This chapter shows how to integrate functions of two or more variables. First, a
double integral is defined as the limit of sums. Second, we find a fast way to compute
it. The key idea is to replace a double integral by two ordinary “single” integrals.

The double integral \( \iiint f(x, y)dy
dx \) starts with \( \int f(x, y)dy \). For each fixed \( x \) we integ-
rate with respect to \( y \). The answer depends on \( x \). Now integrate again, this time with
respect to \( x \). The limits of integration need care and attention! Frequently those limits
on \( y \) and \( x \) are the hardest part.

Why bother with sums and limits in the first place? Two reasons. There has to be
a definition and a computation to fall back on, when the single integrals are difficult
or impossible. And also—this we emphasize—multiple integrals represent more than
area and volume. Those words and the pictures that go with them are the easiest to
understand. You can almost see the volume as a “sum of slices” or a “double sum of
thin sticks.” The true applications are mostly to other things, but the central idea is
always the same: Add up small pieces and take limits.

We begin with the area of \( R \) and the volume of \( V \), by double integrals.

A LIMIT OF SUMS

The graph of \( z = f(x, y) \) is a curved surface above the \( xy \) plane. At the point \((x, y)\) in
the plane, the height of the surface is \( z \). (The surface is above the \( xy \) plane only when
\( z \) is positive. Volumes below the plane come with minus signs, like areas below the
\( x \) axis.) We begin by choosing a positive function—for example \( z = 1 + x^2 + y^2 \).

The base of our solid is a region \( R \) in the \( xy \) plane. That region will be chopped
into small rectangles (sides \( \Delta x \) and \( \Delta y \)). When \( R \) itself is the rectangle \( 0 \leq x \leq 1,
0 \leq y \leq 2 \), the small pieces fit perfectly. For a triangle or a circle, the rectangles miss
part of \( R \). But they do fit in the limit, and any region with a piecewise smooth
boundary will be acceptable.

Question  What is the volume above \( R \) and below the graph of \( z = f(x, y) \)?
Answer  It is a double integral—the integral of \( f(x, y) \) over \( R \). To reach it we begin
with a sum, as suggested by Figure 14.1.
For single integrals, the interval \([a, b]\) is divided into short pieces of length \(\Delta x\). For double integrals, \(R\) is divided into small rectangles of area \(\Delta A = (\Delta x)(\Delta y)\). Above the \(i\)th rectangle is a "thin stick" with small volume. That volume is the base area \(\Delta A\) times the height above it—except that this height \(z = f(x, y)\) varies from point to point. Therefore we select a point \((x_i, y_i)\) in the \(i\)th rectangle, and compute the volume from the height above that point:

\[
\text{volume of one stick} = f(x_i, y_i)\Delta A \quad \text{volume of all sticks} = \sum f(x_i, y_i)\Delta A.
\]

This is the crucial step for any integral—to see it as a sum of small pieces.

Now take limits: \(\Delta x \to 0\) and \(\Delta y \to 0\). The height \(z = f(x, y)\) is nearly constant over each rectangle. (We assume that \(f\) is a continuous function.) The sum approaches a limit, which depends only on the base \(R\) and the surface above it. The limit is the volume of the solid, and it is the \textit{double integral} of \(f(x, y)\) over \(R\):

\[
\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0, \Delta y \to 0} \sum f(x_i, y_i)\Delta A.
\] (1)

To repeat: The limit is the same for all choices of the rectangles and the points \((x_i, y_i)\). The rectangles will not fit exactly into \(R\), if that base area is curved. The heights are not exact, if the surface \(z = f(x, y)\) is also curved. But the errors on the sides and top, where the pieces don’t fit and the heights are wrong, approach zero. Those errors are the volume of the "icing" around the solid, which gets thinner as \(\Delta x \to 0\) and \(\Delta y \to 0\). A careful proof takes more space than we are willing to give. But the properties of the integral need and deserve attention:

1. \textit{Linearity:} \(\iint (f + g) \, dA = \iint f \, dA + \iint g \, dA\)
2. \textit{Constant comes outside:} \(\iint cf(x, y) \, dA = c \iint f(x, y) \, dA\)
3. \(R\) splits into \(S\) and \(T\) (not overlapping): \(\iint f \, dA = \iint_S f \, dA + \iint_T f \, dA\).

In 1 the volume under \(f + g\) has two parts. The "thin sticks" of height \(f + g\) split into thin sticks under \(f\) and under \(g\). In 2 the whole volume is stretched upward by \(c\). In 3 the volumes are side by side. As with single integrals, these properties help in computations.

By writing \(dA\), we allow shapes other than rectangles. Polar coordinates have an extra factor \(r\) in \(dA = r \, dr \, d\theta\). By writing \(dx \, dy\), we choose rectangular coordinates and prepare for the splitting that comes now.
14.1 Double Integrals

SPLITTING A DOUBLE INTEGRAL INTO TWO SINGLE INTEGRALS

The double integral \( \iint f(x, y)dy \, dx \) will now be reduced to single integrals in \( y \) and then \( x \). (Or vice versa. Our first integral could equally well be \( \int f(x, y)dx \).) Chapter 8 described the same idea for solids of revolution. First came the area of a slice, which is a single integral. Then came a second integral to add up the slices. For solids formed by revolving a curve, all slices are circular disks—now we expect other shapes.

Figure 14.2 shows a slice of area \( A(x) \). It cuts through the solid at a fixed value of \( x \). The cut starts at \( y = c \) on one side of \( R \), and ends at \( y = d \) on the other side. This particular example goes from \( y = 0 \) to \( y = 2 \) (\( R \) is a rectangle). The area of a slice is the \( y \) integral of \( f(x, y) \). Remember that \( x \) is fixed and \( y \) goes from \( c \) to \( d \):

\[
A(x) = \text{area of slice} = \int_c^d f(x, y)dy \quad \text{(the answer is a function of } x)\]

**EXAMPLE 1**

\[
A = \int_0^2 (1 + x^2 + y^2)dy = \left[ y + x^2y + \frac{y^3}{3} \right]_{y=0}^{y=2} = 2 + 2x^2 + \frac{8}{3}.
\]

This is the reverse of a partial derivative! The integral of \( x^2 dy \), with \( x \) constant, is \( x^2 y \). This “partial integral” is actually called an **inner integral**. After substituting the limits \( y = 2 \) and \( y = 0 \) and subtracting, we have the area \( A(x) = 2 + 2x^2 + \frac{8}{3} \). Now the **outer integral** adds slices to find the volume \( \int A(x) \, dx \). The answer is a number:

\[
\text{volume} = \int_0^1 \left( 2 + 2x^2 + \frac{8}{3} \right)dx = \left[ 2x + \frac{2x^3}{3} + \frac{8}{3}x \right]_0^1 = 2 + \frac{2}{3} + \frac{8}{3} = \frac{16}{3}.
\]

Fig. 14.2 A slice of \( V \) at a fixed \( x \) has area \( A(x) = \int f(x, y)dy \).

To complete this example, check the volume when the \( x \) integral comes first:

inner integral \( = \int_0^1 (1 + x^2 + y^2)dx = \left[ x + \frac{1}{3}x^3 + y^2x \right]_{x=0}^{x=1} = \frac{4}{3} + y^2 \)

outer integral \( = \int_0^2 \left( \frac{4}{3} + y^2 \right)dy = \left[ \frac{4}{3}y + \frac{1}{3}y^3 \right]_{y=0}^{y=2} = \frac{8}{3} + \frac{8}{3} = \frac{16}{3}. \)

The fact that double integrals can be split into single integrals is **Fubini's Theorem**.

**Fubini's Theorem**

\[
\iint_R f(x, y)dA = \int_a^b \left[ \int_c^d f(x, y)dy \right] \, dx = \int_c^d \left[ \int_a^b f(x, y)dx \right] \, dy.
\]
The inner integrals are the cross-sectional areas $A(x)$ and $a(y)$ of the slices. The outer integrals add up the volumes $A(x)dx$ and $a(y)dy$. Notice the reversing of limits.

Normally the brackets in (2) are omitted. When the $y$ integral is first, $dy$ is written inside $dx$. The limits on $y$ are inside too. I strongly recommend that you compute the inner integral on one line and the outer integral on a separate line.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the volume below the plane $z = x - 2y$ and above the base triangle $R$.

The triangle $R$ has sides on the $x$ and $y$ axes and the line $x + y = 1$. The strips in the $y$ direction have varying lengths. (So do the strips in the $x$ direction.) This is the main point of the example—the base is not a rectangle. The upper limit on the inner integral changes as $x$ changes. The top of the triangle is at $y = 1 - x$.

Figure 14.3 shows the strips. The region should always be drawn (except for rectangles). Without a figure the limits are hard to find. A sketch of $R$ makes it easy:

$y$ goes from $c = 0$ to $d = 1 - x$. Then $x$ goes from $a = 0$ to $b = 1$.

The inner integral has variable limits and the outer integral has constant limits:

inner: $\int_{y=0}^{y=1-x} (x - 2y)dy = \left[ xy - y^2 \right]_{y=0}^{y=1-x} = x(1-x) - (1-x)^2 = -1 + 3x - 2x^2$

outer: $\int_{x=0}^{x=1} (-1 + 3x - 2x^2)dx = \left[ -x + \frac{3}{2}x^2 - \frac{2}{3}x^3 \right]_0^1 = -1 + \frac{3}{2} - \frac{2}{3} = -\frac{1}{6}$

The volume is negative. Most of the solid is below the $xy$ plane. To check the answer $-\frac{1}{6}$, do the $x$ integral first: $x$ goes from $0$ to $1 - y$. Then $y$ goes from $0$ to $1$.

inner: $\int_{x=0}^{x=1-y} (x - 2y)dx = \left[ \frac{1}{2}x^2 - 2xy \right]_0^{1-y} = \frac{1}{2}(1-y)^2 - 2(1-y)y = \frac{1}{2} - 3y + \frac{5}{2}y^2$

outer: $\int_{y=0}^{y=1} \left( \frac{1}{2} - 3y + \frac{5}{2}y^2 \right)dy = \left[ \frac{1}{2}y - \frac{3}{2}y^2 + \frac{5}{6}y^3 \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{3}{2} + \frac{5}{6} = -\frac{1}{6}$

Same answer, very probably right. The next example computes $\iint 1 \, dx \, dy =$ area of $R$.

**EXAMPLE 3** The area of $R$ is $\int_{x=0}^{x=1} \int_{y=0}^{y=1-x} dy \, dx$ and also $\int_{y=0}^{y=1} \int_{x=0}^{x=1-y} dx \, dy$.

The first has vertical strips. The inner integral equals $1 - x$. Then the outer integral (of $1 - x$) has limits 0 and 1, and the area is $\frac{1}{2}$. It is like an indefinite integral inside a definite integral.
EXAMPLE 4  Reverse the order of integration in \[ \int_{x=0}^{2} \int_{y=x^2}^{2x} x^3 dy \, dx. \]

Solution  Draw a figure! The inner integral goes from the parabola \( y = x^2 \) up to the straight line \( y = 2x \). This gives vertical strips. The strips sit side by side between \( x = 0 \) and \( x = 2 \). They stop where \( 2x \) equals \( x^2 \), and the line meets the parabola.

The problem is to put the \( x \) integral first. It goes along horizontal strips. On each line \( y = \) constant, we need the entry value of \( x \) and the exit value of \( x \). From the figure, \( x \) goes from \( \frac{1}{2} y \) to \( \sqrt{y} \). Those are the inner limits. Pay attention also to the outer limits, because they now apply to \( y \). The region starts at \( y = 0 \) and ends at \( y = 4 \). No change in the integrand \( x^3 \)—that is the height of the solid:

\[ \int_{x=0}^{2} \int_{y=0}^{x^2} x^3 dy \, dx \quad \text{is reversed to} \quad \int_{y=0}^{4} \int_{x=y/2}^{2} x^3 dx \, dy. \] (3)

EXAMPLE 5  Find the volume bounded by the planes \( x = 0 \), \( y = 0 \), \( z = 0 \), and \( 2x + y + z = 4 \).

Solution  The solid is a tetrahedron (four sides). It goes from \( z = 0 \) (the \( xy \) plane) up to the plane \( 2x + y + z = 4 \). On that plane \( z = 4 - 2x - y \). This is the height function \( f(x, y) \) to be integrated.

Figure 14.4 shows the base \( R \). To find its sides, set \( z = 0 \). The sides of \( R \) are the lines \( x = 0 \) and \( y = 0 \) and \( 2x + y = 4 \). Taking vertical strips, \( dy \) is inner:

inner: \[ \int_{y=0}^{4-2x} (4 - 2x - y) dy = \left[ (4 - 2x)y - \frac{1}{2} y^2 \right]_{0}^{4-2x} = \frac{1}{2} (4 - 2x)^2 \]

outer: \[ \int_{x=0}^{2} \frac{1}{2} (4 - 2x)^2 dx = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{(4 - 2x)^3}{3} \right]_{0}^{2} = \frac{16}{3} \]

Question  What is the meaning of the inner integral \( \frac{1}{2} (4 - 2x)^2 \) (and also \( \frac{16}{3} \))? 

Answer  The first is \( A(x) \), the area of the slice. \( \frac{16}{3} \) is the solid volume.

Question  What if the inner integral \( \int f(x, y) dy \) has limits that depend on \( y \)?

Answer  It can't. Those limits must be wrong. Find them again.

EXAMPLE 6  Find the mass in a semicircle \( 0 \leq y \leq \sqrt{1-x^2} \) if the density is \( \rho = y \).

This is a new application of double integrals. The total mass is a sum of small masses \( (\rho \times \Delta A) \) in rectangles of area \( \Delta A \). The rectangles don't fit perfectly inside the semicircle \( R \), and the density is not constant in each rectangle—but those problems
disappear in the limit. We are left with a double integral:

\[
\text{total mass } M = \iint_R \rho \, dA = \iint_R \rho(x, y) \, dx \, dy.
\]  

(4)

Set \( \rho = y \). Figure 14.4 shows the limits on \( x \) and \( y \) (try both \( dy \, dx \) and \( dx \, dy \)):

mass \( M = \int_{y=0}^{1} \int_{x=-y}^{1-y^2} y \, dy \, dx \) and also \( M = \int_{x=0}^{1} \int_{y=0}^{1-x} y \, dx \, dy \).

The first inner integral is \( \frac{1}{3} y^2 \). Substituting the limits gives \( \frac{1}{3} x^2 \).

The outer integral of \( (1 - x^2) \) yields the total mass \( M = \frac{3}{2} \).

The second inner integral is \( xy \). Substituting the limits on \( x \) gives \( \frac{1}{2} \). Then the outer integral is \( (1 - y^2) \frac{1}{2} \). Substituting \( y = 1 \) and \( y = 0 \) yields \( M = \frac{3}{2} \).

Remark: This same calculation also produces the moment around the \( x \) axis, when the density is \( \rho = 1 \). The factor \( y \) is the distance to the \( x \) axis. The moment is \( M_x = \frac{2}{3} \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{4}{3\pi} \).

This is the "average height" of points inside the semicircle, found earlier in 8.5.

EXAMPLE 7 Integrate \( \int_{y=0}^{1} \int_{x=0}^{1} \cos x^2 \, dy \, dx \) avoiding the impossible \( \int \cos x^2 \, dx \).

This is a famous example where reversing the order makes the calculation possible. The base \( R \) is the triangle in Figure 14.4 (note that \( x \) goes from \( y \) to 1).

In the opposite order \( y \) goes from \( 0 \) to \( x \). Then \( \int \cos x^2 \, dy = x \cos x^2 \) contains the factor \( x \) that we need:

outer integral: \( \int_{0}^{1} x \cos x^2 \, dx = \left[ \frac{1}{2} \sin x^2 \right]_{0}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \sin 1. \)

14.1 EXERCISES

Read-through questions

The double integral \( \iint_R f(x, y) \, dA \) gives the volume between \( R \) and \( _{b}^{a} \). The base is first cut into small \( _{b}^{a} \) of area \( \Delta A \).

The volume above the \( i \)th piece is approximately \( _{b}^{a} \). The limit of the sum \( _{b}^{a} \) is the volume integral. Three properties of double integrals are \( _{b}^{a} \) (linearity) and \( _{b}^{a} \) and \( _{b}^{a} \).

If \( R \) is the rectangle \( 0 \leq x \leq 4, 4 \leq y \leq 6 \), the integral \( \iint_R x \, dA \) can be computed two ways. One is \( \int_{x=0}^{4} \int_{y=0}^{6} x \, dy \, dx \), when the inner integral is \( _{b}^{a} \) = \( _{b}^{a} \). The outer integral gives \( _{b}^{a} \) = \( _{b}^{a} \). When the \( x \) integral comes first it equals \( \int_{x=0}^{4} \int_{y=0}^{6} y \, dx \, dy \). Then the \( y \) integral equals \( _{b}^{a} \). This is the volume between \( _{b}^{a} \) (describe \( V \)).

The area of \( R \) is \( \int_{x=0}^{4} \int_{y=0}^{6} \, dy \, dx \). When \( R \) is the triangle between \( x = 0, y = 2x, \) and \( y = 1 \), the inner limits on \( y \) are \( _{b}^{a} \). This is the length of a \( _{b}^{a} \) strip. The (outer) limits on \( x \) are \( _{b}^{a} \). The area is \( _{b}^{a} \). In the opposite order, the (inner) limits on \( x \) are \( _{b}^{a} \). Now the strip is \( _{b}^{a} \) and the outer integral is \( _{b}^{a} \). When the density is \( \rho(x, y) \), the total mass in the region \( R \) is \( \iint_R \rho \, dA \).

The moments are \( M_y = _{b}^{a} \) and \( M_x = _{b}^{a} \). The centroid has \( \bar{x} = \frac{M_y}{M}, \bar{y} = \frac{M_x}{M} \).

Compute the double integrals 1–4 by two integrations.

1 \[ \int_{x=0}^{1} \int_{y=0}^{2} x^2 \, dx \, dy \text{ and } \int_{y=0}^{1} \int_{x=0}^{2} y^2 \, dx \, dy \]

2 \[ \int_{y=0}^{2} \int_{x=1}^{2} xy \, dx \, dy \text{ and } \int_{y=1}^{e} \int_{x=0}^{2} dx \, dy \]

3 \[ \int_{0}^{\pi/2} \int_{0}^{\pi/2} \sin(x + y) \, dx \, dy \text{ and } \int_{0}^{\pi} \int_{0}^{2} dy \, dx \, (x + y) \]

4 \[ \int_{0}^{3} \int_{0}^{2} ye^{xy} \, dx \, dy \text{ and } \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{3} dy \, dx \, (\sqrt{3} + 2x + y) \]
14.2 Change to Better Coordinates

In 5–10, draw the region and compute the area.

5 \[ \int_{x=1}^{2} \int_{y=1}^{2x} dy \, dx \] 6 \[ \int_{0}^{1} \int_{x}^{2} dy \, dx \]

7 \[ \int_{0}^{1} \int_{-x^2}^{x} dy \, dx \] 8 \[ \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{x^2}^{1-x^2} dy \, dx \]

9 \[ \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{y^2}^{1} dy \, dx \]

10 \[ \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{x=y}^{1} dx \, dy \]

In 11–16 reverse the order of integration (and find the new limits) in 5–10 respectively.

In 17–24 find the limits on \( \int dy \, dx \) and \( \int dx \, dy \). Draw \( R \) and compute its area.

17 \( R \) = triangle inside the lines \( x = 0, y = 1, y = 2x \).
18 \( R \) = triangle inside the lines \( x = -1, y = 0, x + y = 0 \).
19 \( R \) = triangle inside the lines \( y = x, y = -x, y = 3 \).
20 \( R \) = triangle inside the lines \( y = x, y = 2x, y = 4 \).
21 \( R \) = triangle with vertices \((0, 0), (4, 4), (4, 8)\).
22 \( R \) = triangle with vertices \((0, 0), (-2, -1), (1, -2)\).
23 \( R \) = triangle with vertices \((0, 0), (2, 0), (1, b)\). Here \( b > 0 \).
24 \( R \) = triangle with vertices \((0, 0), (a, b), (c, d)\). The sides are \( y = bx/a, y = dx/c, \) and \( y = b + (x-a)(d-b)/(c-a)\). Find \( A = \iint dy \, dx \) when \( 0 < a < c, 0 < d < b \).

25 Evaluate \( \int_{a}^{b} \int_{0}^{x} \partial f/\partial y \, dx \, dy \).

26 Evaluate \( \int_{a}^{b} \int_{0}^{x} \partial f/\partial x \, dx \, dy \).

In 27–28, divide the unit square \( R \) into triangles \( S \) and \( T \) and verify \( \iint_S f \, dA = \iint_S f \, dA + \iint_T f \, dA \).

27 \( f(x, y) = 2x - 3y + 1 \) 28 \( f(x, y) = xe^y - ye^x \)

29 The area under \( y = f(x) \) is a single integral from \( a \) to \( b \) or a double integral (\( \text{find the limits} \)):

\[ \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx = \iint 1 \, dy \, dx. \]

30 Find the limits and the area under \( y = 1 - x^2 \):

\[ \int (1 - x^2) \, dx \] and \( \iint 1 \, dx \, dy \) (reversed from 29).

31 A city inside the circle \( x^2 + y^2 = 100 \) has population density \( p(x, y) = 10(100 - x^2 - y^2) \). Integrate to find its population.

32 Find the volume bounded by the planes \( x = 0, y = 0, z = 0, \) and \( ax + by + cz = 1 \).

In 33–34 the rectangle with corners \((1, 1), (1, 3), (2, 1), (2, 3)\) has density \( p(x, y) = x^2 \). The moments are \( M_x = \iint x \, p \, dA \) and \( M_y = \iint y \, p \, dA \).

33 Find the mass.

34 Find the center of mass.

In 35–36 the region is a circular wedge of radius 1 between the lines \( y = x \) and \( y = -x \).

35 Find the area.

36 Find the centroid \((\bar{x}, \bar{y})\).

37 Write a program to compute \( \iint_R f(x, y) \, dx \, dy \) by the midpoint rule (midpoints of \( n^2 \) small squares). Which \( f(x, y) \) are integrated exactly by your program?

38 Apply the midpoint code to integrate \( x^2 \) and \( xy \) and \( y^2 \). The errors decrease like what power of \( \Delta x = \Delta y = 1/n \)?

Use the program to compute the volume under \( f(x, y) \) in 39–42. Check by integrating exactly or doubling \( n \).

39 \( f(x, y) = 3x + 4y + 5 \) 40 \( f(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \)

41 \( f(x, y) = x^y \) 42 \( f(x, y) = e^x \sin y \)

43 In which order is \( \iint x^2 \, dx \, dy \) and \( \iint x^2 \, dy \, dx \) easier to integrate over the square \( 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1 \)? By reversing order, integrate \( (x-1)/\ln x \) from 0 to 1 — its antiderivative is unknown.

44 Explain in your own words the definition of the double integral of \( f(x, y) \) over the region \( R \).

45 \( \sum y_i \Delta A \) might not approach \( \iint y \, dA \) if we only know that \( \Delta A \to 0 \). In the square \( 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1 \), take rectangles of sides \( \Delta x \) and \( \Delta y \) (not \( \Delta x \) and \( \Delta y \)). If \((x_i, y_i)\) is a point in the rectangle where \( y_i = 1 \), then \( \sum y_i \Delta A = \ldots \). But \( \iint y \, dA = \ldots \).

You don't go far with double integrals before wanting to change variables. Many regions simply do not fit with the \( x \) and \( y \) axes. Two examples are in Figure 14.5, a tilted square and a ring. Those are excellent shapes — in the right coordinates.
14 Multiple Integrals

We have to be able to answer basic questions like these:

Find the area \( \iint dA \) and moment \( \iint x \, dA \) and moment of inertia \( \iint x^2 \, dA \).

The problem is: What is \( dA \)? We are leaving the \( xy \) variables where \( dA = dx \, dy \).

The reason for changing is this: The limits of integration in the \( y \) direction are miserable. I don't know them and I don't want to know them. For every \( x \) we would need the entry point \( P \) of the line \( x = \) constant, and the exit point \( Q \). The heights of \( P \) and \( Q \) are the limits on \( \int dy \), the inner integral. The geometry of the square and ring are totally missed, if we stick rigidly to \( x \) and \( y \).

Which coordinates are better? Any sensible person agrees that the area of the tilted square is 1. "Just turn it and the area is obvious." But that sensible person may not know the moment or the center of gravity or the moment of inertia. So we actually have to do the turning.

The new coordinates \( u \) and \( v \) are in Figure 14.6a. The limits of integration on \( v \) are 0 and 1. So are the limits on \( u \). But when you change variables, you don't just change limits. Two other changes come with new variables:

1. The small area \( dA = dx \, dy \) becomes \( dA = \ldots du \, dv \).
2. The integral of \( x \) becomes the integral of \( \ldots \).

Substituting \( u = \sqrt{x} \) in a single integral. We make the same changes. Limits \( x = 0 \) and \( x = 4 \) become \( u = 0 \) and \( u = 2 \). Since \( x \) is \( u^2 \), \( dx \) is \( 2u \, du \). The purpose of the change is to find an antiderivative. For double integrals, the usual purpose is to improve the limits—but we have to accept the whole package.

To turn the square, there are formulas connecting \( x \) and \( y \) to \( u \) and \( v \). The geometry is clear—rotate axes by \( x \)—but it has to be converted into algebra:

\[
\begin{align*}
  u &= x \cos z + y \sin z \\
  v &= -x \sin z + y \cos z
\end{align*}
\]

and in reverse

\[
\begin{align*}
  x &= u \cos z - v \sin z \\
  y &= u \sin z + v \cos z
\end{align*}
\] (1)

Figure 14.6 shows the rotation. As points move, the whole square turns. A good way to remember equation (1) is to follow the corners as they become \((1, 0)\) and \((0, 1)\).

The change from \( \iint x \, dA \) to \( \iint \ldots du \, dv \) is partly decided by equation (1). It gives \( x \) as a function of \( u \) and \( v \). We also need \( dA \). For a pure rotation the first guess is correct: The area \( dx \, dy \) equals the area \( du \, dv \). For most changes of variable this is false. The general formula for \( dA \) comes after the examples.
14.2 Change to Better Coordinates

Example 1 Find $\iint dA$ and $\iint x \, dA$ and $x$ and also $\iint x^2 \, dA$ for the tilted square.

Solution The area of the square is $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 du \, dv = 1$. Notice the good limits. Then

$$\iint x \, dA = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (u \cos x - v \sin z) \, du \, dv = \frac{1}{2} \cos x - \frac{1}{2} \sin z.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

This is the moment around the $y$ axis. The factors $\frac{1}{2}$ come from $\frac{1}{2}u^2$ and $\frac{1}{2}v^2$. The $x$ coordinate of the center of gravity is

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\iint x \, dA}{\iint dA} = \frac{1}{2} \cos x - \frac{1}{2} \sin z.$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

Similarly the integral of $y$ leads to $\bar{y}$. The answer is no mystery—the point $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ is at the center of the square! Substituting $x = u \cos x - v \sin z$ made $x \, dA$ look worse, but the limits 0 and 1 are much better.

The moment of inertia $I_x$ around the $y$ axis is also simplified:

$$\iint x^2 \, dA = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (u \cos x - v \sin z)^2 \, du \, dv = \frac{\cos^2 x}{3} - \frac{\cos x \sin x}{2} + \frac{\sin^2 x}{3}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

You know this next fact but I will write it anyway: The answers don't contain $u$ or $v$. Those are dummy variables like $x$ and $y$. The answers do contain $z$, because the square has turned. (The area is fixed at 1.) The moment of inertia $I_x = \iint y^2 \, dA$ is the same as equation (3) but with all plus signs.

Question The sum $I_x + I_y$ simplifies to $\frac{1}{2}$ (a constant). Why no dependence on $x$?

Answer $I_x + I_y$ equals $I_0$. This moment of inertia around $(0, 0)$ is unchanged by rotation. We are turning the square around one of its corners.

Change to Polar Coordinates

The next change is to $r$ and $\theta$. A small area becomes $dA = r \, dr \, d\theta$ (definitely not $dr \, d\theta$). Area always comes from multiplying two lengths, and $d\theta$ is not a length. Figure 14.7 shows the crucial region—a “polar rectangle” cut out by rays and circles. Its area $\Delta A$ is found in two ways, both leading to $r \, dr \, d\theta$:

(Approximate) The straight sides have length $\Delta r$. The circular arcs are close to $r \Delta \theta$. The angles are 90°. So $\Delta A$ is close to $(\Delta r)(r \Delta \theta)$.

(Exact) A wedge has area $\frac{1}{2} r^2 \Delta \theta$. The difference between wedges is $\Delta A$:

$$\Delta A = \frac{1}{2} \left( r + \frac{\Delta r}{2} \right)^2 \Delta \theta - \frac{1}{2} \left( r - \frac{\Delta r}{2} \right)^2 \Delta \theta = r \, \Delta r \, \Delta \theta.$$
14 Multiple Integrals

The exact method places $r$ dead center (see figure). The approximation says: Forget the change in $r \Delta \theta$ as you move outward. Keep only the first-order terms.

A third method is coming, which requires no picture and no geometry. Calculus always has a third method! The change of variables $x = r \cos \theta$, $y = r \sin \theta$ will go into a general formula for $dA$, and out will come the area $r \, dr \, d\theta$.

![Fig. 14.7 Ring and polar rectangle in $xy$ and $r\theta$, with stretching factor $r = 4.5$.](image)

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the area and center of gravity of the ring. Also find $\iint x^2 \, dA$.

**Solution** The limits on $r$ are 4 and 5. The limits on $\theta$ are 0 and $2\pi$. Polar coordinates are perfect for a ring. Compared with limits like $x = \sqrt{25 - y^2}$, the change to $r \, dr \, d\theta$ is a small price to pay:

$$\text{area} = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_4^5 r \, dr \, d\theta = 2\pi \left[ \frac{1}{2} r^2 \right]_4^5 = \pi 5^2 - \pi 4^2 = 9\pi.$$

The $\theta$ integral is $2\pi$ (full circle). Actually the ring is a giant polar rectangle. We could have used the exact formula $r \, Ar \, AO$, with $AO = 2\pi$ and $Ar = 5 - 4$. When the radius $r$ is centered at 4.5, the product $r \, Ar \, AO$ is $(4.5)(1)(2\pi) = 9\pi$ as above.

Since the ring is symmetric around $(0, 0)$, the integral of $x \, dA$ must be zero:

$$\iint x \, dA = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^4 (r \cos \theta) r \, dr \, d\theta = \left[ \frac{1}{4} r^4 \right]_0^4 \left[ \sin \theta \right]_0^{2\pi} = 0.$$

Notice $r \cos \theta$ from $x$—the other $r$ is from $dA$. The moment of inertia is

$$\iint r^2 \cos^2 \theta \, r \, dr \, d\theta = \frac{1}{4} \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 \theta \, d\theta = \frac{1}{4} (2\pi - 0) = \pi.$$

This $\theta$ integral is $\pi$ not $2\pi$, because the average of $\cos^2 \theta$ is $\frac{1}{2}$ not 1.

For reference here are the moments of inertia when the density is $\rho(x, y)$:

$$I_y = \iint r^2 \, dA \quad I_x = \iint y^2 \, dA \quad I_o = \iint \rho \, dA = \text{polar moment} = I_x + I_y \quad (4)$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Find masses and moments for semicircular plates: $\rho = 1$ and $\rho = 1 - r$.

**Solution** The semicircles in Figure 14.8 have $r = 1$. The angle goes from 0 to $\pi$ (the upper half-circle). Polar coordinates are best. The **mass is the integral of the density** $\rho$:

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

and

$$M = \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^1 (1 - r) r \, dr \, d\theta = \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) (\pi).$$
14.2 Change to Better Coordinates

The first mass \( \pi/2 \) equals the area (because \( \rho = 1 \)). The second mass \( \pi/6 \) is smaller (because \( \rho < 1 \)). Integrating \( \rho = 1 \) is the same as finding a volume when the height is \( z = 1 \) (part of a cylinder). Integrating \( \rho = 1 - r \) is the same as finding a volume when the height is \( z = 1 - r \) (part of a cone). Volumes of cones have the extra factor \( \frac{1}{2} \).

The center of gravity involves the moment \( M_x = \iint y \rho \, dA \). The distance from the x axis is \( y \), the mass of a small piece \( \rho \, dA \), integrate to add mass times distance. Polar coordinates are still best, with \( y = r \sin \theta \).

\[
\int y \, dA = \int_0^\pi \int_0^1 r \sin \theta \, r \, dr \, d\theta = \frac{2}{3} \quad \int y(1-r) \, dA = \int_0^\pi \int_0^1 r \sin \theta (1-r) \, r \, dr \, d\theta = \frac{1}{6}.
\]

The height of the center of gravity is \( \bar{y} = M_x/M \) = moment divided by mass:

\[
\bar{y} = \frac{2/3}{\pi/2} = \frac{4}{3\pi} \quad \text{when} \quad \rho = 1 \quad \bar{y} = \frac{1/6}{\pi/6} = \frac{1}{\pi} \quad \text{when} \quad \rho = 1 - r.
\]

**Fig. 14.8** Semicircles with density piled above them.

**Fig. 14.9** Bell-shaped curve.

**Question** Compare \( \bar{y} \) for \( \rho = 1 \) and \( \rho = \) other positive constants and \( \rho = 1 - r \).

Answer Any constant \( \rho \) gives \( \bar{y} = 4/3\pi \). Since \( 1 - r \) is dense at \( r = 0 \), \( \bar{y} \) drops to \( 1/\pi \).

**Question** How is \( \bar{y} = 4/3\pi \) related to the “average” of \( y \) in the semicircle?

Answer They are identical. This is the point of \( \bar{y} \). Divide the integral by the area:

\[
The \text{average value of a function is} \quad \bar{y} = \frac{\iint f(x, y) \, dA}{\iint dA}. \quad (5)
\]

The integral of \( f \) is divided by the integral of \( 1 \) (the area). In one dimension \( \int_a^b v(x) \, dx \) was divided by \( \int_a^b 1 \, dx \) (the length \( b-a \)). That gave the average value of \( v(x) \) in Section 5.6. Equation (5) is the same idea for \( f(x, y) \).

**EXAMPLE 4** Compute \( A = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} \, dx = \sqrt{\pi} \) from \( A^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} \, dx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2} \, dy = \pi \).

\( A \) is the area under a “bell-shaped curve”—see Figure 14.9. This is the most important definite integral in the study of probability. It is difficult because a factor \( 2x \) is not present. Integrating \( 2xe^{-x^2} \) gives \( -e^{-x^2} \), but integrating \( e^{-x^2} \) is impossible—except approximately by a computer. How can we hope to show that \( A \) is exactly \( \sqrt{\pi} \)?

The trick is to go from an area integral \( A \) to a volume integral \( A^2 \). This is unusual (and hard to like), but the end justifies the means:

\[
A^2 = \int_{x=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{y=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} e^{-y^2} \, dy \, dx = \int_{\theta=0}^{2\pi} \int_{r=0}^{\infty} e^{-r^2} r \, dr \, d\theta. \quad (6)
\]

The double integrals cover the whole plane. The \( r^2 \) comes from \( x^2 + y^2 \), and the key factor \( r \) appears in polar coordinates. It is now possible to substitute \( u = r^2 \). The \( r \) integral is \( \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} \, du = \frac{1}{2} \). The \( \theta \) integral is \( 2\pi \). The double integral is \( (\frac{1}{2})(2\pi) \). Therefore \( A^2 = \pi \) and the single integral is \( A = \sqrt{\pi} \).
EXAMPLE 5  Apply Example 4 to the "normal distribution" \( p(x) = e^{-x^2/2\sqrt{2\pi}} \).

Section 8.4 discussed probability. It emphasized the importance of this particular \( p(x) \). At that time we could not verify that \( \int p(x) \, dx = 1 \). Now we can:

\[
x = \sqrt{2}y \quad \text{yields} \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2/2} \, dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2} \, dy = 1.
\]

**Question** Why include the 2's in \( p(x) \)? The integral of \( e^{-x^2/\sqrt{\pi}} \) also equals 1.

**Answer** With the 2's the "variance" is \( \int x^2 \, p(x) \, dx = 1 \). This is a convenient number.

**CHANGE TO OTHER COORDINATES**

A third method was promised, to find \( r \, dr \, d\theta \) without a picture and without geometry. The method works directly from \( x = r \cos \theta \) and \( y = r \sin \theta \). It also finds the 1 in \( du \, dv \), after a rotation of axes. Most important, this new method finds the factor \( J \) in the area \( dA = J \, du \, dv \), for any change of variables. The change is from \( xy \) to \( uv \).

For single integrals, the "stretching factor" \( J \) between the original \( dx \) and the new \( du \) is (not surprisingly) the ratio \( dx/du \). Where we have \( dx \), we write \( (dx/du) \, du \). Where we have \( (du/dx) \, dx \), we write \( du \). That was the idea of substitutions—the main way to simplify integrals.

For double integrals the stretching factor appears in the area: \( dx \, dy \) becomes \( |J| \, du \, dv \). The old and new variables are related by \( x = x(u, v) \) and \( y = y(u, v) \). The point with coordinates \( u \) and \( v \) comes from the point with coordinates \( x \) and \( y \). A whole region \( S \), full of points in the \( uv \) plane, comes from the region \( R \) full of corresponding points in the \( xy \) plane. A small piece with area \( |J| \, du \, dv \) comes from a small piece with area \( dx \, dy \). The formula for \( J \) is a two-dimensional version of \( dx/du \).

\[
\text{The stretching factor for area is the 2 by 2 Jacobian determinant } \ J(u, v): \quad J = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} - \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}.
\]

An integral over \( R \) in the \( xy \) plane becomes an integral over \( S \) in the \( uv \) plane:

\[
\iint_R f(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \iint_S f(x(u, v), y(u, v)) |J| \, du \, dv. \tag{9}
\]

The determinant \( J \) is often written \( \partial(x, y)/\partial(u, v) \), as a reminder that this stretching factor is like \( dx/du \). We require \( J \neq 0 \). That keeps the stretching and shrinking under control.

You naturally ask: Why take the absolute value \( |J| \) in equation (9)? Good question—it wasn’t done for single integrals. The reason is in the limits of integration. The single integral \( \int_0^1 dx \) is \( \int_0^{-1} (-du) \) after changing \( x \) to \(-u\). We keep the minus sign and allow single integrals to run backward. Double integrals could too, but normally they go left to right and down to up. We use the absolute value \( |J| \) and run forward.

EXAMPLE 6  Polar coordinates have \( x = u \cos v = r \cos \theta \) and \( y = u \sin v = r \sin \theta \).

With no geometry:

\[
J = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{vmatrix} = r. \tag{10}
\]
**EXAMPLE 7** Find $J$ for the linear change to $x = au + bv$ and $y = cu + dv$.

Ordinary determinant:

$$J = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc. \quad (11)$$

Why make this simple change, in which $a, b, c, d$ are all constant? It straightens parallelograms into squares (and rotates those squares). Figure 14.10 is typical.

Common sense indicated $J = 1$ for pure rotation—no change in area. Now $J = 1$ comes from equations (1) and (11), because $ad - bc$ is $\cos^2 \alpha + \sin^2 \alpha$.

In practice, $xy$ rectangles generally go into $uv$ rectangles. The sides can be curved (as in polar rectangles) but the angles are often $90^\circ$. The change is "orthogonal." The next example has angles that are not $90^\circ$, and $J$ still gives the answer.

![Fig. 14.10 Change from $xy$ to $uv$ has $J = \frac{1}{3}$.

**EXAMPLE 8** Find the area of $R$ in Figure 14.10. Also compute $\iint_R e^x dx dy$.

Solution The figure shows $x = \frac{3}{2}u + \frac{1}{2}v$ and $y = \frac{1}{2}u + \frac{3}{2}v$. The determinant is

$$J = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 2/3 & 1/3 \\ 1/3 & 2/3 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{4}{9} - \frac{1}{9} = \frac{1}{3}.$$

The area of the $xy$ parallelogram becomes an integral over the $uv$ square:

$$\iint_R e^x dx dy = \iint_S |J| du dv = \int_0^1 \int_0^3 \frac{1}{3} du dv = \frac{1}{3} \cdot 3 = 3.$$ 

The square has area 9, the parallelogram has area 3. I don't know if $J = \frac{1}{3}$ is a stretching factor or a shrinking factor. The other integral $\iint_R e^x dx dy$ is

$$\int_0^3 \int_0^3 e^{2u^2 + v^2} \frac{1}{3} du dv = \left[ \frac{3}{2} e^{2u^2} \right]_0^3 \left[ \frac{1}{3} e^{v^2} \right]_0^3 = \frac{3}{2} (e^2 - 1)(e - 1).$$

Main point: The change to $u$ and $v$ makes the limits easy (just 0 and 3).

Why is the stretching factor $J$ a determinant? With straight sides, this goes back to Section 11.3 on vectors. The area of a parallelogram is a determinant. Here the sides are curved, but that only produces $(du)^2$ and $(dv)^2$, which we ignore.

A change $du$ gives one side of Figure 14.11—it is $(\partial x/\partial u i + \partial y/\partial u j)du$. Side 2 is $(\partial x/\partial v i + \partial y/\partial v j)dv$. The curving comes from second derivatives. The area (the cross product of the sides) is $|J| du dv$. 

![Fig. 14.11 Curved areas are also $dA = |J| du dv$.]
14 Multiple Integrals

Final remark I can’t resist looking at the change in the reverse direction. Now the rectangle is in xy and the parallelogram is in uv. In all formulas, exchange x for u and y for v:

\[ new J = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{\partial (u, v)}{\partial (x, y)} = \frac{1}{old J}. \]  

(12)

This is exactly like \( du/dx = 1/(dx/du) \). It is the derivative of the inverse function. The product of slopes is 1—stretched out, shrink back. From xy to uv we have 2 by 2 matrices, and the identity matrix \( I \) takes the place of 1:

\[ \frac{dx}{du} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \]  

(13)

The first row times the first column is \( (\partial x/\partial u)(\partial u/\partial x) + (\partial x/\partial v)(\partial v/\partial x) = \partial x/\partial x = 1 \).

The first row times the second column is \( (\partial x/\partial u)(\partial u/\partial y) + (\partial x/\partial v)(\partial v/\partial y) = \partial x/\partial y = 0 \). \textbf{The matrices are inverses of each other.} The determinants of a matrix and its inverse obey our rule: old \( J \) times new \( J = \text{constant} \) because this change of variables is a change of variables. In two dimensions, an area \( dx \, dy \) goes to \( J \, du \, dv \) and comes back to \( dx \, dy \).

14.2 Exercises

Read-through questions

We change variables to improve the _area_ of integration.

The disk \( x^2 + y^2 \leq 9 \) becomes the rectangle \( 0 \leq r \leq 3, 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi \). The inner limits on \( \int \int dy \, dx \) are \( y = \pm \frac{3}{2} \). In polar coordinates this area integral becomes \( \int \int_0^\pi \frac{3}{2} \, r \, dr \, d\theta \).

A polar rectangle has sides \( dr \) and \( \theta \). Two sides are not \( u \) but the angles are still \( \theta \). The area between the circles \( r = 1 \) and \( r = 3 \) and the rays \( \theta = 0 \) and \( \theta = \pi/4 \) is \( \frac{\pi}{2} \). The integral \( \int \int x \, dy \, dx \) changes to \( \int \int x \, r \, dr \, d\theta \). This is the integral around the \( \theta \) axis. Then \( x \) is the ratio \( \frac{1}{r} \). This is the \( x \) coordinate of the \( \theta \), and it is the \( \theta \) value of \( x \).

In a rotation through \( \theta \), 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 \( _{\text{rectangle}} \) in \( xy \). The areas are \( _{\text{same}} \) so the stretching factor is \( J = \frac{1}{\text{rectangle}} \). This is the determinant of the matrix \( \begin{bmatrix} u & -v \\ v & u \end{bmatrix} \) containing \( \cos \alpha \) and \( \sin \alpha \). The moment of inertia \( \int \int x^2 \, dx \, dy \) changes to \( \int \int \frac{1}{r^2} \, du \, dv \).

For single integrals \( dx \) changes to \( u \). For double integrals \( dx \, dy \) changes to \( J \, du \, dv \) with \( J = x \). The stretching factor \( J \) is the determinant of the 2 by 2 matrix \( \begin{bmatrix} u & v \\ v & u \end{bmatrix} \). The functions \( f(u, v) \) and \( g(u, v) \) connect an \( xy \) region \( R \) to a \( uv \) region \( S \), and \( \int \int R \, dy \, dx = \int \int S \, r \, dr \, d\theta \) = area of \( \Delta \).

For polar coordinates \( x = u \cos \theta, y = u \sin \theta \) the 2 by 2 determinant is \( J = u \). A square in the \( uv \) plane comes from a \( _{\text{rectangle}} \) in \( xy \). In the opposite direction the change has \( u = x \) and \( v = \frac{1}{2}(y - x) \) and a new \( J = \frac{1}{2} \). This \( J \) is constant because this change of variables is _G_.

In 1–12 \( R \) is a pie-shaped wedge: \( 0 \leq r \leq 1 \) and \( \pi/4 \leq \theta \leq 3\pi/4 \).

1. What is the area of \( R \)? Check by integration in polar coordinates.

2. Find limits on \( \int \int dy \, dx \) to yield the area of \( R \), and integrate. \textit{Extra credit:} Find limits on \( \int \int dx \, dy \).

3. Equation (1) with \( \alpha = \pi/4 \) rotates \( R \) into the \( uv \) region \( S = \square \). Find limits on \( \int \int du \, dv \).

4. Compute the centroid height \( \bar{y} \) of \( R \) by changing \( \int \int y \, x \, dx \, dy \) to polar coordinates. Divide by the area of \( R \).

5. The region \( R \) has \( \bar{x} = 0 \) because _rectangle_. After rotation through \( \alpha = \pi/4 \), the centroid \((\bar{x}, \bar{y})\) of \( R \) becomes the centroid _area_ of \( S \).

6. Find the centroid of any wedge \( 0 \leq r \leq a, 0 \leq \theta \leq b \).

7. Suppose \( R^* \) is the wedge \( R \) moved up so that the sharp point is at \( x = 0, y = 1 \).

(a) Find limits on \( \int \int dy \, dx \) to integrate over \( R^* \).

(b) With \( x^* = x \) and \( y^* = y - 1 \), the \( xy \) region \( R^* \) corresponds to what region in the \( x^* \, y^* \) plane?

(c) After that change \( dx \, dy \) equals _rectangle_ \( dx \, dy^* \).

8. Find limits on \( \int \int r \, dr \, d\theta \) to integrate over \( R^* \) in Problem 7.

9. The right coordinates for \( R^* \) are \( r^* \) and \( \theta^* \), with \( x = r^* \cos \theta^* \) and \( y = r^* \sin \theta^* + 1 \).

(a) Show that \( J = r^* \) so \( dA = r^* \, dr^* \, d\theta^* \).

(b) Find limits on \( \int \int r^* \, dr^* \, d\theta^* \) to integrate over \( R^* \).
10 If the centroid of $R$ is $(0, \bar{y})$, the centroid of $R^*$ is ______. The centroid of the circle with radius 3 and center $(1, 2)$ is ______. The centroid of the upper half of that circle is ______.

11 The moments of inertia $I_x, I_y, I_0$ of the original wedge $R$ are ______.

12 The moments of inertia $I_x, I_y, I_0$ of the shifted wedge $R^*$ are ______.

### Problems 13-16 change four-sided regions to squares.

13 $R$ has straight sides $y = 2x, x = 1, y = 1 + 2x, x = 0$. Locate its four corners and draw $R$. Find its area by geometry.

14 Choose $a, b, c, d$ so that the change $x = au + bv, y = cu + dv$ takes the previous $R$ into $S$, the unit square with corners $(0, 0), (1, 0), (0, 1), (1, 1)$. From the stretching factor $J = ad - bc$ find the area of $R$.

15 The region $R$ has straight sides $x = 0, x = 1, y = 0, y = 2x + 3$. Choose $a, b, c$ so that $x = au + bv, y = cu + dv$ change $R$ to the unit square $S$.

16 A nonlinear term $uv$ was needed in Problem 15. Which regions $R$ could change to the square $S$ with a linear $x = au + bv, y = cu + dv$?

**Draw the $xy$ region $R$ that corresponds in 17-22 to the $uv$ square $S$ with corners $(0, 0), (1, 0), (0, 1), (1, 1)$. Locate the corners of $R$ and then its sides (like a jigsaw puzzle).**

17 $x = 2u + v, y = u + 2v$

18 $x = 3u + 2v, y = u + v$

19 $x = e^{au + v}, y = e^{bu + v}$

20 $x = uv, y = u^2 - v^2$

21 $x = u, y = u(1 + u^2)$

22 $x = u \cos v, y = u \sin v$ (only three corners)

23 In Problems 17 and 19, compute $J$ from equation (8). Then find the area of $R$ from $\iiint_S f(u, v) \, du \, dv$.

24 In 18 and 20, find $J = \partial(x, y) / \partial(u, v)$ and the area of $R$.

25 If $R$ lies between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$ under the graph of $y = f(x) > 0$, then $u = x, y = sf(u)$ takes $R$ to the unit square $S$. Locate the corners of $R$ and the point corresponding to $u = \frac{1}{2}, v = 1$. Compute $J$ to prove what we know:

$$\text{area of } R = \int_0^1 f(x) \, dx = \int_0^1 J \, du \, dv.$$