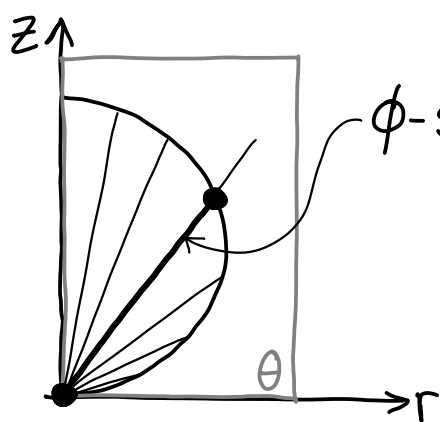


Ex.) Let  $R$  be the ball, radius  $a$ , center  $(0,0,a)$ .



$$\theta_1 = 0$$

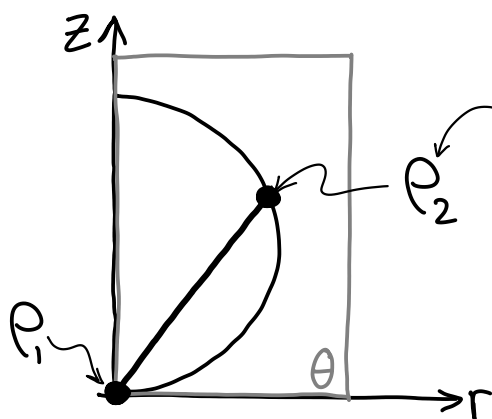
$$\theta_2 = 2\pi$$



$\phi$ -slice of this  $\theta$ -slice

$$\phi_1 = 0$$

$$\phi_2 = \pi/2$$



on sphere  $\rho = 2a \cos \phi$ . So

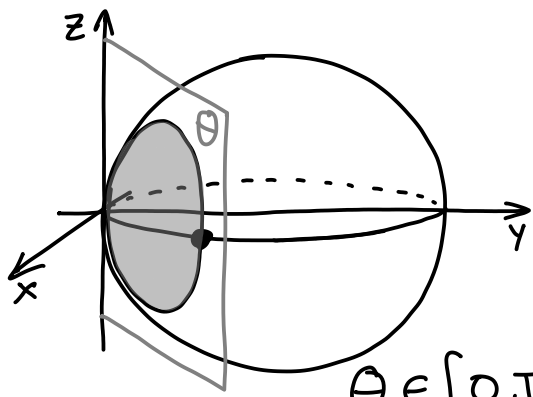
$$\iiint_R f \, dV =$$

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2a \cos \phi} f \, \rho^2 \sin \phi \, d\rho \, d\phi \, d\theta$$

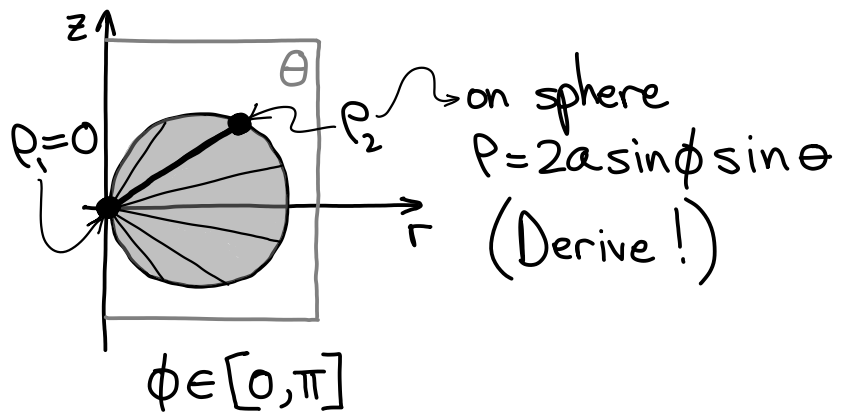
A good picture is key!

- Make it big, clear.
- Draw more than one, revise/redo, as needed.
- Learn technique, & practice!

Ex: Let  $R$  be the ball, radius  $a$ , center  $(0, a, 0)$ .



$$\theta \in [0, \pi]$$

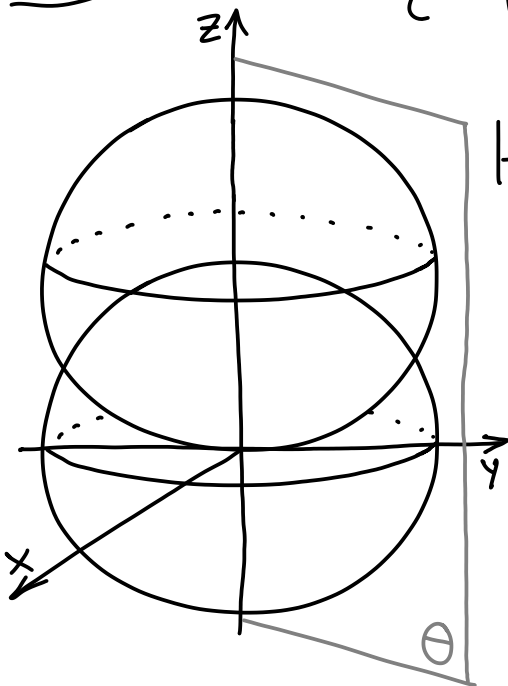


$$\phi \in [0, \pi]$$

on sphere  
 $\rho = 2a \sin \phi \sin \theta$   
 (Derive!)

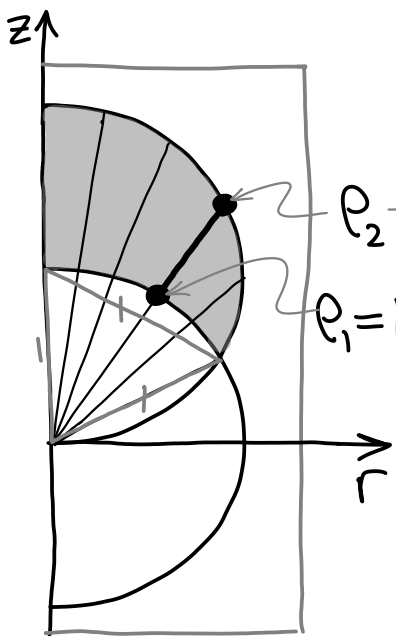
$$\text{So } \iiint_R f \, dV = \int_0^\pi \int_0^\pi \int_0^{2a \sin \phi \sin \theta} f \, \rho^2 \sin \phi \, d\rho \, d\phi \, d\theta$$

Ex: Let  $R = \{ \vec{x} \mid x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \geq 1, x^2 + y^2 + (z-1)^2 \leq 1 \}$



Hard to draw, but:

- Clear that  $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$ ,
- A cross section of the intersection is the intersection of the cross sections.



$$\phi \in [0, \pi/3]$$

on sphere  $\rho = 2 \cos \phi$ . So

$$\iiint_R f \, dV = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/3} \int_1^{2 \cos \phi} f \rho^2 \sin \phi \, d\rho \, d\phi \, d\theta$$

## Symmetry theorems

In single variable:

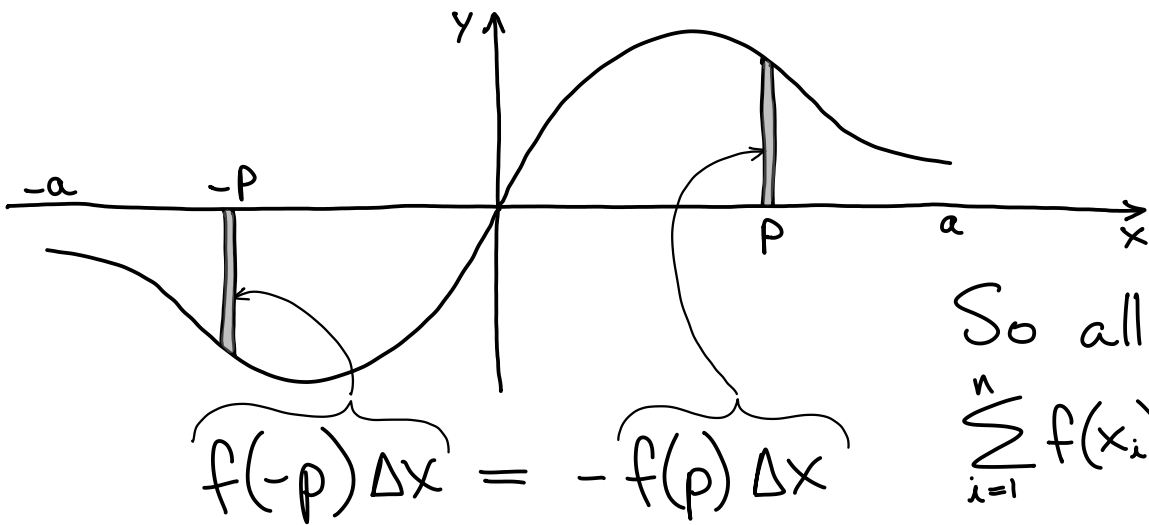
- ①  $f$  is odd iff  $f(-x) = -f(x)$  (for all  $x$ ).
- ② interval  $I$  is symmetric iff  $(x \in I \Leftrightarrow -x \in I)$ .

Thm: If

- ①  $f$  is odd
- ②  $I$  is symmetric

then  $\int_I f(x) \, dx = 0$

Can see this from a Riemann sum point of view:



So all terms of  $\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x$  cancel!

We can also prove it with a substitution  $x = g(u) = -u$  thought of as a change of variables:

$$\int_I f(x) dx = \int_{g(I)} f(x) dx \quad (\text{symmetry of } I)$$

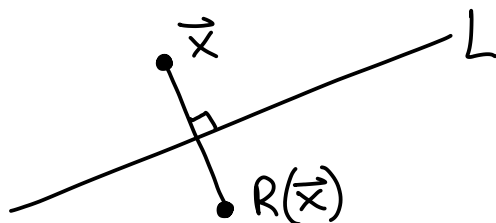
$$= \int_I f(g(u)) (1) du \quad (\text{pull back})$$

$$= \int_I f(-u) du = -\int_I f(u) du \quad (\text{oddness of } f)$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_I f dx = 0$$

In  $\mathbb{R}^2$ :

Def: The reflection  $R$  over the line  $L$  is



Def:  $f$  has odd symmetry over  $L$  iff  
 $f(R(\vec{x})) = -f(\vec{x})$  for all  $\vec{x}$

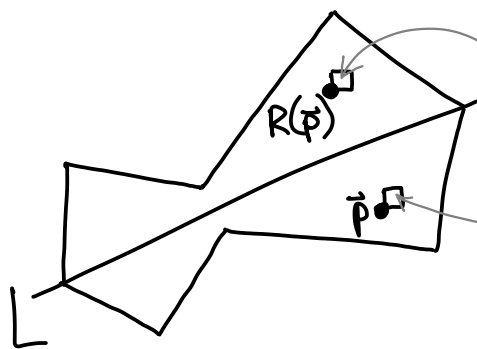
Def:  $D$  is symmetric over  $L$  iff  
 $(\vec{x} \in D) \iff (R(\vec{x}) \in D)$  for all  $\vec{x}$

Thm: If ①  $f$  is odd over  $L$   
②  $D$  is symmetric over  $L$   
then  $\iint_D f \, dA = 0$

NB— Both conditions must hold!  
Must use the same line for each!

Pf:  $\iint_D f(\vec{x}) \, dx \, dy = \iint_{R(D)} f(\vec{x}) \, dx \, dy$   
 $= \iint_D f(R(\vec{u})) \, (1) \, du \, dv$   
 $= - \iint_D f(\vec{u}) \, du \, dv \implies \iint_D f(\vec{x}) \, dx \, dy = 0$

Riemann sum point of view:



$$f(R(\vec{p})) \Delta A = -f(\vec{p}) \Delta A$$

So all terms of  
 $\sum_{i,j=1}^n f(\vec{x}_{i,j}) \Delta A$  cancel!

Ex:)  $D$  is the region bounded by  $y = x^2 - x^4$ ,  $y = -1$ .  
Compute  $\iint_D x^3 e^{x^2+1} - y \sin x \, dA$ .

Note that

①  $D$  is symmetric over the  $y$ -axis ( $R(x,y) = (-x,y)$ ).

(Both equations are unaffected by the reflection.

E.g.:  $y = (-x)^2 - (-x)^4 \iff y = x^2 - x^4$ .)

②  $f$  is odd over the  $y$ -axis.

$$\begin{aligned} f(R(x,y)) &= f(-x,y) = (-x)^3 e^{(-x)^2+1} - y \sin(-x) \\ &= -x^3 e^{x^2+1} + y \sin(x) = -f(x,y) \end{aligned}$$

Then  $\iint_D x^3 e^{x^2+1} - y \sin x \, dA = 0$  by symmetry.

A complete symmetry argument must include:

- ① the line of symmetry  $L$
- ② the reflection  $R(x,y)$
- ③ (correct) observation that  $f$  is odd
- ④ demonstration that  $f$  is odd
- ⑤ (correct) observation that  $D$  is symmetric.

Be careful using symmetry! If you are mistaken and the argument doesn't work, none of it is actual progress!

Ex:) Compute  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 x^3 - y^3 \, dx \, dy$ .

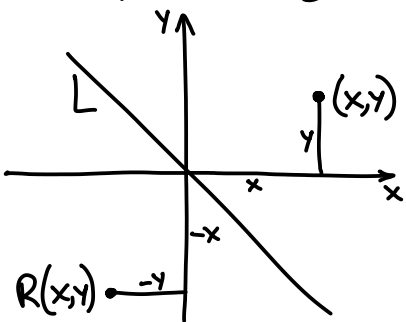
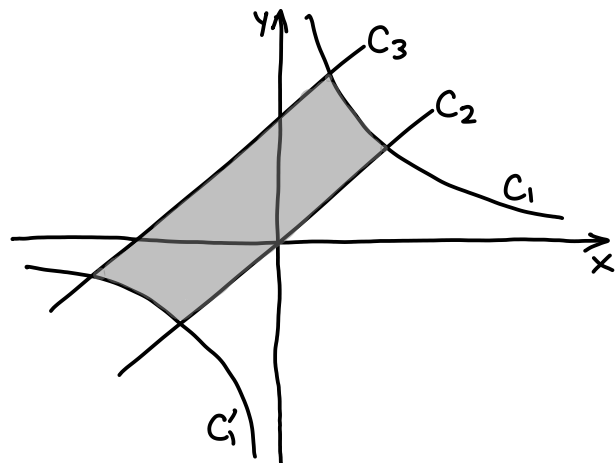
$D = [0,1] \times [0,1]$  is symmetric  
 $f(x,y) = x^3 - y^3$  has odd symmetry  
 $\Rightarrow \iint = 0$  by symmetry.

Only shows 2/5 of the required parts!

Ex:)  $D$  is bounded by  $xy=1$ ,

$y=x$ ,  $y=x+1$ .

Compute  $\iint_D (x+y)^7 (x-y)^3 dA$ .



Consider  $L = \{x+y=0\}$ ,  $R(x,y) = (-y, -x)$ .

$C_1, C_1'$  are reflections of each other;  $C_2, C_3$  are reflections of themselves. So  $D$  is symmetric over  $L$ .

And  $f$  is odd because

$$\begin{aligned} f(R(x,y)) &= f(-y, -x) = ((-y)+(-x))^7 ((-y)-(-x))^3 \\ &= -(x+y)^7 (x-y)^3 = -f(x,y) \end{aligned}$$

So  $\iint = 0$  by symmetry.

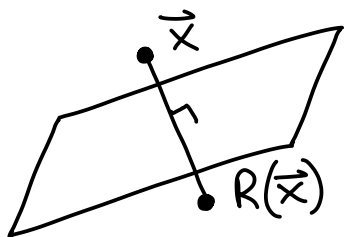
Ex:) Triangle  $T$  has corners  $(0,2)$ ,  $(-1,0)$ ,  $(1,0)$ .

Compute  $\iint_T y^3 dA$ .

$T$  is symmetric over the  $y$ -axis only. } No symmetry  
 $f(x,y) = y^3$  is odd over the  $x$ -axis only. } argument works!!

In  $\mathbb{R}^3$ :

Def: The reflection  $R$  over the plane  $P$  is:



Def:  $f$  has odd symmetry through  $P$  iff:

$$f(R(\vec{x})) = -f(\vec{x}) \quad \text{for all } \vec{x}$$

Def:  $D$  is symmetric through  $P$  iff:

$$(\vec{x} \in D) \iff (R(\vec{x}) \in D) \quad \text{for all } \vec{x}$$

Thm: If (1)  $f$  is odd through  $P$   
(2)  $D$  is symmetric through  $P$

$$\text{then } \iiint_D f \, dV = 0$$

NB— Both conditions must hold!  
Must use the same plane for each!

Ex:  $B$  is the unit ball, compute  $\iiint_B x^2 y^2 z^3 \, dV$ .

$P$  is the  $xy$ -plane,  $R(x, y, z) = (x, y, -z)$ ,  $B$  is symmetric.

$f$  is odd because

$$f(R(x, y, z)) = f(x, y, -z) = (x)^2 (y)^2 (-z)^3 = -x^2 y^2 z^3 = -f(x, y, z)$$

So  $\iiint = 0$  by symmetry.



## 5.6 - Applications of Integration

### Average value of a function

Averaging a collection of numbers with repetitions can be thought of as a "weighted average".

$$\frac{4+4+7+8+8+8}{6} = \frac{4+4+7+8+8+8}{1+1+1+1+1+1} = \frac{4 \cdot 2 + 7 \cdot 1 + 8 \cdot 3}{2+1+3}$$

In general, the weighted average of  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  with weights  $w_1, \dots, w_n$  (resp.) is

$$\bar{v} = \frac{\sum v_i w_i}{\sum w_i}$$

Ex:) Exams 1, 2, 3, 4 in a class have weights 20, 20, 20, 40. Bob's grades are 2.06, 3.25, 2.71, 3.40. What is his course average?

$$\bar{g} = \frac{\sum g_i w_i}{\sum w_i} = \frac{(2.06)(20) + (3.25)(20) + (2.71)(20) + (3.40)(40)}{(20) + (20) + (20) + (40)} = 2.964$$

For  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$ , we use size in the domain as the weights.

Ex:) The average value of  $f: \mathbb{R}^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$  on  $[a, b]$  is

$$\bar{f} = \frac{\int_a^b f(x) dx}{\int_a^b dx} = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

So the average value of  $\sin x$  on  $[0, \pi]$  is

$$\frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \sin x dx = \frac{2}{\pi}$$

Ex: The average value of  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$  on  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  is

$$\bar{f} = \frac{\iint_D f(\vec{x}) dA}{\iint_D dA} = \frac{1}{\text{area}} \iint_D f(\vec{x}) dA$$

So the average value of  $x^2$  on the unit disk is

$$\frac{1}{\pi} \iint_D x^2 dA = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 (r \cos \theta)^2 r dr d\theta = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 r^3 \cos^2 \theta dr d\theta = \frac{1}{4}$$

### Center of mass

The center of mass is the weighted average of position.

Ex: Mass  $m_1$  at  $x_1$ ,  $m_2$  at  $x_2$ , then

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1 m_1 + x_2 m_2}{m_1 + m_2}$$


Physical intuition:  $\bar{x}$  is the balance point; total torque = 0.

In general, 
$$\bar{\vec{x}} = \frac{\iint_D \vec{x} dm}{\iint_D dm} = \frac{1}{m} \iint_D \vec{x} dm$$

And you can compute the coordinates separately.

$$\bar{\vec{x}} = \left( \frac{1}{m} \iint_D x_1 dm, \dots, \frac{1}{m} \iint_D x_n dm \right)$$

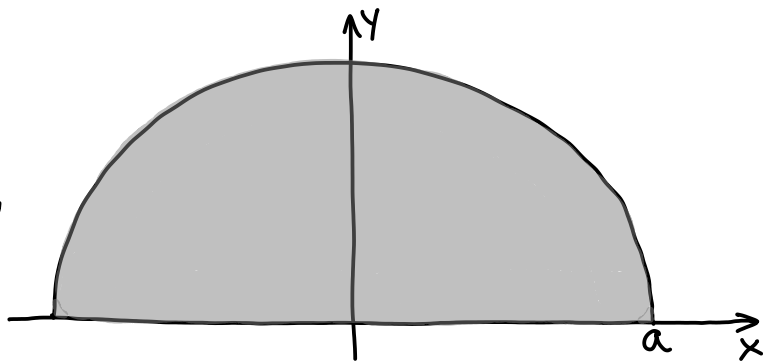
Ex:  $D$  is the upper half disk, radius =  $a$ ,  $\delta = 1$ .

①  $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{A} \iint_D x dA \leftarrow = 0$  by symmetry (details!)

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \bar{y} = \frac{1}{A} \iint_0 y \, dA$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}\pi a^2} \int_0^a \int_{-\sqrt{a^2-y^2}}^{\sqrt{a^2-y^2}} y \, dx \, dy$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}\pi a^2} \int_{-a}^a \int_0^{\sqrt{a^2-x^2}} y \, dy \, dx$$



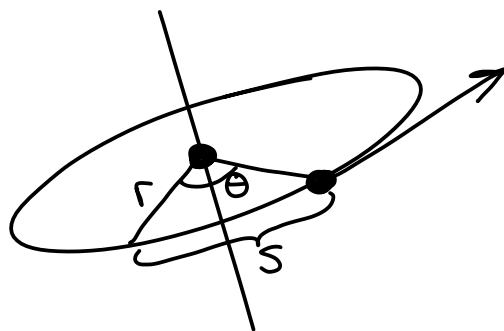
(Which of these is easier to evaluate?) ( $\dots = \frac{4a}{3\pi}$ )

## Moment of inertia

Particle rotating around an axis...

$$s = r\theta$$

$$\text{speed} \rightarrow \begin{matrix} s' = r\theta' \\ v = r\omega \end{matrix} \leftarrow \text{angular speed}$$



What is the kinetic energy of a solid mass rotating around an axis?

Can't use  $KE = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$  on the whole, because speed is not constant.

But on pieces it is!

$$KE = \iiint d(KE) = \iiint \frac{1}{2} v^2 \, dm = \iiint \frac{1}{2} (r\omega)^2 \, dm$$

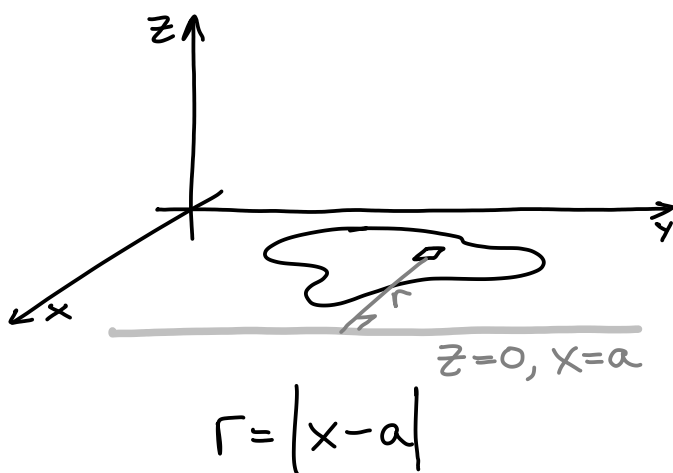
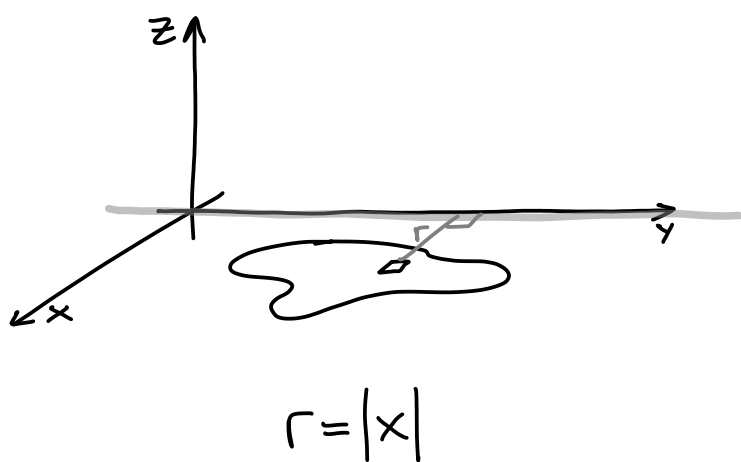
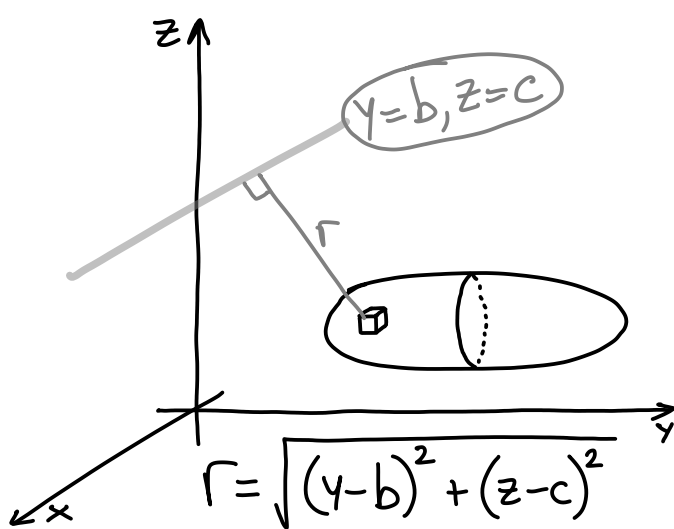
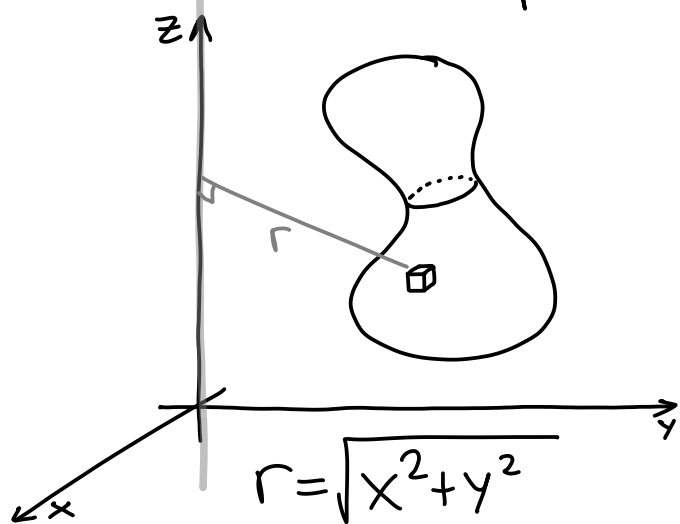
$$= \frac{1}{2} \left( \iiint r^2 \, dm \right) \omega^2 = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{I} \omega^2$$

angular analogue of speed

moment of inertia

angular analogue of mass

What is  $r$ ? Depends on the axis of rotation.



Ex.1  $D = \{(x,y) \mid 0 \leq x \leq \pi, 0 \leq y \leq \sin x\}$ ,  $\delta = 2 + \cos x$ .  
Find the moment of inertia around the  $x$ -axis.

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= \iint_D r^2 dm = \iint_D r^2 \delta dA \\
 &= \int_0^\pi \int_0^{\sin x} y^2 (2 + \cos x) dy dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{3} \int_0^\pi (\sin^3 x) (2 + \cos x) dx \\
 &= \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

