14.1 Double Integrals (page 526)

The most basic double integral has the form \( \int_R dA \) or \( \int_R dy \, dx \) or \( \int_R dx \, dy \). It is the integral of 1 over the region \( R \) in the \( xy \) plane. The integral equals the area of \( R \). When we write \( dA \), we are not committed to \( xy \) coordinates. The coordinates could be \( r \) and \( \theta \) (polar) or any other way of chopping \( R \) into small pieces. When we write \( dy \, dx \), we are planning to chop \( R \) into vertical strips (width \( dx \)) and then chop each strip into very small pieces (height \( dy \)). The \( y \) integral assembles the pieces and the \( x \) integral assembles the strips.

Suppose \( R \) is the rectangle with \( 1 < x < 4 \) and \( 2 < y < 7 \). The side lengths are 3 and 5. The area is 15:

\[
\int_{y=2}^{7} \int_{x=1}^{4} 1 \, dy \, dx = \int_{x=1}^{4} (7 - 2) \, dx = |5|_1^4 = 20 - 5 = 15
\]

The inner integral gave \( \int_{y=2}^{7} 1 \, dy = |y|_2^7 = 7 - 2 \). This is the height of the strips.

My first point is that this is nothing new. We have written \( \int y \, dx \) for a long time, to give the area between a curve and the \( x \) axis. The height of the strips is \( y \). We have short-circuited the inner integral \( \int 1 \, dy \).

Remember also the area between two curves. That is \( \int (y_2 - y_1) \, dx \). Again we have already done the inner integral, between the lower curve \( y_1 \) and the upper curve \( y_2 \). The integral of 1 \( dy \) was just \( y_2 - y_1 \) = height of strip. We went directly to the outer integral – the \( x \)-integral that adds up the strips.

So what is new? First, the regions \( R \) get more complicated. The limits of integration are not as easy as \( \int y \, dx \) or \( \int dx \). Second, we don't always integrate the function "1". In particular, double integrals often give volume:

\[
\int_{y=2}^{7} \int_{x=1}^{4} f(x, y) \, dy \, dx \text{ is the volume between the surface } z = f(x, y) \text{ and the } xy \text{ plane.}
\]

To be really truthful, volume starts as a triple integral. It is \( \int \int \int 1 \, dx \, dy \, dz \). The inner integral \( \int 1 \, dx \) gives \( z \). The lower limit on \( z \) is 0, at the \( xy \) plane. The upper limit is \( f(x, y) \), at the surface. So the inner integral \( \int 1 \, dx \) between these limits is \( f(x, y) \). When we find volume from a double integral, we have short-circuited the \( z \)-integral that adds up the strips.

The second new step is to go beyond areas and volumes. We can compute masses and moments and averages of all kinds. The integration process is still \( \int_{R} f(x, y) \, dy \, dx \), if we choose to do the \( y \)-integral first. In reality the main challenge of double integrals is to find the limits. You get better by doing examples. We borrow a few problems from Schaum's Outline and other sources, to display the steps for double integrals – and the difference between \( \int \int f(x, y) \, dy \, dx \) and \( \int \int f(x, y) \, dx \, dy \).

1. Evaluate the integral \( \int_{x=0}^{1} \int_{y=0}^{x} (x+y) \, dy \, dx \). Then reverse the order to \( \int \int (x+y) \, dx \, dy \).

   - The inner integral is \( \int_{y=0}^{x} (x+y) \, dy = [xy + \frac{1}{2}y^2]_0^x = \frac{3}{2}x^2 \). This is a function of \( x \). The outer integral is a completely ordinary \( x \)-integral \( \int_{0}^{1} \frac{3}{2} \, x^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{2} x^3|_0^1 = \frac{1}{2} \).
   - Reversing the order is simple for rectangles. But we don't have a rectangle. The inner integral goes from \( y = 0 \) on the \( x \) axis up to \( y = x \). This top point is on the 45° line. We have a triangle (see figure). When we do the \( x \)-integral first, it starts at the 45° line and ends at \( x = 1 \). The inner \( x \)-limits can depend on \( y \), they can't depend on \( x \). The outer limits are numbers 0 and 1.

   \[
   \begin{align*}
   \text{inner} & \quad f(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^2 + xy|_y^1 = \frac{1}{2} + y - \frac{3}{2} y^2 \\
   \text{outer} & \quad f(y) = \frac{1}{2} y + \frac{3}{2} y^2 - \frac{1}{2} y^3|_0^1 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}.
   \end{align*}
   \]

   The answer \( \frac{1}{2} \) is the same in either order. The work is different.
2. Evaluate \( \int \int_R y^2 dA \) in both orders \( dA = dy \, dx \) and \( dA = dx \, dy \). The region \( R \) is bounded by \( y = 2x, \ y = 5x, \) and \( x = 1 \). Please draw your own figures – vertical strips in one, horizontal strips in the other.

- The vertical strips run from \( y = 2x \) up to \( y = 5x \). Then \( x \) goes from 0 to 1:

\[
\text{inner } \int_{2x}^{5x} y^2 dy = \left. \frac{1}{3} y^3 \right|_{2x}^{5x} = \frac{1}{3} (125x^3 - 8x^3) = 39x^3 \\
\text{outer } \int_0^1 39x^3 dx = \frac{39}{4}.
\]

For the reverse order, the limits are not so simple. The figure shows why. In the lower part, horizontal strips go between the sloping lines. The inner integral is an \( x \)-integral so change \( y = 5x \) and \( y = 2x \) to \( x = \frac{1}{5} y \) and \( x = \frac{1}{2} y \). The outer integral in the lower part is from \( y = 0 \) to 2:

\[
\text{inner } \int_{y/5}^{y/2} x^2 dx = [x^2]_{y/5}^{y/2} = (\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{5})y^2 \\
\text{outer } \int_0^2 (\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{5})y^3 dy = (\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{5})\frac{2^4}{4}.
\]

The upper part has horizontal strips from \( x = \frac{1}{5} y \) to \( x = 1 \). The outer limits are \( y = 2 \) and \( y = 5 \):

\[
\text{inner } \int_{y/5}^{y/2} x^2 dx = [x^2]_{y/5}^{y/2} = y^2 - \frac{1}{5} y^3 \\
\text{outer } \int_2^5 (y^2 - \frac{1}{5} y^3) dy = \left[ \frac{1}{3} y^3 - \frac{1}{20} y^4 \right]_2^5 = \frac{125 - 8}{3} - \frac{625 - 16}{20}.
\]

Add the two parts, preferably by calculator, to get 9.75 which is \( \frac{39}{4} \). Same answer.

3. Reverse the order of integration in \( \int_0^2 \int_0^{x^2} (x + 2y) dy \, dx \). What volume does this equal?

- The region is bounded by \( y = 0, \ y = x^2, \) and \( x = 2 \). When the \( x \)-integral goes first it starts at \( x = \sqrt{y} \). It ends at \( x = 2 \), where the horizontal strip ends. Then the outer \( y \)-integral ends at \( y = 4 \):

\[
The \text{ reversed order is } \int_0^4 \int_{\sqrt{y}}^{2} (x + 2y) dx \, dy.
\]

Don't reverse \( x + 2y \) into \( y + 2x \)!

Read-throughs and selected even-numbered solutions:

The double integral \( \int \int_R f(x, y) \, dA \) gives the volume between \( R \) and the surface \( z = f(x, y) \). The base is first cut into small squares of area \( \Delta A \). The volume above the \( i \)th piece is approximately \( f(x_i, y_i) \Delta A \). The limit of the sum \( \sum f(x_i, y_i) \Delta A \) is the volume integral. Three properties of double integrals are \( \int \int (f + g) \, dA = \int \int f \, dA + \int \int g \, dA \) and \( \int \int c \, f \, dA = c \int \int f \, dA \) and \( \int \int_R f \, dA = \int \int_S f \, dA + \int \int_T f \, dA \) if \( R \) splits into \( S \) and \( T \).

If \( R \) is the rectangle \( 0 \leq x \leq 4, \ 4 \leq y \leq 6 \), the integral \( \int \int x \, dA \) can be computed two ways. One is \( \int \int x \, dy \, dx \), when the inner integral is \( xy \bigg|_4^6 = 2x \). The outer integral gives \( \int_0^4 x^2 dx = 16 \). When the \( x \) integral comes first it
equals $\int x \, dx = \frac{1}{2}x^2|_0^4 = 8$. Then the $y$ integral equals $8y|_0^6 = 16$. This is the volume between the base rectangle and the plane $z = x$.

The area $R$ is $\int \int 1 \, dy \, dx$. When $R$ is the triangle between $x = 0, y = 2x$, and $y = 1$, the inner limits on $y$ are $2x$ and $1$. This is the length of a thin vertical strip. The (outer) limits on $x$ are $0$ and $\frac{1}{2}$. The area is $\frac{1}{4}$.

In the opposite order, the (inner) limits on $x$ are $0$ and $\frac{1}{2}$. Now the strip is horizontal and the outer integral is $\int_0^1 y \, dy = \frac{1}{4}$. When the density is $\rho(x, y)$, the total mass in the region $R$ is $\int \int \rho \, dx \, dy$. The moments are $M_y = \int \int \rho \, x \, dx \, dy$ and $M_x = \int \int \rho \, y \, dx \, dy$. The centroid has $\bar{x} = M_y/M$.

10 The area is all below the axis $y = 0$, where horizontal strips cross from $x = y$ to $x = |y|$ (which is $-y$). Note that the $y$ integral stops at $y = 0$. Area $= \int_{-1}^0 \int_{-y}^y 1 \, dy \, dx = \int_{-1}^0 -2y \, dy = [-y^2]_{-1}^0 = 1$.

16 The triangle in Problem 10 had sides $x = y, x = -y$, and $y = -1$. Now the vertical strips go from $y = -1$ up to $y = x$ on the right side: area $= \int_0^1 \int_{-1}^x 1 \, dy \, dx = \int_0^1 (x + 1) \, dx = \frac{1}{2}(x + 1)^2|_0^1 = \frac{1}{2}$.

Check: $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 1$.

24 The top of the triangle is $(a, b)$. From $x = 0$ to $a$ the vertical strips lead to $\int_0^a \int_{dx/y} 1 \, dy \, dx = \int_0^a \int_0^{(x-a)dy} 1 \, dy \, dx = \int_0^a \int_0^{(x-a)dy} 1 \, dx \, dy = \int_0^a \frac{1}{2}(x-a)^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{2}a^3 - \frac{1}{2}a^2b + \frac{1}{12}b^3$.

32 The height is $z = \frac{1-ax-by}{c}$. Integrate over the triangular base ($z = 0$ gives the side $ax + by = 1$):

volume $= \int_{x=0}^1 \int_{y=0}^{(1-ax)/b} \frac{1-ax-by}{c} \, dy \, dx = \int_{x=0}^1 \int_{y=0}^{(1-ax)/b} \frac{1}{c} dy \, dx = \int_{x=0}^1 \frac{1}{c} \frac{1}{b} (1-ax)^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{c} \frac{1}{b} (1-ax)^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{c} \frac{1}{b} (1-ax)^2 |_{x=0}^{x=1} = \frac{1}{6abc} 

36 The area of the quarter-circle is $\frac{\pi}{4}$. The moment is zero around the axis $y = 0$ (by symmetry): $\bar{x} = 0$.

The other moment, with a factor $2$ that accounts for symmetry of left and right, is

$2 \int_{r=0}^{\sqrt{2}/2} \int_{z=0}^{1-x^2} \frac{1-ax-by}{c} \, dy \, dx = \int_{r=0}^{\sqrt{2}/2} \frac{1}{2} (1-x^2) \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{3} (1-x^2)^{1/2} |_{x=0}^{r=\sqrt{2}/2} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{3} (1-\frac{1}{4})^{1/2} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6}$. Then $\bar{y} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{3}} = \frac{3 \sqrt{3}}{2}$. Then $\bar{x} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} = \frac{3 \sqrt{2}}{2}$.
Notice first that $dA$ is not $dr \, d\theta$. It is $r \, dr \, d\theta$. The extra factor $r$ gives this the dimension of $(\text{length})^2$. The area of a small polar rectangle is $r \, dr \, d\theta$.

Notice second the result of the inner integral of $r \, dr$. It gives $\frac{1}{2} r^2$. This leaves the outer integral as our old formula $\int \frac{1}{2} r^2 \, d\theta$ from Chapter 9.

Notice third the result of limits on that inner integral. They give $\frac{1}{2}(3^2 - 2^2)$. This leaves the outer integral as our formula for ring areas and washer areas and areas between two polar curves $r = F_1(\theta)$ and $r = F_2(\theta)$.

That area was and still is $\sigma(F_1; - F_2) \, d\theta$. For our ring this is $\frac{1}{2}(3^2 - 2^2) \, d\theta$.

2. (14.2.4) Find the centroid $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ of the pie-shaped wedge $0 \leq r \leq 1$, $\frac{\pi}{4} \leq \theta \leq \frac{3\pi}{4}$. The average height $\bar{y}$ is $\int \int y \, dA / \int \int dA$. This corresponds to moment around the $x$ axis divided by total mass or area.

- The area is $\int_{\pi/4}^{3\pi/4} \int_0^1 r \, dr \, d\theta = \int_{\pi/4}^{3\pi/4} \frac{1}{2} \, d\theta = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \right)$. The integral $\int \int y \, dA$ has $y = r \sin \theta$:

$$\int_{\pi/4}^{3\pi/4} \int_0^1 (r \sin \theta) r \, dr \, d\theta = \int_{\pi/4}^{3\pi/4} \frac{1}{3} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \right] \sin \theta \, d\theta = \frac{1}{3} \left[ -\cos \theta \right]_{\pi/4}^{3\pi/4} = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{6}.$$

Now divide to find the average $\bar{y} = \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{\sqrt{2}}{3} \right) / \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \right) = \frac{4\sqrt{2}}{3\pi}$. This is the height of the centroid.

Symmetry gives $\bar{x} = 0$. The region for negative $x$ is the mirror image of the region for positive $x$. This answer zero also comes from integrating $x \, dy \, dx$ or $(r \cos \theta)(r \, dr \, d\theta)$. Integrating $\cos \theta \, d\theta$ gives $\sin \theta$. Since $\sin \frac{\pi}{4} = \sin \frac{3\pi}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$, the definite integral is zero.

The text explains the "stretching factor" for any coordinates. It is a 2 by 2 determinant $J$. Write the old coordinates in terms of the new ones, as in $x = r \cos \theta$ and $y = r \sin \theta$. For these polar coordinates the stretching factor is the $r$ in $r \, dr \, d\theta$.

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

3. Explain why $J = 1$ for the coordinate change $x = u \cos \alpha - v \sin \alpha$ and $y = u \sin \alpha + v \cos \alpha$.

- This is a pure rotation. The $xy$ axes are at a $90^\circ$ angle and the $uv$ axes are also at a $90^\circ$ angle (just rotated through the angle $\alpha$). The area $dA = dx \, dy$ just rotates into $dA = du \, dv$. The factor is

$$J = \left| \begin{array}{cc} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{array} \right| = \left| \begin{array}{cc} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{array} \right| = \cos^2 \alpha + \sin^2 \alpha = 1.$$

4. Show that $\int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\pi}$. This is exact even if we can't do $\int_0^1 e^{-x^2} \, dx$!

- This is half of Example 4 in the text. There we found the integral $\sqrt{\pi}$ from $-\infty$ to $\infty$. But $e^{-x^2}$ is an even function - same value for $x$ and $-x$. Therefore the integral from 0 to $\infty$ is $\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\pi}$.

Read-throughs and selected even-numbered solutions:

We change variables to improve the limits of integration. The disk $x^2 + y^2 \leq 9$ becomes the rectangle $0 \leq r \leq 3$, $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$. The inner limits of $\int \int dy \, dx$ are $y = \pm \sqrt{9 - x^2}$. In polar coordinates this area integral becomes $\int \int r \, dr \, d\theta = 9\pi$.

A polar rectangle has sides $dr$ and $r \, d\theta$. Two sides are not straight but the angles are still $90^\circ$. The area between the circles $r = 1$ and $r = 3$ and the rays $\theta = 0$ and $\theta = \pi/4$ is $\frac{1}{8}(3^2 - 1^2) = 1$. The integral $\int \int x \, dy \, dx$...
14.3 Triple Integrals (page 540)

changes to \( \iint r^2 \cos \theta \, dr \, d\theta \). This is the moment around the \( y \) axis. Then \( \bar{x} \) is the ratio \( M_y/M \). This is the \( x \) coordinate of the centroid, and it is the average value of \( x \).

In a rotation through \( \alpha \), the point that reaches \((u, v)\) starts at \( x = u \cos \alpha - v \sin \alpha \), \( y = u \sin \alpha + v \cos \alpha \). A rectangle in the \( uv \) plane comes from a rectangle in \( xy \). The areas are equal so the stretching factor is \( J = 1 \). This is the determinant of the matrix 
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\
\sin \alpha & \cos \alpha
\end{bmatrix}
\]
. The moment of inertia \( \iiint x^2 \, dx \, dy \) changes to 
\[
\iiint (u \cos \alpha - v \sin \alpha)^2 \, du \, dv.
\]

For single integrals \( dx \) changes to \((dx/du) \, du\). For double integrals \( dx \, dy \) changes to \( J \, du \, dv \) with \( J = \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} \). The stretching factor \( J \) is the determinant of the 2 by 2 matrix 
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\
\sin \alpha & \cos \alpha
\end{bmatrix}
\]
. The functions \( x(u,v) \) and \( y(u,v) \) connect an \( xy \) region \( R \) to a \( uv \) region \( S \), and \( \iint_R dx \, dy = \iint_S J \, du \, dv \) = area of \( R \).

A rectangle in the \( uv \) plane comes from a parallelogram in \( xy \). In the opposite direction the change has \( u = x \) and \( v = \frac{1}{4} (y - x) \) and a new \( J = \frac{1}{4} \). This \( J \) is constant because this change of variables is linear.

2 Area = \( \int_{-\sqrt{2}/2}^{\sqrt{2}/2} \int_{-1-x^2}^{1-x^2} dy \, dx \) splits into two equal parts left and right of \( x = 0 \): 
\[
2 \int_{-\sqrt{2}/2}^{\sqrt{2}/2} (\sqrt{1 - x^2} - x) \, dx = \left[ x \sqrt{1 - x^2} + \sin^{-1} x - x^2 \right]_0^{\sqrt{2}/2} = \frac{\pi}{4}. \]

6 Area of wedge = \( \frac{b^2}{2} \pi a^2 \). Divide \( \int_0^b \int_0^a (r \cos \theta) r \, dr \, d\theta = \frac{a^3}{3} \sin b \) by this area \( \frac{b^2}{2} \pi a \) to find \( x = \frac{2a}{3b} \sin b \).

12 \( I_x = \int_{\pi/4}^{3\pi/4} \int_0^1 (r \sin \theta + \frac{\pi}{4})^2 r \, dr \, d\theta = \frac{1}{4} \int \sin^2 \theta \, d\theta + \frac{1}{2} \int \sin \theta \, d\theta = \frac{\pi}{16} - \frac{\sin 2\theta}{2} - \frac{1}{3} \cos \theta + \frac{\pi}{2} \int_0^{\pi/4} = \frac{5\pi}{16} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{4\sqrt{2}}{3} \). \( I_y = \int \int (r \cos \theta)^2 r \, dr \, d\theta = \frac{\pi}{16} - \frac{1}{6} \) (as in Problem 11); \( I_0 = I_x + I_y = \frac{5\pi}{8} + \frac{4\sqrt{2}}{3} \).

24 Problem 18 has \( J = \frac{1}{4} \) so the area of \( R \) is \( 1 \times \) area of unit square = 1.

Problem 20 has \( J = \frac{u}{2u} \), and integration over the square gives area of \( R = \int_0^1 (u^2 + v^2) \, du \, dv = \frac{4}{3} \). Check in \( x, y \) coordinates: area of \( R = 2 \int_0^1 (1 - x^2) \, dx = \frac{4}{3} \).

34 (a) False (forgot the stretching factor \( J \)) (b) False (\( x \) can be larger than \( x^2 \)) (c) False (forgot to divide by the area) (d) True (odd function integrated over symmetric interval) (e) False (the straight-sided region is a trapezoid: angle from 0 to \( \theta \) and radius from \( r_1 \) to \( r_2 \) yields area \( \frac{1}{2} (r_2^2 - r_1^2) \sin \theta \cos \theta \)).
This integral of "1" equals the volume of \( V \). Similarly \( \iiint x \, dV \) gives the moment. Divide by the volume for \( \bar{z} \).

As always, the limits are the hardest part. The inner integral of \( dz \) is \( z \). The limits depend on \( x \) and \( y \) (unless the top and bottom of the solid are flat). Then the middle integral is not \( \int dy = y \). We are not integrating "1" any more, when we reach the second integral. We are integrating \( z_{\text{top}} - z_{\text{bottom}} = \text{function of } x \) and \( y \). The limits give \( y \) as a function of \( x \). Then the outer integral is an ordinary \( x \)-integral (but it is not \( \int 1 \, dz \)).

1. Compute the triple integral \( \int_0^1 \int_0^x \int_0^y \, dz \, dy \, dx \). What solid volume does this equal?

- The inner integral is \( \int_0^y \, dz = y \). The middle integral is \( \int_0^x \, dy = \frac{1}{2} x^2 \). The outer integral is \( \int_0^1 \frac{1}{2} x^2 \, dz = \frac{1}{6} \). The \( y \)-integral goes across to the line \( y = x \) and the \( x \)-integral goes from 0 to 1.

- In the \( xy \) plane this gives a triangle (between the \( x \) axis and the \( 45^\circ \) line \( y = x \)). Then the \( z \)-integral goes up to the sloping plane \( z = y \). I think we have a tetrahedron — a pyramid with a triangular base and three triangular sides. Draw it.

Check: Volume of pyramid = \( \frac{1}{3} \) (base)(height) = \( \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)(1) = \frac{1}{6} \). This is one of the six solids in Problem 14.3.3. It is quickly described by \( 0 < z < y < x < 1 \). Can you see those limits in our triple integral?

2. Find the limits on \( \int \int \int \, dz \, dy \, dx \) for the volume between the surfaces \( x^2 + y^2 = 9 \) and \( x + z = 4 \) and \( z = 0 \). Describe those surfaces and the region \( V \) inside them.

- The inner integral is from \( z = 0 \) to \( z = 4 - x \). (Key point: We just solved \( x + z = 4 \) to find \( x \).) The middle integral is from \( y = -\sqrt{9 - x^2} \) to \( y = +\sqrt{9 - x^2} \). The outer integral is from \( x = -3 \) to \( x = +3 \).

Where did -3 and 3 come from? That is the smallest possible \( x \) and the largest possible \( x \), when we are inside the surface \( x^2 + y^2 = 9 \). This surface is a circular cylinder, a pipe around the \( z \) axis. It is chopped off by the horizontal plane \( z = 0 \) and the sloping plane \( x + z = 4 \). The triple integral turns out to give the volume \( 36\pi \).

If we change \( x + z = 4 \) to \( x^2 + z^2 = 4 \), we have a harder problem. The limits on \( x \) are \( \pm \sqrt{4 - z^2} \). But now \( x \) can't be as large as 3. The solid is now an intersection of cylinders. I don't know its volume.

Read-throughs and selected even-numbered solutions:

Six important solid shapes are a box, prism, cone, cylinder, tetrahedron, and sphere. The integral \( \iiint \, dz \, dy \, dx \) adds the volume \( dx \, dy \, dz \) of small boxes. For computation it becomes three single integrals.

The inner integral \( \int \, dx \) is the length of a line through the solid. The variables \( y \) and \( z \) are constant. The double integral \( \int \int \, dy \) is the area of a slice, with \( z \) held constant. Then the \( z \) integral adds up the volumes of slices.

If the solid region \( V \) is bounded by the planes \( x = 0, y = 0, z = 0, \) and \( x + 2y + 3z = 1 \), the limits on the inner \( x \) integral are \( 0 \) and \( 1 - 2y - 3z \). The limits on \( y \) are \( 0 \) and \( \frac{1}{3}(1 - 3z) \). The limits on \( z \) are \( 0 \) and \( \frac{1}{3} \). In the new variables \( u = x, v = 2y, w = 3z \), the equation of the outer boundary is \( u + v + w = 1 \). The volume of the tetrahedron in \( uvw \) space is \( \frac{1}{6} \). From \( dx = du \) and \( dy = dv/2 \) and \( dz = dw/3 \), the volume of an \( xyz \) box is \( dx \, dy \, dz = \frac{1}{6} du \, dv \, dw \). So the volume of \( V \) is \( \frac{1}{36} \).

To find the average height \( \bar{z} \) in \( V \) we compute \( \iiint z \, dV / \iiint \, dV \). To find the total mass if the density is \( \rho = e^x \) we compute the integral \( \iiint e^x \, dx \, dy \, dz \). To find the average density we compute \( \iiint e^x \, dV / \iiint \, dV \). In the order \( \iiint \, dx \, dz \, dy \) the limits on the inner integral can depend on \( x \) and \( y \). The limits on the middle integral can depend on \( y \). The outer limits for the ellipsoid \( x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2 \leq 8 \) are \( -2 \leq y \leq 2 \).

\[ 4 \int_0^1 \int_0^y \int_0^z 1 \, dx \, dy \, dz = \int_0^1 \int_0^z \frac{y^2}{2} \, dy \, dz = \int_0^1 \frac{z^3}{24} \, dz = \frac{1}{24} \. \] Divide by the volume \( \frac{1}{6} \) to find \( \bar{z} = \frac{1}{4} \).
14.4 Cylindrical and Spherical Coordinates (page 547)

I notice in Schaum's Outline that very few triple integrals use $dx\ dy\ dz$. Most use cylindrical or spherical coordinates. The small pieces have volume $dV = r\ dr\ d\theta\ dz$ when they are wedges from a cylinder — the base is $r\ dr\ d\theta$ and the height is $dz$. The pieces of spheres have volume $dV = \rho^2\sin\phi\ d\rho\ d\phi\ d\theta$. The reason for these coordinates is that many curved solids in practice have cylinders or spheres as boundary surfaces.

Notice that $r$ is $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and $\rho$ is $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$. Thus $r = 1$ is a cylinder and $\rho = 1$ is a sphere. For a cylinder on its side, you would still use $r\ dr\ d\theta$ but $dy$ would replace $dz$. Just turn the whole system.

1. Find the volume inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 16$ (or $r = 4$), above $z = 0$ and below $z = y$.

- The solid region is a wedge. It goes from $x = 0$ up to $x = y$. The base is half the disk of radius 4. It is not the whole disk, because when $y$ is negative we can't go "up to $z = y$." We can't be above $z = 0$ and below $z = y$, unless $y$ is positive — which puts the polar angle $\theta$ between $0$ and $\pi$. The volume integral seems to be

$$\int_0^4 \int_0^{\sqrt{16-x^2}} \int_0^y dz\ dy\ dx \quad \text{or} \quad \int_0^\pi \int_0^4 \int_0^r r\sin\theta\ dz\ dr\ d\theta.$$

The first gives $\int_0^4 \int_0^{\sqrt{16-x^2}} y\ dy\ dx = \int_0^4 \frac{1}{2} (16 - x^2)dx = \frac{64}{3}$. The second is $\int_0^\pi \int_0^4 r^2\sin\theta\ dr\ d\theta = \int_0^\pi \frac{64}{3} \sin\theta\ d\theta = \frac{64}{3} \cdot 2$. Which is right?

2. Find the average distance from the center of the unit ball $\rho \leq 1$ to all other points of the ball.

- We are looking for the average value of $\rho$, when $\rho$ goes between 0 and 1. But the average is not $\frac{1}{2}$. There is more volume for large $\rho$ than for small $\rho$. So the average $\bar{\rho}$ over the whole ball will be greater than $\frac{1}{2}$. The integral we want is

$$\bar{\rho} = \frac{1}{\text{volume}} \int \int \rho dV = \frac{1}{4\pi/3} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \int_0^1 \rho \cdot \rho^2 \sin\phi\ d\rho\ d\phi\ d\theta \neq \frac{3}{4\pi} \cdot \frac{1}{4} \cdot 2 \cdot 2\pi = \frac{3}{4}.$$

The integration was quick because $\int \rho^3\ d\rho = \frac{1}{4}$ separates from $\int \sin\phi\ d\phi = 2$ and $\int d\theta = 2\pi$.

The same separation gives the volume of the unit sphere as $(\int \rho^2\ d\rho = \frac{1}{2}) \times (\int \sin\phi\ d\phi = 2) \times (\int d\theta = 2\pi)$. The volume is $\frac{4\pi}{3}$. Notice that the angle $\phi$ from the North Pole has upper limit $\pi$ (not $2\pi$).
3. Find the centroid of the upper half of the unit ball. Symmetry gives $\bar{x} = \bar{y} = 0$. Compute $\bar{z}$.

- The volume is half of $\frac{4\pi}{3}$. The integral of $z \, dV$ (remembering $z = \rho \cos \phi$) is

$$
\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^1 \rho^2 \sin \phi \, d\rho \, d\phi \, d\theta = \int_0^{\pi/2} \rho^3 d\rho \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos \phi \sin \phi \, d\phi \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta = \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2\pi = \frac{\pi}{4}.
$$

Divide by the volume to find the average $\bar{z} = \frac{\pi}{4}/\frac{2\pi}{3} = \frac{3}{8}$. The ball goes up to $z = 1$, but it is fatter at the bottom so the centroid is below $z = \frac{1}{2}$. This time $\phi$ stops at $\pi/2$, the Equator.

The text explains Newton's famous result for the gravitational attraction of a sphere. The sphere acts as if all its mass were concentrated at the center. Problem 26 gives the proof.

Read-throughs and selected even-numbered solutions:

The three cylindrical coordinates are $r \theta z$. The point at $x = y = z = 1$ has $r = \sqrt{2}, \theta = \pi/4, z = 1$. The volume integral is $\iiint r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$. The solid region $1 < r < 2, 0 < \theta < 2\pi, 0 < z < 4$ is a hollow cylinder (a pipe). Its volume is $12\pi$. From the $r$ and $\theta$ integrals the area of a ring (or washer) equals $3\pi$. From the $z$ and $\theta$ integrals the area of a shell equals $2\pi rz$. In $r \theta z$ coordinates cylinders are convenient, while boxes are not.

The three spherical coordinates are $\rho \phi \theta$. The point at $x = y = z = 1$ has $\rho = \sqrt{3}, \phi = \cos^{-1}1/\sqrt{3}, \theta = \pi/4$. The curve $\rho = 1 - \cos \phi$ is a cardioid in the $xz$ plane (like $r = 1 - \cos \theta$ in the $xy$ plane). So we have a cardioid of revolution. Its volume is $\frac{8}{3}$ as in Problem 9.3.35.

26 Newton's achievement The cosine law (see hint) gives $\cos \alpha = \frac{D^2 + q^2 - r^2}{2qD}$. Then integrate $\frac{\cos \alpha}{q^2}$:

$$
\iiint \left( \frac{D^2 + q^2 - r^2}{2qD} \right) \, dV.\ 
$$

The second integral is $\frac{1}{2D} \int \int \frac{dv}{\sqrt{q}} = \frac{4\pi R^3/3}{2D^3}$. The first integral over $\phi$ uses the same $u = D^2 - 2\rho D \cos \phi + \rho^2 = q^2$ as in the text: $\int_0^\pi \frac{\sin \phi \, d\phi}{\sqrt{q}} = \int_0^R \frac{\sin \phi \, d\phi}{\sqrt{q}} = \int_0^\phi \frac{\sin \phi \, d\phi}{\sqrt{q}} = \frac{1}{\rho^2} \left( \frac{1}{D - \rho} - \frac{1}{D + \rho} \right) = \frac{1}{D(D^2 - \rho^2)}$. The $\theta$ integral gives $2\pi$ and then the $\rho$ integral is

$$
\int_0^R 2\pi \frac{\rho^2}{D(D^2 - \rho^2)} \cdot \frac{D^2 - \rho^2 - r^2}{2D} \, d\rho = \frac{4\pi R^3/3}{2D^3}.
$$

The two integrals give $\frac{4\pi R^3/3}{D^3}$ as Newton hoped and expected.

20}
14 Chapter Review Problems

Review Problems

R1 Integrate $1 + x + y$ over the triangle $R$ with corners (0,0) and (2,0) and (0,2).

R2 Integrate $\frac{x^2}{x^2 + y^2}$ over the unit circle using polar coordinates.

R3 Show that $\int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{y^2 - x^2}} x \sqrt{y^2 - x^2} \, dx \, dy = \frac{5}{4}$.

R4 Find the area $A_n$ between the curves $y = x^{n+1}$ and $y = x^n$. The limits on $x$ are 0 and 1. Draw $A_1$ and $A_2$ on the same graph. Explain why $A_1 + A_2 + A_3 + \cdots$ equals $\frac{1}{2}$.

R5 Convert $y = \sqrt{2x - x^2}$ to $r = 2 \cos \theta$. Show that $\int_0^2 \int_0^{\sqrt{2x - x^2}} x \, dx \, dy = \frac{\pi}{4}$ using polar coordinates.

R6 The polar curve $r = 2 \cos \theta$ is a unit circle. Find the average $\bar{r}$ for points inside. This is the average distance from points inside to the point (0,0) on the circle. (Answer: $\frac{1}{\text{area}} \iint r \, dA = \frac{32}{3\pi}$.)

R7 Sketch the region whose area is $\int_0^2 \int_y^{2y} \, dy \, dx$. Reverse the order of integration to $\int \int dx \, dy$.

R8 Write six different area triple integrals starting with $\iiint dx \, dy \, dz$ for the volume of the solid with $0 \leq x \leq 2y, 0 \leq z \leq 8$.

R9 Write six different area triple integrals beginning with $\iiint r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$ for the volume limited by $0 \leq r \leq z \leq 1$. Describe this solid.

Drill Problems

D1 The point with cylindrical coordinates $(2\pi, 2\pi, 2\pi)$ has $x = \ldots$, $y = \ldots$, $z = \ldots$.

D2 The point with spherical coordinates $(\pi \frac{\pi}{2}, \pi \frac{\pi}{2})$ has $x = \ldots$, $y = \ldots$, $z = \ldots$.

D3 Compute $\int_0^\infty \frac{e^{-x}}{\sqrt{x}} \, dx$ by substituting $u = \sqrt{x}$.

D4 Find the area of the ellipse $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ by substituting $u = \frac{x}{a}$ and $v = \frac{y}{b}$.

D5 Find $(x, y)$ for the infinite region under $y = e^{-x^2}$. Use page 535 and integration by parts.

D6 What integral gives the area between $x + y = 1$ and $r = 1$?

D7 Show that $\int \int_R e^{x^2 + y^2} \, dy \, dx = \frac{\pi}{2} (e - 1)$ when $R$ is the upper half of the unit circle.

D8 If the $xy$ axes are rotated by $30^\circ$, the point $(x, y) = (2, 4)$ has new coordinates $(u, v) = \ldots$.

D9 In Problem D8 explain why $x^2 + y^2 = u^2 + v^2$. Also explain $dx \, dy = du \, dv$.

D10 True or false: The centroid of a region is inside that region.